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LUSHOOTSEED READER

WITH

INTRODUCTORY GRAMMAR

Volume I

Four Stories from Edward Sam

THOM HESS





This snapshot of Edward Sam with Ethel Kitsap Sam is the only photograph of Mr. Sam known to exist.
Provided by William Edward (s^oadacut) Sam, his nephew and foster son.

LUSHOOTSEED READER

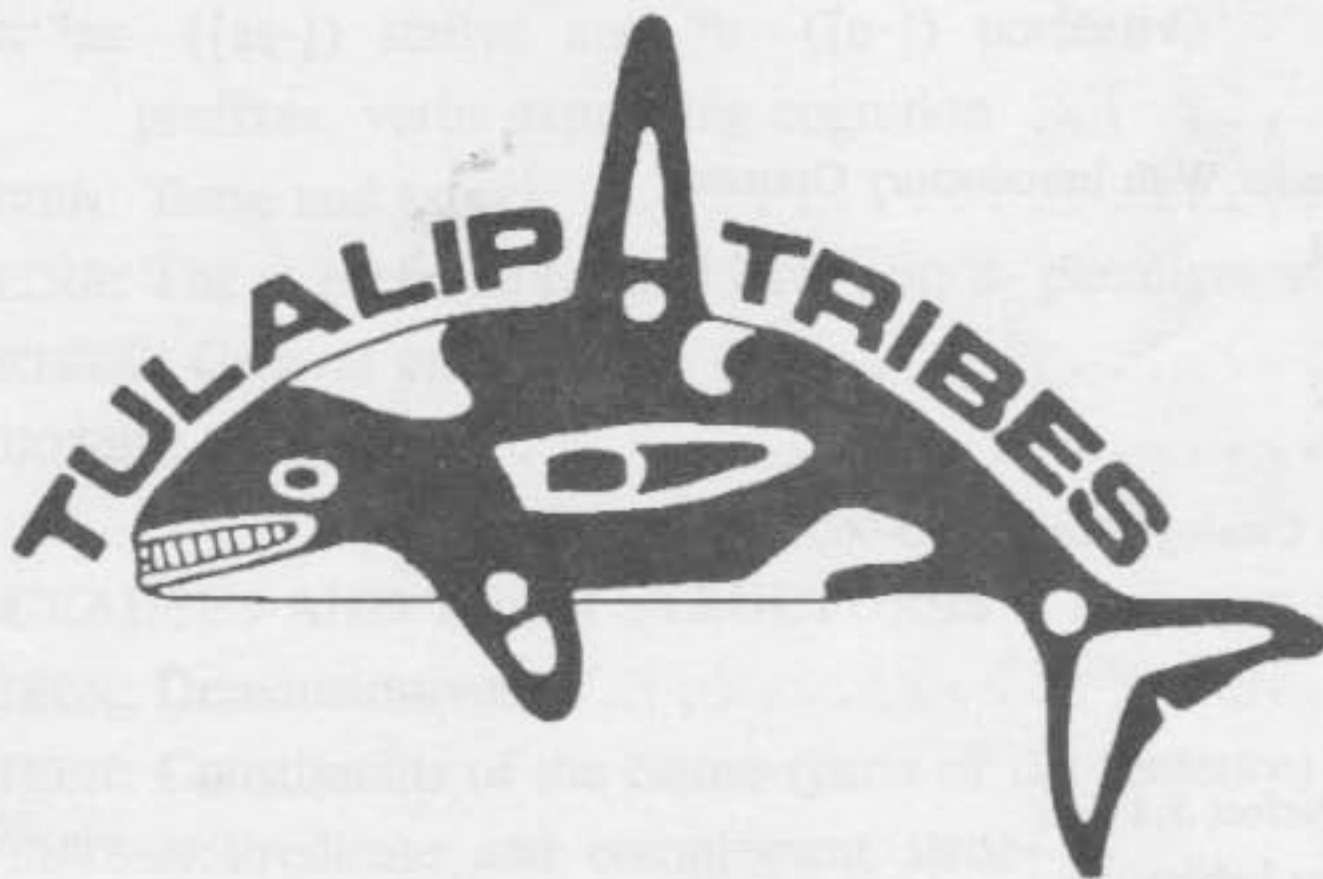
WITH

INTRODUCTORY GRAMMAR

Volume I

Four Stories from Edward Sam

THOM HESS



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of the Native languages of the Northwest.

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FOREWORD

It is with pleasure, and pride in my people that I present this first volume of the *Lushootseed Reader*. It includes four of the ancient stories of our forebearers along with a grammar of their language. The stories were recited by Edward Sam and tape-recorded here at Tulalip exactly thirty years ago.

Throughout the 1960's a number of other stories and reminiscences were told by Elizabeth Krise and Martha Lamont. These too were tape-recorded along with more texts by Mr. Sam. Two further volumes of this reader are in preparation which will make these other stories available to our young people at Tulalip and to the world at large.

In November of 1961 Thom Hess, then a graduate student in linguistics at the University of Washington, began the systematic study of our language. It was he who made the recordings with the knowledge and approval of the Tribal leadership at that time. In those days there still lived at Tulalip several score people who spoke Lushootseed better than they did English and a few who hardly knew English at all. These were people whose formative years were spent in the old ways and whose parents had grown up before the whites began to settle in this region. By 1961 the material culture of the Lushootseed had vanished; but for the elders the non-material facets of Lushootseed culture remained a vital part of their daily lives. They had quested for spirit-power in primeval forests now gone. They knew intimately the animals, plants and other beings of the land. In their minds they still heard the old songs and they could still recite the ancient stories passed down from long, long ago before Changer transformed the world in preparation for human habitation.

This reader attempts to provide a glimpse of one facet of that former life by enabling those interested to read a few of the old stories in the medium in which they were created.

Henry K'il'amqidəm Gobin
Cultural Resources Manager
The Tulalip Tribes
26 October 1993

INTRODUCTION

Wedge between the mountains of the Olympic Peninsula to the west and the Cascade Mountain Range to the east there extends southward a 160 mile long finger of the Pacific Ocean called Puget Sound. This body of water is filigreed by many, many islands, inlets and channels. Similarly the (formerly) heavily forested land is cut into intricate patterns by many rivers and streams flowing from the mountains into the sound. Lakes large and small speckle the land in counter point to the many islands that dot the sound. The shore line alternates between steep bluffs and low lying beaches. Travelling upstream either east or west, the rivers quickly narrow to fast flowing mountain streams with spectacular waterfalls. Wherever one looks on a clear day, there is water bounded by forest green with snow covered mountains in the background. This for eons has been home to the Lushootseed.

Lushootseed is the English name for the language and the people who speak it. It derives from the native name $dx^w lə\check{s}ucid$. The prefix dx^w - together with the suffix $-ucid$ means *language*. The root (or core) of the word is $lə\check{s}$ which some scholars believe to be related to the ancient native word for *people*, (rendered in English as Salish). Today *Salish* is the name given to the twenty-three distinct but related languages to which Lushootseed belongs.

Before reservation relocation there were many slight differences in accent and vocabulary which threaded among the numerous original villages. Most of these differences are now lost but enough survive to easily divide the language into a northern and a southern variety. The northern division has a major subgroup which separates the speech at Swinomish and along the Skagit River downstream of the Sauk from the rest of Northern Lushootseed. These differences as well as smaller, more limited ones are pointed out in the introductory grammar as they arise.

This reader begins with twenty-two lessons divided into three units which lay the grammatical foundation for reading these texts. As often as possible the lessons are arranged so that the student discovers the various grammatical facts for himself/herself. Those points not covered in these three units are dealt with in the glossary or in footnotes to the texts.

The four texts included in this first volume are ancient stories (called $syəyəhub$ in the north and $s\check{x}i^?ab$ in the south). They were told by Mr. Edward Sam of the Tulalip

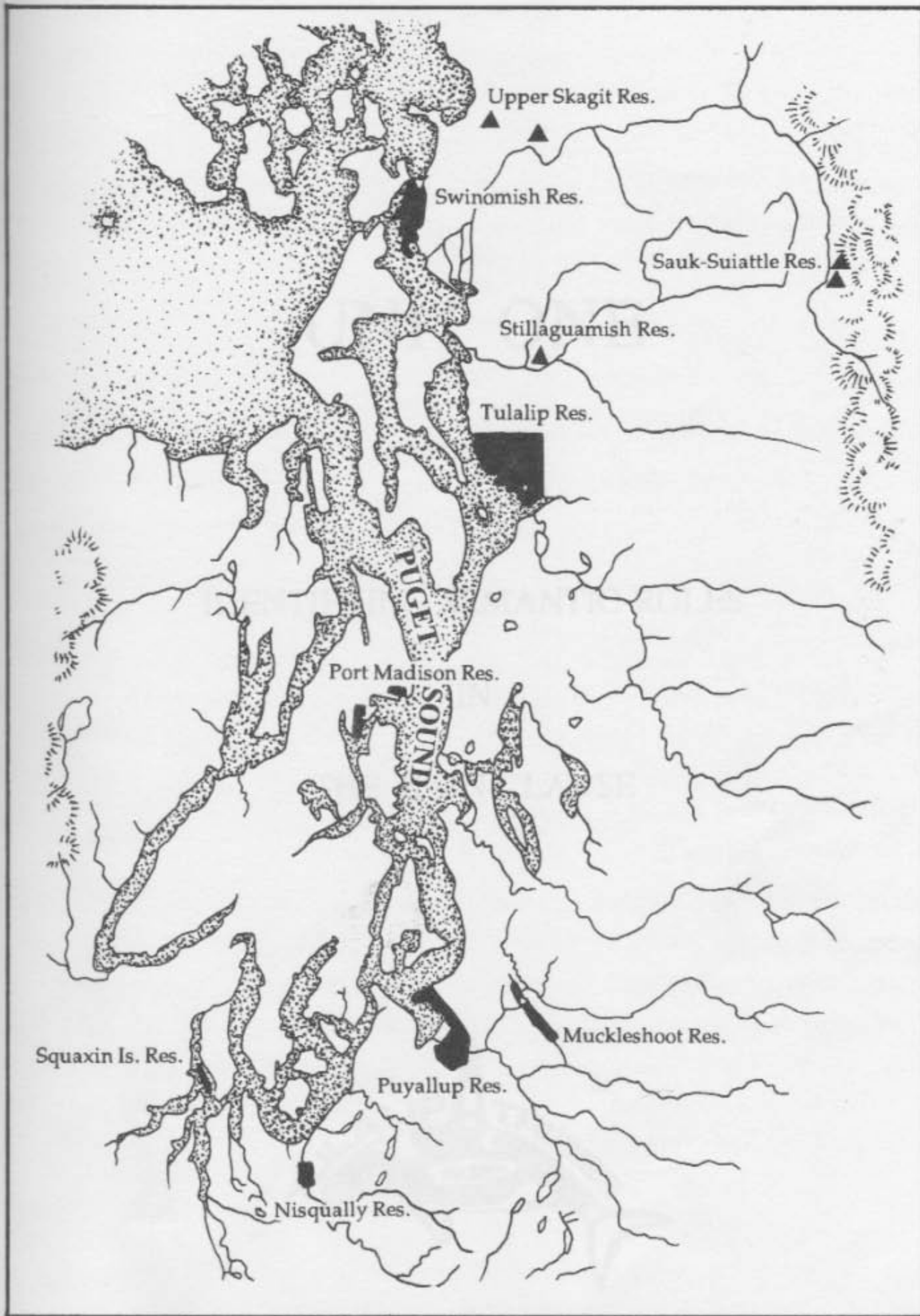
Reservation in the summer of 1963. In the telling Mr. Sam used a fairly simple and straight forward style in deference to the researcher's fledgling ability in Lushootseed at that time. In spite of this simplicity, the same characterization and humour is encountered in these stories as in other versions which have more complex sentences. They are ideal for the beginning student.

The accompanying cassette of Mr. Sam's story telling is made from the original reel to reel tapes recorded in 1963. However, these originals were not made under ideal acoustic conditions, and the subsequent thirty years have not been kind to them either. One story in particular has suffered a considerable distortion in vocal pitch. Nevertheless, in all cases the diction is easily intelligible. This cassette provides the student with an opportunity to hear what Lushootseed sounded like in former times.

The first and second volumes each have four stories. Four is the culturally significant number among the Tulalip people and others of Northern Lushootseed ancestry just as three and seven are the culturally weighted numbers in European tradition. By presenting these texts in sets of four, in a small way one custom of the ancient Northern Lushootseed is maintained. (Among the Southern Lushootseed the equivalent number is five.)

It should be noted that the grammar included with this reader is intended to help one learn to read Lushootseed in the original as quickly as possible. It is not designed to help someone learn to speak the language. For that purpose other materials are available. Nevertheless, for those who may know elementary linguistic terminology, a few remarks on the sounds of Lushootseed are given in the Appendix.

Various articles and books about this or that facet of the Lushootseed people exist but none provides a particularly detailed description. The best source of information on the former life of the Lushootseed speaking peoples is to be found in volume 7 of the *Handbook of North American Indians* published by the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C. 1990. The article therein by Wayne Suttles and Barbara Lane entitled the *Southern Coast Salish* is excellent. Those interested should begin their background reading on the Lushootseed with this article and its bibliography.



Lushootseed and surrounding territory

LESSON ONE

of a unit, part

UNIT ONE

IDENTIFYING SEMANTIC ROLES

IN

THE MAIN CLAUSE



LESSON ONE

-tx^w, agent, patient

Compare the following six sentences with each other and with their English translations. Then answer the questions below. (English words in square brackets do not correspond to any word in the Lushootseed sentence. They are simply required by English grammar.)

1. ʔuʔuχ^w ti čač^{as}*.¹ The boy went.
2. ʔuʔuχ^wtx^w ti čač^{as}. [Someone] took the boy somewhere.
3. ʔuʔəχ^ʔtx^w ti čač^{as}. [Someone] brought the boy.
4. ʔut^ʔuk^w ti čač^{as}. The boy went home.
5. ʔut^ʔuk^wtx^w ti čač^{as}. [Someone] took the boy home.
6. ʔuʔəχ^ʔ ti čač^{as}. The boy came.

Where does the **verb** (the action word) come in a Lushootseed sentence -- first or last? _____. What does ti čač^{as} mean? _____. In sentences numbered 1, 4, and 6 does ti čač^{as} perform the action; that is, in 1, 4, and 6 is ti čač^{as} the **agent** (the doer)? _____. Is ti čač^{as} the agent in sentences 2, 3, and 5 or is it the **patient** (the one to whom some act is done)? _____. On the following blank write what it is in these Lushootseed sentences that tells the reader or listener whether ti čač^{as} is agent or patient. _____. What does ʔut^ʔuk^w mean? _____.

1.1. In sentences of the type written above, Lushootseed does not have words matching the English *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they* (nor *him*, *her*, or *them* either). Where the English translation requires one of these words, *someone* or *something* is used (unless the context makes clear that *he* or *she*, etc. is appropriate). Therefore, sentence 2 above, for example, could equally well be translated as He took the boy. She took the boy. They took the boy.

¹An asterisk (*) following a word calls the student's attention to the fact that that particular word is limited to certain parts of the Lushootseed speaking territory. In other regions other words or other pronunciations are used. These differences are described in sections called *dialect differences*.

1.2. To write or print the letter λ (called **lambda**), first make the long diagonal line, \backslash ; then add to it a short diagonal line going the other way, λ . Next cross the longer line with one parallel to and about the same length as the shorter line, λ . Finally, write a small hook just above the three lines already in place, λ .

1.3. To write or print the letter ə (called schwa -- sometimes spelled shwa), begin at the top and end inside: ə , ə , ə .

1.4. **Dialect differences.** The word č'ač'as is a Northern Lushootseed form. Throughout the Southern Lushootseed region the final sound is different. There, the word is č'ač'aš .

Study the next six sentences, those numbered 7 through 12, and contrast them with the first six presented above.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 7. ʔuʔuχ^w . | [Someone] went. |
| 8. $\text{ʔuʔuχ}^w\text{tx}^w$. | [Someone] took [someone] somewhere. |
| 9. $\text{ʔuʔəχ}^w\text{tx}^w$. | [Someone] brought [someone]. |
| 10. ʔut'uk^w . | [Someone] went home. |
| 11. $\text{ʔut'uk}^w\text{tx}^w$. | [Someone] took [someone] home. |
| 12. ʔuʔəχ^w . | [Someone] came. |

1.5. As this second set of sentences shows, in Lushootseed it is possible to omit entirely specific mention of an agent or patient leaving only the verb. Such verb-only sentences are common and considered to be good grammar and good Lushootseed style. Context makes clear who is acting on whom.

The point made in section 1.1. applies here as well. Sentence 11, for example, could be translated as *He took her home. She took him home. They took her home. . . .*

1.6. **Exercise.** Translate the following into Lushootseed:

1. [He] went. _____.
2. [She] took the boy home. _____.
3. [Someone] brought the boy. _____.
4. [Someone] brought [him]. _____.
5. [He] took [her] somewhere. _____.
6. [She] came. _____.

- 7. [He] went home. _____.
- 8. [He] took [them] home. _____.
- 9. The boy came. _____.
- 10. The boy went. _____.
- 11. [Someone] took the boy home. _____.
- 12. The boy went home. _____.

LESSON TWO

čad, čax^w, cəf, čələp

Examine the following six sentences comparing them with their translations and contrasting them with each other and the sentences in lesson one.

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| 1. ʔuʔuχ ^w čad. | I went. |
| 2. ʔuʔuχ ^w tx ^w čad ti č'ač'as. | I took the boy somewhere. |
| 3. ʔuʔəλ'tx ^w čad ti č'ač'as. | I brought the boy. |
| 4. ʔut'uk ^w cəf. | We went home. |
| 5. ʔut'uk ^w tx ^w cəf ti č'ač'as. | We took the boy home. |
| 6. ʔuʔəλ' cəf. | We came. |

What does čad mean? _____. What does cəf mean? _____. Do these two words express the agent or the patient in their sentences? _____. Write the Lushootseed for the following:

I went home. _____.

We brought the boy. _____.

I took the boy home. _____.

2.1. In printing or writing Lushootseed, be certain to make clearly distinct from each other the letters t and †. Make the t with a single vertical stroke and a straight cross line, † ; while † should be a long, thin loop with a wavy cross line, †.

Study the following sentences:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 7. ʔuʔəλ' čax ^w . | You came. |
| 8. ʔuʔuχ ^w čax ^w ʔu | Did you go? |
| 9. ʔut'uk ^w tx ^w čax ^w ʔu ti č'ač'as. | Did you take the boy home? |
| 10. ʔuʔuχ ^w tx ^w čələp ʔu ti č'ač'as. | Did you folks take the boy somewhere? |
| 11. ʔuʔəλ' čələp. | You folks came. |

12. ʔuʔuχʷ čələp ʔu. Did you folks go?
 13. ʔuʔəλ' ʔu ti č'ač'as. Did the boy come?
 14. ʔuʔəλ'txʷ ʔu ti č'ač'as. Did [someone] bring the boy?

What does the little word ʔu mean? _____. (Such little words are called *particles* by linguists.) Where in the sentence does it occur? _____
 _____. What is the difference in meaning between čəxʷ and čələp? _____
 _____.

In the King James and the Douay English translations of the Bible there are, throughout, the words *thou* and *ye*. If you do not already know their meanings, find out in a good English dictionary or other source which one, *thou* or *ye*, corresponds to Lushootseed čəxʷ and which to Lushootseed čələp. Cross out the inappropriate English word:

čələp = thou ye

čəxʷ = thou ye.

2.2. The question mark is not a part of Standard Lushootseed spelling; nor is it necessary. The interrogative particle ʔu makes very clear whether or not a sentence is interrogative.

2.3. This interrogative particle is almost always pronounced as though it were spelled simply u rather than ʔu. Consequently, it tends to merge with the preceding word. One hears čəxʷu and čələpu. Only in careful speech does the ear detect a clear 'break' between the preceding word and ʔu. The spelling, however, is always the same.

2.4. Only a few of the world's alphabets, such as the Greek, Roman, and Cyrillic, have a special set of letters called capitals. The Lushootseed alphabet is like the Hebrew, Arabic, Devanagari, Gurmukhi, Hangul, and many, many others in not having capital letters.

2.5. Exercise. Translate the following into Lushootseed:

1. [Someone] went. _____.
2. I brought the boy. _____.
3. We came. _____.
4. Did you folks take the boy home? _____.

- 5. Did you folks take [him] home? _____
- 6. Did [she] take the boy home? _____
- 7. Did you take [them] somewhere? _____
- 8. Did you take [someone] home? _____

LESSON THREE

-d and -b, ti and tsi

Compare the sentences immediately below with each other, with their translations, and with the sentences in Lesson One.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. ʔug ^w əč'əd tsi č'ač'as. | [Someone] looked for the girl. |
| 2. ʔug ^w əč'əb tsi č'ač'as. | The girl looked for [something / someone]. |
| 3. ʔuq ^w əlb tsi č'ač'as. | The girl roasted [something]. |
| 4. ʔuq ^w əld ti sʔuladx ^w . | [Someone] roasted a ² salmon. |
| 5. ʔuhəd'iw'd ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | [Someone] took/brought the dog into the house. |
| 6. ʔuhəd'iw'b ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog went/came into the house. |

3.1. What is the difference in meaning between ti č'ač'as (in Lessons One and Two) and tsi č'ač'as (of this lesson)? _____.

Note that this difference is signalled in the little word corresponding to *the* (or *a*) in English and not in the **noun** č'ač'as itself. (A noun can be conveniently thought of as the word for a person, animal, object, place, or abstract notion.) Three Lushootseed nouns have been presented thus far. Write the English meanings beside each one.

sʔuladx^w _____
č'ač'as _____
sq^wəbayʔ _____

3.2. Hundreds of Lushootseed nouns begin with the letter (and sound) s. This s is a prefix which in many cases has become inseparable and could be treated as part of the noun stem itself. However, the glossary at the end of this reader does not list these nouns under the initial s because there are so many of them. Therefore, nouns beginning with s followed by a second consonant are to be found listed under that second consonant. Thus, sʔuladx^w is to be found under ʔ and sq^wəbayʔ under q^w.

²The distinction in English between *the* and *a* does not exist in Lushootseed. In Lesson Fifteen the significance of ti (and tsi) is presented in detail.

Three new sets of verbs occur in this lesson. Note their **suffixes** (endings). Does an agent or patient follow the suffix -d? _____. In this respect is -tx^w like -d or -b? _____. In Lesson One there are three verbs that have no suffixes at all. Does the following noun (when expressed) represent the agent or the patient? _____. In this respect are the suffixless verbs in Lessons One and Two like those ending in -d or those ending in -b? _____.

Study the following six sentences (numbered 7 through 12) comparing them to those numbered 1 through 6 above in this lesson and to the sentences in Lesson Two.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 7. ʔug ^w əč'əd čəd tsi č'ač'as. | I looked for the girl. |
| 8. ʔug ^w əč'əb čəd. | I looked for [someone/something]. |
| 9. ʔuq ^w əlb čəd. | I roasted [something]. |
| 10. ʔuq ^w əld čəʔ ti s'uladx ^w . | We roasted a salmon. |
| 11. ʔuhəd'iw'd čəx ^w ʔu ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | Did you take/bring the dog into the house? |
| 12. ʔuhəd'iw'b čələp ʔu. | Did you folks enter the house? |

3.3. As in Lesson Two, so too here the words čəd, čəʔ, čəx^w, and čələp express agent. Stated another way, these four words designate the doer whether or not there is a verb suffix and whether that suffix be -tx^w, -d, or -b. A noun, on the other hand, (that is one of the words preceded by ti or tsi) always stands for the patient when the verb takes the suffix -tx^w or -d; but it represents the agent when the verb has the suffix -b or no suffix at all. In the beginning the student may find it easier to keep straight the difference between how čəd-words and nouns function in a sentence by imagining the existence of a čəd-word for *he, she, it, they, someone*, etc. This imaginary word is indicated by [] in sentence (e) below.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| (a) ʔug ^w əč'əd čəd ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | I looked for the dog. |
| (b) ʔug ^w əč'əd čəʔ ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | We looked for the dog. |
| (c) ʔug ^w əč'əd čəx ^w ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | You looked for the dog. |
| (d) ʔug ^w əč'əd čələp ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | You folks looked for the dog. |
| (e) ʔug ^w əč'əd [] ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | [Someone] looked for the dog. |

3.4. When one of the four čəd-words appears in a sentence and there is no noun, then as far as English translations are concerned, -- and **only then** -- it makes no difference whether a verb ends in -d or -b. Compare the following two sentences:

- (f) ʔug^wəč'əḍ čəd. I looked for [something].
- (g) ʔug^wəč'əḅ čəd. I looked for [something].

3.5. Dialect differences. The Northern Lushootseed word sʔuladx^w corresponds to sčədadx^w in Southern Lushootseed. (See the introduction to this reader for a discussion of Lushootseed dialect distributions.)

Throughout most of the Lushootseed speaking territory the word for *dog* is sq^wəbay[?]. However, among the Muckleshoot the word has become sq^wubay[?].

3.6. Vocabulary comment. The words sčədadx^w and sʔuladx^w have been rendered in English as *salmon*. Although this is a convenient gloss (translation) and will be used throughout this reader, the student should know that *salmon* is not the exact meaning because included in the meaning of these Lushootseed words is the steelhead trout. The more precise English equivalent term is *anadromous fish*. However, this term is inappropriately technical for this reader. *Salmon* is used instead.

Note that both the Northern and Southern Lushootseed words end the same way, namely, -adx^w, which is a suffix meaning *year*. Why is this ending appropriate in a word meaning salmon?

3.7. Homework. Look up the word *anadromous* in a large English dictionary. What does *ana-* mean? _____. What does *drom-* mean? _____.

3.8. Exercises. Translate the following sentences into Lushootseed:

1. Did you folks roast a salmon? _____.
2. I took the dog in the house. _____.
3. We looked for the girl. _____.
4. The boy looked for [someone/something]. _____.
5. Did [someone] roast the salmon? _____.
6. The girl went into the house. _____.
7. We took the dog home. _____.
8. [Someone] took [someone/something] somewhere. _____.
9. [She] brought the dog into the house. _____.
10. We roasted the salmon. _____.

11. Did you look for the dog? _____

12. Did [someone] bring the boy? _____

LESSON FOUR

-s and -d, goal; experiencer

The student has learned two different suffixes which mark a verb as taking a patient noun, namely, -tx^w and -d. There are three more such suffixes in Lushootseed, two of which are presented in this lesson.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1a. ʔuʔusil ti č'ixč'ix. | The fish hawk dove. |
| 1b. ʔuʔusis ti sʔuladx ^w . | [It] dove after the salmon. |
| 2a. ʔutəlawil ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog ran. |
| 2b. ʔutəlawis ti sqig ^w ac. | [It] ran after a deer. |
| 3a. ʔuʔalil ti luʔ. | The old man went ashore. |
| 3b. ʔuʔalis ti sup'qs*. | [He] went ashore after a hair seal. |
| 4a. ʔuʔčil* tsi č'ač'as. | The girl arrived. |
| 4b. ʔuʔčis ti luʔ. | [She] arrived [to see/visit] the old man. |

Do the nouns in these (a)-sentences express agents or patients? _____.
All verbs in the (a)-sentences end in what suffix? _____. For similarity in grammatical function should this suffix be matched with -b or with -tx^w and -d? _____.
Do the nouns in the (b)-sentences convey agents or patients? _____. All verbs in the (b)-sentences end in what suffix? _____. For similarity in grammatical functions, should this suffix be matched with -b or with -tx^w and -d? _____.

4.1. In the above example sentences, the formation of patient oriented verbs (i.e., those followed by nouns expressing patients) can be thought of in two ways. Students may either choose to say that -is replaces -il, or they may say that -s is added following -il and, when this happens, the 'l' of -il drops. (This grammar describes Lushootseed in terms of the second alternative.)

4.2. **Optional.** (The student may elect to omit this section.) There is another set of -il verbs which becomes patient oriented by the addition of -d instead of -s. For example, x'it'il means *fall off* while x'it'ild means *drop something*. Words like x'it'ild function in Lushootseed grammar just like g^wəč'əd and other verbs in -d; therefore, students who only intend to read Lushootseed have nothing new to learn about these -il-d verbs.

Nevertheless, some will find it interesting to know why some verbs ending in *-d* become patient oriented by the addition of *-s* while others take *-d*. Study the following short sentences paying particular attention to the meaning of the verbs in the (a)-sentences:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| 5a. ʔux ^w it'il ti č'ač'as. | The boy fell off. |
| 5b. ʔux ^w it'ild ti č'ač'as. | [Someone] knocked the boy off. |
| 6a. ʔuc'fil ti sqig ^w ac. | The deer bled. |
| 6b. ʔuc'fild ti sqig ^w ac. | [Someone] bled the deer. |
| 7a. ʔuχ'ux ^w il ti s'əf'əd. | The food got cold. |
| 7b. ʔuχ'ux ^w ild ti s'əf'əd. | [Someone] cooled off the food. |
| 8a. ʔučcil* ti č'aləs*. | The hand(s) became red. |
| 8b. ʔučcild ti č'aləs. | [Someone] reddened the hand(s). |

List the four verbs from the (a)-sentences 1 through 4 above in one column and those from this second set of (a)-sentences, 5 through 8, in an adjacent column. Beside each verb write its gloss.

1 through 4	English glosses	5 through 8	English glosses
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

4.2a. The words in the left column are all agent oriented, that is, the nouns associated with them express agents. However, the verbs in the right column are not agent oriented. The nouns associated with them convey **experiencers** rather than agents. Such nouns stand for someone who suffers or undergoes an event without design or intent or else simply endures a change in condition or state. Therefore, verbs on the right are said to be **experience oriented or experiencer verbs**.³

³Ultimately, of course, the experiencer is often responsible for the fate that befalls him/her, but the grammar of this set of verbs does not involve itself with matters of responsibility. See, however, the suffix *-dx^w* in the next lesson.

4.2b. Note that the noun associated with an experiencer verb is not a patient. The term *patient* is used only when someone else does something to the person or thing the noun represents.

4.3. Similar to the suffix -s is -c. This suffix is illustrated in the third sentence in each of the following groups:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| 9a. ʔuʔuχʷ tsi luχ. | The old woman went. |
| 9b. ʔuʔuχʷtxʷ tsi luχ. | [Someone] took the old woman somewhere. |
| 9c. ʔuʔuχʷc tsi luχ. | [Someone] went after the old woman. |
| 10a. ʔuʔəχʷ ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The dog came. |
| 10b. ʔuʔəχʷtxʷ ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] brought the dog. |
| 10c. ʔuʔəχʷc ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] came for the dog. |
| 11a. ʔučubə ti luχ. | The old man went inland. |
| 11b. ʔučubətxʷ* ti luχ. | [Someone] took/brought the old man inland. |
| 11c. ʔučubaac ti luχ. | [Someone] went/came inland after the old man. |
| 12a. ʔuhədʔiwʷ tsi luχ. | The old woman went/came in the house. |
| 12b. ʔuhədʔiwʷtxʷ tsi luχ. | [Someone] took/brought the old woman into the house. |
| 12c. ʔuhədʔiwʷc tsi luχ. | [Someone] went/came into the house after the old woman. |

The third sentence in each of these groups (9 through 12) exemplifies still another patient orienting suffix, namely -c. This suffix goes with fewer verbs than the others, but most of these verbs that do take -c are very common.

4.3a. When -c is added to a verb stem that ends in a vowel, that vowel is lengthened. Lengthened or long vowels are represented in Lushootseed writing by doubling the vowel letter.

4.3b. However, ə can never be long in Lushootseed. Where a long ə-vowel is expected (as in ʔučubə *went/came inland* followed by -c), a long a-vowel replaces it. Thus, ʔučubə + c becomes ʔučubaac.

4.4. With verbs expressing the movement of someone from one place to another, both -s and -c designate a goal, the purpose for the journey. (In Lushootseed goal may be

thought of as a subtype of patient.) On the other hand, $-tx^w$ is a **causative** suffix. For example, *bring* as expressed in Lushootseed is literally *cause to come*.

4.5. As with verbs ending in $-tx^w$ and $-d$ so too with those ending in $-s$ and $-c$, $\check{c}ad-$ words represent an agent.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 13. $\text{ʔuʔalis } \check{c}ad \text{ ti } sup'qs.$ | I went ashore after the hair seal. |
| 14. $\text{ʔuʔčis } \check{c}ax^w \text{ ʔu ti } lu\check{\lambda}.$ | Did you arrive to [visit] the old man? |
| 15. $\text{ʔutəlawis } \check{c}əʔ \text{ ti } sq^wəbayʔ.$ | We ran after the dog. |
| 16. $\text{ʔuʔu\check{x}^c } \check{c}ələp \text{ ʔu tsi } \check{c}a\check{c}^as.$ | Did you folks go after the girl? |
| 17. $\text{ʔu\check{c}ubaac } \check{c}əʔ \text{ ti } sqig^wac.$ | We went inland after a deer. |
| 18. $\text{ʔuʔə\check{\lambda}^c } \check{c}ax^w \text{ ʔu tsi } lu\check{\lambda}.$ | Did you come after the old woman? |

4.6. Vocabulary comment. Usually a verb taking $-tx^w$ does not also take $-d$, and most verbs ending in $-b$ that designate movement to a place do not also occur with no ending at all. However, $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'}$ is such a verb. Thus, $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'}$ and $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'b}$ are more or less synonymous expressions as are $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'tx^w}$ and $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'d}$.

- | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|---|
| $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'}$ tsi lu $\check{\lambda}$. | = | $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'b}$ tsi lu $\check{\lambda}$. | = | The old woman entered the house. |
| $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'tx^w}$ tsi lu $\check{\lambda}$. | = | $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'d}$ tsi lu $\check{\lambda}$. | = | [Someone] took/brought the old woman into the house. |
| $\text{ʔuhəd}^{\text{ʔiw}'c}$ tsi lu $\check{\lambda}$. | | | | [Someone] went/came into the house after the old woman. |

4.7. Dialect differences.

4.7a. Instead of $\check{t}čil$ *arrive*, speakers of Southern Lushootseed use either $\check{t}əčil$ or $\check{t}əči$ (with stress on the first vowel in both cases). When one or more suffixes is added to $\check{t}əči(l)$ however, everyone does pronounce the l -- except, of course, when that added ending is the goal suffix $-s$ (4.1).

4.7b. Among the Snohomish the word for *hair seal* is $sup'qs$, but elsewhere, both to the north and south, the equivalent term is ʔasx^w .

4.7c. In Southern Lushootseed the word for *hand* is čaləš rather than čaləs. This difference is exactly like that for čač'aš versus čač'as (1.4).

4.7d. ʔučcil *became red* in the north is matched by ʔuk'ix'il in the south. Note, however, that a river in Northern Lushootseed territory bears a name clearly derived from the Southern Lushootseed word. This is the Pilchuk River called dx'k'ix'əb in Lushootseed. (*Pilchuk* itself is from Chinook Jargon and means *red water*.) The fact that a Northern Lushootseed place name is derived from what is now a Southern Lushootseed word suggests what about the original territory in which the word was once spoken?

4.7e. Instead of ʔučubətx' *took/brought inland*, the oldest speaker of Lushootseed to have been recorded on tape in the 1950's said, ʔučubəstx'. A long time ago Lushootseed speakers used -stx' in place of -tx' after verb stems ending in a vowel. Today only -tx' is used regardless of the last sound of the verb stem.

4.8. Exercises. Translate the following into Lushootseed:

1. [Someone] took the old woman somewhere. _____.
2. We went inland after a deer. _____.
3. Did [someone] go after the dog? _____.
4. Did the hair seal dive? _____.
5. The dog ran. _____.
6. I ran after the dog. _____.
7. Did you bring it into the house? _____.
8. Did you come after the old man? _____.
9. We arrived [in time] for it. _____.

The following sentences are the "bare bones" of a short sequence from an old story. Several words and suffixes yet to be studied have been omitted here. In this story č'ix'č'ix' *Fish Hawk* is a person. Render these lines in English.

1. ʔuʔusil ti č'ix'č'ix'. _____.
2. ʔuʔusis ti sʔuladx'. _____.
3. ʔučubətx'. _____.
4. ʔut'uk'wx'. _____.

LESSON FIVE

-dx^w; summary of patient oriented suffixes

Presented in this lesson is the fifth patient suffix, -dx^w. In addition to its purely grammatical function of providing for a following patient noun, it has an added significance that separates it from the other two patient suffixes -- especially from -d. Study the following pairs of sentences and their translations. In what way does this new suffix, -dx^w, differ from -d?

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1a. ʔuk ^w əfəd ti q ^w uʔ. | [Someone] poured the water. |
| 1b. ʔuk ^w əfdx ^w ti q ^w uʔ. | [Someone] spilled the water. |
| 2a. ʔubəčad* ti č'ač'as. | [Someone] put the boy down. |
| 2b. ʔubəčdx ^w ti č'ač'as. | [Someone] happened to knock the boy over. |
| 3a. ʔuk ^w ədad* ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | [Someone] took a hold of the dog. |
| 3b. ʔuk ^w əd(d)x ^w ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | [Someone] managed to get a hold of the dog. |
| 4a. ʔuc'əld ti luχ. | [Someone] defeated/got the better of the old man. |
| 4b. ʔuc'əldx ^w ti luχ. | [Someone] managed to defeat/get the better of the old man. |

5.1. In sentences 1b and 2b the act is performed inadvertently, accidentally; while in 3b and 4b the act is done deliberately but with difficulty. Nevertheless, both types of actions are indicated in Lushootseed with the same suffix, -dx^w. Obviously, the way Lushootseed speakers view these events is different from the way English speakers do.

Before reading further, the student should pause for a minute or two to ponder what *to do accidentally* shares in meaning with *to accomplish only with difficulty*.

The common concept is **lack of (full) control over the outcome**. In all sentences, (a) and (b), someone is clearly responsible for what happened (even though that someone is often not explicitly stated in the Lushootseed sentence as is the case in these examples); but in the (b)-sentences the person responsible is not really master of the situation, while in the (a)-sentences the one responsible is also assumed to be in control of events. Degree of control permeates the Lushootseed verbal system.

Whether the student translates sentences with verbs ending in $-dx^w$ using *accidentally* and the like or by using *accomplish with difficulty* depends upon the context and the type of action and agents involved. The appropriate translation is seldom a problem once the basic meaning of $-dx^w$ is understood.

5.2. This suffix $-dx^w$ is usually pronounced as though it were spelled $-\text{æ}dx^w$. However, the æ -vowel is not included in the standard spelling of this suffix.

5.3. A few verb stems rarely occur with any suffix other than $-dx^w$ because their very meaning implies less than full control. One such is the Lushootseed word for *find*.

$\text{ʔu}^{\text{ʔ}}\text{əy}^{\text{ʔ}}dx^w\text{ }^4\text{ } \check{\text{c}}\text{əd } \text{tsi } \check{\text{c}}^{\text{ʔ}}\text{a}\check{\text{c}}^{\text{ʔ}}\text{as.}$

I found the girl.

$\text{ʔu}^{\text{ʔ}}\text{əy}^{\text{ʔ}}dx^w\text{ } \text{ti } \text{sq}^w\text{əbay}^{\text{ʔ}}.$

[Someone] found the dog.

(See also 10.6.)

5.4. The student has now learned five suffixes which mark a verb as being patient oriented. With a few minor exceptions these five comprise the complete set of patient suffixes. They are summarised here.

- | | | |
|----------------|------------------------|--|
| $-\text{tx}^w$ | <i>causative</i> | With stems referring to travel, $-\text{tx}^w$ is often glossed with take/bring. |
| $-\text{s}$ | <i>goal</i> | This suffix is found only with verb stems in $-\text{il}$ (and $-\text{il} + -\text{s}$ becomes $-\text{is}$.) |
| $-\text{c}$ | <i>goal</i> | This suffix occurs with a relatively small number of verb stems. It has the meaning <i>goal</i> only with a subset of those, namely, the ones describing travel of some sort, but it never follows stems in $-\text{il}$. With other sorts of stems yet to be presented, $-\text{c}$ has more abstract and less specifiable glosses beyond that of simply patient marker. |
| $-\text{dx}^w$ | <i>lack of control</i> | In general, any verb stem taking $-\text{d}$ can have $-\text{dx}^w$ instead. (Other nuances are expressed by $-\text{dx}^w$ when following certain verb stems to be presented later.) |

⁴Most speakers pronounce this word as though it were spelled $\text{ʔu}^{\text{ʔ}}\text{i}^{\text{ʔ}}dx^w$.

-d

This patient suffix can be added to the greatest variety of verb stems. It cannot be glossed more specifically than its general patient stem-forming significance. In the lessons up to this point, -d has been presented in contrast to -b and with experiential verbs in -il.

5.5 Dialect differences.

5.5a. The Skagit say ʔuʔaqʼad and ʔuʔaqʼdxʷ instead of ʔubəčad and ʔubəčdxʷ.

5.5b. In Southern Lushootseed many speakers pronounce ʔubəčad and ʔukʷədad as though they were spelled ʔubəčəd and ʔukʷədəd.

5.6 Exercises. On a separate sheet of paper, translate the following sentences into Lushootseed:

1. Did you manage to defeat the people? (*People* is ʔaciʔtalbixʷ.)
2. [Someone] put the girl down.
3. Did you spill the water?
4. We arrived to [visit] the old woman.
5. Did you folks go ashore after the boy?
6. We ran after the dog.
7. Did you folks cook the salmon?
8. Did you find the dog?

On a separate sheet of paper, translate the following into English:

1. ʔuʔəyʼdxʷ čəxʷ ʔu ti sqʷəbayʔ.
2. ʔuʔuχʷc čəd ti sqigʷac.
3. ʔučubaac ʔu ti čʼačʼas.
4. ʔubəčdxʷ čəxʷ ʔu ti luχ.
5. ʔukʷəʔəd čəd ti qʷuʔ.
6. ʔucʼəldxʷ čəxʷ ʔu.
7. ʔukʷədad ti čʼačʼas.

8. ʔukʷəd(d)xʷ čəxʷ ʔu ti sʔuladxʷ.

9. ʔubəčad čəʔ tsi luʰ.

10. ʔuʔəy'dxʷ tsi luʰ.

Fill in the blanks following the words of each set with the appropriate glosses. Some of these verbs are entirely new but the student will find most glosses to be obvious. A few, however, will require a little imagination because what English speakers assume to be the basic meaning of a verb stem on the basis of that stem with one suffix sometimes turns out not to fit when that same stem occurs with a different suffix. For example, consider ʔučalad and ʔučaltxʷ below.

ʔuʔalil went ashore

ʔuqəʔ woke up

ʔukʷədad took smth.

ʔuʔalis _____

ʔuqəʔəd _____

ʔukʷəd(d)xʷ _____

ʔuʔalildxʷ _____

ʔuqəʔdxʷ _____

ʔuʔaliltxʷ _____

ʔubəč fell over

ʔusaqʷ flew

ʔučalad chased someone

ʔubəčad _____

ʔučaldxʷ _____

ʔubəčdxʷ _____

ʔučaltxʷ caught someone

ʔusaqʷtxʷ _____

ʔuʔčil arrived

ʔutədʒil went to bed

ʔuχʷsil grew fat

ʔuʔčis _____

ʔutədʒis _____

ʔuχʷsild _____

ʔuʔčildxʷ _____

ʔuʔčiltxʷ _____

ʔutədʒiltxʷ _____

LESSON SIX

Patient suffixes + b, ʔə + agent

Compare the following sentences with each other and with their English translations. Then answer the questions below.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1a. ʔuʔusil ti č'ixč'ix. | The fish hawk dove. |
| 1b. ʔuʔusis ti sʔuladxʷ. | [It] dove after a salmon. |
| 1c. ʔuʔusisəb ʔə ti č'ixč'ix ti sʔuladxʷ. | The fish hawk dove after a salmon. |
| 2a. ʔuʔuχʷ ti luχ. | The old man went. |
| 2b. ʔuʔuχʷc ti č'ač'as. | [He] went after the boy. |
| 2c. ʔuʔuχʷcəb ʔə ti luχ ti č'ač'as. | The old man went after the boy. |
| 3a. ʔuʔuχʷ ti luχ. | The old man went. |
| 3b. ʔuʔuχʷtxʷ ti č'ač'as. | [He] took the boy somewhere. |
| 3c. ʔuʔuχʷtub ʔə ti luχ ti č'ač'as. | The old man took the boy somewhere. |
| 4a. 0 | |
| 4b. ʔuʔəy'dxʷ ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] found the dog. |
| 4c. ʔuʔəy'dub ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The boy found the dog. |
| 4d. ʔuʔəy'dub ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ ti č'ač'as. | The dog found the boy. |
| 5a. 0 | |
| 5b. ʔukʷədad ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] took a hold of the dog. |
| 5c. ʔukʷədatəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The girl took a hold of the dog. |

Each (a)-sentence has how many nouns? _____. How many nouns are there in each (b)-sentence? _____. In the (c)-sentences, does the first noun following the particle ʔə stand for an agent or a patient? _____. What does the other noun in the (c)-sentences represent? _____. What suffix do all verbs in the (c)-sentences share that is lacking in all the (b)-sentences? _____. What seems to be the function (purpose) of this new suffix? _____.

6.1. Three of the suffixes in the (b)-sentences above are seen to have two forms. When final in a word, they are said one way; but when followed by the suffix -b, they are pronounced differently. Similarly, -b is pronounced one way when following a vowel but another when coming after a consonant.

Final	Before -b	Patient suffix + -b
-s	-s-	-s-əb
-c	-c-	-c-əb
-tx ^w	-tu-	-tu-b
-dx ^w	-du-	-du-b
-d	-t-	-t-əb

6.2. Two nouns, one for agent and the other for patient, can follow the same verb when that verb bears the suffix sequence **patient suffix + -b**. This -b is not to be confused with the agent suffix -b of words like g^wəč'əb (first presented in Lesson Three).

6.3. As with other verb stems, so too with those having a patient suffix + -b, either the agent or the patient or both may be omitted.

ʔuʔusisəb ʔə ti c'ixc'ix ti sʔuladx ^w .	The fish hawk dove after the salmon.
ʔuʔusisəb ti sʔuladx ^w .	[Something] dove after the salmon.
ʔuʔusisəb ʔə ti c'ixc'ix.	The fish hawk dove after [something].
ʔuʔusisəb.	[Something] dove after [something].
ʔuk ^w ədatəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as ti sq ^w əbayʔ.	The girl took a hold of the dog.
ʔuk ^w ədatəb ti sq ^w əbayʔ.	[Someone] took a hold of the dog.
ʔuk ^w ədatəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as.	The girl took a hold of [something].
ʔuk ^w ədatəb.	[Someone] took a hold of [something].

The following eight sentences show clearly the importance of ʔə. Read through these sentences and answer the questions immediately below.

6a. ʔug ^w əč'təb ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sq ^w əbayʔ.	The boy looked for the dog.
6b. ʔug ^w əč'təb ti sq ^w əbayʔ ʔə ti č'ač'as.	The boy looked for the dog.
7a. ʔug ^w əč'təb ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ ti č'ač'as.	The dog looked for the boy.
7b. ʔug ^w əč'təb ti č'ač'as ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ.	The dog looked for the boy.
8a. ʔut'uk ^w tub ʔə ti č'ač'as tsi č'ač'as.	The boy took the girl home.
8b. ʔut'uk ^w tub tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti č'ač'as.	The boy took the girl home.
9a. ʔut'uk ^w tub ʔə tsi č'ač'as ti č'ač'as.	The girl took the boy home.
9b. ʔut'uk ^w tub ti č'ač'as ʔə tsi č'ač'as.	The girl took the boy home.

What is the function (purpose) of ʔə in these sentences? _____
 _____ . Without ʔə would it always be possible to
 distinguish agent from patient? _____ .

6.4. In spite of this variable order between agent and patient nouns, by far the most common arrangement is for the agent noun to precede the patient noun. Therefore, when writing or speaking, students should place the agent noun ahead of the patient noun (unless specifically told to do otherwise), but they should also be alert to the other possible arrangement when encountered in these texts.

6.5. The čəd-words always come before nouns.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 10. ʔut'uk ^w tub čəx ^w ʔu ʔə ti luχ. | Did the old man take you home? |
| 11. ʔutəlawisəb čəd ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog ran after me. |
| 12. ʔug ^w əč'təb ⁵ čəf ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog looked for us. |
| 13. ʔuʔəy'dub čələp ʔu ʔə tsi č'ač'as. | Did the girl find you folks? |
| 14. ʔuʔəχ'cəb čəx ^w ʔu ʔə ti ʔaciɬtalbix ^w . | Did the people come for/after you? |

Following the sequence patient suffix + -b, do čəd-words express the agent or the patient?
 _____. Where does the interrogative particle, ʔu, occur in the sentence
 relative to the čəd-words? _____. Where does it occur
 relative to the particle ʔə? _____.

6.6. **Dialect differences.** The Swinomish and the people living along the Skagit River pronounce ʔaciɬtalbix^w *people* as though it were spelled ʔaciɬtəbix^w.

6.7. **Exercises.** On a separate sheet of paper rewrite the following sentences by changing the patient into the agent and the agent into the patient. Then translate the new sentences.

1. ʔuʔəy'dub ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sq^wəbayʔ.
2. ʔutəlawisəb ʔə ti sq^wəbayʔ ti luχ.
3. ʔuhəd'iw'cəb ʔə ti č'ač'as tsi č'ač'as.
4. ʔug^wəč'təb ʔə tsi luχ tsi č'ač'as.
5. ʔuʔəχ'tub ʔə ti ʔaciɬtalbix^w ti luχ.

⁵The second ə in ʔug^wəč'əd disappears before the sequence -t-əb.

As above, rewrite the following sentences so that the original agent is now patient and the original patient is now agent. Then translate the resulting sentences into English. (It may be necessary to review Lesson Two at this point.)

1. ʔuʔuk^wtub čəx^w ʔu ʔə tsi luʂ.

2. ʔuʔəy'dub čəd ʔə ti č'ač'as.

3. ʔuʔčisəb čəʔ ʔə ti ʔaciʔtalbix^w.

4. ʔučubaacəb čələp ʔu ʔə ti luʂ.

5. ʔubəčatab čəx^w ʔu ʔə tsi luʂ.

LESSON SEVEN

Agent oriented stems, ʔə + patient

7.1. Agent oriented stems divide into two subclasses, those that directly involve *only one* entity, the agent, and those that not only involve an agent but also imply a patient.

7.1a. It is not possible to distinguish the two types by simply looking at them. *Only their* meanings betray their different subclass membership. For example, ʔusaxʷəb *jumped* and ʔugʷəčʰəb *searched* have the same form -- the same number of consonants and vowels in the same relative order and they both end in -b, but ʔugʷəčʰəb implies the *person or* thing sought as well as the seeker whereas ʔusaxʷəb involves only the jumper/runner.

7.1b. The implied patient of verbs like ʔugʷəčʰəb, ʔuqʷəlb, etc., can be expressed overtly by means of an ʔə-phrase.

1. ʔugʷəčʰəb ti čʰačʰas ʔə ti sqəlalitut. The boy requested for spirit power.
2. ʔuqʷəlb tsi luχ ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ. The old woman roasted a salmon.
3. ʔuhədʔiwʰb ti luχ ʔə ti hud. The old man brought the wood inside.
4. ʔugʷəčʰəb čəd ʔə ti sqəlalitut. I requested for spirit power.
5. ʔuqʷəlb čəd ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ. I roasted a salmon.
6. ʔuhədʔiwʰb čəd ʔə ti hud. I brought the wood inside.

7.1c. In Lesson Six it was learned that a noun expressing an agent could be added to sentences with patient oriented verbs (with appropriate changes of verb suffixes). Now it is seen that a noun expressing a patient can be added to a sentence having an agent oriented verb of the second type (7.1) and without a change in suffix. In both cases the 'added' noun is preceded by ʔə regardless of whether the addition is serving as agent or patient.

Therefore, students must be particularly careful to distinguish sentences with agent oriented verb stems having a patient introduced by ʔə as in 7.1b from sentences with patient oriented stems having an agent introduced by ʔə as in Lesson Six. This distinction is particularly important when both nouns represent living beings which logically can serve either the agent or patient role.

7a. ʔugʷəč'əb ti č'ač'as ʔə tsi č'ač'as. The boy looked for the girl.

7b. ʔugʷəč'təb ʔə ti č'ač'as tsi č'ač'as. The boy looked for the girl.

Although ʔə-phrase agents expressed by nouns usually precede patients, this order can be switched (6.4).

7c. ʔugʷəč'təb tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti č'ač'as. The boy looked for the girl.

This last arrangement looks even more like example sentence 7a than does 7b because both ʔə-phrases are now in final position. **It is crucial that students pay close attention to verb suffixes.**

7.2. As with any and all Lushootseed verbs, so too with these discussed in 7.1 - 7.1c, either the noun expressing the agent or the one conveying the patient, or both, can be omitted. In other words, even the agent of an agent oriented verb can be omitted if the speaker so chooses as in 2b and 2d below.

2a. ʔuqʷəlb tsi luχ ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ. The old woman roasted a salmon.

2b. ʔuqʷəlb ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ. [Someone] roasted a salmon.

2c. ʔuqʷəlb tsi luχ. The old woman roasted [something].

2d. ʔuqʷəlb. [Someone] roasted [something].

7.3. Thus far only three verbs have been learned that belong to this subclass of agent oriented verb stems. Each of these ends in -b. However, membership in this class is not limited to verbs with the -b suffix. In addition to -b there are -alikʷ, -alc, a few verbs in -il, some with no suffix at all, and even one very common verb ending in -d (-- not the same -d, however, as occurs with patient oriented verbs). Conversely, there exist verbs with final -b (along with -il and -alikʷ) that do not belong to this subclass. An example is ʔusaxʷəb *jumped, ran* as mentioned above (7.1a). It is an agent oriented verb like ʔuʔuxʷ *went* and ʔuʔəχ' *came* and like others of this type, it can be turned into a patient oriented verb by the addition of -txʷ (or -tu-b), e.g., ʔusaxʷəbtxʷ *kidnapped [someone], caused [someone] to jump, run*.

Several examples of this subclass that do not end in -b are given here:

- 8a. ʔupusil ti č'ač'as. The boy was throwing⁶ (as in a game, exercising, or simply passing time).
- 8b. ʔupusil ti č'ač'as ʔə ti č'χaʔ*. The boy was throwing the stone.
- 9a. ʔušabalik^w tsi luχ. The old woman dried [things].
- 9b. ʔušabalik^w tsi luχ ʔə ti sʔuladx^w. The old woman dried salmon.
- 10a. ʔuhuyalc ti luχ. The old man finished [it].
- 10b. ʔuhuyalc ti luχ ʔə ti ʔalʔal. The old man finished the house.
- 11a. ʔuʔuləχ ti ʔaciʔtalbix^w. The people gathered [things].
- 11b. ʔuʔuləχ ti ʔaciʔtalbix^w ʔə ti bəsq^w. The people gathered crab.
- 12a. ʔuʔəʔəd tsi č'ač'as. The girl ate.
- 12b. ʔuʔəʔəd tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti bəsq^w. The girl ate crab.

7.4. Because the same verb root often occurs in both patient and agent stems, sentences with verbs of one orientation are obviously synonymous with those of the other (when both agent and patient are included). Consider the following pairs:

- 13a. ʔušabatəb ʔə tsi luχ ti sʔuladx^w. The old woman dried the salmon.
- 13b. ʔušabalik^w tsi luχ ʔə ti sʔuladx^w. The old woman dried the salmon.
- 14a. ʔug^wəč'təb ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sq^wəbayʔ. The boy looked for the dog.
- 14b. ʔug^wəč'əb ti č'ač'as ʔə ti sqəlalitut. The boy quested for a guardian spirit.
- 15a. ʔuʔuləχtəb ʔə ti luχ tihud. The old man kept the wood [which he happened to come upon].
- 15b. ʔuʔuləχ ti luχ ʔə ti bəsq^w. The old man foraged for crab.
- 16a. ʔuč'aʔtəb ʔə tsi luχ ti sk^wiʔx^w. The old woman dug up braken fern rhizome(s).⁷
- 16b. ʔuč'aʔəb tsi luχ ʔə ti sk^wiʔx^w. The old woman dug braken fern rhizomes (as in 'harvesting' from nature).

⁶The student will note that the English translations of example sentences 8a and 8b use the so called past progressive, *was throwing*, instead of the simple past, *threw*. These could, in fact, be translated either way. Lushootseed grammar does not always require a distinction between the simple and the progressive where English does.

⁷A *rhizome* is technically a stem but one that grows under (or along) the ground. The Lushootseed roasted and ate braken fern rhizomes for their starch.

To say that these sentences are synonymous, however, is not to say that they are identical. In the (a)-sentences an agent does something to the patient -- the patient is of central importance. In the (b)-sentences, on the other hand, attention centers on the agent's activity which is typically performed with his/her own ends paramount. For many of this latter type, especially those with verbs ending in -b, the patient is a product of some sort, something made, prepared, or otherwise produced. In technical parlance, verbs of the (a)-sentences are said to be in the **active voice** while those in the (b)-sentences are in the **middle voice**.

7.5. Optional. (The student may elect to omit this section.)

7.5a. Sometimes the patient permitted by an agent oriented verb is different from the possible patient of a patient oriented verb even though both verbs are built upon the same root. In 17a below only someone or something serving as target can be the patient, while in 17b only something thrown can be the patient. (Similar differences obtain with other verbs in -il.)

- | | |
|---|---|
| 17a. ʔupusutəb ʔə ti ʕaʕas ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The boy threw [something] at the dog. |
| 17b. ʔupusil ti ʕaʕas ʔə ti ʕʰaʔ. | The boy was throwing a stone. [See fuller gloss at 8a above.] |
| 18a. ʔutʷucʷutəb ʔə ti luʰ ti sčətʰəd.* | The old man shot (at) the bear. |
| 18b. ʔutʷucʷil ti luʰ ʔə ti ʕisəd. | The old man shot the arrow. |

7.6. While many roots can serve in both agent and patient verbs, a few are limited to one or the other orientation. Such limited roots are often paired with a different root of similar meaning belonging to the other orientation. Sentence examples 19a and 19b illustrate the most common pair.

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 19a. ʔuləkʷtəb* ʔə tsi ʕaʕas ti bəsqʷ. | The girl ate crab. |
| 19b. ʔuʔəʔəd tsi ʕaʕas ʔə ti bəsqʷ. | The girl ate crab. |

Students should **note with special care** the verb ʔuʔəʔəd *ate*. In its general form and final sound it seems to be the same as a patient oriented verb such as ʔukʷəʔəd *poured*. In spite of this similarity, however, ʔuʔəʔəd **is an agent oriented verb**.

7.7. Dialect differences.

7.7a. The Southern Lushootseed equivalent to ʕʰaʔ *rock, stone* is ʕəʰəʔ.

7.7b. At Swinomish the word *spaʔc* is used for *black bear*, but at Sauk-Suiattle and throughout the rest of the Lushootseed speaking region the word is *sčətxʷəd*. (Note that the referent of these words does not include *grizzly bear*.)

7.7c. In place of *ʔuləkʷəd* *eat [something], put [something] in one's mouth*, the Swinomish and people living along the Skagit River say *ʔuhuydxʷ*.

7.8. **Vocabulary comment.** The word *sqəlalitut* has been glossed (translated) into English in this lesson as *guardian spirit*. The concept does not exist in modern Anglo culture, but the ideas that lie behind it are fundamental to the Lushootseed view of the world. Several of the texts in this reader are directly concerned with *sqəlalitut* and a full comprehension of most others depends upon an understanding of the guardian spirit. Interested readers should see page 497 in volume 7 of the *Handbook of North American Indians* referred to in the introduction to this reader.

7.9. **Exercises.** The following sentences of the first set all have patient oriented verbs. Provide an appropriate gloss for each of these. Then on a separate sheet of paper recast each sentence using the corresponding agent oriented verb and gloss the new sentence as well. (In number 3 it will also be necessary to change the patient selecting one that is more appropriate with the altered verb because one does not ordinarily throw dogs.)

1. ʔušabatəb ʔə tsi luʔ ti sʔuladxʷ.
2. ʔugʷəč'təb ʔə ti ʔaciʔtalbixʷ ti sqəlalitut.
3. ʔupusutəb ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sqʷəbayʔ.
4. ʔuləkʷtəb ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ ti bəsqʷ.

The next four sentences all have agent oriented verbs. On a separate sheet of paper give an appropriate gloss for each and recast these using a patient oriented verb in each. Then render the new sentence in English.

5. ʔuʔuləx̄ ti luʔ ʔə ti hud.
6. ʔuč'aʔəb tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti skʷiʔxʷ.
7. ʔuʔəʔəd ti č'ač'as ʔə ti bəsqʷ.
8. ʔuqʷəlb tsi luʔ ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ.

In the final set of sentences immediately below students are to underline the patient in each sentence that has one. Much of the vocabulary has not been presented before and most of these new words are not in the glossary at the back of this reader either. The

grammar, however, is all familiar. Students are expected to rely on the grammar, particularly the verb endings, to identify the patient nouns.

1. ʔuc'aldub ti sčətɣ'əd ʔə ti č'ixč'ix.
2. ʔuyiq'ib tsi sʔadəyʔ ʔə ti spčuʔ.
3. ʔuyiq'itəb ʔə tsi sʔadəyʔ ti spčuʔ.
4. ʔuc'alalikʷ tsi ʔaʔac'apəd.
5. ʔuyiq'id ti spčuʔ.
6. ʔupusil ti ləg'əb.
7. ʔuyəcəb ti stubš ʔə ti syəcəb.
8. ʔuʔič'ib ʔə ti ʔulal.
9. ʔupusutəb ʔə ti č'ač'as ti sbiaw.
10. ʔupusil ʔə ti č'ʔaʔ.
11. ʔuʔəfəd ti q'ist ʔə ti sq'iʔq'aliʔ.
12. ʔupusil ti č'ač'as ʔə ti č'ʔaʔ.

SUMMARY OF FUNCTION MARKING

Terms such as *agent*, *patient* (including *goal* 4.4), and *experiencer* (4.2a) are collectively referred to as **roles**. Roles identify the various functions a noun or čad-word has in the sentence. In English these roles are primarily signalled by word order and prepositions, but verb suffixes and ʔə convey these roles in Lushootseed.

In English the roles of nouns and pronouns are expressed identically. The student should remember, however, that in Lushootseed the roles of nouns and čad-words are **not** always conveyed the same way. Specifically, a čad-word with a verb ending in one of the patient suffixes stands for the agent while a noun following a patient suffix expresses a patient.

The following lists summarize the roles and their indicators that have been presented to this point:

I. Agent Oriented Stems

(Both the noun and the čad-word express agents.)

ʔuʔuχ ^w tsi č'ač'as.	The girl went.	ʔuʔuχ ^w čad.	I went.
ʔuʔusil ti č'ač'as.	The boy dove.	ʔuʔusil čad.	I dove.
ʔusax ^w əb ti č'ač'as.	The boy jumped/ran.	ʔusax ^w əb čad.	I jumped/ran.

II. Middle Voice Stems

(Both the noun and the čad-word express agents. A second noun introduced by ʔə expresses patient.)

ʔug ^w əč'əb ti luχ ʔə ti sqəlalitut.	The old man requested for a guardian spirit.	ʔug ^w əč'əb čad ʔə ti sqəlalitut.	I requested for a guardian spirit.
ʔuq ^w əlb tsi luχ ʔə ti sʔuladx ^w .	The old woman roasted the salmon.	ʔuq ^w əlb čad ʔə ti sʔuladx ^w .	I roasted the salmon.
ʔuʔəfəd ti ʔaciʔtalbix ʔə ti sʔuladx ^w .	The people ate the salmon.	ʔuʔəfəd čad ʔə ti sʔuladx ^w .	I ate the salmon.

III. Patient/Goal Oriented Stems

(The noun represents a patient (or goal) but the čad-word is agent.)

ʔuʔuχ ^w tx ^w tsi č'as.	[Someone] took the girl somewhere.	ʔuʔuχ ^w tx ^w čad.	I took [her] somewhere.
ʔuʔuχ ^w c tsi č'as.	[Smn] went after the girl.	ʔuʔuχ ^w c čad.	I went after [her].
ʔuʔusis ti č'as.	[Smn] dove after the boy.	ʔuʔusis čad.	I dove after [him].
ʔug ^w əč'əd tsi č'as.	[Smn] sought the girl.	ʔug ^w əč'əd čad.	I sought [her].
ʔuʔəy'dx ^w ti č'as.	[Smn] found the boy.	ʔuʔəy'dx ^w čad.	I found [him].

IV. Passive Stems (a subtype of Patient/Goal Stems)

(The noun and čad-word are both patient. Nouns going with ʔə are agent.)

ʔuʔuχ ^w tub ʔə ti č'as tsi č'as.	The boy took the girl (somewhere).	ʔuʔuχ ^w tub čad ʔə ti č'as.	The boy took me (somewhere.)
ʔuʔuχ ^w cəb ʔə ti č'as tsi č'as.	The boy went after the girl.	ʔuʔuχ ^w cəb čad ʔə ti č'as.	The boy went after me.
ʔuʔusisəb ʔə ti č'ixč'ix ti sʔuladx ^w .	The fish hawk dove after the salmon.	ʔuʔusisəb čad ʔə ti č'as.	The boy dove after me.
ʔug ^w əč'təb ʔə ti č'as tsi č'as.	The boy looked for the girl.	ʔug ^w əč'təb čad ʔə ti č'as.	The boy looked for me.
ʔuʔəy'dub ʔə ti č'as tsi č'as.	The boy found the girl.	ʔuʔəy'dub čad ʔə ti č'as.	The boy found me.

V. Experiencer Oriented Stems

(The noun and čad-word are both experiencer.)

ʔux ^w it'il ti č'as.	The boy fell off.	ʔux ^w it'il čad.	I fell off.
ʔubəč ti č'as.	The boy fell over.	ʔubəč čad.	I fell over.

LESSON EIGHT

-yi- role, ʔə + recipient

Review page three. Then compare the following four sentences with one another and answer the questions below.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. ʔuʔuχ* ti čačas. | The boy went. |
| 2. ʔuʔuχ*yid* ti čačas. | [Someone] went instead of the boy. (Someone went so he wouldn't have to.) |
| 3. ʔuʔuχ*tx* ti čačas. | [Someone] took the boy somewhere. |
| 4. ʔuʔuχ*tx*yid ti čačas. | [Someone] took [something/someone] somewhere for the boy. |

Describe how the role (function) of ti čačas in sentence 2 differs from the role of ti čačas in sentence 3.

Is the role of ti čačas in sentence 2 approximately the same as in sentence 4 or are their functions entirely different? _____.

What is the name of the role of ti čačas in sentence 1? _____.

What is the name of the role of ti čačas in sentence 3? _____.

8.1. There are at least five terms in linguistics used to convey the role of ti čačas in sentences 2 and 4 above. These are *benefactive*, *dative*, *indirect object*, *recipient*, and *second object*. None of these is fully satisfactory for Lushootseed. Therefore, in Lushootseed grammar one simply speaks of the **-yi-role**. (In Southern Lushootseed the equivalent term is the *-ši-role*. See 8.5.)

8.2. Five roles have now been presented. These are agent, experiencer, patient, goal and *-yi-role*. Of these, only the patient and goal can be inanimate -- a thing -- although both

are often animate. The others must be animate by the nature of what they represent in the real world.

When speakers use the -yi-role, both an agent and a patient (or goal) are either implied or specifically stated. In the following example sentences note carefully how these roles are distinguished. Also observe the variety of English prepositions that are used to convey the meaning of -yi-when it is suffixed to various verbs.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 5a. ʔukʷədyid tsi čʰačʰas. | [Someone] took [something] from the girl. |
| 5b. ʔukʷədyid ʔə tiʔaʔx̌. | [Someone] took the platter [from someone]. |
| 5c. ʔukʷədyitəb ʔə tsi luʂ. | The old woman took [something from someone]. |
| 6a. ʔuʔabyid ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] gave [something] to the dog. |
| 6b. ʔuʔabyid ʔə ti šawʰ. | [Someone] gave a bone [to someone]. |
| 6c. ʔuʔabyitəb ʔə ti čʰačʰas. | The boy gave [something to someone]. |
| 7a. ʔuʔuχʷtxʷyid ti čʰačʰas. | [Someone] took [something] somewhere for the boy. |
| 7b. ʔuʔuχʷtxʷyid ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] took the dog somewhere [for someone]. |
| 7c. ʔuʔuχʷtxʷyitəb ʔə ti luʂ. | The old man took [something/someone] somewhere for someone. |
| 8a. ʔuʔəyʰdxʷyid ti čʰačʰas. | [Someone] found [something] for the boy. |
| 8b. ʔuʔəyʰdxʷyid ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] found the dog [for someone]. |
| 8c. ʔuʔəyʰdxʷyitəb ʔə tsi luʂ. | The old woman found [something for someone]. |

8.1a. In sentences with -yi-how are patient and -yi-role distinguished? _____

8.1b. How are patient and agent distinguished in sentences with -yi-? _____

8.3. The example sentences above have only one noun per sentence. In 9 - 11 below there are two nouns, hence two roles expressed, in each sentence.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 9. ʔuʔabyitəb ʔə ti luʂ ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The old man gave [someone] a dog. |
| 10. ʔuʔabyitəb ʔə ti luʂ ti čʰačʰas. | The old man gave [something] to the boy. |
| 11. ʔuʔabyitəb ti čʰačʰas ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ. | [Someone] gave the dog to the boy. |

8.3a. What are the roles of the two nouns in sentence 9 and in which order do they occur?

8.3b. What are the roles and relative order of the two nouns in sentence 10? _____

8.3c. What are the roles and relative order of the two nouns in sentence 11? _____

8.3d. From the example sentences 9 - 11 one might expect to be able to include agent, patient (or goal), and -yi-role all with one verb. Nevertheless, Lushootseed grammar does not permit such sentences when all these roles would be represented by nouns. Speakers use any two but not three at once. (See, however, 20.5.)

8.4. On the other hand, with čəd-words (and another class of person markers to be presented in Lesson Nine), it is possible to have three roles with one verb.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 12a. ʔuʔabyid čəd ti č'ač'as ʔə ti sq'əbayʔ. | I gave the dog to the boy. |
| 12b. ʔuʔabyid ti č'ač'as ʔə ti sq'əbayʔ. | [Someone] gave the dog to the boy. |
| 12c. ʔuʔabyitəb čəd ʔə ti č'ač'as ʔə ti sq'əbayʔ. | The boy gave me the dog. |
| 13a. ʔuk'ədyid čəx' ʔu tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti k'at'aq. | Did you take the mat away from the girl? |
| 13b. ʔuk'ədyid tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti k'at'aq. | [Someone] took the mat away from the girl. |
| 13c. ʔuk'ədyitəb čəd ʔə tsi č'ač'as ʔə ti k'at'aq. | The girl took the mat from me. |
| 14a. ʔulək'wyid čəd ti luλ ʔə ti sʔuladx'. | I ate the old man['s] salmon. [Lit.: I ate the salmon away from the old man.] |
| 14b. ʔulək'wyid ti luλ ʔə ti sʔuladx'. | [Someone] ate the old man['s] salmon. |
| 14c. ʔulək'wyitəb čəd ʔə ti luλ ʔə ti sʔuladx'. | The old man ate [my] salmon. (Lit.: The salmon was eaten [away] from me by the old man.) |

8.5. **Dialect differences.** The suffix *-yi-* in Northern Lushootseed is equivalent to *-ši-* in Southern Lushootseed. See 8.1.

8.6. **Exercises.** Translate the following sentences into Lushootseed:

1. I took the bone from the dog. _____.
2. The old man ate someone's salmon. _____.
3. Someone came instead of the boy. _____.
4. The girl brought something for the old woman. _____.
5. Did you folks find the dog for the man? _____.

INFLECTION AND CLITICS



UNIT TWO

INFLECTION AND CLITICS



LESSON NINE

Person patient suffixes including the reflexive and reciprocal

9.1. There are several ways of expressing *me*, *us*, and *you* in Lushootseed. One of these entails the appropriate čad-word following -t-əb, -du-b, -tu-b, -s-əb, or -c-əb. (See Lesson Six, especially 6.5.) Another means of conveying these concepts is by special suffixes. Contrast the following pairs of sentences:

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1a. ʔut'uk ^w tub čəx ^w ʔu ʔə ti ʔaciʔtalbix ^w . | Did the people take you home? |
| 1b. ʔut'uk ^w tubicid ʔu ti ʔaciʔtalbix ^w . | Did the people take you home? |
| 2a. ʔuʔəλ'tub čəd ʔə tsi luλ. | The old woman brought me. |
| 2b. ʔuʔəλ'tubš tsi luλ. | The old woman brought me. |
| 3a. ʔug ^w əč'təb čəʔ ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog looked for us. |
| 3b. ʔug ^w əč'tubuʔ ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog looked for us. |
| 4a. ʔubəčdub čəd ʔə ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog accidentally knocked me over. |
| 4b. ʔubəčdubš ti sq ^w əbayʔ. | The dog accidentally knocked me over. |

9.1a. In place of čəx^w there is -icid, and čəd is replaced by -š. Instead of čəʔ there is -uʔ; and -uʔəd (not shown above) would substitute for čələp.

9.1b. When suffixes (rather than čad-words) express a patient, the agent is NOT introduced by ʔə.

9.2. A čad-word, if present, represents an agent when these patient person suffixes occur.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 5. ʔuʔuk ^w tubicid čəd. | I will take you home. |
| 6. ʔuʔuχ ^w tubuʔ čələp ʔu. | Will you folks take us (somewhere)? |
| 7. ʔuʔuχ ^w tubš čələp ʔu. | Will you folks take me (somewhere)? |
| 8. ʔuʔuk ^w tubuʔəd čəʔ. | We will take you folks home. |

(The initial ʔ(u)- is an *irrealis* which here represents future time. See Lesson Thirteen.)

9.3. Person patient suffixes divide into two classes.

9.3a. One class goes with verbs ending in -du-b, -tu-b, -s-əb, and -c-əb.

ʔubəčdubš	...knocked me down.	ʔuʔuχ ^w tubš	...took me somewhere.
ʔubəčdubicid	...knocked you down.	ʔuʔuχ ^w tubicid	...took you somewhere.
ʔubəčdubuʔ	...knocked us down.	ʔuʔuχ ^w tubuʔ	...took us somewhere.
ʔubəčdubuʔəd	...knocked you folks down.	ʔuʔuχ ^w tubuʔəd	...took you folks some- where.
ʔutəlawisəbš	...ran after me.	ʔuʔuχ ^w cəbš	...went [to see] me.
ʔutəlawisəbicid	...ran after you.	ʔuʔuχ ^w cəbicid	...went [to see] you.
ʔutəlawisəbuʔ	...ran after us.	ʔuʔuχ ^w cəbuʔ	...went [to see] us.
ʔutəlawisəbuʔəd	...ran after you folks.	ʔuʔuχ ^w cəbuʔəd	...went [to see] you folks.

9.3b. The other class of person patient suffixes, those belonging to the second set, follows verbs like k^wədad which end with -t-əb. Different from the first group of endings which is added to the final -(ə)b of -du-b, -tu-b, -s-əb, -c-əb, this set has dropped the -əb leaving only -t-. Where one would expect ʔuk^wədətəbš, there is ʔuk^wədats which becomes ʔuk^wədəc.⁸

(ʔuk ^w ədats >)	ʔuk ^w ədəc.	[Someone] grabbed me.
(ʔuk ^w ədyits >)	ʔuk ^w ədyic ʔə ti ʔaʔχ.	[Someone] took the platter from me.
(ʔuk ^w ədatsid >)	ʔuk ^w ədəcid.	[Someone] grabbed you.
ʔuk ^w ədaturuʔ		[Someone] grabbed us.
ʔuk ^w ədaturuʔəd		[Someone] will grab you folks.

9.4. Like čəd-words, these person patient suffixes lack forms equivalent to *him, her, it, them*.

9.5. However, there is another suffix that belongs to these person patient endings. This is the **reflexive**. Note the last sentence in each of the following sets of examples and contrast it with the others in the same set.

9a. ʔušudubš*.	[Someone] saw me.
9b. ʔušudubut čəd.	I saw myself. (Reflection)

⁸The š in these endings has fallen together with the preceding ʔ becoming simply č.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| 10a. ʔuʔəʔəd čəd. | I ate. |
| 10b. ʔuʔəʔtubš. | [Someone] fed me. |
| 10c. ʔuʔəʔtubut čəd. | I fed myself. |
| 11a. (ʔut'uc'utsid >) ʔut'uc'ucid ʔu. | Did [someone] shoot (at) you? |
| 11b. (ʔut'uc'utsut >) ʔut'uc'ucut čəxʷ ʔu. | Did you shoot yourself? |
| 12a. (ʔuqʷuluts >) ʔuqʷuluc tsi sʔadəyʔ. | The lady hugged me. |
| 12b. (ʔuqʷulutsut >) ʔuqʷulucut. | He/she hugged him/herself. |

From these few phrases the student can see that -ut follows -du-b, -tu-b, and presumably -s-əb and -c-əb. (Actually, utterances with these last two endings are unrecorded.) Following the -t- of -t-əb, however, the ending is -sut which elides with the preceding -t- to give -cut. See footnote 8.

9.6. Conceptually related to the reflexive is the **reciprocal** suffix, -agʷəl. These two are contrasted in the following example sentences:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 13a. ʔuʔəʔtagʷəl čəʔ. | We fed each other. |
| 13b. ʔuʔəʔtubut čəd. | I fed myself. |
| 14a. ʔuʂudagʷəl čəʔ. | We saw one another. |
| 14b. ʔuʂudubut čəd. | I saw myself. |
| 15a. ʔut'uc'utagʷəl čələp ʔu. | Did you folks shoot at one another? |
| 15b. (ʔut'uc'utsut >) ʔut'uc'ucut čəd. | I shot myself. |
| 16a. ʔuqʷulutagʷəl. | They hugged one another. |
| 16b. (ʔuqʷulutsut >) ʔuqʷulucut. | He/she hugged him/herself. |
| 17. ʔuʔəčisagʷəl. | They came together., i.e., they arrived at the same place. |
| 18. ʔubaliicagʷəl čəʔ. | We forgot about each other. |

9.6a. Different from the reflexive and other person patient suffixes, the reciprocal has only one form, -agʷəl, but sometimes it is pronounced as though it were spelled -əgʷəl.

9.6b. In all cases -agʷəl follows a reduced form of the preceding suffix sequence. The ending is -t-agʷəl, not -tub-agʷəl; -d-agʷəl, not -dub-agʷəl; etc. Therefore, sequences of -t(əb)-agʷəl and -t(ub)-agʷəl are both simply -t-agʷəl except that the former is very often preceded by a vowel (matching the vowel of the root) while the latter never is. In either case, the meaning is the same, so there is no ambiguity.

9.7. Dialect differences. The Southern Lushootseed equivalent of ʔušudubš, ʔušudubut, etc., is ʔulabduš, ʔulabdubut, etc.

9.8. Exercises. The student should write out one complete paradigm (list) of person patient endings including the reflexive and reciprocal for a representative verb from each class, -du-b, -tu-b, -s-əb, -c-əb, and -t(-əb). Check the lists carefully for accuracy. Then read out loud each list ten times twice a day for four days. (By following this procedure, every student will always be able to recognize the person patient suffixes.)

Gloss (translate) the following words. Several of these have stems that are new. They can be found in the glossary.

- | | | | |
|------------------|-------|-------------------|-------|
| 1. -ʔəʔtubicid | _____ | 4. -dʒəlaʃadbic | _____ |
| 2. -yəhubtubš | _____ | 5. -yəcəbtubicid | _____ |
| 3. -hədʔiw'dubut | _____ | 6. -šulagʷildubut | _____ |

LESSON TEN

ʔəs- ({{as-}}) stative and ʔu- ({{u}}) perfective prefixes; verbs expressing cognition

1a. ʔuqʼax* ti stulək*.	The river froze.
1b. ʔəsqʼax* ti stulək*.	The river is frozen.
2a. ʔuʔitut ti luλ.	The old man fell asleep.
2b. ʔəsʔitut ti luλ.	The old man is asleep.
3a. ʔuʔidid ti sqʷəbayʔ.	[Someone] tied the dog.
3b. ʔəsʔid ti sqʷəbayʔ.	The dog is tied.
4a. ʔuʔačʼad ti hud.	[Someone] extinguished the fire.
4b. ʔəsʔačʼ ti hud.	The fire is extinguished.

Contrast 1a with 1b and 2a with 2b. The first word in each pair of sentences is identical except for what? _____.

10.1. Up to this point every verb has begun with ʔu-.⁹ The student can now see that ʔu- is a separable element called a **prefix** which contrasts with another prefix, ʔəs-.

10.2. On the basis of the English translations, one might assume that ʔu- designates **past** time while ʔəs- refers to the present. Such an assumption is not correct. Consider the following list of words all of which bear the prefix ʔəs-:

ʔəstagʷəx**	hungry	ʔəsλʼaχ*	feel cold
ʔəstaqʷuʔ	thirsty	ʔəsχəʔ	sick
ʔəsbəʔ	satiated, full	ʔəscʼud	sickly, run down
ʔəshiiʔ	happy	ʔəsχicʼil	ashamed
ʔəsqʷicʼ	indifferent, unwilling	ʔəsχicil	angry

⁹In 9.2 there was also ʔu-. ʔu- plus ʔu- becomes simply ʔu- when speaking at a normal conversational rate. See Lesson Thirteen.

What common thread of meaning do they all share? **STOP** reading at this point to consider the answer to this question. Only after forming some sort of answer, should the student continue reading.

The above words all express conditions (or states) of mind and body.

Now add to this list the words having the ʔəs- prefix from the sentences at the beginning of this lesson numbered 1b through 4b writing them in the blanks on the left.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

In the blanks on the right write the English glosses appropriate for the Lushootseed words on the left. Omit *is* from the glosses. (It is required by the grammar of the English sentences that translate the Lushootseed sentences, but it is not part of the Lushootseed verb's meaning.)

10.3. From this additional list the student can see that it is not just conditions of the mind and body that ʔəs- refers to but rather to states in general. Therefore, ʔəs- is called the **stative prefix**. It can be used in the present, past or future because its meaning makes no reference to time at all. Whether one says *is frozen*, *was frozen*, or *will be frozen*, the state of being frozen is unchanged.

10.4. The stative prefix is not used with words that are inherently or intrinsically stative such as *haac long/tall (thing)*, *hik^w big*, *haʔt good*, *luʒ old*, and *ʒik^w ugly*.¹⁰ In other

¹⁰With appropriate suffixation, however, these words are changed into verbs that do take prefixes. Here are several examples.

ʔəsʒik ^w əb čəd.	I'm lonesome.
ʔuʒik ^w əb čəx ^w ʔu.	Did you get lonesome?
ʔəsluʒ'əb ti sq ^w əbayʔ.	The dog is old.
ʔuhaʔtɪl.	[The weather] became good.
ʔuhig ^w ild.	[Someone] made [something] bigger.

(Often a final k^w- sound becomes g^w when a vowel follows as in this last example.)

words, ʔəs- makes stative verbs out of roots that are not already stative in their core meaning.

10.5. The prefix ʔu-, on the other hand, indicates verbs that express events, actions, processes, and the like. It is called the **perfective prefix**. (The meaning of this name is explained in the next lesson.)

10.6. Some very common verbs expressing cognition and perception typically bear the -dub suffixes (See 5.3.) and the stative prefix. The three most frequently occurring are presented in the short sentences below.

- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| 5. ʔəslaχdub čəʔ ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The dog remembers us. |
| 6. ʔə(s)ʂudub ʔə ti čačʰas ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The boy sees the dog. |
| 7. ʔəs(h)aydx ¹¹ čəxʷ ʔu tsi luχ. | Do you know the old woman? |

10.7. Dialect differences.

10.7.a The Northern Lushootseed ʔəstagʷəxʷ *hungry* is matched by ʔəscəwəʔ in Southern Lushootseed.

10.7b. There is no exact equivalent to χaχ in Southern Lushootseed where χuxʷi(l) is used. Thus, Southern χuxʷi(l) corresponds to both the Northern χuxʷil *cold state of objects* and χaχ *person feels cold*.

10.8. **Vocabulary comment.** Whereas English uses the three words *burn*, *fire*, and *firewood*, Lushootseed has the one word, hud. Sometimes hud is also used to designate wood in general. The reader (or listener) depends on context to distinguish these different meanings of hud.

The range of meaning that many Lushootseed roots have usually does not match closely the semantic range of the nearest English equivalent. Often, in fact, the concepts that Lushootseed speakers subsume under a particular word surprise those who speak English. A case in point is χikʷ. Ponder the following:

¹¹Letters in parentheses represent sounds that are not pronounced in a particular circumstance. In this case the h-sound is lost following an s-sound. If the prefix were ʔu-, the h would be pronounced.

ḡikʷ	ugly (in appearance or personality), mean, rude, inclined to 'rough' talk; strange in appearance.
ʔəsḡikʷil	in a mean mood.
ḡikʷəb	be still (imperative), be quiet.
ʔəsḡikʷəb	lonesome.

10.9. Exercises and Homework. Translate the following into Lushootseed:

1. The dog is thirsty. _____.
2. Are you hungry? _____.
3. Is the old man lonesome? _____.
4. The old woman put the fire out. _____.
5. Did the boy tie the dog up? _____.
6. Is the river frozen? _____.
7. I remember it. _____.
8. Are we happy? _____.
9. Do you know the girl? _____.
10. [Someone] took the dog home. _____.
11. Did the girl take the mat? _____.
12. I don't feel like it. (Said in response to a request or suggestion to do something.)
_____.

LESSON ELEVEN

Tense and aspect

(In places this lesson involves fairly abstract discussions. Students are not expected to grasp all of it immediately. Much of what is described here will be understood only gradually as more and more texts are read. Students should not, therefore, be discouraged if there is much they do not fully comprehend at first. Rather, they should take pleasure in probing a different culture's system of organizing the realm of time.)

11.1. Tense, that is to say, present, past, and future, is forced upon speakers of English by the grammar. Every sentence must be expressed in one of these three categories because tense in English is obligatory. With every sentence English speakers must locate the event before, after, or during the moment of speaking (or with reference to some other event).

11.2. In Lushootseed, on the other hand, tense is not obligatory; usually it is not mentioned. Instead, Lushootseed grammar is much concerned with **aspect** which describes the period of time within which an event or process occurs.

11.2a. English also marks aspect. Differences like *is going* versus *goes* and *has gone* versus *went* are aspectual and obligatory. But many aspectual differences are optional in English. Some of these are formed with phrases like *burst into tears*, *cry by fits and starts*, and *do over and over*.

In some cases the difference in meaning between two English verb roots is primarily aspectual. Consider *beat* versus *hit*. The first is repetitive while the second is momentaneous.

11.2b. All these sorts of differences are aspectual. They concern the *temporal how of an event*, the *lapse of time in which the act is done* -- not *when it is done* (which is tense).

11.3. Lushootseed verbs are either static or dynamic. If static, they typically bear the stative prefix ?əs- presented in Lesson Ten. If dynamic, they divide into two groups called perfective and imperfective.

11.3a. Perfective verbs are normally designated by the prefix ʔu-; however, speakers not infrequently omit this prefix when context clearly establishes this aspect as the only possibility.

With the perfective aspect, an act is viewed as *a single whole* without concern for the various phases involved in the event. The speaker looks upon the action in its *entirety* when ʔu- is used.

11.3b. In contrast to the perfective, imperfective verbs distinguish various phases of an activity. In most dialects of Lushootseed there are two contrasting imperfective prefixes, the **progressive** lə- and the **progressive state** ləs-. However, the Swinomish, Skagit, Sauk-Suiattle, and some Snohomish speakers have a third imperfect prefix, the **continuous**, ləcu-.

11.3c. These five prefixes form a mutually exclusive set occurring immediately before the verb stem:

	ʔəs-	
	ʔu-	
(other possible prefixes)	lə-	verb stem
	ləs-	
	ləcu-	

11.4. The sentences below illustrate a common use of the progressive prefix.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. ləʔuχ ^w ti čač ^{as} . | The boy is/was/will be going. |
| 2. ləʔuχ ^w tx ^w ti čač ^{as} . | [Someone] is/was/will be taking the boy somewhere. |
| 3. lət ^{uk} w čəx ^w ʔu. | Are/were you on your way home? |
| | (or) |
| | Will you be on your way home? |
| 4. ləʔəλ' čəd. | I am/was/will be coming. |
| 5. ləʔibəš ti luχ. | The old man is/was/will be walking. |
| 6. lətəlawil ti čač ^{as} . | The boy is/was/will be running. |

11.4a. Contrast the six sentences above with those presented in Lessons One and Two, all of which begin with the prefix ʔu-. The difference is not one of tense because all

example sentences with ʔu- could as well be rendered in English with the present or even occasionally the future. Instead the difference is aspectual.

11.4b. With lə- the speaker views the action as ongoing and continuous. It often occurs with verb stems that refer to movement through space as in the sentences above.

11.4c. The progressive prefix is also heard frequently with stems that incorporate the idea of becoming or developing. Typically, these stems end in -il. With such stems lə- designates movement through time.

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 7. ləluχil čəxʷ. | As you grow up ... |
| 8. lətaχil. | [It] is/was/will be becoming night. |
| 9. ləxʷakʷil čəd. | I am/was/will be getting tired. |
| 10. ləqʷiqʷil*. | [He] is/was/will be getting stronger. |

11.4d. Comparing sentences 1 - 6 with 7 - 10 shows that both time and distance are conceptualized the same way with lə-.

11.5. When an activity which ordinarily takes place in one location is performed while moving from one place to another, lə- is again the appropriate prefix.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 11a. ləʔilib tsi kʷaʔkʷaʔ. | Crow is/was singing as she travels/traveled along. |
| 11b. ʔutʔilib tsi kʷaʔkʷaʔ. | Crow sings/sang. |
| 12a. ləʔixʷicut ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The dog is shaking himself off as he goes along. |
| 12b. ʔutʔixʷicut ti sqʷəbayʔ. | The dog shakes/shook himself off. |
| 13a. ləʔəyʷdxʷ ti ʔaciʔtalbixʷ. | As he travels/traveled, he finds/found people. |
| 13b. ʔuʔəyʷdxʷ ¹² ti ʔaciʔtalbixʷ. | He finds/found people. |

Occasionally, however, a temporal rather than spacial notion dominates in these stems designating activities normally done in one place. In such cases lə- adds a **gradulative** notion, e.g.,

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| ləχucusitəb ti ʔukʷaʔ. | <i>The sun's face is gradually wrapped up.</i> ¹³ |
|------------------------|--|

¹²See footnote 4 of 5.3.

¹³Rather than *setting*, the sun in Lushootseed cosmology is wrapped up or squeezed into a bag at dusk.

11.6. Optional: A related concept conveyed by *lə-* refers to activities done serially, one subsequent to another. Here are two examples from a text talking about Bobcat and his hunting:

bələt'uc'ud ti dəč'uʔ.	Again he shot one.
gʷəl bələxʷit'il.	And it fell [out of a tree].
bələt'uc'ud.	He shot another.
bələt'uc'ud ti ʔiʔlaq.	He shot the last one too.
hədʔiw'təb ʔə ti stubš.	The man put [them] in the house.
gʷəl lək'iʔid ti qčic*, ti ʔiʔičəd.	and hung on a peg [first] the bow, [then] the quiver.

11.7. The aspect prefix *ləs-*, progressive state.

11.7a. This prefix designates a state viewed as contingent upon or intimately involved with some dynamic event. (The following illustrative sentences are grammatically more complex than students can fully understand at this point. A general feel for the situation that prompts the use of *ləs-* is all they need be concerned with here.)

14. ləskʷaxʷad čəd dxʷʔal sxʷiʔs kʷi gʷəsbaqʷts.
helping-him I so-that not get-hurt-he
 I am helping him so that he won't get hurt.
15. ləsxəʔxəʔačiʔ čəd yəxi čəd tulədʔəq'il.
hurting-hands I because I crawled
 My hands are hurting because I crawled.

11.7b. It is required when a state is maintained while progressing through space.

- 16a. ləsʔitut ti čačas. The sleeping boy (is being carried somewhere).
 16b. ʔəsʔitut ti čačas. The boy is asleep.
- 17a. ləsʔibəš čəʔ. We are walking together.
 17b. ləʔibəš čəʔ. We are walking.
- 18a. ləskʷədad ti qčic*. He is carrying the bow.
 18b. ʔəskʷədad ti qčic. He is holding the bow.
19. ləscil ti jəsəds* ʔal ti səʔibəšs. Her feet are protected while she walks.

11.8. The fifth aspect prefix is *ləcu-*, **continuous**. Consider the following sentences:

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 20. <i>ləcuyayus tsi ʔaʔac'apəd*</i> . | Ant is working. |
| 21. <i>ləcut'ilib tsi k'a'k'aʔ</i> . | Crow is singing. |
| 22. <i>ləcup'ayəq ʔə ti sdəx'it</i> . | [He] is hewing out a hunting canoe. |
| 23. <i>ləcut'ix'icut ti sq'əbayʔ</i> . | The dog is shaking himself off. |
| 24. <i>ləcuqəlb</i> . | [It] is raining. |
| 25. <i>ləcuq'at ʔu</i> . | Is [it] snowing? |

11.8a. Typically, *lə-* involves movement from one location to another while *ləcu-* is used with activities that are ordinarily in one place or events that happen in one place.

11.8b. However, occasionally speakers do use *ləcu-* with verbs that designate movement through space. With these *ləcu-* adds the notion of *habitual* or *regular* performance. Compare these two pairs of sentences:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 26a. <i>ləcutəlawil čəd</i> . | I am running (as part of my daily exercise program). |
| 26b. <i>lətəlawil čəd</i> . | I am running (at this moment). |
| 27a. <i>ləcuʔibibəš ti sčət'əd</i> . | Bear would be walking about aimlessly. |
| 27b. <i>ləʔibəš ti sčət'əd</i> . | Bear is/was walking (at the moment). |

11.8c. Conversely, there are a few patient oriented verb stems whose root meaning includes movement through space that do not permit *lə-* (except in its serial use (11.6)). These are verbs of the class taking *-d*, *-t-əb* immediately following the root (6.1, 9.3b). Verbs of this type use *ləcu-* instead of *--* and with the same meaning as *-- lə-* in 11.4. Such a verb is *čalad* *chase [someone]*. Consider the following briefly described event:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| <i>ʔuluudəx¹⁴ ti stab</i> . | [He] heard something. |
| <i>ʔud'əlq 'usəx'</i> . | [He] looked over his shoulder. |
| <i>ʔušudx'əx' ti hik' s'əlqəb</i> . | [He] saw a big monster. |
| <i>ləcučalad</i> . | [It] was chasing [him]. |

11.8d. Many Lushootseed speakers do not use *ləcu-*. It is not heard in Southern Lushootseed at all and many Snohomish do not use it. However, it is very much a part

¹⁴The significance of *-əx'* is explained in 14.2 - 14.3c.

of the aspect system for the Sauk-Suiattle, the Swinomish and all those along the Skagit River.

For people who do not have *ləcu-* in their speech, other verbal strategies are available to render nearly the same concept. These include (1) the use of adverbs (Lesson Seventeen) such as *ck^waqid* *always*, (2) combinations of prefixes such as *χu-* (Lesson Thirteen) plus *lə-*, (3) the repetition of a verb several times (each one bearing the prefix *ʔu-*) or (4) **reduplications** (repetitions of part or all of the root), and (5) using *lə-* in situations where the Skagit (and some Snohomish speakers) would say *ləcu-*.

11.9. Of the five aspectual prefixes presented in lessons Ten and Eleven, two are often omitted. When context makes clear that the verb requires *ʔu-* or *lə-*, these two are not said. The omission of *ʔu-* is particularly frequent. (In the texts *ʔu-* has sometimes been replaced, but all such additions are in editorial brackets, [].)

11.10. Commands are primarily signalled by vocal intonation. They are further characterized by the absence of all prefixes.¹⁵ Commands issued to more than one person often include the particle *ʔi* which follows the verb occurring where *čələp* would otherwise be.

11.11. Dialect differences.

11.11a. The following brief list sets out those lexical differences between Southern and Northern Lushootseed which occur for the first time in this lesson.

Southern	Northern	
<i>wələχ^w</i>	<i>q^wiq^wil</i>	strong (muscular)
<i>č'acus</i>	<i>qčic</i>	bow (archery)
<i>bəčlulaʔ</i>	<i>χaχac'apəd</i>	ant
<i>jəšəd</i>	<i>jəsəd</i>	foot / lower leg

(With this last pair compare *č'ač'aš* instead of *č'ač'as*, and *č'aləš* instead of *č'aləs* (1.4, 4.7c). In the three cases *š* corresponds to *s*. Many words exhibit this correspondence between Southern and Northern Lushootseed.)

¹⁵To this statement one must except word building (that is, **derivational**) prefixes.

11.11b. In place of x^wak^wil some Upriver Skagit use q^wəʔəb. For others, the latter word is an intensified counterpart of the former -- something like *exhausted* compared to *tired*.

11.12. **Vocabulary comment.** The Northern Lushootseed word for *bow* (*archery*) is derived from q^čəč-, q^čč- *bend, bent, crooked* and (possibly) the suffix -ič which by *dissimilation* becomes -ic.

The Northern Lushootseed word for *ant* is built upon ʔac^č meaning *cinch, cinch up, tighten*. The ending -apəd refers to the *waist* or to a *belt* and the doubled first part (a process called reduplication (11.8d)) means *small*. Thus, ʔaʔac^čapəd is the *Little Cinched Up (One)*.

11.13. Exercises.

I. On file cards write the three aspectual prefixes lə-, ləs- and ləcu- (one per card) in the upper left hand corner. Add the grammatical name of the prefix in the upper right hand corner. Below copy from the lesson each explanation of use or meaning provided for the prefix.

II. On a separate sheet of paper, write out answers to the following questions without consulting the cards just prepared or the lesson. When finished, reread the lesson to check the answers.

- (1) Typically, ləcu- occurs with verbs having what kind of meaning?
- (2) What is the difference in meaning between ʔəs- and ləs-?
- (3) How does ʔu- differ from ləcu-?
- (4) Why does čalad *chase [someone]* take ləcu- instead of lə-?

III. Gloss each of the following words:

ʔuk^wədad _____.

ʔəsk^wədad _____.

ləsk^wədad _____.

ʔut'ilib _____

lət'ilib _____

ləcut'ilib _____

ʔutələwil _____

lətələwil _____

ləcutələwil _____

11.13. Exercise 1. On the cards with the given phonetic prefixes ʔ-, lə-, and ləcut-, copy and paste the appropriate words in the space provided. Also the phonetic roots of the words in the space provided. (10 points)

2. On a separate sheet of paper, write out answers to the following questions without consulting the cards just prepared or the lesson. When finished, check the answers to check the answers. (10 points)

- (1) Typically, how many syllables are there in a word?
- (2) What is the difference in meaning between ʔ- and lə-?
- (3) How does ʔ- differ from lə-?
- (4) Why does ʔ- differ from lə-?

11. Gloss roll of the following words: _____

12. In the given pairs of words, underline the syllable that is different. (10 points)

LESSON TWELVE

The s- prefix; have and have not; d- paradigm affixes

Leaf through the previous lessons to find all the Lushootseed nouns presented thus far. Write them in two columns on a separate sheet of paper. On the left put those nouns that begin with s; on the right fill in all the nouns that do not begin with s. Following those words that are restricted to only a part of the Lushootseed territory, add in parentheses abbreviations representing the regions where they do occur, e.g., č'ač'aš (SL), spaʔc (Swin.), etc.

12.1. A third of the nouns presented in the first eleven lessons begin with s. Except for *sup'qs hair seal* all these nouns with initial s have another consonant as the second sound. In each case the s of the **consonant cluster** is actually a prefix. Because nouns with this prefix s- are so numerous, Lushootseed glossaries and dictionaries list them under the second consonant rather than by the initial s-. Thus, *sčətxʷəd black bear* is found under č, not under s.

On the other hand, if a vowel follows an initial s, that s is not a prefix. Therefore, *sup'qs* is listed under s. (Remember, ʔ is a consonant. Find *sʔuladxʷ* in the glossary.)

The same practice is used with verbs. They are listed by the letter for the first sound of the stem -- **not** the prefix.

Study the following sentences:

1a. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəqʷuʔs.

Does he/she have [any] water?

1b. xʷiʔ.

No.

1c. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəqʷuʔs.

He/she does not have [any] water.

2a. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəhuds.

Does he/she have [any] wood?

2b. xʷiʔ.

No.

2c. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəhuds.

He/she does not have [any] wood.

3a. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəsʔəbayʔs.

Does he/she have a dog?

3b. xʷiʔ.

No.

3c. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəsʔəbayʔs.

He/she does not have a dog.

4a. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəsʔuladxʷs.

Does he/she have [any] salmon?

4b. ʔah ti sʔuladxʷs.

He/she has [some] salmon.

- 5a. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəsčəbids.¹⁶ Does he/she have [any] fir bark?
 5b. ʔah ti sčəbids. He/she has [some] fir bark.

12.2. Affirmative answers to questions in Lushootseed typically do not include ʔi, the word meaning *yes*. Instead, speakers simply make a short affirmative statement as in 4b and 5b. Where English style would expect something like, *Yes, he/she has some salmon*, Lushootseed style omits the *yes*.

12.3. The above example sentences depart rather far in formation from their English equivalents. For example, a literal translation of sentence 1a would be, *Is there his/her water?* And 1c would be, *[There] is not his/her water*.

12.3a. When something is remote, hypothetical, or simply nonexistent, its noun is preceded by kʷi instead of ti.

12.3b. The prefix gʷ- is called **subjunctive**. (When it precedes a consonant as in the above example sentences, it is written as gʷə-. Before vowels it is simply gʷ-.) This subjunctive prefix is used when questioning, denying, or doubting. With nouns, speakers often omit it because kʷi expresses much the same idea. With verbs, some speakers usually omit kʷi, others tend to omit gʷ-. (In completing the exercises to this and subsequent lessons, however, the student should not omit either kʷi or gʷ-.)

12.3c. The suffix -s represents someone or something in relation to someone or something else.¹⁷ As will be seen below, this suffix also relates someone to actions and states. Because of this last fact, it is best for the student not to think of -s as corresponding very

¹⁶Fir bark was a very important source of fuel for the Lushootseed in former times.

¹⁷In traditional grammar this suffix and its equivalents in other languages is called **possessive**. This term is a poor one however. In what sense does someone possess *his father*? And if one could make a case for claiming that she possesses *her hand*, it must, at least, be admitted that this possession is very different from that of *her book*. Also consider the ambiguities of the phrase *his picture*. Is it one he purchased; did he paint it; or is it a picture of him? Because the term *possessive* is often inappropriate and always imprecise, this description of Lushootseed does not use it.

closely in meaning to *his*, *her*, *its* even though these English words are often used in translating sentences with *-s*.

12.3d. When the speaker chooses to be explicit about the person (or item) involved in the relationship, specific mention is made of that person by means of ʔə. Compare the following:

xʷubts	his paddle	xʷubt ʔə ti hədli	Henry's paddle
sqʷəbayʔs	her dog	sqʷəbayʔ ʔə tsi mali	Mary's dog
šaw's	its bone	šaw ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ	the dog's bone

As can be seen, the *-s* suffix is replaced by ʔə plus a noun denoting the other member of the relationship.

12.3e. People's names require *ti* or *tsi* (or *kʷi*, *kʷsi*) just like other nouns.

Translate the sentences below into Lushootseed:

We looked for Mary's dog. _____

It ate the old woman's salmon. _____

She roasted the boy's salmon. _____

He took the old man's paddle. _____

12.4. Compare the following words with one another and with those listed in 12.3d above. Provide the missing English gloss on each blank.

dʃʷubt	my paddle	xʷubt čəʔ	_____
dsqʷəbayʔ	_____	sqʷəbayʔ čəʔ	our dog
dšaw	my bone	šaw čəʔ	our bone
adʃʷubt	your paddle	xʷubtləp	(the) paddle of you folks
adsqʷəbayʔ	your dog	sqʷəbayʔləp	_____
adšaw	_____	šawləp	(the) bone of you folks

12.4a. These three affixes plus čəʔ along with the *-s* suffix of 12.3 - 12.3d form a rather peculiar set. Two members are prefixes, *d-* and *ad-*; two are suffixes, *-ləp* and *-s*; and one is an interloper from the čəd-word paradigm, namely čəʔ.

12.4b. Person markers of this **paradigm** (list of items belonging to the same class) are also different in that there is a form for *he/his*, *she/her(s)*, and *it/its* which the čad-words and person patient suffixes lack. (See 12.5 below.)

12.4c. In the following sentences discover the relative order of the three prefixes ad-, g^w-, and s-.

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------|
| 6a. ʔah ʔu k ^w i g ^w adsq ^w əbayʔ. | Do you have a dog? |
| 6b. ʔah ti dsq ^w əbayʔ. | I have a dog. |
| 7a. ʔah ʔu k ^w i g ^w adsčəbid. | Do you have [any] fir bark? |
| 7b. ʔah ti dsčəbid. | I have [some] fir bark. |

12.4d. In later sentences it will be seen that d-, like ad-, also occurs between g^w(ə)- and s-. This arrangement is summarized below:

g ^w -	d-	(s-)
	ad-	

12.4e. Although čəʔ has been brought into this paradigm it is not well integrated. Except for čəʔ members of this paradigm are all affixes and can co-occur with čad-words as is shown here:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| adstaləʔ čəd. | I am your nephew/niece. |
| dstaləʔ čəx ^w . | You are my nephew/niece. |
| staləʔs čəd. | I am his/her nephew/niece. |
| staləʔs čəx ^w . | You are his/her nephew/niece. |
| staləʔləp čəd. | I am the nephew/niece of you folks. |
| staləʔ čəʔ čəx ^w . | NOT ACCEPTABLE. (See Lesson Nineteen.) |

Even though čəʔ is used to mean *our*, etc., it cannot occur in the same formations with čad-words. However, when čəʔ is serving in its original function as a čad-word, occurrence with this d-paradigm is grammatical:

- | | |
|-----------------|---|
| adstətələʔ čəʔ. | We are your nephews/nieces. |
| stətələʔs čəʔ. | We are his/her nephews/nieces.
(stətələʔ is the plural of staləʔ.) |

12.5. The three person paradigms presented thus far are brought together here.

	Singular	čəd	-š/-c	d-
First person				
	Plural	čəʔ	-(ub)uʔ	(čəʔ)
	Singular	čəx ^w	-(i)cid	ad-
Second person				
	Plural	čələp	-(ub)uʔəd	-ləp
Third person				-s

In traditional terminology forms equivalent to *I, me, my, mine,* and *we, us, our(s)* are called **first person**; *you, your(s)* **second person**; and *he, him, his, she, her(s), it, its* and *they, them, their(s)* **third person**. These terms are used in this reader from here on.

12.6. There is a means of distinguishing plural from singular in the third person (although speakers of Lushootseed feel relatively little need to use it). Compare the following sentences:

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 8a. ʔuʔəy'dx ^w čəd ti sq ^w əbayʔs. | I found his/her dog. |
| 8b. ʔuʔəy'dx ^w čəd ti sq ^w əbayʔs əlg ^w əʔ. | I found their dog. |
| 9a. ʔəstag ^w əx ^w ʔu. | Is he/she hungry? |
| 9b. ʔəstag ^w əx ^w ʔu həlg ^w əʔ. | Are they hungry? |

When əlg^wəʔ follows a vowel, it acquires an h to facilitate pronunciation as in 9b above.

12.7. Exercises. Translate the following sentences into Lushootseed:

1. Do they have a hunting canoe? _____.
2. Do you have any crab? _____.
3. We have [some] fir bark. _____.
4. Do you folks have [any] water? _____.
5. Do you have a mat? _____.
6. I have [some] wood. _____.
7. We have [some] salmon. _____.
8. They have [some] arrow(s). _____.

LESSON THIRTEEN

General prefixes

13.1. Five Lushootseed prefixes can be added not only to verbs but to most other word types as well including nouns, prepositions, and any other class of word so long as it functions as the main word in a predicate or complement. (The terms *predicate* and *complement* are defined in Lesson Sixteen.) Predicate adverbs (17.2) can also bear these prefixes. These five, because of their wide distribution, are called **general prefixes**.

- g^w- **subjunctive** (12.3b, 13.4, 14.4b)
- ʁu- **habitual** (13.2)
- ʃu- **irrealis** (9.2, 13.3, 13.4)
- tu- **past** (13.5)
- bə- **additive** (13.6)

13.2. ʁu- marks an act or state as being habitual. It is usually rendered in English with the words *used to* or *would* if the time is past, or by *generally* or *usually* when discussing events and states not bound by temporal considerations. For the future, however, there is often no concise way of expressing ʁu- in English.

1. ʁux^wak^wil čəd ʔəbil'əs čəd¹⁸ ʔəstag^wəx^w. I generally get tired if I am hungry.
2. ʁuləxilič əlg^wəʔ. It would get light over them.
3. ʁuləʔəd ti ʁufisəd ʔə ti šəbad. He would flip the habitual arrows of the enemy away.

13.3. ʃu- shows that an event or state is expected in the future or, at least, that it might occur. At the moment of speaking, however, the event or state has not become a reality. A few examples are given in 9.2. Several others follow here.

4. ʃugəlk' čəd. I might get tangled.
5. lilcut! ʃubaʔk^wʃ čəx^w. Get away! You might/will get hurt.

¹⁸This position of čəd ahead of its verb is discussed in Lesson Seventeen.

6. ʔal kʷi ʔudukʷəʔdat tomorrow
 7. ʔubəščəb čəxʷ. You will be a mink.

13.4. The irrealis, ʔu-, and subjunctive, gʷ-, have a somewhat similar meaning from the English speaker's perspective. On occasion they are both glossed as *might*. However, gʷ- marks a situation as doubtful (when not simply contrary to fact) whereas ʔu- imparts the idea of expectation.

13.5. tu- designates past, often remote, time.

8. ʔuʔatabəd ti tuscʰistxʷs. Her former husband died.
 9. tuʔiyaʂəd ti tuscʰistxʷs. Slug had been her former husband.
 10. tuhuyucut əlgʷəʔ. They prepared themselves.
 11. tucʰagʷacut. [They] bathed.
 12. tuxʷəcdaliʔəd. [They] fasted.
 13. ʔal ti tudukʷəʔdat yesterday
 14. tuʔal ləliʔ swatixʷtəd. He was in another country.

13.6. bə- marks an act or state as occurring *again, anew, once more*, or a noun as being *additional, another*. It is called the additive prefix.

15. bəʔibəš ti bəščəb. Mink walked some more.
 16. bəʔəyʰdxʷ ti sʔuladxʷ. Again he found a salmon.
 17. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. It's night and [then] again it's day.
 18. s(h)adʒəb čəd čəda¹⁹ bəstibtib. I'm tall and I'm strong too.
 19. cqʷib tsi bəpʰuayʰ. Also Flounder got in on it.

13.7. The habitual, past and irrealis comprise a subset of general prefixes based on their similar form, a single consonant plus the u-vowel. Each of them has three different pronunciations depending on what follows.

¹⁹čəda *and I* is derived from čəd *I* plus the element -a *and*. s(h)adʒəb čəd + bəstibtib čəd *I am tall. + I am strong too.* becomes s(h)adʒəb čəd čəda bəstibtib. See 21.7.

1	2	3
ʁu-	ʁ(u)-	ʁə-
tu-	t(u)-	tə-
ʔu-	ʔ(u)-	ʔə-

13.7a. Immediately before a stem (as in all examples above) these three prefixes are pronounced as spelled in list 1.

13.7b. Immediately before a vowel, however, these prefixes lose their own vowel. To indicate this loss, the u-vowel is written in parentheses as in list 2. (Whatever is written in parentheses in Lushootseed orthography is not pronounced but understood to be present etymologically.)

13.7c. When a prefix consisting of only a single consonant separates ʁu-, etc., from the stem, then these prefixes retain their full u-vowel as in list 1.

13.7d. When one or more prefixes of the form consonant + vowel or consonant + vowel + consonant separates ʁu-, tu-, or ʔu- from the stem, then these latter prefixes are pronounced as in list 3. However, in spelling the u-vowel is retained.

13.8. Except for ʔu- and tu- which are mutually exclusive, general prefixes can co-occur.

13.8a. The position of general prefixes, except for bə-, is fixed relative to one another.

		tu-		
g ^w -	ʁu-		(+ other possible prefixes)	stem
		ʔu-		

13.8b. The position of bə- relative to the other general prefixes is meaningful. It is usually just to the right of tu-/ʔu-, but not always. Meaning influences its location. For example, ʁu-bə-ʔaʃ focuses attention on it *being night again* when something would happen, while bə-ʁu-ʔaʃ is the *reoccurrence* of something that *would happen at night*.

13.9. **Dialect differences.** The Northern Lushootseed word for mink, bəʃčəb, is matched by c'əbal'qid in Southern Lushootseed.

13.10. **Vocabulary comment.** Compare the Lushootseed ways of saying *yesterday* and *tomorrow*:

ʔal ti tudukʷəʔdat *yesterday*

ʔal kʷi ʔudukʷəʔdat *tomorrow*

The stem dukʷəʔdat means literally *change day*. What has changed is *yesterday*. What will change is *tomorrow*.

13.11. **Exercises.** The following excerpts from various Lushootseed texts involve vocabulary and some grammar that has not yet been presented. Each line, however, has an English translation. The student is to read through each of these looking for all cases of general prefixes. Each one is to be circled along with its English gloss whether that be a whole word or a part of a word. Be alert to the alternation that some prefixes undergo. (The first has been done as an example.)

One

1. (tu)ʔuluʔəxʷ ti bəʃčəb ʔi ti qawʷqs. Mink and Raven started out by canoe.
2. tugʷəčʷədaxʷ əlgʷəʔ kʷi sləxil. They looked for the daylight.
3. tuləčʷitil əlgʷəʔ. They drew near.
4. ʃuləxiləxʷ əlgʷəʔ. It would get light over them.
5. ʃubələbəsad. It would again get dark.
6. tuʔəgʷʔ əlgʷəʔ ti qʷilʷbids. They left their canoe.
7. tugʷaxʷ. [They] walked.
8. tugʷaxʷəxʷ əlgʷəʔ. They walked now.
9. tuʔčil dxʷʔal ti ʔaciʔtalbixʷ. [They] arrived to the people.

Two

10. ʔubəʃčəbəxʷ čəxʷ. You will be a mink [from] now [on].
11. ʔupʷaʃaʃ ʔuʔal tudiʔ čaʔkʷ. [You] will be a no-account there by the water.
12. ʔulədʷək ʷdʷək ʷ čəxʷ ʔal ti qəlʷqəladiʔ. You will wander about in the snags [of driftwood].
13. tuhuyiləxʷ bəʃčəb. He became a mink.
14. tuhuyil pʷaʃaʃ. He became a no-account.

15. ʔah ti bəščəb. There is Mink.
 16. lədzək^w dʔək^w uʔx^w ʔal ti qəl'qələdiʔ ʔal ti čaʔk^w. He is still wandering about in the snags [of driftwood] at the shore.

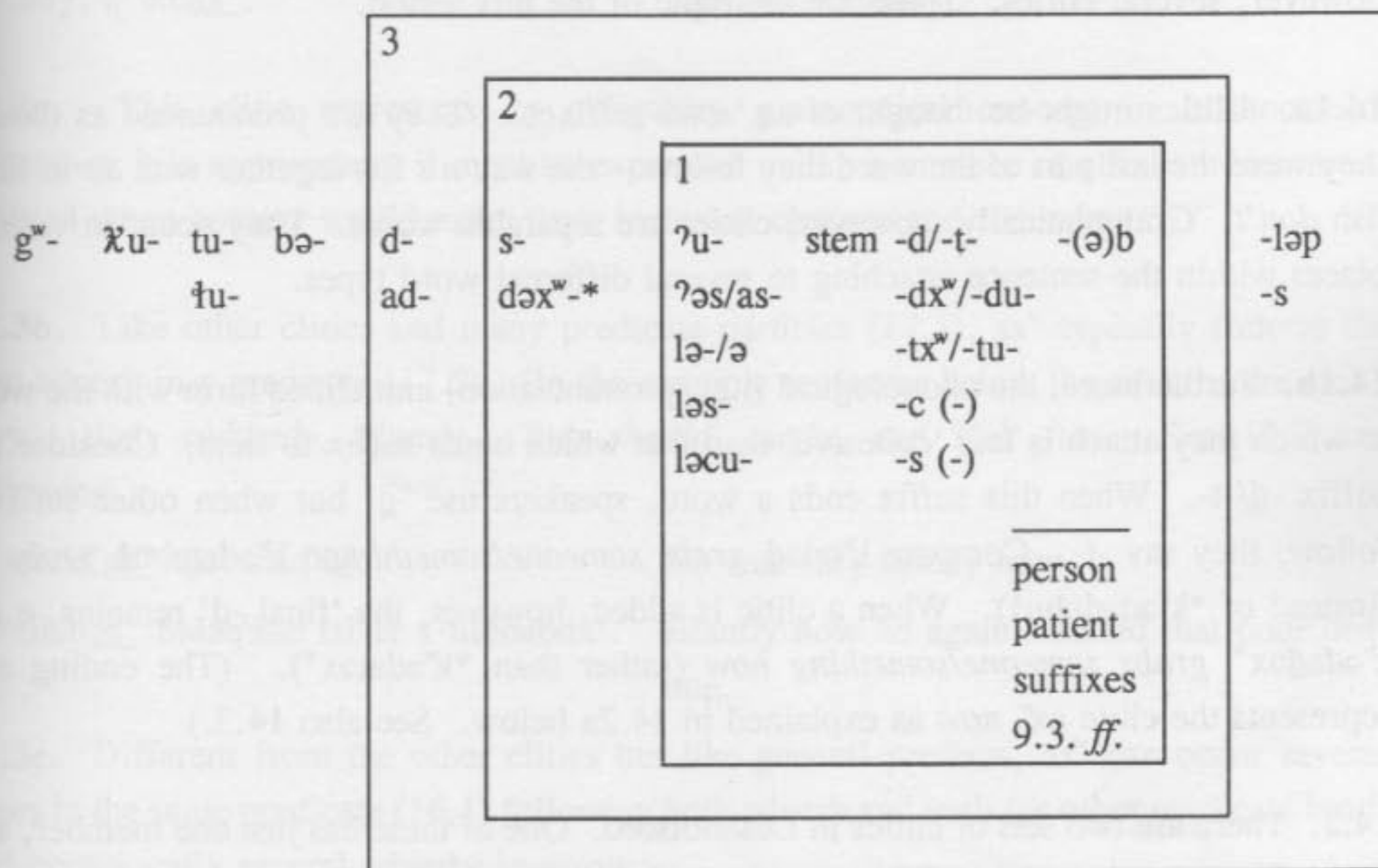
Three

17. bəq^wuʔq^waʔ ʔal ti čad. He drank again [and again every]where.
 18. bəfčiləx^w. He arrived again.
 19. bəʔəy'dx^wəx^w ti sʔuladx^w. Again he found salmon.
 20. bək^wədalik^wəx^w ʔə ti sʔuladx^w. He caught more salmon.

Four

21. ʔuʔuc'utəb ti qc'ap. Kitsap would be shot at.
 22. ʔul' ʔuʔəf'əd ti ʔuʔisəd ʔə ti šəbad. [But] he would just flip away the enemy's habitual arrows.
 23. x'iʔ k'i g^wəʔ'usʔals ʔal ti c'uk^wəbs. They could not enter his flesh.
 24. day' ti sq'ədʔuʔs ti ʔudəx^wʔ'al ʔə ti f'isəd. It is only his hair where the arrows would enter.
 25. ʔutuʔ^w ʔubəʔabyitəb. He would simply be given more [arrows by the enemy].
 26. fubək^wədadəx^w. He will grab another [enemy arrow from out of his hair].
 27. g^wəl fubət'uc'ud. And he will shoot [it] back at [them].

SUMMARY LIST OF INFLECTIONAL AFFIXES



All inflection within the rectangle labeled 1 is exclusively verbal. That encompassed by rectangle 2 marks the main word in subordinate clauses (Lesson Twenty-one) and also a large class of nouns. Inflection within rectangle 3 is the person system appropriate for structures in rectangle 2. (The prefix dəx^w- is replaced by səx^w- in Southern Lushootseed.)

LESSON FOURTEEN

Clitics

14.1. Most inflectional affixes have now been presented. There remain to present, however, several **clitics**. These are the topic of this lesson.

14.1a. Clitics might be thought of as 'semi-suffixes'. They are pronounced as though they were the last part of the word they follow -- the way *n't* fits together with *do* in English *don't*. Grammatically, however, clitics are separable words. They occur in various places within the sentence attaching to several different word types.

14.1b. Furthermore, the phonological (i.e., pronunciation) unit clitics form with the word to which they attach is less 'cohesive' than that which binds suffix to stem. Consider the suffix -d/-t-. When this suffix ends a word, speakers use -d; but when other suffixes follow, they say -t-. Compare *kʷədəd* *grabs someone/something* to *kʷədətubuʔ* *grabs us* (instead of **kʷədədubuʔ*). When a clitic is added, however, the 'final -d' remains, e.g., *kʷədədaxʷ* *grabs someone/something now* (rather than **kʷədətaxʷ*). (The ending *axʷ* represents the clitic *axʷ now* as explained in 14.2a below. See also 14.3.)

14.2. There are two sets of clitics in Lushootseed. One of these has just one member, *axʷ now*. The other is a class of five person markers closely related to the *čəd*-words.

14.2a. All six clitics begin with a vowel which is *a* when stressed, *ə* otherwise. Clitics are stressed when the word to which they attach has no vowels (apart from those in prefixes) or no vowels other than *ə*.

14.2b. If a clitic attaches to a word ending in a vowel, an epenthetic *h* keeps the two vowels distinct, e.g., *čubəhaxʷ* from *čubə go up from shore* plus *axʷ now*.

14.3. The most frequently heard clitic in Lushootseed is *axʷ* conveniently, although somewhat misleadingly, glossed as *now*. More precisely, *axʷ* means that the situation is now different from what it had been, that a new act or condition is now in effect. The following two sets of sentences illustrate this concept:

huy, q ^l ax ^w ti bəščəb.	Then Mink woke up.
g ^w əl (h)uy, haydx ^w əx ^w .	And then he knew [what had happened].
huy, bək ^w ədalik ^w əx ^w ʔə ti sʔuladx ^w .	Then he caught another salmon.
g ^w əl q ^w ibidəx ^w .	And he prepared it.
huy, q ^w əldax ^w .	Then he cooked it.

14.3a. This clitic represents an obligatory grammatical concept in Lushootseed. Whenever it is appropriate, it must be expressed unlike a number of affixes which are omitted when context would make their inclusion obvious and redundant.

14.3b. Like other clitics and many predicate particles (17.1), ax^w typically follows the first adverb in a predicate (17.2). (In the example sentences below the adverbs are cick^w *very*, tiləb *suddenly*, bluntly, ʔub *should*, ought, and ʔ^wul' *just*. See 17.2 and following.)

cick ^w əx ^w t(u)astaq ^w uʔ.	He was very thirsty now.
tiləbəx ^w bələq'xad tsiʔiʔ sʔušəbabdx ^w .	Bluntly now he again insulted that poor dear one.

14.3c. Different from the other clitics but like general prefixes, ax^w can occur several times in the same predicate (16.1) following both adverb and verb (or other predicate head) and occasionally several adverbs in a row.

ʔubəx ^w ʔupaq'atəbəx ^w ʔə ti sʔəʔəd.	The food ought to be distributed.
ʔubəx ^w čəx ^w ʔ ^w ul'əx ^w ʔubəščəb.	You should be just a mink.

14.4. The person marking clitics are closely related to the čəd-words in both form and meaning. For easy comparison these two sets of person markers are here presented side by side.

	Singular	čəd	ad (əd)
First person			
	Plural	čəʔ	aʔi (əʔi)*
	Singular	čəx ^w	ax ^w (əx ^w)
Second person			
	Plural	čələp	aləp (ələp)
Third person			as (əs)

Aside from the vowel difference (because clitics are sometimes stressed (14.2a) but čad-words never are), the student should find a total of three differences between the above two lists. Two of these differences are specific to this or that particular person marker. The other difference separates one entire set from the other. On the lines below students should describe each difference.

1. _____.
2. _____.
3. _____.

14.4a. Note that the second person singular clitic, ax^w *you*, is homonymous with the aspectual clitic, ax^w *now* (14.3). When both classes of clitics cooccur, the latter precedes the former, e.g., ...g^wəʔuχ^wəx^wəti... *if we go now*, literally, ... *if-go-now-we*.

14.4b. The clitic person markers are used in one type of **subordinate clause**. (Clause types are defined and illustrated in Lesson Twenty-one.) Typically, the verb (or, more precisely, the predicate head) bears the irrealis prefix, ʃu- (13.3/13.4), when the clause expresses what is expected or, at least, anticipated; but it carries the subjunctive prefix, g^w- (12.3b, 13.4), when the clause conveys doubt or suppositions known to be false, e.g., ...g^wəč'ač'asəd uʔx^w,²⁰ ... *if I were still young*.

The following example sentences are a little longer and more varied in meaning than those in previous lessons. Consequently, it is more difficult to determine the gloss of the new words and stems from the English translations. Therefore, a list of words appearing in these lessons for the first time is provided with appropriate glosses.

ʔuk ^w uk ^w * (NL)	play	talə	money
bəsad	darkness, night	stubš	man
č'aʔa* (SL)	play	s'əʔ'tq'iʔ	drake buffelhead / butterball, <i>Bucephala albeola</i>
č'əlpšad	sprain/turn ankle	t'iwiʔ	ask for
sq'ədʔuʔ	hair	x ^w əλ'šad	break leg

²⁰Observe this use (meaning) of the č'ač'as elsewhere glossed as *boy, girl*. The particle uʔx^w means *still, yet*.

q'ilid	put [someone/some- thing on board	ǰǎc	afraid
tag ^w -	buy	yayus	work

1. ǰux^wak^wil čǎd ǰuǰ(u)astag^wǎx^wǎd. I get tired whenever I am hungry.
2. ǰulǎcuǰilib čǎx^w ǰu ǰuyayusǎx^w. Do you usually sing while you work?
3. ǰuǰ'iwiǰtx^w čǎd ǰuǰ'ilidǎǰs. I asked [someone] to give [someone else] a ride.²¹
4. ǰuhiiǰ čǎǰ ǰuǰ'uk^wuk^wǎǰi. We are generally happy when we play.
5. ǰuhik^w stubš ǰuluǰ'ilǎǰs. He will be a big man when he grows up.
6. ǰuk^w ǰubǎsadǎǰs. Come home when it gets dark.
7. ǰǎsǰǎc čǎd g^wǎč'ǎlpšadǎd g^wǎtǎlawilǎd. I am afraid I would turn [my] ankle if I were to run.
8. haǰǰ ti sq'ǎd^zuǰ ǰǎ ti sǰ'ǎt'ǰq^wiǰ g^wǎsq'ǎd^zuǰǎǰs. Drake Buffelhead's hair is pretty if it is hair.²²
9. g^wǎtag^wš čǎx^w ǰu g^wǎbstalǎhǎx^w. Would you buy it if you had [some] money?
10. p'ǎǰǎǰ dx^wǰal dǎg^wi g^wǎx^wǎǰ'sadǎd.²³ It doesn't matter to you if I break a leg.

14.5. Dialect differences. The first person plural of Northern Lushootseed, -ǎǰi, is equivalent to -ǎǰ čǎǰ in Southern Lushootseed.

Where Northern Lushootseed has cick^w *very*, Southern Lushootseed has cay.

²¹More literally, I asked [someone] that [he/she] put [someone] on board.

²²Because the animals of today's world were people in the first world, story tellers sometimes vacillate, as here, between describing them in human or animal terms. Does Drake Buffelhead have feathers or hair on his head? This duality has prompted the concluding clause, *if it is [in fact] hair*.

²³The main clause in this sentence, p'ǎǰǎǰ' dx^wǰal dǎg^wi, involves several grammatical points yet to be presented. Among these is dǎg^wi which is still another way of saying *you*. See 19.3.

14.6. Vocabulary comment.

14.6a. The verb tag^w- *buy* requires -š rather than -d. (See 22.1a, 22.1b.) It can, however, have -alik^w in place of -š.

14.6b. The word talə *money* entered Lushootseed from Chinook Jargon, the lingua franca of the Pacific Northwest in the Nineteenth and early Twentieth Centuries. However, the Chinook Jargon word came from the English word *dollar*. And from where did the English word come? The student should trace *dollar* to its origin by consulting a good dictionary.

14.7. Exercises.

14.7a. On a separate sheet of paper copy the first eight example sentences of section 14.4b but leave a dash where the stems would go. For example, #1 would be

ʔu ___ čəd xut(u)as ___ əd.

The purpose of this exercise is to impress Lushootseed grammatical structure more firmly upon the student's memory; for when the grammar is mastered, a dictionary is all the student needs to read, write or speak the language.

14.7b. Using the example sentences as a guide, translate the following into Lushootseed on separate paper:

1. He/she gets tired whenever he/she is hungry.
2. We usually sing while we work.
3. Will you be big when you grow up?
4. I'm afraid to run.
5. Did she ask for help? (Hint. Use #3 as the model; k^wax^wad is *help [someone]*.)
6. You don't care if we fall off. (Hint. Use #10 as the model.)

14.7c. The derivational suffix -šad occurs in two different stems in the example sentences of 14.4b. Write both stems here:

What two glosses are given for -šad? _____ and _____.
Specifically, -šad designates the *foot* and the *leg* (especially from *below the knee*).

UNIT THREE

CLAUSES AND THEIR STRUCTURE



LESSON FIFTEEN

Demonstratives

15.1. The student is thoroughly familiar with the words *ti* and *ti'*, *pa* and *pa'*, *ka* and *ka'*, *wa* and *wa'*. These, however, are only part of a much larger set of words called demonstratives. The demonstrative system (pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs) are similar to English and are very simple. They involve a fairly large number of concepts. There is a great deal of variation in the way they are used. Usually, adjectives and adverbs demonstrate the person or thing which is the subject of the sentence. They also often demonstrate the direction in which the action is taking place.

The basic system, however, is straight forward, and that is what is presented here. The examples and exercises illustrate the combinations for each word in English as they occur in the text.

15.2. Five concepts are marked in the basic objective system. These are distal, proximal, relative reference, non-contrastive (or neutral), and hypothetical relative reference. Each of these can be further marked for femininity. (See, however, 15.2a - 15.2e below.) The specific forms are:

CLAUSES AND THEIR STRUCTURE

Adjectival demonstratives

Unmarked

	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.1	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.2	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.3	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.4	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.5	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.6	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.7	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.8	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.9	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.10	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.11	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.12	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.13	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.14	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.15	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.16	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.17	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.18	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.19	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.20	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.21	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.22	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.23	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.24	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.25	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.26	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.27	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.28	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.29	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.30	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.31	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.32	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.33	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.34	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.35	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.36	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.37	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.38	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.39	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.40	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.41	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.42	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.43	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.44	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.45	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.46	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.47	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.48	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.49	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'
15.50	ti	ti'	pa	pa'	ka	ka'	wa	wa'



15.2a. The marked terms are used with *ti* and *ti'* and only when that person is singular. One says *ti'* *pa'* *ka'* *wa'* and not *ti'* *pa'* *ka'* *wa'* *ti'* *pa'* *ka'* *wa'*.

LESSON FIFTEEN

Demonstratives

15.1. The student is thoroughly familiar with the words *ti* and *tsi*, and, at least, acquainted with *kʷi* and *kʷsi*. These, however, are only part of a much larger set of words called **demonstratives**. The demonstrative systems (pronominal, adjectival, and adverbial) are complex in Lushootseed for several reasons. They involve a fairly large number of concepts. There is considerable variation among speakers in their use. Finally, adjectival and adverbial demonstratives can enter into a variety of combinations creating still more, and often quite subtle, distinctions than occur in either subclass taken alone.

The basic system, however, is straight forward; and that is what is presented here. The complex and sometimes idiosyncratic combinations are dealt with in footnotes as they occur in the texts.

15.2. Five concepts are marked in the basic adjectival system. These are distal, proximal, unique reference, non-contrastive (or neutral), and hypothetical and/or remote. Each of these can be further marked for feminine. (See, however, 15.2a - 15.2b below.) The specific forms in Northern and Southern Lushootseed differ in several cases.

Adjectival demonstratives

		Unmarked				
NL	<i>tiʔiɬ</i>	<i>tiʔəʔ</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>tə</i>	<i>kʷi</i>	
SL	<i>tiiɬ</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>šə</i>	<i>tə</i>	<i>kʷi</i>	
	distal (<i>that</i>)	proximal (<i>this</i>)	unique reference	non-contrastive (or neutral)	hypothetical and/or remote	

		Marked (feminine)				
NL	<i>tsiʔiɬ</i>	<i>tsiʔəʔ</i>	<i>tsi</i>	<i>tsə</i>	<i>kʷsi</i>	
SL	<i>tsiiɬ</i>	<i>tsi</i>	<i>sə</i>	<i>tsə</i>	<i>kʷsi</i>	

15.2a. The marked forms are used with female referents but only when that referent is singular. One says *tsiʔiɬ sɬadəyʔ* *that woman* but *tiʔiɬ sɬəɬadəyʔ* *those women*.

15.2b. Occasionally speakers use the marked form with small animals thereby imparting a notion similar to the English *cute* or *cuddly*. Sometimes, too, the marked form is used with a favourite object, e.g., a canoe, for which the owner feels some sentimental attachment.

15.2c. The unmarked distal and proximal demonstratives have augmented (plural) forms, *tiʔiʔiʔ* and *tiʔiʔəʔ*. These are never obligatory.

15.2d. Different from English, demonstrative adjectives are used with proper nouns. Lushootseed grammar requires one to say what translates literally as *this Sue* or *the Joe*, etc.

15.2e. Also different from English is the use of demonstratives with nouns inflected for possession, e.g., *ti sqʷəbayʔs the his/her dog*, *tsi dskʷuy the my mother*.

15.2f. In the old stories speakers' selection of the distal or proximal demonstrative with the names of the chief protagonists is based on vague and constantly shifting notions of reference. Often a sentence will paraphrase the one immediately preceding; but the first has *tiʔiʔ* and the second *tiʔəʔ*, or visa versa, with negligible or no apparent difference intended by the raconteur.

15.2g. The English demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that* are often inappropriate renditions of *tiʔəʔ* or *tiʔiʔ*. In many cases *the*, *a*, or no word at all is more suitable in an English translation of a Lushootseed text. Students should be guided by context and good English style in translating; they should not feel constrained to use *this* or *that* everywhere *tiʔəʔ* or *tiʔiʔ* occurs.

15.3. Pronominal demonstratives distinguish only distal from proximal.

Pronominal demonstratives

	Unmarked		Marked (feminine)	
NL	<i>tiʔiʔ</i>	<i>tiʔəʔ</i>	<i>tsiʔiʔ</i>	<i>tsiʔəʔ</i>
SL	<i>tiʔiʔ</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>tsiʔiʔ</i>	<i>tsi</i>
	distal	proximal	distal	proximal
	(<i>that</i>)	(<i>this</i>)	(<i>that</i>)	(<i>this</i>)

Sections 15.2a, 15.2b, 15.2c, and 15.2f apply to these pronouns as well as the demonstrative adjectives.

15.4. Adverbial demonstratives.

tudiʔ/tadiʔ	diʔaʔ*	kʷədiʔ
taʔaʔ	tiʔaʔ	
distal	proximal	remote
(that)	(this)	

The adverbs in the first row occur in texts far more frequently than taʔaʔ and tiʔaʔ. These second two contrast with tudiʔ/tadiʔ and diʔaʔ by designating a specific spot, e.g., tiʔaʔ *right here* versus diʔaʔ *here*. (Note, however, that the phrase ʔal tiʔaʔ means *around here*.)

15.4a. The forms tudiʔ and tadiʔ are absolute synonyms.

15.4b. Demonstrative adverbs beginning in t- have corresponding marked forms with -s-, e.g., tsudiʔ *she over there*, which refer to single female entities as described in 15.2a.²⁴ A marked form does not exist for diʔaʔ.

15.4c. A reduced form of diʔaʔ *here*, namely diʔəʔ, is very often used by Sauk-Suiattle speakers in phrases with demonstrative adjective and noun, e.g., tiʔəʔ diʔəʔ ʔalʔal *this here house*. (In Lushootseed such phrases carry no social disapproval as does the literal gloss in English.)

15.4d. The first row of demonstrative adverbs is built upon the locative root di(?) *be on/at the side (of)*; and diʔaʔ, tiʔaʔ, and taʔaʔ are derived from the root ʔa(?) / ʔah *be there*.

15.5. Dialect differences. In Southern Lushootseed dišaʔ *here* is used in place of the Northern diʔaʔ.

²⁴This is probably true of those beginning in kʷ- as well, but the collected texts lack any examples.

15.6. Exercises. Translate the following into Lushootseed.

1. My dog dug up this bone. _____
_____.
2. This girl looked for that. _____.
3. We brought this dog. _____.
4. That woman brought us. _____.
5. [Someone] spilled this water. _____.
6. That man took a hold of my dog. _____
_____.
7. Did you folks manage to put the fire out? _____
_____.
8. [Someone] gave a bone to his dog. _____
_____.

LESSON SIXTEEN

Constituents of the clause (parts of the sentence)

16.1. Some Lushootseed sentences have no verbs.²⁵ Here are a few examples:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| 1. <u>ḥubəščəb</u> tiʔiḥ. | That one <u>will become</u> a mink. |
| 2. <u>tusiʔab</u> ti tudščistxʷ. | My former husband <u>was a man of rank</u> . |
| 3. <u>ʔəca</u> ti tudiʔqs. | <u>I am the one</u> who was on the other side of the point. |
| 4. <u>saliʔ</u> tiʔəʔ sqigʷac. | <u>There are two</u> deer. |
| 5. <u>tiʔəʔ</u> tə čʰaʔ. | <u>This is</u> the rock. |
| 6. <u>tudiʔ</u> tə dukʷibəḥ. | <u>Way off there is</u> Changer. |

In each example the underlined word fills the position usually taken by a verb.²⁶

Sometimes it is necessary to refer to the position itself rather than to the class of word that fills it. We shall call this position the **predicate**.

16.2. Other parts of a clause are also named and should now be identified. Different from the predicate however, these other parts are not obligatory. Only the predicate is essential.

16.3. Look again at the first six sentences in Lesson Three. In each of these the first word (which happens to be a verb) fills the predicate position; the remainder is termed the **direct complement**. In these particular sentences the direct complement position is taken by tsi čʰačʰas, ti sʔuladxʷ, and ti sqʷəbayʔ. In the present lesson the part not underlined in 1 through 6 above is the direct complement.

²⁵A verb is a stem which carries or could carry an aspectual prefix from the list in 11.3c.

²⁶Note that the English glosses all require a form of the verb *be* to render these words. Lushootseed lacks a word like *be* (whose function in English is most often little more than a hanger for tense, aspect and person).

16.4. Somewhat peripheral to the core of a clause (i.e., to the predicate plus or minus a direct complement) are three other constituents (clause parts). These are the **oblique complement**, one or more **adjuncts** and a locative or temporal **augment**. However, it would be a highly unusual sentence (or more precisely, clause) that had all these constituents. Good Lushootseed style prefers fairly simple syntax packing complexities into the verb morphology instead.

16.5. Oblique complements are that part of the clause which expresses the agent of predicates ending in -t-əb, -du-b, -tu-b, -c-əb, or s-əb.²⁷ They are always introduced by ʔə and usually follow the predicate but can occur after the direct complement. Review 6.1 and 6.2.

In the following sentence these three constituents (clause parts) are identified:

ʔukʷədatəb	ʔə tiʔəʔ pišpiš	ti sʔuladxʷ.	<i>The cat took the salmon.</i>
predicate	oblique complement	direct complement	

16.6. Augments are single words within the clause which express locative or temporal notions and are not part of any other constituent in the clause. They follow the predicate but are positionally free relative to the other constituents.

In the examples that follow the augments and their glosses are underlined:

tuləʔibəš tiʔiʔ bəščəb <u>liʔʔilgʷiʔ.</u>	<i>Mink was travelling <u>along the shore.</u></i>
ʔuʔəxtəb <u>dxʷtʰaqʰt</u> dxʷʔal tudiʔ ʔalʔal.	<i>It was spread <u>up</u> toward yonder house.</i>

16.7. Whatever remains in the clause is termed the **adjunct**. If a word or phrase is not (part of) the predicate, direct complement, oblique complement, or augment, it is (a part of) an adjunct.

16.7a. Before discussing the adjunct, it is convenient to introduce the terms **ʔə-phrase** and **ʔal-phrase**. These are simply complements introduced by ʔə, ʔal, or in the latter case, by one of its derivatives, dxʷʔal, tulʔal, or liʔʔal. These phrases remind English speakers of prepositional phrases and students may find it useful to think of them as such. The most frequent glosses for ʔal-phrases are the following:

²⁷There are two anomalous cases, tagʷib *bought* from tagʷš (14.6a) and λʷalib *worn* from λʷalš *put (clothing) on*. The expected forms *tagʷtəb and *λʷaltəb do not exist.

ʔal	in, on, at, when
dxʷʔal ²⁸	toward, until, in order to, the reason for
tulʔal	from
liʔʔal	by way of, by means of, source, cause

16.7b. Here follow several examples of each:

ʔutəč ʔal tiʔiʔ ʔʔidup.	It rolled <u>on</u> the floor.
ʔubəčətəb tiʔəʔ sdəxʷiʔ ʔal tiʔiʔ ʔʷəlč.	[Someone] set the hunting canoe <u>in</u> the water.
ʔuyayus ʔal tiʔəʔ ʔalʔal.	[Someone] worked <u>in</u> the house.
ʔuʔəʔəd əlgʷə ʔal ti təbu.	They eat <u>at</u> the table.
ʔəstʰigʷid ʔal kʷi dadatut.	Thank [someone] <u>in</u> the morning. ²⁹
ləscil tiʔiʔ ʔəsəds ʔal tiʔiʔ səʔibəšš.	Her feet go along supported <u>when</u> she walks.
cickʷ siʔab tsiʔəʔ kʷaʔkʷaʔ ʔaləxʷ kʷi tusəshuys ʔaciʔtalbixʷ.	Crow was very high class <u>when</u> she was made as a human.
ʔuqəʔc čəxʷ ʔal kʷi ʔuʔʔp, ʔal tqačiʔ.	Wake me up a little early, <u>at</u> eight.
ʔutələwil čəd dxʷʔal ti xʷuyubalʔtxʷ.	I'll run <u>to</u> the store.
dəgʷaš dxʷʔal tə xʷdəgʷigʷsali.	Put [something] <u>into</u> the bag.
ʔuʔəxʔəb dxʷtʰaʔt dxʷʔal tudiʔ ʔalʔal.	It was spread up <u>toward</u> yonder house.
ʔuxʷəbtəb dxʷʔal ʔʷəlč.	[Someone] was thrown <u>into</u> the sea.
ʔudxʷidawligʷəd čəd dxʷʔal tiʔiʔ tə qʰilʔbid.	I'm worried <u>about</u> the car.
ʔ(u)asʔaʔsil čəd dxʷʔal kʷi ʔagʷt.	I'll wait <u>until</u> noon.
ʔukʷədatəb ʔə tə sqʷəbayʔ ti šaw tulʔal tə čawəyʔulč*.	The dog took the bone <u>from</u> the dish.
ʔubapadəxʷ čəd tulʔal ti syayus(s).	I distracted [someone] <u>from</u> his/her work.

²⁸Always dxʷʔal is pronounced as though spelled txʷəl.

²⁹This is the Lushootseed translation of the lyrics to the Christian hymn *Praise Him in the Morning*.

ləslilcut čəd <u>tul'ʔal</u> k'wi bək'w sp'aʂaʂ ʔal ti swatix'wəd.	I am keeping myself <u>from</u> all the worthlessness in the world.
ʔəstfildx'w čəd <u>tul'ʔal</u> bək'w dsptidg'asəb. ʔiʔ(h)aʔʔ <u>tul'ʔal</u> k'wi x'wiʔ.	I believe it <u>with</u> all my thoughts. It is better than nothing.
ʔutulil* <u>liʔʔal</u> x'wəlč dx'ʔal d'zid'zəlal 'ič. ləsq'il čəd <u>liʔʔal</u> ti lilud.	[Someone] will go <u>by</u> sea to Seattle. I am travelling <u>by</u> train.
ləst'ag'wət čəd <u>liʔʔal</u> tə stiqiw. ʔucʔil <u>liʔʔal</u> tə qəd'x'w.s.	I'm riding <u>on</u> the horse. [Someone] bleeds <u>through</u> his/her mouth.
ləsk'ax'wac čəx'w <u>liʔʔal</u> tiʔiʔ haʔʔ adsptidg'asəb.	You are helping me <u>by</u> your good thoughts.

16.7c. In form ʔə-phrases are like ʔal-phrases; but ʔal and its derivatives have meaning in their own right which they bring to the adjunct they fill, whereas ʔə has no lexical import. Its presence is simply required by Lushootseed grammar.³⁰

The ʔə-phrases serve several grammatical roles in Lushootseed three of which have already been learned.

- (1) They fill oblique complements (16.5) thereby providing for the expression of agents for predicates ending in -təb, -dub, -tub, -cəb, and -səb.
- (2) They relate possessor to item possessed (12.3d).
- (3) They designate the patient of a subclass of agent oriented verbs (7.1 - 7.1b, ff.).

(At this point the student should review 7.1b - 7.6.)

These three functions, plus the others to be presented later, all have in common the addition of supplemental information. Specifically, ʔə-phrases are used to add to a clause any role not specified by predicate suffixes or an ʔal-phrase; they are used when nothing else is available. Here are several diverse examples:

ʔupusutəb	<u>ʔə</u> ti č'ač'as tiʔəʔ	sq'əbayʔ	<u>ʔə</u> tə č'ʂaʔ.	The boy	threw at the dog
agent			instrument	<u>with a rock.</u>	

³⁰Compare the similarly meaningless *to* in an English sentence such as *I like to swim*. It adds no content, no 'dictionary' meaning to the sentence. Its presence is simply required by English grammar.

ʔuyayus	ʔə tə tib.	[Someone] worked <u>hard</u> .
	adverbial phrase	
ʔuʔəfəd	ʔə tə biac.	[Someone] ate <u>the meat</u> .
	patient	

16.8. Adjuncts are filled with either an ʔal-phrase or an ʔə-phrase. However, not all such phrases are adjuncts. Very occasionally speakers construe an ʔal-phrase as a predicate and, as just pointed out, some ʔə-phrases fill oblique complements and some mark possessive relationships within a complement (12.3d).

16.9. Since some adjuncts are filled by ʔə-phrases and it is an ʔə-phrase that fills the oblique complement, the student may wonder why a distinction is made between oblique complement and adjunct. The explanation is most easily understood by comparing the paraphrases of two clauses, one with an oblique complement, the other with an adjunct:

ʔugʷəč'təb	ʔə tiʔəʔ sqʷəbayʔ.	: sqʷəbayʔ tiʔəʔ ʔugʷəč'əd.	<i>The dog looked for [something].</i>
	oblique complement		

ʔugʷəč'əb	ʔə tiʔəʔ sqʷəbayʔ.	: sqʷəbayʔ tiʔəʔ sugʷəč'əbs.	<i>[Someone] looked for the dog.</i>
	adjunct		

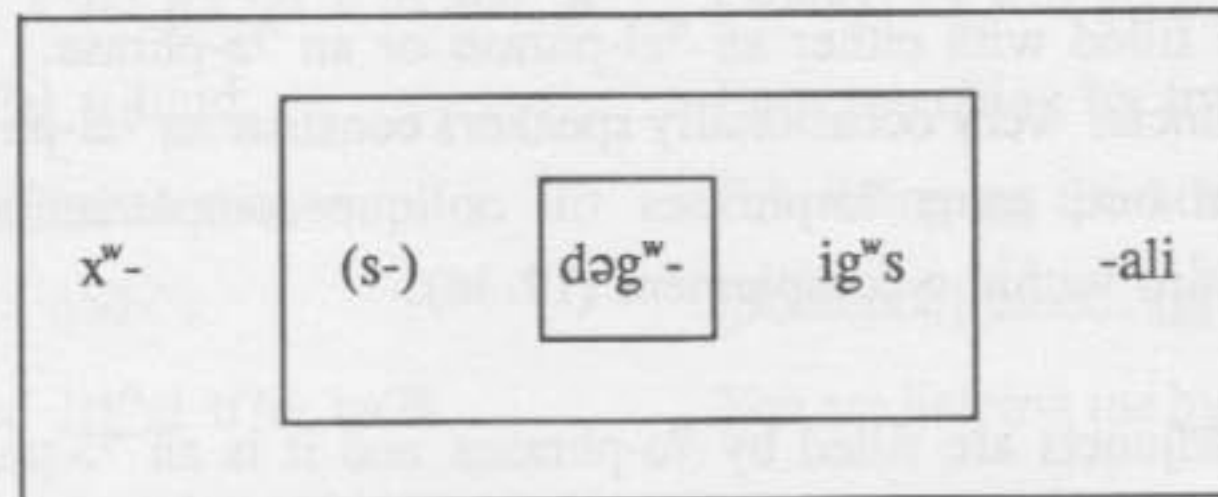
In both cases the paraphrases to the right focus on sqʷəbayʔ more directly than in the sentences on the left. This difference is discussed in Lessons Nineteen and Twenty. To be noted here, however, is the added inflection, namely, s- ... -s, carried by ʔugʷəč'əb when sqʷəbayʔ from the adjunct is initial. No such added inflection is required when sqʷəbayʔ from the oblique complement is initial. (However, -təb must be replaced by -(ə)d.)

These differences between the paraphrases reveal a clear difference between adjuncts and oblique complements -- one that is disguised by the fact that both constituents are expressed by ʔə-phrases.

16.10. **Vocabulary comment.** The word for *store*, xʷuyubalʔtxʷ, is derived from the word for *sell, trade* plus the suffix -alʔtxʷ *house, building*. This suffix belongs to a very large class of word-building endings called **lexical suffixes**. There are about one hundred of these in Lushootseed.

Similarly, the word for *dish*, čawəyʔulč, is composed of čawəyʔ *shell* and the lexical suffix -ulč *container*.

The word x^wdəg^wig^wsali *bag, pocket* is derived from sdəg^wig^ws *paraphernalia* by the addition of the lexical suffix -ali *place where* and the derivational prefix x^w-. In turn, sdəg^wig^ws is composed of a root dəg^w (from dək^w *inside*) plus the lexical suffix -ig^ws *things, possessions* and the derivational prefix s-.



Such layered word building is typical in Lushootseed.

16.11. Dialect differences. The Southern Lushootseed say čuwəy[?]ulč instead of čawəy[?]ulč.

The Skagit say šaq[?]il *cross a body of water* instead of tulil.

16.12. Exercises. The constituents (clause parts) of the sentences below have been separated from each other by extra spaces. The student is to label each constituent appropriately on the blanks provided and then translate the entire sentence on the following line.

1. ʔuʔəxtəb dx^wt'aqt dx^wʔal tudi? ʔalʔal.

2. ʔupusutəb ʔə ti č'ač'as tiʔə? sq^wəbay? ʔə ti č'ʔaʔ.

3. ləʔibəš ʔal tiʔə? liʔʔilg^wiʔ ʔə tə x^wəlč.

4. ləʔibəš liʔʔilgʷit.

5. tiʔəʔ tə ɕʰaʔ.

6. ʔukʷədatəb ʔə tiʔəʔ pišpiš.

7. ʔupusutəb ʔə ti ɕʰaʔ.

8. ʔukʷədatəb tiʔəʔ pišpiš.

9. ʔuʔabyitəb ʔə ti luʂ ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ.

10. ʔuʔəfəd ʔə ti bəsqʷ.

11. ʔuqʷəld ti sʔuladxʷ.

12. ʔuʔabyitəb ti ɕʰaʕas ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ.

13. ʔuqʷəlb ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ.

14. ʔuʕʰaʔəb tsi sʔadəyʔ ʔə tə skʰiʔxʷ ʔal tudiʔ.

LESSON SEVENTEEN

Predicate and complement structure; predicate particles and adverbs

The student is now familiar with predicates and various complements. The present lesson first details the ways that predicates can be "enlarged" with particles (17.1, 17.3) and adverbs (17.2, 17.3) to enrich their meaning. Then the potential structure of complements is presented beginning with 17.4.

17.1. Compare and contrast the following six sentences with one another:

- | | | | |
|-----------|------|------------------|--|
| 1. ʔəsχət | | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | Crow is sick. |
| 2. ʔəsχət | uʔxʷ | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | Crow is still sick. |
| 3. ʔəsχət | dʒət | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | Crow must be sick. |
| 4. ʔəsχət | kʷət | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | They say Crow is sick. |
| 5. ʔəsχət | əw'ə | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | So, Crow is sick. (Mild surprise.) |
| 6. ʔəsχət | sixʷ | tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. | Crow is sick as usual! (Mild disgust.) |

17.1a. Each one of the words within the box is called a **predicate particle**. Many such particles, as do most of the above, convey various attitudes of the speaker, but there are others which are purely grammatical. These latter include the čəd-words and the interrogative ʔu.

17.1b. Predicate particles can cooccur. Here are a few examples:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 7. ʔəsχət <u>uʔxʷ</u> <u>čəxʷ</u> ʔu. | Are you still sick? |
| 8. ʔəs(h)əliʔtub <u>uʔxʷ</u> <u>dʒət</u> <u>čəxʷ</u> . | You must still be kept alive. |
| 9. ʔəsχət <u>sixʷ</u> <u>dʒət</u> <u>əw'ə</u> tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ. ³¹ | It seems Crow must be sick. |
| 10. ʔəsχət <u>kʷət</u> <u>əw'ə</u> <u>dʒət</u> ʔu <u>sixʷ</u> tsi
k'aʔk'aʔ. | So, does it seem that Crow is sick as
usual as they say? |

³¹This sentence drips sarcasm.

17.1c. Comparing the positions of these particles relative to one another in sentences 9 and 10 shows that their order is to some extent significant. However, čad-words always occur before ʔu, and uʔx^w precedes both. Furthermore, certain arrangements are more frequent than others. For example, k^wəʔ tends to follow the verb before the others while six^w is typically the last predicate particle in a string. Part of the effect in 9 above is achieved by having six^w before all the other particles.

17.2. Predicate adverbs precede the verb.

11. cick^w ʔəstag^wəx^w tiʔəʔ qawʔqs. Raven is very hungry.
 12. ck^waqid ʔəstag^wəx^w tiʔəʔ qawʔqs. Raven is always hungry.
 13. tiləbəx^{w32} ʔusax^wəb tiʔiʔ bəščəb. Mink immediately ran.
 14. ǰ^wul' ʔuʔəʔəd tiʔəʔ qawʔqs. Raven just eats.

17.2a. Some Lushootseed words are exclusively predicate adverbs such as the four examples immediately above. This group has ten members:

cick ^w (NL)	very	g ^w aʔx ^w	eventually, soon
cay (SL)	very	put	very much so, in a great way
ck ^w aqid	always	tiləb	immediately, bluntly; right there
daʔx ^w / daw'	just now	ǰəʔ ti	as though, like
dəx ^w	(meaning unknown)	ǰ ^w ul'	just (that and nothing else)

Other words, however, can fill a variety of lexical categories only one of which is that of a predicate adverb. This group has about sixteen members or so.

bək ^w	all	hiqab	excessively, too (much)
cəʔul'	previously, in advance	ǰal'	also, too
cuk ^w / cug ^w - (Sk)	only, uniquely	ǰub	well; ought, should
day' (Snoh., SL)	only, uniquely, separate, isolated; foremost, especially; completely, all		
g ^w əhaw'ə	it seems	tuǰ ^w	in contrast to the usual or expected

³²For the əx^w ending on tiləb, see 14.3 (and 14.2a, 17.3).

haʔkʷ / hagʷ-	ago, long time	xʷtub	ultimately, in fact
haʔt	well, good	xʷiʔ	no, not
(hə)laʔb	really, a lot	xʷuʔələʔ	maybe, perhaps
hikʷ	big, very	yawʔ	only if, not until

17.2b. Sequences of adverbs occur. Here are a few examples:

15. cickʷ həlaʔb ʔəsqaɖ tiʔiʔ stiɖiw. That horse is really very slow.
16. cickʷ xʷuʔələʔ həlaʔb ʔəsχəʔ tiʔiʔ. He is really very sick I guess.
17. χubəxʷ χʷulʔəxʷ tʌbəščəb. It is better that he become just a mink.

17.3. When both particles and adverbs occur in the same predicate, the particle or sequence of particles follows the adverb instead of the verb.

18. cickʷ čəd ʔəxʷʔuχʷəb. I very [much] want to go.
19. hikʷ čəxʷ ʔu χuχəʔɖid. Do you generally get severe headaches?
20. dayʔəxʷ əwʔə sixʷ ʔusaʔil tiʔəʔ qawʔqs. Raven really stuck his foot in it this time.³³

17.3a. When there is more than one adverb in the predicate, grammatical particles follow the first adverb.

21. dayʔəxʷ čəd cickʷ ʔəslaɖil. Indeed, I am very late.
22. χub čəʔ ʔu χʷulʔ tʌtʌkʷ. Should we just go home?

17.3b. Typically, predicate particles expressing the speaker's attitude also follow the first adverb.

23. dayʔəxʷ dʔəʔ higʷəxʷ ʔukʷəʔkʷtətəb ti tudɖuʔ. Indeed, [someone] must have spilled all my water.
24. ckʷaqid sixʷ χʷulʔ ʔuʔəʔəd tiʔəʔ qawʔqs. Raven is always just eating.

³³More literally, 'So, indeed, Raven got into trouble again.'

However, the location of these particles of emotion is to some extent determined by meaning. Speakers have the option of using the particle with one or another adverb.

25. cick^w k^wəʃ x^wu[?]ələ[?] həla[?]b So, I guess they say that Crow is really very
əw[?]ə ʔəsxəʃ tsi[?]ə[?] k'a[?]k'a[?]. sick.
26. cick^w x^wu[?]ələ[?] six^w həla[?]b I guess Raven is really very hungry again.
ʔəstag^wəx^w ti[?]ə[?] qaw[?]qs.

17.4. Potentially, complement structures are more complex than predicates but typically they too are quite simple. In its simplest and most frequent form a complement comprises a pronoun³⁴ or a demonstrative plus noun. The student is thoroughly familiar with complements like ti[?]i[?] *that (one)*, ti sq^wəbay[?] *the dog* and tsi[?]ə[?] s[?]tadəy[?] *this woman*.

17.4a. Occasionally complements are expanded by modifiers resulting in phrases reminiscent of English noun phrases of the form determiner + adjective + noun, and determiner + adverb + adjective + noun.

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| ti [?] ə [?] <u>hik^w</u> ʔal [?] al | this <u>big</u> house |
| ti [?] i [?] <u>lu[?]</u> xpay [?] ac | that <u>old</u> cedar tree |
| ti <u>həla[?]b</u> <u>ha[?]ʃ</u> səplil | the <u>really good</u> bread |

17.4b. A word from any class can modify a noun in this way including verbs as embedded predicates and other nouns. (Compare 21.6c.)

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| ti [?] ə [?] ʔəst [?] i [?] q ^w ilabac stubš | this <u>covered with sores</u> man |
| ti [?] i [?] x ^w i [?] ləha [?] ʃ bəščəb | that <u>no good</u> mink |
| ti [?] ə [?] ha [?] ʃ ʔuk ^w ik ^w əʃ q ^w u [?] | This <u>nice trickling</u> water |
| ti [?] ə [?] <u>kiyuuq^ws</u> stətudəq | these <u>seagull</u> slaves |
| ti [?] ə [?] di [?] ə [?] ʃix ^w ix ^w čač [?] aš stububš | these (here) three <u>young</u> men |
| ti [?] ə [?] ʔi [?] t [?] isu bəda [?] s | his/her <u>youngest</u> son |

³⁴The only pronouns presented thus far are pronominal demonstratives in 15.3 and the words ʔəca *I (am the one)* in example sentence 3 of 16.1 and dəg^wi *you (are the one)* in example sentence 10 of 14.4b. See also 19.3.

17.4c. Predicates and nouns can also follow the words they modify.

tiʔəʔ stubš ʔəst'iq'wilabac	this man covered with sores
ti stubš čač'as	the man [who is] <u>young</u>
tiʔəʔ bədaʔs ʔiʔt'isu	his/her son [who is the] <u>youngest</u>

17.4d. Sequences of nouns of the sort exemplified immediately above are distinct from the following cases where one noun is in **apposition** to another.

tiʔiʔ tətʔiqaʔ, suʔsuqʷaʔs	Tutyeekah, <u>his little younger brother</u>
tiʔəʔ tusč'istxʷs, tuq'iyax'əd	her former husband, <u>former Slug</u>
tsiʔəʔ čəgʷas(s), tsiʔəʔ x'ux'əyʔ	his wife, <u>Little Diver</u>
tiʔiʔ taʔtəmi, haʔt sč'ač'as čəʔ	Tommy, <u>our good youngster</u>

17.4e. Complements can also be expanded by compounding.

tuhuycut tiʔəʔ qaw'qs ʔi* tiʔəʔ bibščəb.	<u>Raven and Little Mink</u> prepared themselves.
ʔəstəʔlil tiʔiʔ ʔi sgʷəlub ʔi tiʔəʔ qaw'qs.	They were dwelling [there], <u>both Pheasant and Raven</u> .
...tsiʔəʔ k'aʔk'aʔ ʔi tiʔəʔ kiyuuqs(s).	... <u>Crow and her seagulls</u> .

17.4f. Still another means of expanding a complement is by means of ʔə- and ʔal-phrases.

tsiʔəʔ čəgʷas ʔə tiʔəʔ sgʷəlub	the wife <u>of Pheasant</u>
tiʔiʔ bədbədaʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ qaw'qs	those children <u>of Raven</u>
tiʔiʔ səxʷgʷədil* ʔal tiʔiʔ tibu	that chair <u>by that table</u>

17.4g. Occasionally the entire complement is itself modified as in the following example. Here the inherently stative (10.4) bəkʷ *all* is outside but modifies tiʔəʔ q'il'bidə əlgʷəʔ.

ʔəsčadʔil bəkʷ tiʔəʔ q'il'bidə əlgʷəʔ.	They are hiding [themselves] <u>including</u> their canoe.
--	--

17.5. Dialect differences.

17.5a. The conjunction ʔi is Northern Lushootseed. The equivalent form in Southern Lushootseed is yəxʷ.

17.5b. The Skagit say x^wt'ag^wtap for *chair* while other groups say səx^wg^wədil.

17.6. Exercises. Rearrange the following sets of words into a grammatically acceptable order for a Lushootseed predicate. Provide an English translation for each set.

1. ʔu, ʔəsxəʔ, čəx^w: _____.

Translation: _____.

2. ʔu, ʔəsxəʔ, čəx^w, həlaʔb:

Translation: _____.

3. ʔuʔəʔəd, ck^waqid, six^w, x^wul': _____.

Translation: _____.

4. ʔu, ʔəsxəʔ, uʔx^w, čəx^w: _____.

Translation: _____.

5. ʔu, čəʔ, ʔut'uk^w, xub, x^wul': _____.

Translation: _____.

LESSON EIGHTEEN

Negatives

The following four brief conversations present three different negative statements, two of which are grammatically very similar and a third which is quite different. The student should study these conversations carefully and then identify each pattern by creating one negative statement representing each type with the vocabulary provided below.

- | | | |
|------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| Speaker A: | 1. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷadpišpiš. | Do you have a cat? |
| Speaker B: | 2. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷədpišpiš. | I don't have a cat. |
| | 3. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəpišpiš ʔal tiʔaʔ. | There are no cats around here. |
| Speaker A: | 4. gʷəl stab əw'ə tiʔəʔ. | Then, what's this? |
| Speaker B: | 5. xʷiʔ ləpišpiš tiʔiʔ. | That's not a cat. |
| | 6. sqəbiyəʔ tiʔiʔ! | That's a skunk! |
| Speaker A: | 1. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷadsqʷəbayʔ. | Do you have a dog? |
| Speaker B: | 2. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷədsqʷəbayʔ. | I don't have a dog. |
| | 3. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəsqʷəbayʔ ʔal tiʔaʔ. | There are no dogs around here. |
| Speaker A: | 4. gʷəl stab əw'ə tiʔiʔ. | Then, what's that? |
| Speaker B: | 5. xʷiʔ ləsqʷəbayʔ tiʔiʔ. | That's not a dog. |
| | 6. sbiaw tiʔiʔ. | That's a coyote. |
| Speaker A: | 1. kʷid kʷi gʷadscqi. | How many sockeye do you have? |
| Speaker B: | 2. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷədsqʷəbayʔ. | I don't have [any] sockeye, |
| | 3. yəxi xʷiʔ ləscqi tiʔiʔəʔ. | because these are not sockeye. |
| | 4. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəscqi ʔal tiʔəʔ
stuləkʷ. | There are no sockeye in this river. |
| | 5. ʔxʷayʔ tiʔiʔəʔ sʔuladxʷ. | These salmon are chum. |
| | 6. ʔah tiʔəʔ buus. | There are four. |
| Speaker A: | 1. stab tiʔiʔ ʔal ti ʔilgʷiʔ. | What is that on the shore? |
| Speaker B: | 2. qawʔqs tiʔiʔ. | That's a raven. |

- Speaker C: 3. x^wiʔ ləqawʔqs. It's not a raven.
 4. k'aʔk'aʔ tiʔiʔ. That's a crow.
 5. ləliʔ k^wi bəqsəd ʔə k^wi qawʔqs. The beak of a raven is different.

With the word c'əx̄bidac *yew tree* create the following sentences:

1. That is not a yew tree. _____.
2. There are no yew trees around here. _____.
3. We do not have [any] yew trees. _____.

18.1. Negatives were first presented in Lesson Twelve. These were negatives of existence. (The student should reread the example sentences 1a through 3c in Lesson Twelve and 12.3 through 12.3c.) In such sentences x^wiʔ (like ʔah *there*, qah *many, much, a lot*, and a small number of other high frequency words) is the predicate and what follows is the direct complement. (But compare 18.6a.)

Negatives of existence correspond to two rather different formations in English. Note carefully the difference between sentences numbered 2 and those numbered 3 in the first three dialogues above. For convenience the first set is repeated here:

2. x^wiʔ k^wi g^wədpišpiš. I don't have a cat.
3. x^wiʔ k^wi g^wəpišpiš . . . There are no cats . . .

In Lushootseed the only difference between them is the presence of a d-paradigm in 2 lacking in 3. The English glosses suggest a greater dissimilarity than is required.

18.2. Negative sentences of the form x^wiʔ lə . . . are negatives of identity. In these formations x^wiʔ is an adverb and lə is a **proclitic** going on the next adverb. If there is no other adverb, lə attaches to the head word (main word) in the predicate.³⁵ (Note that this lə is not to be confused with the progressive prefix, lə- (11.3b).)

18.3. The same distinction between the predicate x^wiʔ and the adverb x^wiʔ obtains in the sentences expressing activities. Compare the following conversations.

³⁵Compare the position of lə in the predicate with that of the clitics (14.3b).

- Speaker A: 1. x^wi[?]tx^w ləg^wuub ti[?]i[?] adsq^wəbay[?]. Don't let your dog bark.
- Speaker B: 2. x^wi[?] lədsq^wa[?] ti[?]i[?] sq^wəbay[?] ti[?]i[?] ləcug^wuub. It's not my dog that's barking.
3. adsg^wa[?]. It's yours.
4. ha[?]ɬ ti dsq^wəbay[?]. My dog is good.
5. x^wi[?] k^wi g^wəsug^wuubs. He doesn't bark.
-
- Speaker A: 1. x^wi[?]tx^w ləx^waab ti[?]i[?] adbibəda[?]. Don't let your little boy cry.
- Speaker B: 2. x^wi[?] lədsq^wa[?] ti[?]i[?] bibəda[?] ti[?]i[?] ləcu^wx^waab. That's not my little boy who's crying.
3. adsg^wa[?]. [He's] yours.
4. ha[?]ɬ ti dbibəda[?]. My little boy is good.
5. x^wi[?] k^wi g^wəsux^waabs. He doesn't cry.
-
- Speaker A: 1. ck^waqid čəd x^wubaliic k^wi g^wədsu[?]əɬtx^w ti dsq^wəbay[?]. I always forget to feed my dog.
2. x^wi[?]tubš ləbəbaliic ʔal k^wi dadatut. Don't let me forget again tomorrow.
- Speaker B: 3. x^wub. OK.
-
- Speaker A: 1. x^wi[?]tx^w lə[?]əx^w əlg^wə[?]. Don't let them come.
2. x^wi[?] k^wi g^wəsuc[?]ag^wacuts əlg^wə[?]. They don't wash themselves.
3. s[?]m hmmm! Phew!
- Speaker B: 4. (Shocked silence.)

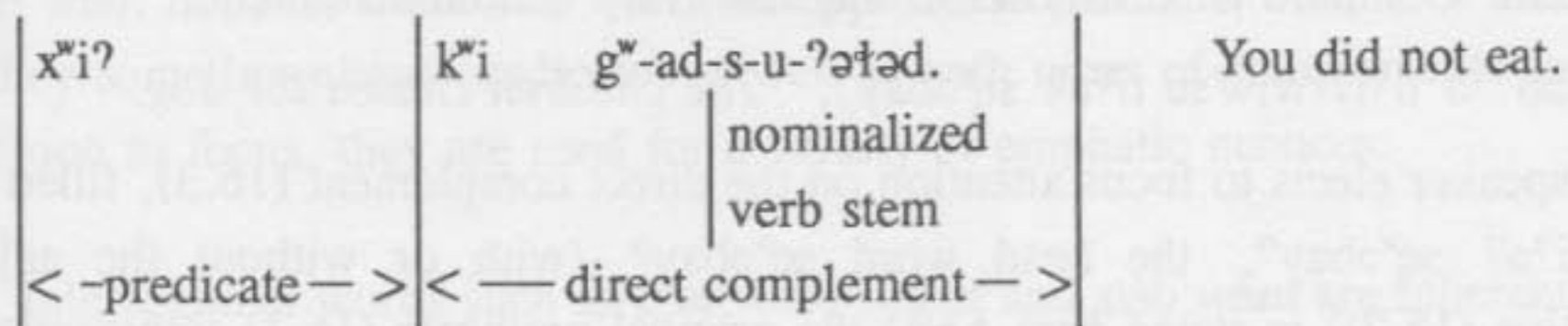
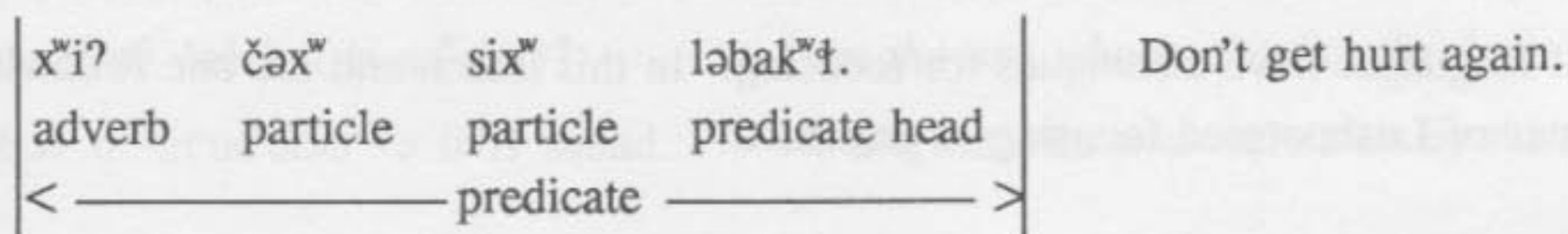
18.4. When the speaker's chief attention is on the negation, x^wi[?]-predicates are used. These times include strong prohibitions (negative commands like *Do not . . .*) and statements denying an activity, i.e., *does not*.

18.5. When the activity is still paramount in the speaker's mind, the negation is formed with the adverb plus lə. Most such cases involve negative exhortations.

18.6. Note that čəd-words are used in negatives formed with the adverbial x^wi[?] while d-paradigm affixes are used in predicate-x^wi[?] sentences.

18.6a. Furthermore, this second negative type also requires that a verb bear the s-prefix. (This is different from negated noun stems which carry an s-prefix only if they belong to the s-prefix class.) In other words, verbs negated by predicate-*xʷiʔ* are **nominalized**. (See 21.5.)

18.6b. The sentences below are partially diagrammed to show the two types of negation presented in this lesson.



18.7. The suffix -*txʷ* bound to the negative adverb, *xʷiʔ*, is the same suffix encountered in Lesson One, the causative. How would one say in Lushootseed, *Don't let me cry*?

18.8. Exercises. On a separate sheet of paper translate the following into English by using the glossary that accompanies the texts:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>xʷiʔ kʷi gʷadsʔuχʷʔ.</i> | 5. <i>xʷiʔtubš čəxʷ ləxʷit'il.</i> |
| 2. <i>xʷiʔ lədit.</i> | 6. <i>xʷiʔ kʷi gʷədtalə.</i> |
| 3. <i>xʷiʔ ləhələʔb sʔətəd.</i> | 7. <i>xʷiʔ ləhələʔb qa(h) ti dsuʔətəd.</i> |
| 4. <i>xʷiʔ kʷədaʔ kʷi gʷəsqəlbs.</i> | 8. <i>xʷiʔ lədsqʷaʔ.</i> |

LESSON NINETEEN

Focus of agent and patient

Contrast the following two English sentences:

The youngsters chased the dog.

The dog is what the youngsters chased.

They impart the same information but the second, in contrast to the first, **focuses** on *dog*.

All languages have techniques for focusing. In this lesson and the one following, the grammar of Lushootseed focusing is presented.

19.1. In Lushootseed as in many languages focusing is achieved by stating the focused material first. Compare what follows to this relatively neutral statement:

ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su tiʔəʔ sqʔəbayʔ. *The children chased the dog.*

When the speaker elects to focus attention on the direct complement (16.3), filled in this case by *tiʔəʔ sqʔəbayʔ*, the head word *sqʔəbayʔ* (with or without the adjectival demonstrative (15.2)) is stated first AND the original predicate (16.1) is preceded by a demonstrative word (15.1). All else is unchanged as in this sentence:

sqʔəbayʔ ti ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su. *A dog is what the children chased.*

One could also say, *tiʔəʔ sqʔəbayʔ ti ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su*. The adjectival demonstrative, *tiʔəʔ*, is optional with the focused *sqʔəbayʔ*, but a demonstrative (*ti* in this case) is required before the original predicate, *ʔučalatəb* in this sentence.

19.2. If, instead, the speaker intends to focus on the oblique complement (16.5), the head word of that constituent (clause part) comes first. As with focused direct complements, so too with oblique complements, the original predicate must be preceded by a demonstrative. Also, the *-(ə)b* of *-t-əb*, *-du-b*, *-tu-b*, *-c-əb*, and *-s-əb* cannot be maintained because there is no longer an explicit or implicit oblique complement following the verb. Contrast the two sentences in 19.1 with the following:

wiw'su tiʔəʔ ʔučalad tiʔəʔ sqʔəbayʔ. *The children are the ones who chased the dog.*

19.3. When the speaker focuses on a person marker (which the student will remember corresponds to an English pronoun), special words are used. Some of these are listed here.

ʔaca	<i>I am the one.</i>	dibəʔ	<i>We are the ones.</i>
dəgʷi	<i>You are the one.</i>	gʷəlap(u)	<i>You folks are the ones.</i>
cədiʔ	<i>He, she, it, that is the one.</i>	caadiʔ	<i>They are the ones.</i>

Two example sentences are these:

ʔaca tiʔəʔ ləčalad tə sqʷəbayʔ.	<i>I am the one who is chasing the dog.</i>
dəbəʔ ti ʔuʔucʷutəb ʔə tiʔiʔ šəbad.	<i>We are the ones who were shot by the enemy.</i>

19.4. The words ʔaca, dibəʔ, dəgʷi, gʷəlap(u), cədiʔ, and a few others such as gʷat *who* and diʔ *that, he, she, it* are full words as opposed to particles, clitics, or affixes, and as such they sometimes head predicates as well as both types of complements and adjuncts. In addition to focus, they are used for a variety of emphatic nuances.

19.5. Interrogative words such as gʷat *who, whom* and stab *what* are inherently focusing by virtue of their meanings. The grammar of questions formed with these words is just like the preceding sentences with focused agents and patients; here too a demonstrative precedes the predicate.

19.5a. When the interrogative asks about a direct complement, the questions formed are like the second one in 19.1:

(tiʔəʔ) sqʷəbayʔ ti ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiwʷsu.	This dog is the one the children chased.
gʷat kʷi ʔuʔəyʷdub ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ.	Whom did the dog find?
stab kʷi ʔuʔəyʷdub ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ.	What did the dog find?

19.5b. When the interrogative word asks about an oblique complement, the questions take the same form as statements like those in 19.2:

wiwʷsu tiʔəʔ ʔučalad tiʔəʔ sqʷəbayʔ.	The children are the ones who chased the dog.
ʔaca tiʔəʔ ləčalad tə sqʷəbayʔ.	I am the one who is chasing the dog.

<u>gʷat</u> kʷi ʔuʔəy'dxʷ ti sqʷəbayʔ.	Who found the dog?
<u>stab</u> kʷi ʔuχəχəd ti sqʷəbayʔʔ.	What bit the dog?

19.6. To this point all examples in this lesson have been sentences in which both agent and patient are third persons (12.5). When either the agent or the patient is first or second person (12.5), the questions are formed in an equally straight forward manner.

19.6a. Interrogative words representing the agent:

<u>gʷat</u> kʷi gʷəkʷaxʷaɕ.	Who can help me?
<u>gʷat</u> kʷi gʷəʔəʔtubuʔəd.	Who would feed you folks?
<u>stab</u> kʷi ʔuχəcdubiciɖ.	What scared you?

19.6b. Interrogative words representing the patient:

<u>gʷat</u> kʷi gʷəkʷaxʷad čəd.	Whom can I help?
<u>gʷat</u> kʷi ʔuʔəʔtxʷ čələp.	Whom did you folks feed?
<u>stab</u> kʷi ʔuʔəy'dxʷ čəxʷ.	What did you find?

19.7. By far the most frequently used of these focus words is *diʔ* *the one(s) mentioned before, the one(s) about to be mentioned, that (which)*. The grammar involved with *diʔ* is the same as with other focused expressions in all respects except one. Speakers often omit the demonstrative (15.1, 15.2) that obligatorily follows other focus expressions. In the four texts of this introductory reader the expected demonstrative is always lacking.

<i>diʔ</i> shuys. 2.66, 4.99	That is finished/completed.
<i>diʔ</i> sc'əldxʷs. 3.76	That is how he managed to win.
<i>diʔ</i> dəxʷut'asad čəʔ tiʔəʔ čʰaʔ. 3.11	That is why we pay this rock.
<i>diʔ</i> day' ʰuscut ʔə tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ. 2.40, 2.47	That was all Whale [ever] said.

In other constructions or by itself *diʔ* is usually glossed by *that, he, she* as in *diʔəxʷ That's it*, or *xʷiʔ lədiʔ He's not the one*.

19.8. Exercises.

I. Below are four sentences and under each are three blank lines labelled (a), (b), and (c). On line (a) write the English gloss of each. On (b) rewrite the original sentence by focusing on the direct complement; and on (c) rewrite the sentence by focusing on the

oblique complement. In this exercise any demonstrative may be selected to go before the former predicate.

1. ʔulək^wtəb ʔə tiʔəʔ pišpiš ti sʔuladx^w.

(a) _____.

(b) _____.

(c) _____.

2. ʔuʔiditəb (*tied*) ʔə tiʔəʔ stubš tiʔəʔ ʔəlayʔ (shovel-nose canoe).

(a) _____.

(b) _____.

(c) _____.

3. ʔupusutəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su tiʔəʔ sq^wəbayʔ.

(a) _____.

(b) _____.

(c) _____.

4. ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔəʔ sq^wəbayʔ tiʔiʔ wiw'su.

(a) _____.

(b) _____.

(c) _____.

II. Copy each of the above (b) sentences just created onto a small card or slip of paper -- one sentence per slip -- but in each case omit the oblique complement. Do the same with the (c) sentences but this time omit the direct complement. When this task is completed, shuffle the slips/cards. These are to be used as flash cards. Glance at a card and rapidly express its meaning. Practice until every sentence can be translated without the slightest hesitation.

III. Translate the following into Lushootseed:

1. What did your mother bring? _____.

2. Who kicked (d^zubu-d) your dog? _____.

3. Whom did our dog bite? _____.

4. Who kicked you? _____.

5. What did you find? _____.

6. Whom did you help? _____

7. What scared his dog? _____

8. Whom did the horse (stiqiw) kick? _____

_____ (c)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

_____ (c)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

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_____ (a)

_____ (b)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

_____ (a)

_____ (b)

LESSON TWENTY

Focus of adjunct and argument

In the preceding lesson the grammar of focused direct and oblique complements was presented. In this lesson the focusing of adjuncts (16.8) and augments (16.6) is treated.

20.1. When the speaker focuses on an adjunct or augment, the predicate is again preceded by a demonstrative as in the cases of focused complements described in Lesson Nineteen. Additionally, the verb of the original predicate (or, if adverbs are present, the first adverb (17.2, 17.2b)) carries either the prefix *s-* or *dəx^w-* * and the appropriate *d*-paradigm affix (12.4, 12.5). In other words, the original predicate now following a focused adjunct or augment is like the nominalized verb in negatives of existence (18.1, 18.3, 18.6 - 18.6b).

20.2. Of the two prefixes, *s-* and *dəx^w-*, *dəx^w-* is the marked member. It indicates the means, place, time, or reason for an event or state in accord with the significance of the focused adjunct or augment. With other concepts *s-* is used:

1. *q^wtq^wtay[?] ti[?]i^t dəx^wu^calads ti[?]ə[?] sq^wəbay[?].* With sticks they chased the dog.
2. *s[?]uladx^w ti[?]ə[?] su[?]ə^təd[?] ʔə ti[?]i^t pišpiš.* A salmon is what the cat ate.

In sentence 1 the focused adjunct, *q^wtq^wtay[?] sticks*, expresses the means; therefore, *dəx^w-* is said. In number 2, however, the adjunct refers to the patient (because *ʔə^təd* is an agent oriented verb (7.4, 7.6)); consequently, *s-* is the prefix used.

20.2a. Generally, *dəx^w-* is replaced by *s-* when the focused adjunct carries specific grammatical marking for means, place, or time.

3. *q[?]čicab[?] tə su[?]fuc[?]uds ti[?]ə[?] sqig^wac.* With a bow he shot this deer.
4. *dx^wʔal[?] tə stulək^w ti[?]ə[?] su[?]ibəš[?] ʔə tsi[?]i^t lu[?] ʔal bək^w sləxil.* To the river that old woman walks every day.

In number 3, the suffix *-ab* on *q[?]ičic bow* explicitly conveys the concept *by means of*, therefore, *s-* replaces *dəx^w-*. Similarly, in sentence 4, *s-* occurs instead of *dəx^w-* because *dx^wʔal* already expresses direction.

20.2b. Sometimes speakers say s- where dæx^w- would be expected in precise and careful talking. The reverse is never done. In rapid and relaxed speech people sometimes omit the prefix altogether. (In the accompanying texts, omissions of this sort have been amended but always within editorial brackets, e.g., . . . tiʔəʔ [s]uʔəʔəds.)

20.3. Focused adjuncts and augments require d-paradigm affixes (12.4a, 12.5) in the former predicate. The role of these affixes vis a vis verb suffixes is the same as čəd-words. (There is, of course, the added difference that third person (12.4) is specifically marked with a d-paradigm suffix, namely -s, but a corresponding čəd-word is lacking.)

Agent oriented

ʔuʔibəš čəd.	:	. . . dsuʔibəš.	I walked.
ʔuʔibəš.	:	suʔibəšs.	He/she walked.

Patient oriented

ʔupusud čəd.	:	. . . dsupusud.	I threw [something] at [someone].
ʔupusud.	:	supusuds.	He/she threw [something] at [someone].
ʔupusutəb čəd.	:	dsupusutəb.	[Someone] threw [something] at me.
ʔupusutəb.	:	supusutəbs.	[Someone] threw [something] at <u>him/her</u> .

With dæx^w-, the first person prefix has a special form, namely, d- + dæx^w- results in cæx^w-.

ʔupusud čəd	:	. . . dsupusud	:	. . . cæx ^w upusud
ʔupusud čæx ^w	:	adsupusud	:	a(d)dæx ^w upusud
ʔupusud	:	supusuds	:	dæx ^w upusuds
ʔupusud čəʔ	:	supusud čəʔ	:	dæx ^w upusud čəʔ
ʔupusud čələp	:	supusudlap	:	dæx ^w upusudləp

20.3a. Because d-paradigm affixes function like čəd-words (except that the former set has a specific third person marker which the čəd-words lack), they express the agent with agent oriented verbs and also with patient oriented verbs ending in -d (and -dx^w, -tx^w, -c,

and -s) just as čəd-words do. But with patient verbs in -t-əb (and likewise -du-b, -tu-b, -c-əb, and -s-əb) these affixes represent a patient. This, too, is just like čəd-words.

20.3b. The student should pay particular attention to the suffix -s in sentences with focused adjuncts or augments. When a verb of the original predicate is agent oriented, the -s can be replaced by an ʔə-phrase expressing agent.³⁶ Study the following example set:

5. ʔuʔəʔəd tiʔəʔ pišpiš ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ. The cat ate the salmon.

5a. sʔuladxʷ tiʔəʔ suʔəʔəds. The salmon is what it ate.

(agent)

5b. sʔuladxʷ tiʔəʔ suʔəʔəd ʔə tiʔəʔ pišpiš. The salmon is what the cat ate.

If, however, the verb is patient oriented, the -s represents the patient and, as such, it remains whether or not a direct complement expressing the patient is also present.

6. ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su ti sq'əbayʔ ʔə tə q'ʔq'ʔayʔ. The children chased the dog with sticks.

6a. q'ʔq'ʔayʔ tiʔiʔ dəx'učalatəbs ti sq'əbayʔ. With sticks they chased the dog.

(patient)

6b. q'ʔq'ʔayʔ tiʔiʔ dəx'učalatəbs ʔə tiʔiʔ wiw'su ti sq'əbayʔ. With sticks the children chased the dog.

(patient)

20.4. When interrogative words ask about adjuncts or augments, the resulting questions have the same form as sentences with focused adjuncts and augments; and like these, s-replaces dəxʷ- when the interrogative word or phrase specifically refers to time, place or means. (Compare 20.2a.)

Agent oriented verbs

ʔəsʔəxid kʷi dəx'əstag'əxʷ ʔə tiʔəʔ qaw'qs. Why is Raven hungry?

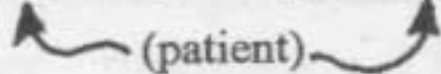
ʔəsčaləxʷ kʷi ʔuʃhuys. How will he manage?

liʔčad kʷi ʔ(u)adsuʔuʃʷ. Which way will you go?

ʔaləxʷ kʷid kʷi sʔukʷ ʔə tsiʔəʔ luʃ. When is the old woman going home?

³⁶This ʔə-phrase substitution for -s is the same as that learned for possessive constructions (12.3d).

Patient oriented verbs

<u>ʔəsčal</u> kʷi ʔuʂhuyudləp tiʔəʔ sʔəʔəd čəʔ.	How will you folks prepare our food?
<u>stab</u> kʷi dəxʷuʂəctx ʷs tiʔiʔ.	What does he use that for?
<u>stab</u> kʷi suhuyitəbʂ ʔə t(i) adbad tiʔiʔ čʰačʰas. 	What is your father making for that boy?

In this last question, the interrogative *stab* asks about (i.e., replaces) an adjunct rather than a direct complement because the direct complement has been filled by the *yi*-role (8.1), *tiʔiʔ čʰačʰas*. (Review 8.2 through 8.3d.)

20.5. Focusing is an exception to 8.3d. By means of focusing an agent, patient, and *yi*-role of a single verb can all be expressed in the same sentence even though all three are represented by nouns. (Some would argue that this is possible because the focused item is a clause in its own right and the rest of the sentence including the verb is really a separate but subordinate clause. Clauses are discussed in the next lesson.)

20.6. Dialect differences.

20.6a. In Northern Lushootseed *dəxʷ-* + *lə-* (11.3b - 11.6) becomes *dəxʷə-*. Similarly, *s-* + *lə-* becomes *sə-*. This change does not generally occur in Southern Lushootseed.

20.6b. In Southern Lushootseed *sxʷ-* (sometimes pronounced as though it were spelled *səxʷ-*) is said instead of *dəxʷ-*; and there are no special forms involving the *d*-paradigm affixes. They are exactly as with *s-*.

20.6c. Instead of *wiwʷsu* the Skagit and Sauk-Suiattle say *stawigʷaʔ* or *stawixʷaʔ*.

20.7. Exercises.

I. Translate each of the following sentences writing them on a separate sheet of paper. Then close this book and without consulting Lesson Twenty, translate them back into Lushootseed. Open the book and check your work. If any mistakes have been made, look through this lesson (and any other necessary) to find the grammatical point forgotten.

1. čad kʷ(i) adsubəčad ti ʔapqs (ladle).
2. sʔuladxʷ tiʔəʔ suʔəʔəd ʔə ti piʂpiš.

3. pišpiš ti'ə? ʔuləkʷəd ti sʔuladxʷ.
4. čad kʷi subəčads ti xʷubt.
5. čxčxʷa? (stones) ti'it supusil ʔə ti'it wiw'su.
6. diť (that is (the place)) ti'ə? cəxʷkʷəd(d)xʷ ti'ə? dsʔəťəd.

II. Every verb in the sentences below ends in -s, but some of these suffixes are homonyms. On a separate sheet of paper describe the grammatical function of each -s.

1. ʔutəlawis ti sqʷəbayʔ.
2. bəsqʷ ti'ə? suʔuləxs.
3. qʷʔayʔ ti'it dəxʷupusutəbs ti sqʷəbayʔ.
4. ʔuťčis tsi sťadəyʔ.
5. čxʷa? ti'ə? dəxʷupusuds ti sqʷəbayʔ.
6. čal kʷi gʷəskʷaxʷacids.

LESSON TWENTY-ONE

Clauses

21.1. Consider this sentence from Lesson Fourteen, $\text{tux}^w\text{ak}^w\text{il } \check{\text{c}}\text{ad } \text{xu}\check{\text{t}}(\text{u})\text{astag}^w\text{x}^w\text{ad}$, *I get tired whenever I am hungry*. A sentence such as this is composed of two smaller sentences called **clauses**. These are $\text{tux}^w\text{ak}^w\text{il } \check{\text{c}}\text{ad}$ and $\text{xu}\check{\text{t}}(\text{u})\text{astag}^w\text{x}^w\text{ad}$. Without change the first one could serve as an independent sentence. Such clauses are said to be **matrix** or **main** clauses.

The second clause, $\text{xu}\check{\text{t}}(\text{u})\text{astag}^w\text{x}^w\text{ad}$ in this case, could not be an independent sentence. It is, therefore, said to be a **subordinate** clause or **embedded sentence**. (The two terms are equivalent.) Of course, one could make a slight change to this second clause, namely replace ad (14.4) with $\check{\text{c}}\text{ad}$, and it would then be an independent sentence too, but also it would no longer be a part of the original sentence.

21.2. Sentences with subordinate clauses are said to be **complex**. Lushootseed has various types of complex sentences but they are all simply various combinations out of just three basic clause patterns. The student already knows these three patterns but has not yet been given names for them.

21.2a. The most salient feature of each clause pattern is the sort of person marker it has in its predicate (other than person patient suffixes). These three different sets of person markers are listed again here:

I	II	III
$\check{\text{c}}\text{ad}$	ad/ad	$\text{d-}/\text{cax}^w\text{-}$
$\check{\text{c}}\text{ax}^w$	ax^w/ax^w	ad-
	as/as	-s
$\check{\text{c}}\text{at}$	ati/ati	$\check{\text{c}}\text{at}$
$\check{\text{c}}\text{alap}$	alap/alap	-lap

21.2b. Clauses with the first set of person markers are labeled either **$\check{\text{c}}\text{ad}$ -word patterns** or **person particle patterns**. (Reread 17.1a.) Clauses with the second set are called **person clitic patterns**. (Reread 14.1a.) Clauses having the third set of person markers

are said to be **nominalized** because, like nouns, they bear the d-paradigm affixes and they require (at least in careful speech) an introductory demonstrative (15.1). They are further characterized by the s- or *dəx*^w- prefixes (20.1) although speakers sometimes omit the s- in relaxed speech. (Reread 18.6a and 20.1.).

21.2c. These three clause patterns are contrasted with one another here in the second person singular and third person to refresh the student's memory:

Second person singular

čad-word pattern	ʃuʔəʃtx ^w <u>čəx^w</u> ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	You will feed the people.
clitic pattern	ʃuʔəʃtx ^w <u>əx^w</u> ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	when/if you feed the people.
nominalized pattern	tiʔəʔ ʃ(u) <u>ads</u> ʔəʃtx ^w ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	what you will feed the people.
čad-word pattern	ʃuʔəʃtub <u>čəx^w</u> ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	The people will feed you.
clitic pattern	ʃuʔəʃtub <u>əx^w</u> ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	when/if the people feed you.
nominalized pattern	tiʔəʔ ʃ(u) <u>ads</u> ʔəʃtub ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	what the people will feed you.

Third person

čad-word pattern	ʃuʔəʃtx ^w ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	[Someone] will feed the people.
clitic pattern	ʃuʔəʃtx ^w <u>as</u> ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	when/if she feeds the people.
nominalized pattern	tiʔəʔ ʃusəʃtx ^w <u>s</u> ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	what she will feed the people.
čad-word pattern	ʃuʔəʃtub ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	The people will feed [someone].
clitic pattern	ʃuʔəʃtub <u>əs</u> ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	when/if the people feed him/her.
nominalized pattern	ti ʃusʔəʃtub <u>s</u> ʔə ti ʔaciʃtalbix ^w .	what the people will feed him/her.

Students have encountered clitic patterns in Lesson Fourteen and nominalized patterns for focused adjuncts in Lesson Twenty as well as in one type of negative sentence in Lesson Eighteen. In particular, it is a good idea to review thoroughly 20.3a, 20.3b, and 20.4 because statements made there apply to nominalized patterns in general.

21.3. čad-word patterns are by far the most frequent type in a matrix (main) clause although occasionally a nominalized pattern functions as the matrix clause. čad-word patterns are also used for one type of relative clause. See 21.6b.

21.4. As presented in Lesson Fourteen, the person clitic pattern is used to form subordinate clauses that are conditional, *if/when*, habitual, *whenever*, *usually*, or jussive.³⁷ It is also used following verbs expressing fear. (Reread the model sentences at the end of 14.4.)

21.4a. In conservative Lushootseed style the clitic pattern is also used with interrogative words when these form questions that are embedded in longer sentences. These are exemplified in the (b)-sentences below:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1a. čad k'i tustatłil čət. | Where are we going to live? |
| 1b. t'abad g'əčadəs k'i tustatłil čət. | Guess where we are going to live. |
| 2a. stab k'i ləg'əč'əd. | What is he/she looking for? |
| 2b. x'i? k'i g'ədsəs(h)aydx' g'əstabəs k'i ləg'əč'əd. | I don't know what he/she is looking for. |
| 3a. ?əsčal ti?ə? sčətx'əd. | How is Bear? |
| 3b. ?uwiliq'itəb ti?ə? sčətx'əd g'əsčaləs k'i xəčs. | Bear was asked how his feelings were (i.e., how he felt about things). |
| 4a. g'at k'i tuc'əlalik'. | Who will win? |
| 4b. ?ug'adadg'adəx' əlg'ə? g'əg'atəs k'i tuc'əlalik'. | They discussed who would win. |
| 5a. pə(d)tab k'i tustičils. | When will he/she get here? |
| 5b. ?əx'cutəb čəx' ?u g'əpə(d)tabəs k'i g'əsčils. | Do you think he/she will get here sometime? |

³⁷Jussive clauses are those that follow commands, orders, requests, and the like.

6a. k^widid k^wi di[?]a[?].

How many people are here?

6b. x^wi[?] k^wi g^wədsəsłaxdx^w g^wək^wididəs
k^wi di[?]a[?].

I don't remember how many people
are here.

If what follows the embedded interrogative is another subordinate clause (as in these (b)-sentences), it will be nominalized or not according to 19.5 and 20.4. (Contrast 2a/2b with 5a/5b.)

21.4b. In less conservative styles, speakers very often omit the special clitic marking from embedded interrogative words. For example, in a story from the second volume of this reader there is the following sentence:

x^wi[?]əx^w [k^wi] g^wəsəs(h)aydx^ws ʔəsčal
k^wi ʔudəx^whuydx^ws.

[He] did not know how he was going
to manage to do it.

The third person clitic {as/əs} is missing from ʔəsčal (as well as the usual subjunctive prefix {g^w-}).

21.5. Nominalized subordinate clauses are far more frequently encountered than the clitic type. The student is already familiar with the nominalized pattern in one kind of negation (18.6, 18.6a) and with focused adjuncts and augments (20.1). Also they fill three of the constituents (sentences parts) presented in Lesson Sixteen, namely, the direct complement, adjunct and augment. (The examples that follow all come from the four stories of this reader's first volume.)

21.5a. Nominalized subordinate clauses can serve as direct complements to predicates with patient oriented verbs:

ʔulałdx^wəx^w ti[?]i[?] tushuy ʔə ti[?]i[?] č'iłč'ił.

[He] remembered what Fish Hawk
had done.

ʔušudx^w ti[?]i[?] səsq^wu[?] ʔə ti[?]i[?] ʔiišəds ʔal ti[?]ə?
hik^w č'ła[?].

[He] saw his friends gathered
around this big boulder.

x^wul' čəd ʔuləʔuł^wtx^w ti[?]ə? ʔ(u)ads[?]əʔtx^w.

I will just take [to them] what you
are [planning] to feed [them].

ʔəs(h)aydx^w ti[?]i[?] ʔusə[?]ibəš ʔə ti[?]i[?] duk^wibəʔ.

[He] knew that Changer would be
traveling.

ʃuhuyutəbəx^w ʕit tiʔiʔ dəx^wʔibəš ʕəʔ.

[It] will make near where we travel (i.e., it will shorten the distance we have to walk).

21.5b. Nominalized subordinate clauses can serve as adjuncts. Sometimes these adjuncts convey the patient of an agent oriented verb as in the first example below. Often they are adjuncts expressing time, place, manner and the like.

yəcəbax^w ti luχ ʔə tiʔiʔ sʔaliltubsəx^w.

The old man told [the villagers] about [someone's] being brought ashore.

ʔəsχicil tiʔiʔ ʕχaʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ sučalads tiʔiʔ sbiaw.

Boulder was angry as he chased Coyote.

χ^wul' ləcuʔiʔʔadəb ʔə tiʔəʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ χusq^wəls.

All [he was doing was] eating the berries [off the bushes] as they ripened.

hik^w ləcutuk^wucut ʔə tiʔiʔ sətəčs, ʔə tiʔiʔ sčalads tiʔiʔ sbiaw.

[It] made a great thumping sound as it rolled, as it chased Coyote.

21.5c. Many of these subordinate clauses are augments that explain the motivation for the act or the reason for the state conveyed in the main clause.

χuʔahild əlg^wəʔ ʔudəx^wʔa(h)s k^wi stab ʔusʔəʔəds əlg^wəʔ.³⁸

They would put it [away] so there would be something for them to eat.

ləcuʔabyid ʕəʔ tiʔəʔ ʕχaʔ ʔə tiʔəʔ stabig^ws ʕəʔ tiʔəʔ ʔusʔibəš ʕəʔ.

We are giving our belongings to this boulder because we are going on a trip.

diʔ³⁹ dəx^wut'asad ʕəʔ tiʔəʔ ʕχaʔ.

That is why we pay this boulder.

³⁸The final part of the nominalized subordinate clause, namely, ʔusʔəʔəds əlg^wəʔ, is itself another subordinate clause which modifies (i.e., goes with) stab. See 21.6a.

³⁹After diʔ speakers very often omit the demonstrative normally expected to introduce a following noun or nominalized subordinate clause.

diŋ day' ʁuscut ʔə tiʔiŋ sčətxʷəd.
 ʔuʔa(h) čəxʷ [tiʔiŋ] ʁʷul' ʔ(u)adsyubil.

That is all Bear would say.
 You will be there until you
 starve [to death].

21.6. Sometimes a subordinate clause modifies (i.e., goes with/belongs to) a particular noun. Clauses that modify a noun are called **relative clauses**. In Lushootseed relative clauses have either the čəd-word pattern or the nominalized pattern except that these nominal clauses are not introduced by a demonstrative.

21.6a. If the relationship between that noun and the verb of the modifying clause is like that of adjuncts, then the relative clause has the nominalized pattern (except for the absence of an 'introductory' demonstrative).

bəčətabəxʷ tiʔiŋ kʷat'aq dəxʷʔibəš ʔə tiʔiŋ
 bibščəb ʔi tiʔiŋ suʔsuqʷaʔs.

Wall-lining mats were laid down for
 Little Mink and his little younger
 brother to walk on.

ʔuqʷuʔəd tiʔiŋ stab gʷədəxʷ(h)əliʔis(s)
 əlgʷəʔ.

[They] gathered things they could live
 on.

ʁuʔahild əlgʷəʔ tiʔiŋ ʔudəxʷʔa(h)s kʷi stab
 ʔus[u]ʔəʔəds əlgʷəʔ.

They would put it [away] so something
 would be there for them to eat.

ʔupačad tiʔiŋ stabigʷs sʔabyids.

He displayed the goods he was giving
 [to Boulder].

21.6b. When the relationship between the noun and the verb of the modifying clause is not like that of adjuncts, then the relative clause has the čəd-word pattern. (Note that nothing distinguishes these clauses from independent main clauses except the speaker's vocal flow. If the speaker makes what might be called a 'period pause' between the two clauses, then each is a main clause independent of the other. If, however, they are pronounced as a single flowing sentence, the second clause is considered to be a relative modifying the final noun of the first clause.)

ʔəs(h)aydxʷ čəd tsi sʔadəyʔ ʔəsʔəʔlil ʔal tiʔiŋ.

I know the woman who
 lives there.

ʔəs(h)aydxʷ čəd tsi sʔadəyʔ.

I know the woman.

+

+

ʔəsʔəʔlil ʔal tiʔiŋ.

She lives there.

ʔuʂudxʷ čəd ti sqʷəbayʔ ʔudʔubutəb ʔə tiʔiʔ čʰačʰas.	I saw the dog that boy kicked.
ʔuʂudxʷ čəd ti sqʷəbayʔ.	I saw the dog.
+	+
ʔudʔubutəb ʔə tiʔiʔ čʰačʰas.	That boy kicked [it].
ʔuʂudxʷ čəxʷ ʔu ti čʰačʰas ʔudʔubud tiʔiʔ sqʷəbayʔ.	Did you see the boy who kicked that dog?
ʔuʂudxʷ čəxʷ ʔu ti čʰačʰas.	Did you see the boy?
+	+
ʔudʔubud tiʔiʔ sqʷəbayʔ.	[He] kicked that dog.

21.6c. When relative clauses of the čəd-word pattern are short, they can precede rather than follow the nouns they modify. (The first three examples in 17.4b provide examples.)

21.7. Some sentences have two or even more main clauses. These are said to be **compound** (or **coordinate**) sentences. When first or second persons are involved, the čəd-words have a special joining form which consists of the addition of a final a-vowel.

čəda *and I* čxʷa *and you* čʰa *and we* čələpa *and you folks*

21.7a. Just as čəd-words follow the first word in their clause be it a verb, adverb (17.3, 17.3b), or some other type of predicate word (16.1), so too these compound čəd-words follow the first constituent (16.4) in their sentence, namely, the first clause.

ʂub čəʔ ʔuhudčup čʰa ʔukʷukʷcut.	We should make a fire <u>and</u> <u>we</u> [should] cook.
day' čəxʷ ʔuʔəʂ' dxʷʔal tiʔiʔ dʔalʔal čəda ʔuʔəʔtubicid.	After a while you will come to my house <u>and</u> I will feed you.
hiwiləxʷ čxʷa tqad tə šəgʷʔ.	Go ahead <u>and</u> (<u>you</u>) close the door.

21.7b. Compound sentences involving third person have no special marking. Only the speaker's voice can distinguish a compound from two separate sentences. On the printed page one may write a comma to separate one main clause of a compound from the other.

21.7. Exercises.

I. In 21.4 four meanings expressed with the clitic pattern subordinate clause are listed. On a separate sheet of paper copy out the ten example sentences at the very end of 14.4 and label each by its meaning according to 21.4, e.g., *conditional*, *habitual*, etc.

II. Each of the six sentences below has at least one subordinate clause of the nominative pattern. Underline the subordinate clause or clauses in each and in the margin to the left write the paragraph number from the lesson that accounts for (or describes the reason for) each subordinate clause.

- | | |
|---|---|
| ___ 1. ʔukʷəd(d)xʷ tiʔiʔ supusutəbs tiʔəʔ wiwʷsu. | He managed to catch what was thrown at the children. |
| ___ 2. diʔ tiʔə cəxʷkʷəd(d)xʷ tiʔəʔ dsʔəʔəd. | That is where I got my food. |
| ___ 3. dʔuʃʷatəxʷ ʔə tiʔəʔ pʔqʷac tusuʔəʔəds. | He vomited this rotten wood he'd been eating. |
| ___ 4. ʃʷul' čəxʷ ləʔuʃʷ dxʷʔal kʷ(i) adsʔčil. | You just keep going until you arrive. |
| ___ 5. ʔukʷədad tiʔəʔ qʷuʔ dəxʷucʷagʷači(?)b ʔal tiʔəʔ sbaʔs. | He took some water he uses to wash his with hands when he cures. |
| ___ 6. ʃʷul' čəd ʔuləʔuʃʷtxʷ tiʔəʔ ʔ(u)adsʔəʔtxʷ əlgʷəʔ. | I'll just take [i.e., deliver to them] what you are going to feed them. |

III. Study the following sentence and its gloss. Then answer the questions below.

xʷiʔəxʷ gʷəsəs(h)aydxʷs [gʷ]əsčal[əs] kʷi ʔudəxʷhuydxʷs kʷi gʷədəxʷləkʷdxʷs tiʔiʔ sʔəʔəd ʔə tiʔəʔ ʔalšs. *He didn't know how he was going to manage to eat his sister's food.*

How many clauses (of all kinds) are there in this sentence? _____.

Copy the matrix (main) clause onto this blank. _____.

Among the subordinate clauses in this sentence how many have the clitic pattern? ____.

The English gloss *he is going to manage* corresponds to what Lushootseed in the above sentence?

_____.

How would one write the Lushootseed equivalent for, *You will manage to eat my salmon?*

_____.

LESSON TWENTY-TWO

Some final points on grammar

In the preceding twenty-one lessons the major grammatical features of Lushootseed have been presented. There remain only a few points to be considered before the student is ready to read the language. Of the items considered immediately below, only 22.1b, 22.4, and 22.8 are required for reading the four texts of this reader.

22.1. More patient suffixes:

22.1a. A few frequently heard verb stems have -š instead of -d (page 10):

ʔabš	give something
ʔišʔš	paddle it (a canoe)
ʔalš	take something off/out of the fire
ʔalš	put it on (an article of clothing), wear it
sux ^w təš	recognize someone/something
tag ^w š	buy something
təbaš	crave something

22.1b. A few other stems permit either -d or -š:

bəčaš / bəčad	set someone/something down
dəg ^w aš / dəg ^w ad	put something inside a container
ʔaq ^ʔ aš / ʔaq ^ʔ ad	set someone/something down
ʔag ^w š / ʔag ^w ad	stitch (i.e., make) a mat
p ^ʔ ʔaš / p ^ʔ ʔad	put something away, save it; tidy up an area
q ^w ataš / q ^w atad	lay something down
ʔag ^w təš / ʔag ^w təd	put something on top of something
ʔalš / ʔalad	write something down, mark something

(The fourth set, ʔag^wš / ʔag^wad, and the last, ʔalš / ʔalad, are unusual in having a vowel before -d but not before -š.)

There is some variation among speakers concerning the use of these endings. In Northern Lushootseed, speakers of Snohomish use -š a little less often than others.

22.1c. All the words in the second group (22.1b) take the ending sequence -t-əb (6.1) whether they otherwise end in -š or -d. Members of the first set, however, are more irregular. Instead of -t-əb, the forms *ʔal(š)* and *tag*(š)* have -ib:

*ʔuʔalib ʔə tiʔiʔ stubš ti šiʔ**. The man put the hat on.

*ʔutag*ib ʔə ti dʔalš tiʔiʔ puʔtəd.* My brother bought that shirt.

On the other hand, neither *ʔišt* nor *sux*t-* permit either -t-əb or -ib although *ʔišt* can have -tu-b as in *ʔuʔištub* [*Someone*] *tried out [a canoe] (to see how it handled)*. The texts lack information on this point concerning *təbaš*.

22.2. A few conservative speakers replace -t-əb with -t-id when the verb is in a subordinate clause formed with the nominalized pattern (21.2b).

ʔul' ʔ(u)aswačbid tiʔiʔ ʔ(u)ashuyutid tiʔəʔ sləxil. He was just watching what was done with the daylight.

*diʔi⁴⁰ k'i skwədatid ʔə tiʔəʔ p'əč'əb tiʔəʔ sqq*us.* Unexpectedly Bobcat took a small canoe mat.

*ʔəsduk*tx* tiʔəʔ ʔiışəds ʔə tiʔəʔ sələk*ti[d] tiʔəʔ sx'iʔx'iʔs.* He was angry with his people in that they were his game.

Very often this suffix, -tid, is pronounced without the final d, either as -tiʔ or simply -ti. (Comparing Lushootseed to other Salish languages suggests that in former times -tid was the usual form in these subordinate clauses. Today, however, it is little heard although more so among the Skagit than elsewhere.)

22.3. The suffix -ag*id no longer occurs in Lushootseed speech, but it has been preserved on tape recordings made in the early 1950's of people conversing and telling stories -- people who then were in their nineties and older. This suffix was added to truncated forms of -du-, -tu-, and to the -t- of -d/-t- (and presumably to -s- and -c-)⁴¹ to indicate the

⁴⁰See 22.9 below.

⁴¹Note the similarity in form between this suffix and the reciprocal suffix (9.6b). This similarity results from the fact that both suffixes share the element -ag*- which was at one

speaker's chief topic of interest even though the grammar placed that topic in a subordinate role.

The following example helps elucidate the significance of -ag^wid. It occurs in line 5 below:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. ʔuk ^w adatəb ʔə tiʔəʔ p'əč'əb. | Bobcat took it. |
| 2. ʔuk ^w ədad tiʔəʔ p'əč'əbulic'aʔs. | [He] took his bobcat-blanket. |
| 3. g ^w əl ʔald k ^w ədiʔ ʔad ^z alus ... | And [he] put it in a beautiful ... [place]... |
| 4. g ^w əl ləg ^w ədil ʔəx ^w čəg ^w us. | And he sat facing the water. |
| 5. diʔt k ^w i (s)šudəg ^w i[d] ʔə tiʔəʔ č'ač'as. | All of a sudden the child saw him. |
| 6. 'diʔəx ^w bayəʔ!' | 'That's Daddy!' |
| 7. diʔəx ^w bayəʔ!' | That's Daddy!' |
| 8. diʔ ti p'əč'əb ti ʔucut(t)əb ʔə
tiʔəʔ sqaqag ^w ət. | It was Bobcat whom the noble child spoke
of. |

In the first four lines Bobcat clearly is the topic of discourse and he is the agent. Line 5, however, introduces a new agent, the child; but by using the suffix -ag^wid (here pronounced as -əg^wi), the speaker is in effect saying to the addressee, "I've introduced a new agent now but my primary interest remains with Bobcat." Line 8 proves that the story teller's attention has remained with Bobcat.⁴²

22.4. Nouns in direct relation with verbs meaning *become* and *make* typically lack a modifying demonstrative (15.1). Here follow a few examples:

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| ʔuhuyiləx ^w bəščəb. | He has become a mink. |
| ʔuhuyil čəd kiaʔ ʔal ti duk ^w ətədat. | I became a grandmother yesterday. |
| ... ʔal k ^w i tusəshuys əlg ^w əʔ tuʔaciʔtalbix ^w . | ... when they were made people. |
| ʔuhuyud čəd x ^w ubt. | I made a paddle [out of it]. |

time a full suffix in its own right.

⁴²Students are encouraged to read a particularly lucid description of this suffix (and its related forms in other Salish languages) in M. Dale Kinkade. 1990. Sorting out Third Persons in Salishan Discourse, *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 56: 341-360.

In the above examples all verbs are based on the root *huy*. The same absence of determiners obtains in constructions with other verbs meaning *make* such as *šəʔ* / *čəʔ* discussed in the next section. (The Swinomish and Skagit say *čəʔ* instead of *šəʔ*.)

22.5. Compounding is relatively rare in Lushootseed. Nevertheless, there is a special productive subtype that the student will encounter occasionally. It is called **noun incorporation**. Contrast these two sentences:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. ʔutag ^w š tə səpləl. | [Someone] bought some bread. |
| 2. ʔutəx ^w səpləl. | [Someone] bought bread. |

Both tag^w- (22.1a) and təx^w mean *buy*, but the second verb cannot take a patient suffix such as -d, -š, or any other. Without a patient suffix the verb would not be expected to have a patient noun. Instead, that noun joins with the verb stem creating a new stem of the type verb + noun. The noun is said to be incorporated into the verb. This new stem is agent oriented.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| 2a. ʔutəx ^w səpləl tsi dʔalš. | My sister bought bread. |
|--|-------------------------|

Noun incorporation provides Lushootseed speakers with still another way of expressing both an agent and patient in one clause. Of course, speakers can also convey both roles in the more usual way as in 1a below:

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| 1a. ʔutag ^w ib ʔə tsi dʔalš tə səpləl. | My sister bought some bread. |
|---|------------------------------|

22.5a. Typically speakers elect to use the incorporated formation when the activity occurs so regularly that the patient is only barely noteworthy. Thus, in 2 and 2a the speaker is letting us know that this bread buying is an absolutely ordinary event, while sentences 1 and 1a are pointing out that bread is the matter of concern.

We see, then, that Lushootseed grammar provides speakers with a scale of focus:

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------|
| ʔutəx ^w səpləl tsi dʔalš. | My sister bought bread. |
| ʔutag ^w ib ʔə tsi dʔalš tə səpləl. | My sister bought some bread. |
| səpləl ti ʔutag ^w ib ʔə tsi dʔalš. | Bread is what my sister bought. |

Reread the introduction to Lesson Nineteen.

22.5b. As pointed out above, verb stems that can be a part of these noun incorporations do not take patient suffixes. However, the incorporated stem can do so. Consider the following sentence wherein the noun *tʔəbiʔəd* *rope* is added to the verb *šəʔ* *make*:

diʔ tiʔəʔ dəxʷšəʔt'əbiʔədtubs.

It was used for making rope.

Here the patient suffix sequence -tu-b (6.1) has been added to the verb + noun stem. (The prefix dəxʷ- (20.2) is glossed as *used for*. The final suffix -s is triggered by dəxʷ-(20.1).)

22.5c . A third verb that incorporates nouns is *ʒa go*. It is equivalent to ʔuχʷ dxʷʔal. Compare the following:

ləχʷatawd čəd. = ləʔuχʷ čəd dxʷʔal (ti) tawd. I'm on my way to town.

22.5d. Verbs that ordinarily take patient suffixes can be converted to verbs requiring noun incorporation by means of the suffix -əʔ-. For example, one can say ʔučaləʔpišpiš ti sqʷəbayʔ instead of ʔučalatəb ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ ti pišpiš. Both mean that *the dog chased the cat*, but the first implies that the agent is acting with his/her own interests paramount.

22.5e. The cohesion between verb and noun in these incorporated constructions is not always as 'tight' as the above examples imply because čəd-words can optionally occur between verb and noun when there is no patient suffix. The same is true of the other predicate particles (17.1a). Compare the following sentence pairs:

ʔušəʔt'əbiʔəd čəd.	= ʔušəʔ čəd t'əbiʔəd.	I made rope.
ʔutəxʷsəpləl čəd.	= ʔutəxʷ čəd səpləl.	I bought bread.
ʔušəʔxʷʔaχʷaʔəd ʔu.	= ʔušəʔ ʔu xʷʔaχʷaʔəd.	Did [she] make a clam basket?
ʔuχʷa tawd čəʔ.	= ʔuχʷa čəʔ tawd.	We went to town.

Similarly, the clitic axʷ (14.2 - 14.3b) occasionally separates the incorporated element from the verb as seen in this sentence, cutəxʷ ti tul'ʔal tiʔiʔ diʔucid daʔəʔəxʷ Vancouver, *These from that [place] across the water named now Vancouver spoke now.*

Nevertheless, a demonstrative (otherwise obligatory before the noun) is not possible in the sentences on the right. This absence establishes the unity between these verbs and nouns as being morphological (i.e., wordbuilding) rather than just syntactic.

22.6. Just as *ʒa go* (22.5c) can be thought of as including dxʷʔal *to, toward* in its meaning, so too, *ʔil give food/drink to someone* can be thought of as including -yi- (8.1).

ʔuʔild tsi luχʷ.	[Someone] gave [some food] to the old woman.
ʔuʔild ʔə ti χʷayʔ.	[Someone] gave a dog salmon [to someone].
ʔuʔiltəb ʔə ti stubš.	The man gave [some food to someone].

ʔuʔiltəb tsiʔəʔ čəgʷas(s) ʔə tiʔəʔ [They] gave his wife their roasted (food).
səsqʷəls.

ʔuʔiltəb čəd ʔə tiʔəʔ qa(h) I was given one full backpack [of elk meat]
dəč'uʔ sčəbaʔ tiʔəʔ dsčəbaʔtub, which was put on my back, when I was given
cəxʷuʔiltəb. food.

22.6a. A similar construction can be formed with the stem *həliʔ* whose ultimate meaning signifies *live, alive, life, soul*.

ʔugʷəxaliʔəd čəʔ tiʔəʔ ds(h)əliʔdub ʔə ti sʔubʔubədiʔ. We will unwrap this [elk
meat] given to me by the
hunters.

ʔu· siʔab, tuxʷ čələp ʔuhəliʔdxʷəxʷ kʷi dbədbədaʔ. Oh, sirs! You save my
children [by your gift].

The idea is that the recipient is able to survive only because of the gift of food or drink. In fact, the expression for *thank you*, appropriate only for a gift or food or beverage, is *həliʔdubš čəxʷ*, literally, *You save me*.

22.7. By means of the word *sgʷaʔ* *one's own* the concept of ownership can be emphasized. The d-paradigm affixes are used with it.

ti dsgʷaʔ.	It's mine.
ckʷaqid ʔ(u)adsgʷaʔ.	It will always be yours.
diʔ tə hikʷ ʔalʔal tə sgʷaʔ čəʔ.	The big house is ours.
xʷiʔ lədsɡʷaʔ dsqʷəbayʔ.	It's not my dog.
diʔ dsgʷaʔ dpišpiš.	That is my very own cat.

When there is a sequence of *sgʷaʔ* plus a noun expressing the item possessed as in the last two examples above, speakers optionally omit the d-paradigm affix from the noun expressing the item owned: *diʔ dsgʷaʔ pišpiš*.

22.8. Many sentences, especially in long narratives, begin with one of or a combination of a small set of words called **sentential adverbs**. The most common are *gʷəl* *and, but, or, huy then, next*, and *hay next*. The difference in meaning between the last two is subtle and difficult to gloss in English. A common variant of *gʷəl* is *gʷaʔ*.

22.8a. Often they are said in various combinations such as g^wəl (h)uy, hay g^wəl, huy g^wəl all more or less meaning *and then*. Some speakers frequently use ʔah *located, (be) there* for the same purpose either singly or in combination with one of the sentential adverbs.

22.8b. The sentential adverb g^wəl is also used to **topicalize**. Topicalization is achieved by placing g^wəl after the topic, in effect treating the topic as an entire clause and using g^wəl to introduce the following clause. Below is a short description of some clams. The first and fourth sentences are topicalized, but in the second and third, g^wəl is simply linking one sentence to another:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. haʔəc g ^w əl həlaʔb hik ^w sʔaχ ^w uʔ. | As for the horse clam, it is a really big clam. |
| 2. g ^w əl ʔəsp'il tiʔəʔ č'awəy's. | And its shell is flat. |
| 3. g ^w əl tuχ ^w (h)uy ʔəsbuluχ ^w tiʔəʔ
č'awəy' ʔə tsiʔəʔ sχəp'ab. | But in contrast the shell of the cockle is round. |
| 4. g ^w əl tiʔəʔ sʔaχ ^w uʔ g ^w əl
ʔudəg ^w abacbid ʔə tiʔəʔ saliʔ. | And as for the butter clam, it is between the [other] two. |

In the fourth sentence, the first g^wəl is just linking this sentence to the preceding ones. It is the second g^wəl that topicalizes tiʔəʔ sʔaχ^wuʔ *this butter clam*. In the third sentence the sentential adverb combination g^wəl (h)uy has been separated by the predicate adverb (17.2) tuχ^w *in contrast*.

22.9. Finally, the student's attention is directed to the two words diʔ and diʔʔ. They occur over and over in Lushootseed discourse. In spite of their similar pronunciations, they have very different meanings. The former, diʔ (19.4, 19.7), *the one(s) who, that which, the one referred to*, is a pronoun. The second one, diʔʔ, means *suddenly, all at once, abruptly; might*. Both of these words are used most often as one word predicates which are followed by a subordinate clause of the s-/dəχ^w- types (21.5).

ANSWERS TO GRAMMAR QUESTIONS

UNIT FOUR

ANSWERS



ANSWERS TO GRAMMAR QUESTIONS

Lesson One, pages 3, 4: Where does the **verb** (the action word) come in a Lushootseed sentence -- first or last? First. What does ti č'ač'as mean? The boy. In sentences numbered 1, 4, and 6 does ti č'ač'as perform the action; that is, in 1, 4, and 6 is ti č'ač'as the **agent** (the doer)? Yes. Is ti č'ač'as the agent in sentences 2, 3, and 5 or is it the **patient** (the one to whom some act is done)? Patient. On the following blank write what it is in these Lushootseed sentences that tells the reader or listener whether ti č'ač'as is agent or patient. If the verb ends in -tx^w, ti č'ač'as is patient. What does ʔut'uk^w mean? Go home.

Lesson Two, page 6: What does čəd mean? I. What does čəł mean? We. Do these two words express the agent or the patient in their sentences? Agent. I went home. = ʔut'uk^w čəd. We brought the boy. = ʔuʔəł'tx^w čəł ti č'ač'as. I took the boy home. = ʔut'uk^wtx^w čəd ti č'ač'as.

Lesson Two, page 7: What does the little word ʔu mean? Question. (Such little words are called **particles** by linguists.) Where in the sentence does it occur? Right after čəx^w or čələp. If there is no čəx^w nor čələp, it goes right after the verb. What is the difference in meaning between čəx^w and čələp? The first is you singular while the latter is you plural, you folks. . . . Cross out the inappropriate English word: čələp = ye, čəx^w = thou.

Lesson Three, page 9, (3.1): What is the difference in meaning between ti č'ač'as (in Lessons One and Two) and tsi č'ač'as (of this lesson)? Gender (i.e., male and female). . . . Write the English meanings beside each . . . sʔuladx^w = salmon, č'ač'as = child, sq'əbayʔ = dog.

Lesson Three, page 10, (3.2): Three new sets of verbs occur in this lesson. Note their **suffixes** (endings). Does an agent or patient follow the suffix -d? Patient. In this respect is -tx^w like -d or -b? -d. In Lesson One there are three verbs that have no suffixes at all. Does the following noun (when expressed) represent the agent or the patient? Agent. In this respect are the suffixless verbs in Lessons One and Two like those ending in -d or those ending in -b? -b.

Lesson Four, page 13: Do the nouns in these (a)-sentences express agents or patients? Agents. All verbs in the (a)-sentences end in what suffix? -il. For similarity in grammatical function should this suffix be matched with -b or with -tx^w and -d? -b. Do the nouns in the (b)-sentences convey agents or patients? Patients. All verbs in the (b)-sentences end in what suffix? -is. For similarity in grammatical functions, should this suffix be matched with -b or with -tx^w and -d? With -tx^w and -d.

Lesson Four, page 14: List the four verbs from the (a)-sentences 1 through 4 above in one column and those from this second set of (a)-sentences, 5 through 8, in an adjacent column. Beside each verb write its gloss.

1 through 4	English glosses	5 through 8	English glosses
<u>ʔuʔusil</u>	<u>dove</u>	<u>ʔux^wit'il</u>	<u>fell off</u>
<u>ʔutəlawil</u>	<u>ran</u>	<u>ʔuctil</u>	<u>bled</u>
<u>ʔuʔalil</u>	<u>went ashore</u>	<u>ʔuʔux^wil</u>	<u>got cold</u>
<u>ʔuʔčil</u>	<u>arrived</u>	<u>ʔučcil</u>	<u>became red</u>

Lesson Six, page 22: Each (a)-sentence has how many nouns? One. How many nouns are there in each (b)-sentence? One. In the (c)-sentences, does the first noun following the particle ʔə stand for an agent or a patient? Agent. What does the other noun in the (c)-sentences represent? Patient. What suffix do all verbs in the (c)-sentences share that is lacking in all the (b)-sentences? -(ə)b. What seems to be the function (purpose) of this new suffix? It provides for an agent noun with a patient oriented verb.

Lesson Six, page 24: What is the function (purpose) of ʔə in these sentences? It distinguishes the agent from the patient by specifically tagging the agent. Without ʔə would it always be possible to distinguish agent from patient? No.

Following the sequence patient suffix + -b, do čəd-words express the agent or the patient? Patient. Where does the interrogative particle, ʔu, occur in the sentence relative to the čəd-words? It follows the čəd-words. Where does it occur relative to the particle ʔə? It is before the particle ʔə.

Lesson Eight, page 34: Describe how the role (function) of ti č'ač'as in sentence 2 differs from the role of ti č'ač'as in sentence 3. In 2 ti č'ač'as is beneficiary while in 3 it is patient. Is the role of ti č'ač'as in sentence 2 approximately the same as in sentence 4

or are their functions entirely different? Same. What is the name of the role of ti č'ač'as in sentence 1? Agent. What is the name of the role of ti č'ač'as in sentence 3? Patient.

Lesson Eight, page 35 (8.2a,b): In sentences with -yi- how are patient and -yi-role distinguished? The patient is tagged with the particle ʔə. How are patient and agent distinguished in sentences with -yi-? By word order. The agent is first in the sentence.

Lesson Eight, page 36 (8.3a,b,c): What are the roles of the two nouns in sentence 9 and in which order do they occur? They are agent and patient and occur in that order. What are the roles and relative order of the two nouns in sentence 10? They are agent and yi-role in that order. What are the roles and relative order of the two nouns in sentence 11? These are yi-role and patient in that order.

Lesson Ten, pages 45-46: Contrast 1a with 1b and 2a with 2b. The first word in each pair of sentences is identical except for what? ʔu- versus ʔəs-. Now add to this list the words having the ʔəs- prefix from the sentences at the beginning of this lesson numbered 1b through 4b writing them in the blanks on the left.

<u>ʔəsq'ax'</u>	<u>frozen</u>
<u>ʔəsʔitut</u>	<u>asleep</u>
<u>ʔəsʔid</u>	<u>tied</u>
<u>ʔəsʔač'</u>	<u>extinguished</u>

Lesson Twelve, page 59: Translate the sentences below into Lushootseed:

We looked for Mary's dog. ʔug'əč'əd čəʔ ti sq'əbayʔ ʔə tsi mali. or
ʔug'əč'əb čəʔ ʔə ti sq'əbayʔ ʔə tsi mali.

It ate the old woman's salmon. ʔulək'əd ti sʔuladx' ʔə tsi luʔ or
ʔuʔəʔəd ʔə ti sʔuladx' ʔə tsi luʔ.

She roasted the boy's salmon. ʔuq'əld ti sʔuladx' ʔə ti č'ač'as. or
ʔuq'əlb ʔə ti sʔuladx' ʔə ti č'ač'as.

He took the old man's paddle. ʔuk'ədad ti ʔ'ubt ʔə ti luʔ.

(12.4). Compare the following words with one another and with those listed in 12.3d above. Provide the missing English gloss on each blank.

dʃʷubt	my paddle	ʃʷubt čəʃ	<u>our paddle</u>
dsqʷəbayʔ	<u>my dog</u>	sqʷəbayʔ čəʃ	our dog
dšaw	my bone	šaw čəʃ	our bone
adʃʷubt	your paddle	ʃʷubtləp	(the) paddle of you folks
adsqʷəbayʔ	your dog	sqʷəbayʔləp	<u>(the) dog of you folks</u>
adšaw	<u>your bone</u>	šawləp	(the) bone of you folks

Lesson Fourteen, page 70: Aside from the vowel difference (because clitics are sometimes stressed (14.2a) but čəd-words never are), the student should find a total of three differences between the above two lists. Two of these differences are specific to this or that particular person marker. The other difference separates one entire set from the other. On the lines below students should describe each difference.

1. The clitic set lacks the initial č-.
2. There is a third person form, namely, -as/-əs in the clitic set.
3. In the first person plural the clitic set has a final i-vowel lacking in the čəd-word set.

Lesson Fourteen, pages 72-73 (14.7c): The derivational suffix -šad occurs in two different stems in the example sentences of 14.4b. Write both stems here: -čəlpšad- and -xʷəʃšad. What two glosses are given for -šad? ankle and leg. Specifically, -šad designates the *foot* and the *leg* (especially from *below the knee*).

Lesson Eighteen, page 95: With the word č'əʃbidac *yew tree* create the following sentences: 1. That is not a yew tree. xʷiʔ ləc'əʃbidac tiʔiʃ. 2. There are no yew trees around here. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəc'əʃbidac ʔal tiʔaʔ. 3. We do not have [any] yew trees. xʷiʔ kʷi gʷəc'əʃbidac čəʃ.

Lesson Eighteen, page 97 (18.7): The suffix -txʷ bound to the negative adverb, xʷiʔ, is the same suffix encountered in Lesson One, the causative. How would one say in Lushootseed, *Don't let me cry?* xʷiʔtubš ləʃaab.

ANSWERS TO EXERCISES

Lesson One

1. ʔuʔuʃʷ.
2. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ti ʃaʃas.
3. ʔuʔəʎʷtxʷ ti ʃaʃas.
4. ʔuʔəʎʷtxʷ.
5. ʔuʔuʃʷtxʷ.
6. ʔuʔəʎʷ.
7. ʔutʷukʷ.
8. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ.
9. ʔuʔəʎʷ ti ʃaʃas.
10. ʔuʔuʃʷ ti ʃaʃas.
11. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ti ʃaʃas.
12. ʔutʷukʷ ti ʃaʃas.

Lesson Two

1. ʔuʔuʃʷ.
2. ʔuʔəʎʷtxʷ ʃəd ti ʃaʃas.
3. ʔuʔəʎʷ ʃəʔ.
4. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ʃələp ʔu ti ʃaʃas.
5. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ʃələp ʔu.
6. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ʔu ti ʃaʃas.
7. ʔuʔuʃʷtxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu.
8. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu.

Lesson Three

1. ʔuqʷəld ʃələp ʔu ti sʔuladxʷ.
2. ʔuhədʔiwʷd ʃəd ti sqʷəbayʔ.
3. ʔugʷəʃʷəd ʃəʔ tsi ʃaʃas.
4. ʔugʷəʃʷəb ti ʃaʃas.
5. ʔuqʷəld ʔu ti sʔuladxʷ.
6. ʔuhədʔiwʷb tsi ʃaʃas.
7. ʔutʷukʷtxʷ ʃəʔ ti sqʷəbayʔ.
8. ʔuʔuʃʷtxʷ.
9. ʔuhədʔiwʷd ti sqʷəbayʔ.
10. ʔuqʷəld ʃəʔ ti sʔuladxʷ.
11. ʔugʷəʃʷəd ʃəxʷ ʔu ti sqʷəbayʔ.
12. ʔuʔəʎʷtxʷ ʔu ti ʃaʃas.

Lesson Four

1. ʔuʔuʃʷtxʷ tsi luʎ.
2. ʔučubaac ʃəʔ ti sqigʷac.
3. ʔuʔuʃʷc ʔu ti sqʷəbayʔ.
4. ʔuʔusil ʔu ti supʔqs.
5. ʔutəlawil ti sqʷəbayʔ.
6. ʔutəlawis ʃəd ti sqʷəbayʔ.
7. ʔuhədʔiwʷtxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu.
8. ʔuʔəʎʷc ʃəxʷ ʔu ti luʎ.
9. ʔuʔčis ʃəʔ.

1. Fish Hawk dove. 2. He dove after a salmon. 3. He took it (up) inland. [Here the most appropriate translation would be, "He carried it up the bank".] 4. He took it home.

Lesson Five

1. ʔucʷəldxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu ti ʔaciʔtalbixʷ.
2. ʔubəʃad tsi ʃaʃas.
3. ʔukʷəʔdxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu ti qʷuʔ.
4. ʔuʔčis ʃəʔ tsi luʎ.
5. ʔuʔalis ʃələp ʔu ti ʃaʃas.
6. ʔutəlawis ʃəʔ ti sqʷəbayʔ.
7. ʔuqʷəld ʃələp ʔu ti sʔuladxʷ.
8. ʔuʔəyʷdxʷ ʃəxʷ ʔu ti sqʷəbayʔ.

1. Did you find the dog? 2. I went after the deer. 3. Did someone go [up] away from the water after the child? 4. Did you inadvertently knock the old man over/down? 5. I poured the water. 6. Did you win? 7. Someone took the boy. 8. Did you manage to get a salmon? 9. We put the old woman down. 10. Someone found the old woman.

ʔuʔalis	went ashore after something
ʔuʔalildx ^w	managed to reach shore
ʔuʔaliltx ^w	took someone to shore
ʔuqəʔəd	woke someone up
ʔuqəʔdx ^w	inadvertently woke someone up
ʔuk ^w əd(d)x ^w	managed to get something
ʔučaldx ^w	caught up with someone
ʔubəčad	set something down
ʔubəčdx ^w	inadvertently knock someone/something over
ʔusaq ^w tx ^w	cause something to fly, pilot an airplane
ʔuʔčis	arrived for a particular purpose
ʔuʔčildx ^w	managed to arrive with someone/something
ʔuʔčiltx ^w	arrived with someone/something
ʔutəd ^z is	went to bed with someone
ʔutəd ^z iltx ^w	put someone to bed
ʔuḥ ^w sild	fattened someone up

Lesson Six

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. ʔuʔəy'dub ʔə ti sq ^w əbay? ti č'ač'as. | The dog found the boy. |
| 2. ʔutəlawisəb ʔə ti luḥ ti sq ^w əbay? | The old man ran after the dog. |
| 3. ʔuhədʔiw'cəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as ti č'ač'as. | The girl went in the house after the boy. |
| 4. ʔug ^w əč'təb ʔə tsi č'ač'as tsi luḥ. | The girl looked for the old woman. |
| 5. ʔuʔəḥ'tub ʔə ti luḥ ti ʔaciʔtalbix ^w . | The old man brought the people. |
| 1. ʔut'uk ^w tx ^w čəx ^w ʔu tsi luḥ. | Did you take the old woman home? |
| 2. ʔuʔəy'dx ^w čəd ti č'ač'as. | I found the boy. |
| 3. ʔuʔčis čəʔ ti ʔaciʔtalbix ^w . | We arrived to [visit] the people. |
| 4. ʔučubaac čələp ʔu ti luḥ. | Did you folks go inland after the old man? |
| 5. ʔubəčad čəx ^w ʔu tsi luḥ. | Did you put the old woman down? |

Lesson Seven

- (a) The old woman dried the salmon.
(b) ʔušabalik^w tsi luḥ ʔə ti sʔuladx^w. (c) The old woman dried (the) salmon.

2. (a) The people sought spirit power.
 (b) ʔugʷəč'əb ti ʔaciɬtalbixʷ ʔə ti sqəlalitut. (c) The people sought spirit power.
3. (a) The boy threw [something] at the dog.
 (b) ʔupusil ti č'ač'as ʔə ti č'χaʔ. (c) The boy threw a stone/rock.
4. (a) The dog ate the crab.
 (b) ʔuʔəɬəd ti sqʷəbayʔ ʔə ti bəsqʷ. (c) The dog ate (the) crab.
5. (a) The old man foraged for (fire)wood.
 (b) ʔuʔuləχtəb ʔə ti luχ ti hud. (c) The old man came upon and kept the (fire)wood.
6. (a) The girl dug braken fern rhizomes.
 (b) ʔuč'aʔtəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as ti skʷiʔxʷ. (c) The girl dug (up) braken fern rhizomes.
7. (a) The boy ate crab.
 (b) ʔuləkʷtəb ʔə ti č'ač'as ti bəsqʷ. (c) The boy ate the crab.
8. (a) The old woman cooked/roasted salmon.
 (b) ʔuqʷəltəb ʔə tsi luχ ti sʔuladxʷ. (c) The old woman cooked/roasted the salmon.
1. ti sčətχʷəd 2. ʔə ti spčuʔ 3. ti spčuʔ 4. 0 5. ti spčuʔ 6. 0 7. ʔə ti syəcəb
 8. ʔə ti ʔulal 9. ti sbiaw 10. ʔə ti č'χaʔ 11. ʔə ti sqʷiʔqʷaliʔ 12. ʔə ti č'χaʔ.

Lesson Eight

1. ʔukʷədyid čəd ti sqʷəbayʔ ʔə ti šaw. 2. ʔuləkʷytəb ʔə ti luχ ʔə ti sʔuladxʷ.
 3. ʔuʔəχʷyid ti č'ač'as. 4. ʔuʔəχʷytəb ʔə tsi č'ač'as tsi luχ. 5. ʔuʔəy'dxʷyid čələp
 ʔu ti stubš ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ.

Lesson Nine

1. fed you 2. told me a traditional story 3. got one's self indoors 4. visited me 5.
 told you about something 6. got one's self into a small and confining place (These answers
 could as well be in the English present or future tense.)

Lesson Ten

1. ʔəstaqʷuʔ ti sqʷəbayʔ. 2. ʔəstagʷəxʷ čəxʷ ʔu. 3. ʔəsχikʷəb ʔu ti luχ.
4. ʔuʔačʰatəb ʔə tsi luχ ti hud. 5. ʔuʔiditəb ʔu ʔə ti čʰačʰas ti sqʷəbayʔ. 6. ʔəsqʰaxʷ ʔu ti stuləkʷ. 7. ʔəslaχdxʷ čəd. 8. ʔəshiiʔ čəʔ ʔu. 9. ʔəs(h)aydxʷ čəxʷ ʔu tsi čʰačʰas.
10. ʔuʔukʷtxʷ ti sqʷəbayʔ. 11. ʔukʷədətəb ʔu ʔə tsi čʰačʰas ti kʷatʰaq. 12. ʔəsqʷicʰ čəd.

Lesson Eleven

- II. (1) Typically ləcu- occurs with verbs expressing an activity being done at one place. (2) ʔəs- expresses a state or condition while ləs- designates a state or condition seen as contingent upon or intimately involved with a dynamic event. Most often ləs- refers to states maintained while moving through space. (3) An event with the prefix ʔu- is viewed in its entirety, both its beginning and end. With ʔu- the event is bounded, while acts with ləcu- are open ended; the activity is ongoing. (There is nothing in English quite like ʔu-.) (4) Patient oriented verbs ending in -d, -t- do not take the prefix lə- (except in its serial sense).

III.

ʔukʷədad	take	ʔuʔilib	sing	ʔutələwil	run
ʔəskʷədad	hold	ləʔilib	singing while going along	lətələwil	running
ləcukʷədad	carrying in the hand	ləcuʔilib	singing	ləcutələwil	running on a regular basis

Lesson Twelve

1. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəsdəxʷiʔs əlgʷəʔ. 2. ʔah ʔu kʷ(i) gʷadbəsəqʷ. 3. ʔah ti sčəbid čəʔ.
4. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷəqʷuʔləp. 5. ʔah ʔu kʷi gʷadkʷatʰaq. 6. ʔah ti dhud. 7. ʔah ti sʔuladxʷ čəʔ. 8. ʔah ti ʔisəds əlgʷəʔ.

Lesson Thirteen

- One: 1. tu-, -ed 2. tu-, -ed 3. tu-, vowel change in English verb 4. χu-, would 5. χu-, bə-, would, again 6. tu-, -t (and stem changes) 7. tu-, -ed 8. tu-, -ed 9. tu-, -ed.

- Two: 10. ʔu-, will 11. ʔu-, will 12. ʔu-, will 13. tu-, vowel change in English word 14. tu-, vowel change in English verb 15. 0 16. 0.

- Three: 17. bə-, again 18. bə-, again 19. bə-, again 20. bə-, more.

Four: 21. $\lambda u-$, would 22. $\lambda u-$, would / $\lambda u-$, habitual 23. $g^wə-$, no English equivalent (See 12.3b.) / $\lambda u-$, could 24. $\lambda u-$, would 25. $\lambda u-$, 0 / $\lambda u-$, would / $bə-$, more 26. $t u-$, will / $bə-$, another 27. $t u-$, will / $bə-$, back.

Lesson Fourteen

1. $t u-$ _____ $\check{c}əd \lambda u\check{t}(u)as-$ _____ $-əd$. 2. $\lambda uləcu-$ _____ $\check{c}əx^w \gamma u t u-$ _____ $-əx^w$. 3. $\gamma u-$ $\check{c}əd t u-$ _____ $-əs$. 4. $\lambda u-$ _____ $\check{c}ə\check{t} t u-$ _____ $-ə\check{t}i$. 5. $t u-$ _____ $t u-$ _____ $-əs$.
6. _____ $t u-$ _____ $-əs$. 7. $\gamma əs-$ _____ $\check{c}əd g^wə-$ _____ $-əd g^wə-$ _____ $-əd$.
8. _____ ti _____ $\gamma ə ti$ _____ $g^wəs-$ _____ $-əs$.

1. $t u x^w ak^w il \lambda u\check{t}(u)astag^w ə x^w ə s$. 2. $\lambda uləcu\check{t}ilib \check{c}ə\check{t} t u y ay us ə\check{t}i$. 3. $t u hik^w \check{c}əx^w \gamma u t ulu\check{x}iləx^w$. 4. $\gamma ə s\check{x}əc \check{c}əd g^wət ə l aw il ə d$. 5. $\gamma ut^w i w il t x^w \gamma u t uk^w ax^w ad ə s$. 6. $p^w a\check{x}a\check{x} dx^w \gamma al d ə g^w i g^w ə x^w it^w il ə\check{t}i$.

$\check{c}əlp\check{s}ad$ and $x^w ə\check{x}^w \check{s}ad$; *ankle, leg*.

Lesson Fifteen

1. $\gamma u\check{c}^w a^w t ə b \gamma ə ti dsq^w ə bay^w ti^w ə^w \check{s}aw$. [or] $\gamma u\check{c}^w a^w t ə b ti dsq^w ə bay^w \gamma ə ti^w ə^w \check{s}aw$.
2. $\gamma ug^w ə\check{c}^w t ə b t si^w ə^w \check{c}^w a\check{c}^w as \gamma ə ti^w i\check{t}$. [or] $\gamma ug^w ə\check{c}^w t ə b \gamma ə t si^w ə^w \check{c}^w a\check{c}^w as ti^w i\check{t}$. 3. $\gamma u^w ə\check{x}^w t x^w \check{c}ə\check{t} ti^w ə^w sq^w ə bay^w$. 4. $\gamma u^w ə\check{x}^w t u bu\check{t} t si^w i\check{t} s\check{t}ad ə y^w$. [or] $\gamma u^w ə\check{x}^w t u b \check{c}ə\check{t} \gamma ə ti^w i\check{t} s\check{t}ad ə y^w$.
5. $\gamma uk^w ə\check{t} dx^w ti^w ə^w q^w u^w$. 6. $\gamma uk^w ə d at ə b \gamma ə ti^w i\check{t} s\check{t}ub\check{s} ti dsq^w ə bay^w$. 7. $\gamma u\check{t}a\check{c}^w dx^w \check{c}ə l ə p \gamma u (ti hud)$. 8. $\gamma u^w a by id ti sq^w ə bay^w s \gamma ə t ə \check{s}aw$. (All of these sentences could have begun with $t u-$ instead of $\gamma u-$. From the Lushootseed perspective all of the English sentences from which these are translated are ambiguous in this matter.)

Lesson Sixteen

- predicate - augment - adjunct: It was spread up toward yonder house.
- predicate - oblique complement - direct complement - adjunct: The boy threw a rock at this dog.
- predicate - adjunct: [Someone] is walking by the (lit., this) shore of the sea/sound.
- predicate - augment: [Someone] is walking by the shore.
- predicate - direct complement: This is a rock.
- predicate - oblique complement: This cat took [something].
- predicate - adjunct: [Someone] threw the rock.
- predicate - direct complement: [Someone] took a hold of this cat.

9. predicate - oblique complement - adjunct: The old man gave [someone] the dog.
10. predicate - adjunct: [Someone] ate crab.
11. predicate - direct complement: [Someone] cooked the salmon.
12. predicate - direct complement - adjunct: [Someone] gave the dog to the boy.
13. predicate - adjunct: [Someone] cooked the salmon.
14. predicate - direct complement - adjunct - adjunct: The woman dug braken fern rhizomes over there.

Lesson Seventeen

1. ʔəsχəʔ čəxʷ ʔu. Are you sick? 2. həlaʔb čəxʷ ʔu ʔəsχəʔ. Are you really sick?
3. ckʷaqid sixʷ χʷulʷ ʔuʔəʔəd. [He/she] is always simply eating. 4. ʔəsχəʔ uʔxʷ čəxʷ ʔu. Are you still sick? 5. χub čəʔ ʔu χʷulʷ ʔuʔukʷ. Should we just go home?

Lesson Eighteen

1. You didn't go. 2. That's not the one. / He, she is not it. 3. It is not really food.
4. Maybe it won't rain. 5. Don't you let me fall off. 6. I don't have [any] money. 7. I don't really eat a lot. (More literally: It is not really a lot that I eat.) 8. It isn't mine.

Lesson Nineteen

- 1a. This cat ate the salmon. b. sʔuladxʷ ti ʔuləkʷtəb ʔə tiʔəʔ pišpiš. c. pišpiš ti ʔuləkʷəd ti sʔuladxʷ. 2a. This man tied this shovel-nose canoe. b. χəlayʔ tiʔəʔ ʔuʔiditəb ʔə tiʔəʔ stubš. c. stubš tiʔəʔ ʔuʔidid tiʔəʔ χəlayʔ. 3a. Those children threw [something] at this dog. b. sqʷəbayʔ tiʔiʔ ʔupusutəb ʔə tiʔiʔ wiwʷsu. c. wiwʷsu tiʔiʔ ʔupusud tiʔəʔ sqʷəbayʔ. 4a. This dog chased those children. b. wiwʷsu ti ʔučalatəb ʔə tiʔəʔ sqʷəbayʔ. c. sqʷəbayʔ ti ʔučalad tiʔiʔ wiwʷsu.

Part III.

1. stab kʷi ʔuʔəχʷtub ʔə ts(i) adskʷuy. 2. gʷat kʷi ʔudʔubud t(i) adsqʷəbayʔ.
3. gʷat kʷi ʔuχəχʷtəb ʔə ti sqʷəbayʔ čəʔ. 4. gʷat kʷi ʔudʔubucid. 5. stab kʷi ʔuʔəyʷdxʷ čəxʷ. 6. gʷat kʷi ʔukʷaxʷad čəxʷ. 7. stab kʷi ʔuχəcdxʷ ti sqʷəbayʔs. 8. gʷat kʷi ʔudʔubutəb ʔə ti stiqiw.

Lesson Twenty

1. Where did you put (lit. set down) the ladle? 2. It was a salmon that the cat ate. 3. It was the cat that ate the salmon. 4. Where did he put the paddle? 5. Stones were what the children were tossing. 6. That is (the place) where I got my food.

1. Patient suffix forming a goal oriented stem. 2. Third person suffix marking an agent oriented verb when preceded by an adjunct. 3. Third person suffix marking the patient of a -t-əb verb when preceded by an adjunct. 4. Patient suffix forming a goal oriented stem. 5. Third person suffix marking an agent of a patient oriented (but not -t-əb) when preceded by an adjunct. 6. Third person suffix marking an agent of a patient (but not -t-əb) verb when preceded by an interrogative adjunct.

Lesson Twenty-One

I. 1. habitual 2. habitual 3. jussive 4. habitual 5. conditional 6. habitual 7. fear; habitual 8. conditional 9. conditional 10. conditional

II. 1. 21.5a: ʔukʷəd(d)xʷ tiʔiʔ spusutəbs tiʔəʔ wiw'su.

2. 21.5c: diʔ tiʔəʔ cəxʷkʷəd(d)xʷ tiʔəʔ dsʔəʔəd.

3. 21.5b: dʔuχʷatəxʷ ʔə tiʔəʔ pʔqʔac tusuʔəʔəds.

4. 21.5b: χʷul' čəxʷ ləʔuχʷ dxʷʔal kʷ(i) adstčil.

5. 21.6a: ʔukʷədad tiʔəʔ qʷuʔ dəxʷucʔagʷači(?)b ʔal tiʔəʔ sbaʔs.

5. 21.5b: ʔukʷədad tiʔəʔ qʷuʔ dəxʷucʔagʷačiʔb ʔal tiʔəʔ sbaʔs.

6. 21.5a: χʷul' čəd ʔuləʔuχʷtxʷ tiʔəʔ ʔ(u)adsʔəʔtxʷ əlgʷəʔ.

III. There are six clauses. xʷiʔəxʷ. One has the clitic pattern. (kʷi) ʔudəxʷhuydxʷs.

ʔuhuydxʷ čəxʷ kʷ(i) adsləkʷdxʷ / a(d)dəxʷləkʷdxʷ tiʔəʔ dsʔuladxʷ.

(Or simply, ʔuləkʷdxʷ čəxʷ tiʔəʔ dsʔuladxʷ.)

(Or, ʔuləkʷdxʷyic čəd tiʔəʔ (d)sʔuladxʷ.)

TEXTS

TEXTS



TEXTS

The following graphic devices used in representing these texts need explanation:

1. Brackets, [], enclose editorial additions. This material is not on the tape recording on which the transcription is based.

2. As mentioned in the grammar, parentheses, (), surround a letter that stands for a part of a word which is not pronounced in certain situations. See, for example, 13.7b in the grammar section.

3. Words or parts of words written between angles, < >, represent false starts, slips of the tongue, etc., and are to be ignored. (Some people might wonder why some words or parts of words heard on the tape do not appear in the written version, so such slips of the tongue are marked in these texts in this manner.)

4. The period, . , marks the conclusion of a main clause and whatever subordinate clauses or other modifying elements go with it. All such units can be and often are complete sentences. However, many times speakers string together in a single breath group two or more such clauses without letting the voice pitch fall between them. These breath groups (i.e., intonational contours or 'phonological sentences' as opposed to 'grammatical sentences') are not indicated in the first four texts, however, because in these stories the end of the clause and breath group are essentially congruent.

5. An attempt has been made to draw the readers' attention to a part of the structure inherent in good Lushootseed storytelling by grouping the lines into units. However, it should be pointed out that this structure is more artfully developed in some stories than others. Furthermore, for the texts included here, analysis of style has thus far been neglected in favor of close attention to accuracy in transcription and gloss. Therefore, readers should not doubt their own ideas about appropriate divisions simply because these might differ from those presented here.

bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuqʷaʔs, tətʔyika

Young Mink and Tutyeeka

Narrator's introductory remarks:

1. ʔah dəgʷi, siʔab dsyaʔyaʔ.
2. tuχʷəxʷ čəd ʔuyəhubtubicid, ti tusyəhub ʔə tu·diʔ tusluχluχ čəʔ.
3. tuyəcəbtub čəd ʔə tiʔiʔ tudyəl'yəlab.
4. hay čəd ʔuyəcəbtubicidəxʷ, dəgʷi siʔab dsyaʔyaʔ.
5. tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuqʷaʔs, tətʔyika, tiʔiʔ ʔudsyəhubtubicid.

Story begins here:

6. hay, ʔuʔiʔʔda(hə)b tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuqʷaʔs, tətʔyika.
7. ʔuʔiʔʔda(hə)b əlgʷəʔ.
8. huy, šudxʷəxʷ tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
9. huy, bapadəxʷ əlgʷəʔ.
10. bapadəxʷ əlgʷəʔ tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
11. huy, xʷakʷisəbəxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
12. huy, bəqʔəbaxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
13. ʔixʷ[əʔ]dat⁴³ tiʔiʔ [s]dəgʷabacil[s]əxʷ əlgʷəʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
14. huy, ʔibibəšəxʷ tiʔiʔ bibščəb.
15. ʔibibəšəxʷ.
16. huy, kʷawdxʷəxʷ tiʔiʔ scʷaliʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ čxʷəluʔ.
17. 'ʔuʔəxičəpəxʷ čəxʷ, bibščəb.'

⁴³In a traditional story from Northern Lushootseed one would expect buusəʔdat *four days* because four -- not three -- is the traditional number. Events usually happen four times, often there are four brothers in a story, etc. By speaking of three rather than four days, Mr. Sam has made a small adaptation to Western Culture. (In Southern Lushootseed the traditional number is five rather than four.)

18. 'ʔu·, tuχ̄ čəd ʔuʔibibəš.'
19. 'bibščəb. x̄iʔ k̄i [ḡ]adsuk'awdx̄ tiʔiʔ [ds]c'ali?.'
20. huy, cutəx̄ tiʔiʔ bibščəb,
21. 'ʔu·.'
22. hay, ḡadadḡadəx̄ tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq̄'aʔs, tət̄yika.
23. 'ʔub čəʔ ʔuhudčup č̄ta k̄uk̄cut.'
24. huy, hudčupəx̄ əlḡəʔ.
25. 'ʔuʔəxiχ̄ədəx̄ čəx̄, bibščəb.'
26. 'ʔu·, tuχ̄ čəd ʔuhudčup.'
27. huy, ʔič'itəbəx̄ tiʔiʔ s.c'ali? ʔə tiʔiʔ čx̄əlu?.
28. 'ʔuʔəxiχ̄ədəx̄ čəx̄, bibščəb.'
29. day ʔuhaydub ʔə tiʔiʔ čx̄əlu?.
30. huy, tuʔuχ̄əx̄ tiʔiʔ čx̄əlu?.
31. ti·ləb dx̄'t'aq̄t tiʔiʔ s̄talil ʔə tiʔiʔ čx̄əlu?.
32. dadatu[t] tiʔiʔ sk̄'ilil ʔə tiʔiʔ bibščəb.
33. ʔuluud tiʔiʔ luχ̄ tudiʔ ʔaq̄t.
34. ləcup'ayəq ʔə tiʔiʔ sdiʔdəx̄iʔ.
35. huy, ʔilibəx̄ tiʔiʔ bibščəb.
36. ʔilibəx̄,
37. 'stab čəx̄ stab ʔuk̄ix̄'id. stab čəx̄ stab ʔuk̄ix̄'id.
38. haḡəx̄ čəd tuʔaciḡədil ʔə tə luχ̄ čx̄əlu?, čx̄əlu?.
39. stab čəx̄ stab ʔuk̄ix̄'id. stab čəx̄ stab ʔuk̄ix̄'id.
40. haḡəx̄ čəd tuʔaciḡədil ʔə tə luχ̄ čx̄əlu?, čx̄əlu?.'
41. huy, təlawiləx̄ tiʔiʔ luχ̄.
42. huy, yəcəbax̄ ʔə tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq̄'aʔs, tət̄yika, ʔə tiʔiʔ s̄laliltubəx̄.
43. huy, ʔuχ̄əx̄ tə ʔaciʔtalbix̄.

44. bəčatabəx^w tiʔiʔ k^wat'aq dəx^wʔibəš ʔə tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq^waʔs.

45. pu·təx^w ʔəstəq^wač tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq^waʔs, tətyika.⁴⁴

46. huy, tʔuk^wtubəx^w tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq^waʔs.

47. huy, q^wuʔtəbəx^w tiʔiʔ ʔaciʔtalbix^w tu·lʔal bək^w čad.

48. huy, ʔəʔtub tə ʔaciʔtalbix^w.

49. huy g^wəl, ʔuʔiləx^w tə ʔaciʔtalbix^w.

50. huy, hig^wiləx^w siʔab tiʔiʔ bibščəb ʔi tiʔiʔ suʔsuq^waʔs, tətyika.

51. huyəx^w tiʔiʔ dsyəhub[tubi]cid, siʔab dsyaʔyaʔ.

52. huyəx^w čad.

⁴⁴In the old days raconteurs seldom told a story the same way every time. They altered the emphasis according to the occasion and audience. Episodes were expanded or reduced, often omitted as suited the purpose of a particular story session. Sometimes as here an episode is reduced to a single line. Because the audience had heard these stories all their lives, they did not need to know what had happened to Mink's and Tutyeeeka's hair for they already knew. In some other telling that incident is developed when judged important to the occasion. (In Southern Lushootseed, by the way, Mink is named for his bald head, c'əbalqid.)

sčətxʷəd ʔi tsiʔiʔ ʔaʔacʰapəd

Bear and Ant

1. hay, ʔah tiʔəʔ syəyəhub ʔə tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd ʔi tsiʔiʔ ʔaʔacʰapəd.
2. tiʔəʔ sčətxʷəd gʷəl ʃʷu·lʰ ʔuʔibibəš.
3. ʃʷu·lʰ ʔuʔibibəš.
4. gʷəl tsiʔiʔ ʔaʔacʰapəd gʷəl dʒəg ʷaʔ dxʷulus.
5. hay, ʔaliləxʷ čəd tiʔəʔ sčətxʷəd.
6. ʔiqagʷiləxʷ tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd tulʰʔal tiʔiʔ ʔalʔals.
7. tiʔiʔ ʔalʔals ʔudəxʷʔuʃʷs ʔal tiʔiʔ pə(d)tʰəs.
8. ʔiqagʷil tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd.
9. huy, ʔibibəšəxʷ.
10. ʔibibəšəxʷ.
11. gʷəčʰəbaxʷ.
12. stab kʷi gʷəsuʔəʔəds.
13. gʷəl ʔah kʷaʔ tsi[ʔiʔ] ʔaʔacʰapəd.
14. ləcuyayus, ləcuyayus, ləcuyayus, čkʷaqid ləcuyayus.
15. ʔuqʷuʔəd tiʔiʔ stab gʷədəxʷ(h)əliʔis(s) əlgʷəʔ,
<ʔdəxʷuʔəʔəds >
stab gʷədəxʷuʔəʔəds əlgʷəʔ,
stab gʷ[s]uʔəyʰdxʷ[s].
16. ləcuqʷuʔəd tiʔiʔ sʔəʔəds əlgʷəʔ.
17. gʷəl ʔuʔaʔild əlgʷəʔ [tiʔiʔ] ʔudəxʷʔa(h)s kʷi stab ʔus[u]ʔəʔəds əlgʷəʔ.
18. ʔah kʷaʔ tiʔəʔ sčətxʷəd.
19. ʃʷulʰ ləcuʔibibəš.
20. ʃʷulʰ ləcuʔiʔəʔəb ʔə tiʔəʔ sqʷələʔəb ʔə tiʔiʔ ʔusqʷəls.
21. ʔa·h gʷəl ʔubəʔaxʷ tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd.

22. pu·təxʷ ʔ(u)asbət!
23. hay gʷəl ʔuʔuʔəxʷ.
24. gʷəl ʔ[u]dxʷpakʷahəbəxʷ.
25. hay gʷəl ʔuʔitutəxʷ.
26. huy, ʔaʔiləxʷ t[s]iʔəʔ ʔaʔac'apəd ʔi tiʔit sčətʷəd.
27. ʔaʔiləxʷ əlgʷəʔ.
28. huy, qʷuʔtəbəxʷ tiʔit bəkʷaʔkʷbixʷ.
29. [s]əsqʷuʔs əlgʷəʔ.
30. qʷuʔtəbəxʷ tiʔiʔit siʔiʔab.
31. <gʷəl> huy, gʷadadgʷadəxʷ əlgʷəʔ gʷəgʷatəs kʷi ʔuc'əlalikʷ.
32. wiliqʷitəbəxʷ tsiʔəʔ ʔaʔac'apəd gʷəsčaləs kʷi ʔəčs.
33. huy cutəxʷ:
34. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔi·l.
 ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔi·l.
 we· xʷeʔe·ʔ. ...e·.
 ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil. ʔaʔil gʷəl bələʔil.
 we· xʷeʔe·ʔ. ... e·.
35. gʷəl ʔəsčal tiʔəʔ sčətʷəd.
36. ʔʷul' ʔəxʷpakʷ[ah]əb tiʔit sčətʷəd.
37. ʔʷul' ʔ[u]bəxʷpusəb.
38. gʷəl ʔ[u]bəcut:
39. dukʷəla·dxʷ gʷəl ʔubələʔi·l.
40. diʔ day' ʔuscut ʔə tiʔit sčətʷəd.
41. huy ʔəsqʷic'.
42. hay gʷəl <tac> ʔʷul'əxʷ ʔubədʔubalik^{w45} tsiʔit ʔaʔac'apəd.

⁴⁵The word actually used by Mr. Sam was tac a word borrowed from English *dance*. In this text a native Lushootseed word has been substituted, namely, dʔubalik. (This latter

43. putəxʷ ʁ[u]bəʁac'ahəb tsiʔiʔ ʁaʁac'apəd.
44. ʁʷul' ʁ[u]bəxʷpusəb tiʔəʔ sčətʰəd.
45. gʷəl ʁ[u]bəcut:
46. dukʷəla·dxʷ gʷəl ʔ[u]bələxi·l.
47. diʔ day' ʁuscut ʔə tiʔiʔ sčətʰəd.
48. hay, putəxʷ ʁ[u]bət'ilib <tiʔəʔ sčətʰəd> tsiʔəʔ ʁaʁac'apəd.
49. ʁʷu·l'əxʷ ʁ[u]bət'ilib.
50. pu·təxʷ ʁ[u]bəʁac'ahəb.
51. hay, gʷəl ʁ[u]bət'ilibəxʷ:
52. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil.
 ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil.
 ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil.
 ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. ʔaxil gʷəl bələxil. heʔehe· ʔa· . . .
53. <hay, gʷəl c'əlalikʷəxʷ tiʔəʔ sčətʰəd.>
54. hay, tuʔabyitəbəxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ ʁaʔʁaʔ <tiʔiʔ> [ʔə kʷi diʔ] stab[s kʷi] gʷəsʁaʁ's.
55. gʷəl ʔah kʷaʔ tiʔəʔ sčətʰəd.
56. pu·təxʷ ʔəsbət.
57. put ʁ[u]bət'itut tiʔiʔ ʔəxʷpakʷahəb.
58. c'əlalikʷ tsiʔiʔ ʁaʁac'apəd.
59. pu·təxʷ ʔəxʷʁəcɣgʷas tsiʔəʔ ʁaʁac'apəd.
60. gʷəl c'əlalikʷ.
61. c'əlalikʷ huy dxʷʔulus.
62. ckʷaqid ʁuyayus.

63. hay, dʒubalik^{wəx^{w46}} tsiʔəʔ ʁaʁac'apəd.

64. ʔəshiiʔ.

65. ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

we: x^weʔeʔ.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

ʔaxil g^wəl bələxil.

we: x^weʔeʔ.

[66. diʔ shuys.]

⁴⁶The information in footnote 45 applies here also.

sbiaw ʔi tiʔit hik ʔɣaʔ

Coyote and the Big Rock

1. ʔuʔuʃʰ tiʔəʔ sbiaw.
2. gʷəl ʔuʔəy'dxʰ tiʔit ʔiišəds.
3. ʔuʃudxʰ tiʔit səsqʷuʔ ʔə tiʔit ʔiišəds ʔal tiʔəʔ hik ʔɣaʔ.
4. put ʔəsp'il šqabac tiʔəʔ hik ʔɣaʔ.
5. hay gʷəl [ʔu]wiliqʷidəxʰ tiʔit ʔiišəds,
6. 'stab tiʔit suhuyləp.'
7. 'ʔu·, tuʃʰ čəʔ ʔəsqʷuʔ.
8. ləcuʔabyid čəʔ tiʔəʔ ʔɣaʔ ʔə tiʔəʔ stabigʷs čəʔ,
9. tiʔəʔ ʔusʔibəš čəʔ.
10. hay gʷəl ʔuhuyutəbəxʰ ʔit tiʔit dəxʷʔibəš čəʔ.
11. diʔ dəxʷut'asad čəʔ tiʔəʔ ʔɣaʔ.'
12. hay gʷəl cutəxʰ tiʔəʔ sbiaw,
13. 'hay čəda ʔuqʷibid.
14. ʃʰul' p'aʃaʃ tiʔəʔ dsʔabyid.'
15. huy,[ʔu]pačad tiʔit stabigʷs sʔabyid[s].
16. huy, kʰatajəxʰ tiʔit sbiaw ʔə tiʔit ʔɣaʔ.
17. huy ʔabyidəxʰ ʔə tiʔit ʃʰu·l' p'aʃaʃ stab.
18. gʷəl xʰiʔ [kʰi] gʷədəxʰ(h)aʔʔs.
19. hay gʷəl xʰt'agʷiləxʰ tiʔit sbiaw.
20. ʃayəb tiʔit sbiaw,
21. 'stab əw'ə tiʔəʔ ʔɣaʔ cəxʷyaw' ʔut'asbil.'
22. hay gʷəl [ʔu]ʔibəšəxʰ tiʔit sbiaw.

23. g^wəl tiʔiʔ sʔuχ^w ʔə tiʔiʔ sʔibəšs.⁴⁷
24. g^wəl [ʔu]luudəx^w tiʔiʔ stab.
25. læcutuk^wucut.
26. [ʔu]d^zalq^wusəx^w tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
27. g^wəl [ʔu]šudx^wəx^w tiʔiʔ hik^w čʔaʔ.
28. læcučalad tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
29. hi·k^w læcutuk^wucut ʔə tiʔiʔ sətəčs ʔə tiʔiʔ sčalads tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
30. ʔəsχicil tiʔiʔ čʔaʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ sučalads tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
31. yəxi huy x^wiʔ [k^wi] g^wəstab [g^wə]dəx^w(h)aʔʔ[s].
32. x^wul' p'aχaχ tiʔiʔ sʔabyids tiʔiʔ čʔaʔ.
33. huy, [lə]tələwiləx^w tiʔəʔ sbiaw.
34. təla·wiləx^w.
35. huy, [lə]čalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ čʔaʔ.
36. hay, [ʔu]wiliq^widəx^w tiʔiʔ suq^wsuq^waʔs,
37. 'stabəx^w [k^wi] ʔudshuy [tiʔiʔəʔ] dsuq^wsuq^waʔ.
38. [ʔəs]c'udəx^w čəd.
39. x^wak^wiləx^w čəd.'
40. hay g^wəl cutəx^w tiʔiʔ suq^wsuq^waʔs,
41. g^wəl 'cutəx^w čəx^w six^w, 'haʔk^w čəd ʔəx^wcutəb'.'
42. x^wul' čəx^w ʔug^wəč'əb ʔə k^wi stab, [s]əsliʔluʔ ʔə tiʔiʔ sbadil čx^wa šulag^wil.
43. ʔəsmiʔman'.
44. x^wiʔ [k^wi] g^wədəx^wšulag^wildubut ʔə tiʔiʔ čʔaʔ.'
45. tiʔiʔ sbiaw g^wəl [ʔu]ʔuχ^wəx^w.
46. [ʔu]dəg^wag^wiləx^w ʔə tiʔiʔ [s]əsliʔluʔ.

⁴⁷Line 23 is actually a nominalized subordinate clause that goes with line 24. It is unusual in that it precedes rather than follows its main clause. The double use of g^wəl is reminiscent of topicalization (22.8b). A suggested rendering in English of lines 23 and 24 is the following: *And while his journey went [along], he heard something.*

47. hay g^wəl [ʔu]čalatəb ʔə tiʔiʔ čʕaʔ.
48. x^wiʔ [k^wi] g^wəshədʔiw'dubuts.⁴⁸
49. huy, [ʔu]d^zəlqcutəx^w tiʔiʔ čʕaʔ dx^wʔal tiʔiʔ [s]əsluʔ.
50. g^wəl cuucəx^w tiʔiʔ sbiaw,
51. 'ʔuʔa·(h) čəx^w [tiʔiʔ] x^wul' ʔ(u)adsyubil.'
52. g^wəl ha·g^wəx^w tiʔiʔ sʔa·(h) ʔə tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
53. pu·təx^w t(u)asx^wu^wuil tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
54. putəx^w t(u)asx^wuil.
55. g^wəl [ʔu]laχdx^w tiʔiʔ suq^wsuq^waʔs.
56. hay, 'x^wiqag^wil ti dsuq^wsuq^waʔ.
57. ʔəsc'u·dəx^w čəd.
58. stabəx^w [k^wi] ʔudshuy.
59. stabəx^w [k^wi] ʔu[d]shuy, ti dsuq^wsuq^waʔ.'
60. hay g^wəl [ʔu]x^wiqag^wiləx^w tiʔiʔ suq^wsuq^waʔs.
61. g^wəl 'cutəx^w čəx^w six^w, 'haʔk^w čəd ʔəx^wcutəb'.
62. x^wul' čəx^w ʔuq'əwab čx^wa [ʔu]x^wəbəbx^wəbaladi(?)b.
63. hay g^wəl g^wə[x^w]cutəbəx^w tiʔiʔ čʕaʔ,
64. 'ʔu·, hik^w əw'ə qa(h) tiʔiʔ ʔiišəd ʔə tiʔiʔ sbiaw.'
65. 'ʔuʔəxiχədəx^w čəx^w sbiaw.'
66. 'ʔu·, tuχ^w čəd ləcuq^wuʔəd tə dʔiišəd.'
67. huy [ʔu]χəd^zax^w⁴⁹ tiʔiʔ čʕaʔ.
68. huy ʔuχ^wəx^w.
69. ʔəg^wʔəx^w tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
70. [ʔu]cut tiʔiʔ sbiaw.

⁴⁸In more precise usage one would expect dək^w- or šul- instead of hədʔiw'-.

⁴⁹The stem of this word is actually χəc. The final c becomes d^z under the influence of the following stressed vowel.

71. [ʔu]χayəb.
72. 'dəgʷagʷil ʔi dsuqʷsuqʷaʔ.
73. haʔkʷ čəd ʔəxʷcutəb.'
74. huy tuč'əlalikʷ tiʔiʔ sbiaw.
75. [ʔu]c'əldəxʷ tiʔiʔ hiKʷ čʰaʔ.
76. diʔ sc'əldəxʷs.
77. 'dəgʷagʷil ʔi dsuqʷsuqʷaʔ.
78. haʔkʷ čəd ʔəxʷcutəb.'
79. diʔəxʷ.
80. huyəxʷ <ʔə> tiʔəʔ dsyəcəb, siʔab dsyaʔyaʔ.

sčətxʷəd ʔi tiʔiʔ c'ixc'ix
Bear and Fish Hawk

1. ʔa(h) tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd ʔal kʷədiʔ dəxʷəsʔaʔlils.
2. hay gʷəl tulaχdxʷəxʷ tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs.
3. gʷəl tuʔuχʷcəxʷ.
4. gʷəl tudʒəlaχadbidəxʷ tiʔiʔ χibχib, c'ixc'ix tiʔiʔ həlaʔb sdaʔs, c'ixc'ix.
5. gʷəl tudʒəlaχadbid ʔal tiʔiʔ pə(d)tʔəs.
6. huy gʷəl tuʔuχʷc⁵⁰ tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs.
7. laχdxʷ <bid> əxʷ.
8. hay gʷəl cut(t)əbəxʷ tiʔəʔ c'ixc'ix,
9. ʔəstagʷəxʷəxʷ tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs, sčətxʷəd.
10. hay, tukʷitʔəxʷ ʔal tiʔiʔ stuləkʷ.
11. [ʔu]saqʷ dxʷšəq tiʔiʔ c'ixc'ix.
12. gʷəl tušudxʷ tiʔiʔ sʔuladxʷ ʔal tiʔiʔ sqaxʷ.
13. gʷəl⁵¹ tuʔusis.
14. gʷəl tukʷəd(d)xʷ tiʔəʔ sʔuladxʷ.
15. tučubətəxʷəxʷ.
16. hay, tukʷukʷcutəxʷ⁵² ʔal tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs, sčətxʷəd.
17. hay gʷəl tuhədhədači(?)bəxʷ tiʔəʔ c'ixc'ix,
18. 'c'i·χəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb.'

⁵⁰This is Mr. Sam's amended version. On tape he says, "huy, ʔuχʷ dxʷʔal tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs."

⁵¹Here this word is pronounced [gʷa·l].

⁵²The root, i.e., core, of this word is one of the rare loan words from English, namely, *cook*. The rest of the sentence also shows 'foreign' language influence. In standard Lushootseed it would be, tuqʷəlyid tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs, sčətxʷəd.

19. hay g^wəl [ʔu]ʔabyidəx^w tiʔiʔ sčətx^wəd [ʔə tiʔiʔ bəsχ^wəs]
20. g^wəl dəx^wc'ibs ʔə tiʔiʔ sʔuladx^w ʔə tiʔiʔ bəsχ^wəs.⁵³
21. hay g^wəl tusulayitəbəx^w ʔə tiʔiʔ saliʔ sq^wiq^wələləʔəd.
22. hay, ʔəʔəd tiʔəʔ sčətx^wəd.
23. ʔal suʔəʔəds ʔə tiʔiʔ sʔuladx^ws g^wəl x'i·ʔ k'i g^wəsəbək^wdx^ws.
24. hay, dx^wχ^wal'ig^wədəx^w.
25. ʔušuuc tiʔiʔ sq^wələləʔəd.
26. saʔ saliʔ sq^wələləʔəd.⁵⁴
27. g^wəl ʔəsq^wu(?)bidəx^w.
28. huy, tuʔəʔədax^w.
29. k^wədad tiʔəʔ dəč'uʔ.
30. hi·k^w tuhaʔʔ tiʔiʔ sq^wələləʔəd.
31. hay g^wəl k^wədadəx^w.
32. g^wəl ʔəs(h)aydx^wəx^w x'iʔəx^w.
33. huy, saʔsəliʔ.
34. hay g^wəl bəšuf.
35. bəʔa·(h) tiʔiʔ sq^wələləʔəd.
36. huy, yələči(?)bidəx^w tiʔiʔ sʔəʔəd.
37. g^wəl ʔəʔəd, ʔəʔəd, ʔəʔəd, ʔi... ʔubəʔ.
38. g^wəl dx^wχ^wal'ig^wəd.
39. g^wəl huyəx^w.
40. g^wəl ʔah uʔx^w tiʔiʔ sʔəʔəd.
41. huy, cuucəx^w tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs, č'ixč'ix,
42. 'day' čəx^w ʔuʔəχ' dx^wʔal tiʔiʔ dʔalʔal čəda ʔuʔəʔtubicid.

⁵³Line 20 is a nominalized subordinate clause of line 19. It has been given semi-independent status by being introduced by g^wəl. Compare this line with 23 in the preceding story.

⁵⁴Literally this line says, "[The] two berries are/were bad." What it actually means is, "[Bear thought,] 'There are only two insignificant [or 'measly'] berries.'"

43. [tʰu]dʰələxadbic čəxʷ.’
44. huy, cut tiʔiʔ č’ixč’ix,
45. ‘Xub.’
46. hay laχd[ubəxʷ ʔə]⁵⁵ tiʔiʔ č’ixč’ix <ʔə> tiʔiʔ tuscut(t)əbs ʔə tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd,
47. ‘dʰələxadbic.’
48. hay tuʔuχʷəxʷ.
49. gʷəl dxʷtəyiləxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ stuləkʷ.
50. ʔah tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd ʔəstədʰil.
51. gʷəl ʔčisəb ʔə tiʔiʔ ʔay’əds, č’ixč’ix.
52. gʷa·dadgʷadəxʷ əlgʷəʔ.
53. hay gʷəl ʔəxʷcutəbəxʷ tiʔəʔ sčətxʷəd.
54. ‘Xal’ čəd gʷəbəʔuləχyid tiʔəʔ č’ixč’ix ʔə kʷi sʔuladxʷ.’
55. kʷit’əxʷ dxʷčaʔkʷ ʔal tiʔəʔ stuləkʷ.
56. šuʔəxʷ <tiʔəʔ čaʔkʷ> tiʔəʔ sčətxʷəd ʔal tiʔəʔ stuləkʷ.
57. tiʔiʔ ti sʔuladxʷ.
58. saxʷəbid ʔal tiʔəʔ sqaxʷ.
59. xʷul’ ʔuq’cač tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd.
60. gʷəl ʔugʷət’qʷad.
61. hay, ʔuχʷ.
62. čəbaʔtəbəxʷ ʔə tiʔəʔ syaʔyaʔs, č’ixč’ix.
63. gʷəl ʔuχʷtubəxʷ dxʷʔal tiʔiʔ ʔalʔals.
64. hay gʷəl qəʔ tiʔiʔ sčətxʷəd.
65. ʔahəxʷ tiʔiʔ sʔuladxʷ.
66. tuʔuχʷcəbəxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ č’ixč’ix.

⁵⁵At this point Mr. Sam misspoke. What he intended to say is given here. What he actually said (and, of course what is heard on the tape) is laχdxʷ tiʔiʔ č’ixč’ix which would mean *He remembered Fish Hawk*.

67. ʔuχ^wtubəx^w tiʔiʔ sʔuladx^w dx^wʔal tiʔiʔ sčətx^wəd.
68. k^wuk^wcutyitəbəx^w56 ʔə tiʔəʔ c'ixčix tiʔiʔ syaʔyaʔs, sčətx^wəd.
69. hay qʔax^w tiʔiʔ sčətx^wəd.
70. huy dx^wcutəbəx^w.
71. laχdx^wəx^w tiʔiʔ tushuy ʔə tiʔiʔ c'ixčix.
72. ʔabači(?)b tiʔəʔ sčətx^wəd ʔə tiʔəʔ ʔi[ʔ]ʔaʔχ.
73. hədači(?)bəx^w.
74. 'c'i·χəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb.'
75. ʔi·.
76. x^wiʔəx^w [k^wi] g^wəsχ^wəs.
77. g^wəl bəcut,
78. 'c'ixəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb.'
79. bəhədəči(?)b.
80. x^wi·ʔ.
81. putəx^w ləq^wup'q^wup'ačiʔ ʔə tiʔəʔ sčətx^wəd.
82. hay g^wəl ləbəč.
83. g^wəl [ʔu]g^wət'q^wad.
84. hay g^wəl təčtəbax^w tiʔəʔ sčətx^wəd ʔə tiʔəʔ c'ixčix.
85. bətəd^ziltubəx^w.
86. hay, k^wədatəbəx^w tiʔəʔ ʔiʔaʔχ.
87. g^wəl cutəx^w tiʔəʔ c'ixčix,
88. 'c'i·χəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb, c'ixəb.'
89. hay g^wəl ləqa(h)il tiʔiʔ sχ^wəs.
90. χ^wul'əx^w ʔə(s)ʂuuc tiʔiʔ ʔay'əds, sčətx^wəd.
91. pu·təx^w ʔəsq^wup'q^wup'ačiʔ.
92. hay g^wəl ʔəg^wʔ.
93. hay, c'əldub tiʔiʔ sčətx^wəd ʔə tiʔəʔ c'ixčix.

⁵⁶See footnote 52.

94. hay' g'el ha'licutax' ti'it' s'catx'ad ?a ti'it' s'ag'alyitabs [(s)]?u'sabitabs ?a ti'it'
c'ix'c'ix' ?a ti'it' s'uladx', ?a ti'it' s'x'as.
95. g'el tula'yitabax' ?a ti'it' sq'iq''alatad, sali' sq'iq''alatad.
96. huy g'el tu'x'ebidax'.
97. g'el tu'ibibas'.
98. huyax' ti'it' sy'acab.
99. di' shuys.

GLOSSARY



GLOSSARY

This glossary includes all words occurring in the four texts of this reader. However, it does not have all vocabulary used in the grammar section accompanying the reader.

The alphabetic order for Lushootseed is as follows: ʔ a b c c' č ě d d' ə g g' h i j k k' k'' k''' l l' ł ʁ (m) p p' q q' q'' q''' s š t t' u w w' x' ǰ ǰ'' y y'.

Numbers after a gloss indicate the text and line number where the particular meaning is appropriate, while numbers in brackets, [], refer to a section in the grammar.

- ʔ -

ʔa·	Concluding syllable to a song. It has no lexical value. 2.52
ʔaʔild	See under ʔah.
ʔab	extend arm(s) / leg(s).
ʔabcut	extend self.
ʔabačiʔb	extend one's hand(s) 4.72.
ʔabšəd	take a step, extend leg.
ʔabgʷas	make several trips taking things somewhere.
ʔabuc(i)did	take lunch/dinner to someone.
ʔabaqəd	return something.
ʔabš	give something.
ʔabyi-	give.
ʔabalikʷ	give things away as in potlatching.
ʔac-	center of / middle of.
ʔacigʷəd	inside 1.38, 1.40.
sʔacus	face (See -us.)
ʔaciftalbiʷ	Person, people; any indigenous person of the Americas.
ʔah	there, be there 2.13, 2.18, 2.55, 4.1, 4.35, 4.40, 4.50. ʔuʔa(h) čəxʷ you will be there 3.52. ha·gʷəxʷ tiʔiʔ sʔa·(h) ʔə tiʔiʔ sbiaw Coyote was there for a long time 3.53. Be in existence 2.1, 4.65. ʔudəxʷʔa(h)s kʷi stab so

there would be something 2.17. *ʔa·h gʷəl* [a sentential adverb phrase 22.8] and there 2.21. *ʔuʔaʔild* they would put it away 2.17.

- ʔah* *ʔah dægʷi, siʔab dsyaʔyaʔ* This is for you, my worthy friend 1.1.
- ʔal* [As a preposition *ʔal* has many glosses in English such as] in, at, to, through, for, into, etc. [See 16.7a - 16.7b in the grammar.]
- ʔalil* *ʔaliləxʷ čəd tiʔəʔ sčətʰəd* Now I am considering Bear 2.5.
- tulʔal* from 1.47.
- ʔalʔal* house.
- ʔaliləxʷ* See under *ʔal*.
- ʔalqʷ* 1. at the periphery, located away from the center 2. located at the back of an assembly hall (opposite of *sula*).
- ʔalqʷ(ə)d* take something away from the fire, place something away from the center.
- ʔalqʷbid* 1. located away from the center in relation to someone/something 2. located behind someone in a room.
- ʔalš* cross-sex sibling, cross-sex cousin.
- ʔalalš* plural of *ʔalš*.
- ʔayʔəd* male friend of a man, a pal. (Sometimes used by a woman to refer to a friend of her same sex.)
- ʔə* [oblique marker; genitive marker 12.2d]
- Marking agent: 1.3, 1.11, 1.12, 1.29, 2.54, 3.36, 3.48, 4.46, 4.46, 4.51, 4.62, 4.66, 4.68, 4.83, 4.92.
- Marking patient: 1.34, 1.42, 1.42, 2.20, 2.54, 3.43.
- Marking patient of a -yi- verb: 3.8, 3.17, 4.21, 4.93, 4.93, 4.94.
- Marking the *of*-relationship (See grammar 12.2d.): 1.2, 1.16, 1.27, 3.65.
- Marking agent of a subordinate predicate (See grammar 21.2.): 1.31, 1.32, 1.44, 2.40, 2.40, 2.47, 3.3, 3.53, 4.71, 3.45.
- Marking patient of a subordinate predicate (See grammar 21.2.): 4.20, 4.23.
- Marking subordinate predicate: *gʷəl tiʔiʔ sʔuʰxʷ ʔə tiʔiʔ sʔibəšš*. *While going on his journey. hikʷ læcutukʷcut ʔə tiʔiʔ sətəčs ʔə tiʔiʔ sčalads tiʔiʔ*

- sbiaw*. [He] thumped loudly as he rolled [along] while he chased Coyote.
- about 2.1.
 as 2.20, 3.30.
 in 3.43, 3.47.
 in/of 1.13, 1.38, 1.40.
 in/on 4.49.
 into 4.20.
 onto 3.16.
 over 4.72.
 when/while 3.31.
 while 3.30.
- Unclassified: *putəx^w ləq^wup'q^wup'ači? ʔə tiʔə? sčətx^wəd*. *Bear's hands shriveled right up*. 4.80.
- ʔəfəd** eat [This stem is agent oriented in spite of its appearance. Its patient oriented counterpart is *lək^wəd* (or, in Skagit, *huydx^w*).]
- ʔəftx^w** feed someone.
- ʔiʔfadəb** *ləcuʔiʔfadəb ʔə tiʔə? sq^wələfəd ʔə tiʔit ʔusq^wəls*. *He was eating the berries as they ripened*. 2.20.
- sʔəfəd** food.
- ʔəλ'** come.
- ʔəλ'c** come after something/someone; come for a specific purpose.
- ʔəλ'tx^w** bring someone/something.
- ʔəpus** aunt, sister of one's father or mother.
- ʔəs-** [Common variant of *as-*, the stative prefix, 10.3, 11.3].
- ʔəx^w-** [Combination of the prefixes *ʔəs-* and *dx^w-*].
- ʔəxid** what? What is the matter?
- dəx^wʔəxid-** why?
- ʔəxiix^w** do something, do anything.
- ʔuʔəxiədəx^w čəx^w** What are you doing?
- ʔəy'-**
- ʔəy'dx^w** find someone/something.
- ʔi** and.

ʔi	an exclamation expressing <i>greatly, vastly</i> (4.37, 4.75).
ʔiʔab	wealth.
ʔiʔabil	become wealthy.
siʔab	nobleman, person of influence, leader.
siʔiʔab	high ranking people 2.30.
ʔiʔadəb	See under ʔəʔad.
ʔibəš	walk, travel/journey by land (as opposed to travel by canoe).
ʔibəštʰ	take someone for a walk, walk someone somewhere.
ʔibʔibəš	walk all about, travel a lot; many people walk.
ʔibibəš	pace back and forth, walk without achieving (or often even having) a destination.
ʔil-	ʔilgʷiʔ shoreline, shore, beach, bank.
ʔitut	sleep, ʰalitut snore, sqəlalitut spirit power, dream.
ʔitutdubut	oversleep.
ʔəxʷʔitutəb	sleepy.
ʔiišəd	relative, friend, one's own people.
ʔu	[interrogative partikel 2.3].
ʔu	Hey! 1.18. OK. 1.21. Oh. 1.26, 3.7, 3.67.
ʔu-	[Common variant of -u-, the perfective prefix 10.5, 11.3].
sʔuladxʷ	salmon and steelhead trout; (sometimes, 'fish' in a general sense).
ʔulal	bulrush, cattail.
ʔuləχ	obtain from nature, gather, take and keep what one comes upon. (agent oriented).
ʔuləχəd	same as above except for being patient oriented.
ʔuləχyid	get (from nature) for someone.
ʔuluʔ	travel in a canoe, go by water (as opposed to walking, traveling over land).
-ʔulus	dxʷʔulus persistent person, a steady worker.
ʔusil	dive.
ʔusis	dive after something.
ʔušəb	pity, feel compassion.

ʔušəbid	pity someone.
[s]ušəbitəbs	out of pity for him 4.93.
ʔuχ ^w	go.
ʔuχ ^w c	go after someone/something, go somewhere for a specific purpose.
ʔuχ ^w tx ^w	take someone/something somewhere.
- a -	
-aʔk ^w -bix ^w	group (viewed distributively).
-abac	body, bulky object.
-ač	head, crest. Compare sčəy'us, -qid, -us.
-ačiʔ	hand, lower arm. Compare čaləs.
ad-	your [12.3, 12.3d, 12.4], you [20.3a].
-ad	I, me [first person singular clitic 14.4 - 14.4b].
-adx ^w	variant of -əladx ^w year [3.6].
-ag ^w -	a derivational suffix by means of which various types of radical stems are converted to -il agent oriented stems, e.g. t'ag ^w t placed on top becomes t'ag ^w tag ^w il climb(s) on top.
-ag ^w əl	[reciprocal 9.7].
-ah- / -ap	buttocks, bottom, base.
-al-adiʔ	side of head.
-alc	Agent oriented suffix which denotes the manipulation or construction of something [7.3].
-aləp	you (plural) [second person plural clitic 14.4 - 14.4b].
-alik ^w	agent oriented suffix with iterative meaning [7.3].
-aʔi	we, us [first person plural clitic 14.4 - 14.5].
-ap / -ah-	buttocks, bottom, base.
as-	stative prefix [10.3, 11.3] most often pronounced as ʔəs-.
-as	[third person clitic 14.4 - 14.4b].

-ax ^w	you (singular) [second person singular clitic 14.4 - 14.4b].
-ax ^w	aspectual clitic [14.2 - 14.3c].
-aʃad	edge, at the side of.
- b -	
-b	agent suffix [Lesson Three, 7.3].
-b	second member in suffix sequences [6.2] providing for an oblique complement [16.4. 16.5].
sbadil	mountain.
bap(a)	
ʔəsbap	busy.
bapad	pester / annoy someone.
bə-	again, anew, once more; additional [additive 13.6].
bəč(a)	
bəč	fall from a standing position.
ʔəsbəč	lies.
ʔəsbəčtx ^w	have someone/something laid out.
bəčad	set something down.
bəčaš	(equivalent to bəčad, [22.1b]).
bəčdx ^w	knock someone down / knock something over.
bəčag ^w il	lie down.
bəčalik ^w	bet, wager.
dx ^w bəčəb	sink.
dx ^w bəčəbəd	sink something.
bək ^w	be included; all.
bək ^w əd	take everything.
bək ^w dx ^w	manage to get all of something; x ^w iʔ k ^w i g ^w əsbək ^w dx ^w s <i>He couldn't manage [to eat] it all.</i>
bək ^w il	all finished, all gone, all used up.
bək ^w ildx ^w	use something all up, finish something off.
bək ^w aʔk ^w bix ^w	everyone.
bəʔ	full (container), full (of food or drink).

bəq'	
bəq'əd	put something in one's (own) mouth; swallow something.
bəq'atx ^w	put something into someone else's mouth.
bəščəb	mink.
bibščəb	young mink; a 'pet' way of referring to Mink.
bəsad	grow dark (night).
bəsq ^w	crab.
-bi-	secondary stem suffix which provides for the addition of the patient suffix -d/-t- to stems that otherwise could not take a patient ending at all (or could not take -d/-t- as a second patient suffix).
biac	meat.
sbiaw	coyote.
bibščəb	See under bəščəb .
-bi-d	locative and comparative suffix

- c -

-c	[a suffix marking patient oriented verbs, 4.3, 4.4, 5.4, 6.1].
-c	me [9.3b].
-c-əb	[a suffix marking patient oriented verbs, 8.3 - 8.3c].
cəx ^w -	[the combination of d- and dəx^w- , 20.3] cəx^wyaw' that I should 3.21.
-cid	you [9.3b].
cil(i-)	
(ʔəs)cil	be protected/supported, be served (e.g., food). ciliw' basin, pan. cicəl'šaad , dəx^wcicəl'šaadəb something to walk on, carpet.
cilid	support something, place something in/on a receptacle, dish [food] up.
cilyid	dish [food] up for someone.
(ʔəs)ciltx ^w	have [something/someone] put on/in a support or container.

ck ^w aqid	always [predicate adverb 17.2].
cut	<p> speak, say. This is the most all encompassing word in Lushootseed for human vocal utterances. huy cutax^w Then she sang 2.33. cutax^w chanted / spoke an incantation 4.87. </p>
cut(t)əb	<p> speak to someone (about something). </p>
cuuc	<p> tell someone (something). </p>
?ax ^w cutəb	<p> thought so (all along) 3.41, 3.61, 3.73, 3.78; thought 4.53. </p>
dx ^w cutəbəx ^w	<p> Then he thought (about it) 4.70. </p>
g ^w ax ^w cutəb	<p> might think 3.63. </p>

- c' -

sc'ali?	heart.
c'əl-	win, prevail.
c'əlalik ^w	win (agent oriented) ... †uc'əlalik^w ... (who) would win 2.31.
c'əld	defeat someone (patient oriented).
c'əldx ^w	manage to defeat someone (patient oriented).
c'ib	dip into; lick.
c'ix-	
c'ixc'ix	fish hawk, osprey.
c'ixəb	<p> incantation Fish Hawk says in order to get fat to drip out from between his fingers to use as a dip for eating dried salmon. </p>
c'ud	weak.
c'uk ^w əb	flesh.

- č -

ča ^w k ^w	<p> seaward, in the direction of any body of water; at sea, out in the water (opposite of t'aq't). </p>
dx ^w ča ^w k ^w	<p> seaward, toward the water. </p>
lədx ^w ča ^w k ^w	<p> going toward the water (synonym of k^wit'), going further out to sea. </p>

čaʔkʷtxʷ	take someone/something down to the water or out to sea.
čaʔkʷdxʷ	manage to get something/someone down to the water or out to sea.
čagʷəd	1. equivalent to the (more usual) čaʔkʷtxʷ. 2. fig., force someone to do something he does not want to do.
čagʷcut	go out from shore.
čagʷəb	be out at sea, be in the lake/river.
čagʷil	get too far out.
čagʷildxʷ	pick on someone, get the better of someone because he is out numbered or cornered.
čaʔkʷbid	(also pronounced čəʔkʷbid) located on the water side of something.
čad	where.
čal	how? in what condition or state?
čal(a)	chase, pursue; overtake; catch.
čalad	chase someone/something.
čaldxʷ	catch up with someone.
čaltxʷ	catch someone.
čaləs	hand, lower arm and hand. Compare -ačiʔ.
čcil	See under (xi)čəc.
čəbaʔ-əd	carry something/someone on one's back, backpack something / someone.
čəbid	Douglas fir. <i>sčəbid</i> bark (especially the bark of the Douglas fir tree which was the bark par excellence for the Lushootseed people).
čəbidac	Douglas fir tree.
-čəc	xičəc red, red. xičičəc (a) penny.
čcil	become red.
čcild	reddden something, make something red.
ʔəxʷčciligʷəd	red inside.
dxʷčəcəb	red river (e.g., one flowing through iron rich land).
čəd	I [Lesson Two], me [4.5].
čəda	and I, and me [21.6b].

čəʔ	we [Lesson Two], us [4.5].
čəʔa	and we [21.6b].
sčəʔxʷəd	(black) bear.
čəxʷ	you (singular) [Lesson Two, 4.5].
čəxʷa	and you [21.6b].
čələp	you (plural) [Lesson Two, 4.5].
čələpa	and you [21.6b].
čəʔa	See under čəʔ.
čubə	go up from shore, go up inland away from the water (opposite of kʷitʰ, synonym of lədxʷtʰaqʰt).
čubaac	go up from shore after something/someone.
čubəstxʷ	The old way of saying čubəʔxʷ [4.7d].
čubəʔxʷ	take someone/something up from shore.
-čup	cooking fire, campfire; firewood.
čəxʷa	See under čəxʷ.
čəxʷəluʔ	whale.

- ʔ -

čʰaʔ-	dig, dig out, loosen ground for planting.
čʰaʔəd	dig something up, dig it out (patient oriented stem)
čʰaʔəb	dig something up (agent oriented stem).
čʰaʔalikʷ	dig for edible roots and the like (agent oriented stem).
čʰačʰas	1. child, youngster. 2. young.
čʰaačʰas	mature acting child.
ʔiʰčʰačʰas	younger.
ʔixʷčʰačʰas	young spouse.
čʰawəyʔ	seashell (of any type). čʰawəyʔulč ceramic dish. (See ʔaʔxʷ.)
čʰit	near (opposite of lil).
čʰitcut	come close, approach.
čʰitil	draw near.
čʰitis	approach someone/something.

- ʕitbid** located on the near side of something/someone.
- ʕʕaʔ** rock, stone. (In the third text of this reader, *boulder* would be the best gloss.)
- d -
- d-** my [12.3, 12.3d, 12.4], I (me) [20.3a].
- d / -t-** a patient suffix [Lesson Three, 6.1].
- daʔ(a)** name, call. **sdaʔ** name, **həlaʔb sdaʔs** is his real name (4.4).
- daʔad** name someone.
- daʔacutbid** tell someone one's (own) name.
- dadatut** morning, (often pronounced as thought spelled **dadatu**).
- dayʔ** only, uniquely, especially, completely [predicate adverb 17.2]
after a while 4.42, **diʔ** [tiʔiʔ s]dayʔs . . . That was all.
- dəʕuʔ** one.
- dəgʷ-** See under **dəkʷ**.
- dəgʷi** you (singular), you are the one [19.3, 19.4].
- dəkʷ** located inside something relatively small and confining.
- dəgʷad** put something inside something relatively small.
- dəgʷaʃ** (equivalent to **dəgʷad**).
- dəgʷabacil** be inside the body of (a whale 1.13).
- dəgʷagʷil** get inside something relatively small and confining.
- dəxʷ-** where, when, reason why, method by which [Lesson Twenty].
- sdəxʷiʔ** hunting canoe. This canoe is light weight and usually holds two hunters.
- sdiʔdəxʷiʔ** small hunting canoe.
- diʔ** the one(s) mentioned before, the one(s) about to be mentioned, that (which) he, she, it, they [19.4, 19.7, 22.9]. **diʔ** is most frequently used as a one word predicate. As such, one would expect a demonstrative [15.1 ff.] to introduce the following embedded sentence which serves as the complement of the **diʔ** predicate. However, all speakers

omit this demonstrative sometimes, and some usually do. In the first four texts of this reader the expected demonstrative is always lacking.

ds-	a sequence of prefixes d- + s- .
dsu-	a sequence of prefixes d- + s- + (?) u- .
-du-	variant of -dx^w [6.1, 9.1, 9.3a].
duk ^w	change, transform.
duk ^w əladx ^w	next year, [Wait until] next year 2.39, 2.46.
duk ^w ibəʔ	the Changer, Transformer.
dx ^w -	to, toward.
dx ^w ʔal	to, toward, until; to 4.42, 4.63, 4.67; across [the entrance to] 3.49.
dx ^w čaʔk ^w	seaward.
dx ^w šəq	upward 4.11.
dx ^w təyil	travel upstream(ward).
dx ^w t'aq't	... dx ^w t'aq't tiʔiʔ st'alil ... way up on shore 1.31.
dx ^w -	1. A derivational prefix which marks the stem as serving to contain, to hold within. 2. A secondary meaning of this dx^w- designates a proclivity, what one has 'inside': dx^wʔulus a persistent person, a steady worker. 3. Also carrying this prefix are a number of stems referring to matters of the mind, the šəč : dx^wcutəb he thought 4.70, he gave up 4.24, 4.38.
dx ^w š ^w al'ig ^w əd	
-dx ^w / -du-	patient suffix expressing lack of full control on the part of an agent [5.1-5.4, 6.1, 9.1, 9.3a].

- d^z -

d ^z al-	turn around 180 degrees, turn over, go to the opposite side of something.
d ^z alq-	turn around, d^zalq^wus look over one's own shoulder (lit. turn face around).
d ^z əlqcut	turn self around.

d ^z əlaʃadbid	visit someone.
d ^z əg ^w aʔ	a great one for [doing something], well known for, famous for, professional.
d ^z ək ^w	1. wander. 2. be unstable.
ʔəsɔd ^z ək ^w	emotionally unstable person.
d ^z ək ^w ud	mislead someone, transgress.
d ^z ək ^w adad	wrongdoing, sin.
d ^z ək ^w aluʔ	driftwood and other debris.
d ^z ək ^w d ^z ək ^w	wander about.
d ^z ək ^w ək ^w	[The wind] keeps changing directions.
d ^z əl-	See under d ^z al.
d ^z ub(u)	kick.
d ^z ubud	kick someone/something.
d ^z ubalik ^w	dance.
- ə -	
-əč	See under -ač.
-əd	See under -ad.
-əladx ^w	year Cf. s ^ʔ uladx ^w salmon [3.6].
-ələp	See under -aləp.
əlg ^w əʔ	By means of this word speakers make explicit that a third person referent is plural whether as agent, patient or possessor, e.g., <i>they, them, their(s)</i> . It is always optional; pragmatic considerations determine its use -- not grammar. Following a vowel or when syllable initial, it is spelled (and pronounced) həlg ^w əʔ [12.6].
-əfi	See under -aʔi.
-əs	See under -as.
əw'ə	A predicate particle [17.1 - 17.1c] expressing mild surprise. Following a vowel, it is spelled (and pronounced) haw'ə(?).

- əx^w variant of -ax^w *you* [14.4 - 14.4b].
 -əx^w variant of the aspectual clitic -ax^w [14.2 - 14.3c].

- g -

- gədu bum, no good so-and-so.
 gəlgəb mumble.
 gəlk' wind around, entangle.
 gəlk'əd wind something (such as string) around [something].
 gəlk'alik^w knit.
 gət guy, fellow.

- g^w -

- g^w- [subjunctive prefix 12.2b, 13.1, 13.4, 14.4b].
 g^wə- variant of g^w- occurring before consonants.
 sg^wa[?] one's own [22.7].
 g^waadg^wad talk, converse, get to talking, express an opinion.
 g^wadadg^wad talk over, discuss 1.22, 2.31; converse 4.52.
 -g^was pair.
 g^wat who, whom [19.4 - 19.6b].
 g^waḥ^w two or more people (go for a) walk.
 g^waḥ^wtx^w cause someone to walk with one.
 g^wə- See under g^w-.
 g^wəč[?]-
 g^wəč[?]əd look for something/someone (patient oriented stem).
 g^wəč[?]əb someone seeks something/someone (agent oriented stem).
 g^wəč[?]alik^w someone regularly seeks something/someone (agent oriented).
 g^wədəx^w- sequence of g^w- + dəx^w-.
 g^wədəx^wu- sequence of g^w- + dəx^w- + (?)u-.

g ^w əl	and, or, but [sentential adverb 22.8 - 22.8b].
g ^w əs-	sequence of g ^w - + s-.
g ^w əs-u-	sequence of g ^w - + s- + (?)u-.
g ^w ət'q ^w ad	See under -t'q ^w (u)-.
-g ^w i†	canoe, waterway, curved side, narrow passageway.
g ^w u-	Sequence of g ^w - + (?)u-.

- h -

ha [?] k ^w	for a long time; ago. all along 3.41, 3.61, 3.73, 3.78 [17.2].
hag ^w -	for a long time 1.38, 1.40, 3.52.
ha [?] †	good, nice; pretty, handsome.
ha [?] ləb	calm weather, good weather.
ha [?] †il	weather turns nice, [something] becomes good.
ha [?] lid	make [something] nice, clean [something], clear it up.
ha [?] licut	situated comfortably 4.94.
dəx ^w (h)a [?] †s	that was any good 3.18, 3.31.
hay	next [sentential adverb 22.8, 22.8a].
haydx ^w	know.
he [?] ehe	Concluding syllables in a song. They have no lexical value. 2.52
həd	warm, hot.
pədhədəb	summer.
(həd)hədəci [?] b	warm one's hands.
hədil	weather becomes warm.
hədq ^w əb	something is warm.
hədq ^w əbid	warm/heat something.
həd [?] iw'	be inside / enter a house. Usually pronounced as if spelled hədiw' .
həd [?] iw'b	This form is often equivalent to həd[?]iw' . [See 4.6].
həd [?] iw'tx ^w	take/bring someone inside [See 4.6].
həd [?] iw'd	take/bring someone inside [See 4.6].

həd'iw'dubut	get one's self inside [the cave] 3.48.
həd'iw'c	go/come in after someone/something [See 4.6.].
həla'ʔb	really, a lot, real [predicate adverb 17.2 - 17.3 (Speakers sometimes also use həla'ʔb as a modifier in complements.)] c'ixc'ix ti'it həla'ʔb sda'ʔs <i>Fish Hawk is his real name</i> 4.4.
həli'ʔ	live, be alive.
səli'ʔ	soul.
həli'ʔtxʷ	cure someone, allow someone to live.
həli'ʔdxʷ	help someone live, give life to someone.
həli'ʔdubut	recover (esp., recover one's soul).
həli'ʔil	heal, become well.
həli'ʔis	... stab kʷi gʷədəxʷ(h)əli'ʔiss əlgʷəʔ ... whatever they could live on 2.15.
higʷil	See under hikʷ.
hiit	happy, glad.
hikʷ	big.
higʷəd	support someone, uphold.
hiktxʷ	respect someone.
higʷil	become big, become important / influential.
hikʷbid	bigger.
hud	fire, firewood.
hudud	burn something, heat something up, turn on a light. (Compare ləxəd.)
hud(d)xʷ	manage to burn something (such as wet wood); inadvertently set something on fire.
ʔəshudtxʷ	keep fire going.
hudčup	build a fire.
xʷ(h)udad	ashes.
huy	finish(ed), complete(d) 1.51, 1.52, 3.80, 4.39, 4.98. diʔ shuys That's the end 2.66, 4.99. stabəxʷ kʷi ʔushuys ... What are they going to do? 3.59. stab ti'it suhuyləp What are you folks doing? 3.6.

huyud	make / prepare / do something. <i>ʔuhuyutəbəxʷ čʔit tiʔiʔ dəxʷʔibəš čəʔ</i> where we are going will be made near (i.e., our trip will be short) 3.10.
huydxʷ	manage to do something, figure something out, solve a problem
huytxʷ	cause to be a certain way, make a certain way. fire someone from employment.
huyil	become.
huyalc	build / construct / complete something.
huyalikʷ	create.
huy	then, next [sentential adverb 22.8, 22.8a].

- i -

-igʷəd	inside human/animal body; inside small, tight enclosure.
-igʷs	things, possessions. <i>stabigʷs</i> prized possessions 3.15 [See 16.10.]
-il	[A suffix marking agent oriented verbs. See Lesson Four.]
-il	[Common suffix on experiencer stems, 4.2 - 4.2b].
-is	[A suffix marking patient oriented verbs built upon -il, (i.e., -il + -s > -is) 4.1].

- j -

jəsəd	foot, lower leg, foot and shank.
jiqʷ	soak, drown.
jiqʷid	immerse something.
jiqʷcut	soak self.
jiqʷagʷil	enter the water.
ʔəsjiqʷtxʷ	have something immersed.
jiqʷaladʔəd	set fishing nets.
juʔil	enjoy one's self, have a good time.

- k -

kay'kay'	Stellar's jay.
skəyu	corpse, ghost.
skəyuil	become like a ghost / become a corpse.
skəyuhali	place where the dead are place, graveyard.
kiis	stand up.
kiistx ^w	stand someone/something up.
kiisbid	stand beside someone/something.
(ʔəs)kisəč	bird's crest, hackles of a dog, hair stands on end.

- k' -

k'a'k'a'	crow.
k'adəyu'	rat.
k'awdx ^w	bump into someone/something, touch someone/something.
k'it(i)	hang on a peg/nail/corner of a door/ etc.
k'itid	hang something on a peg/nail/etc.

- k^w -

k ^w a'	however, although; naturally, as is known [predicate particle 17.1a].
k ^w atač	climb up. k ^w atajəx ^w climb(s) up now.
k ^w atačaac	climb after someone/something.
k ^w ax ^w (a)	help.
k ^w ax ^w ad	help someone.
k ^w ax ^w dx ^w	manage to help someone, able to help someone.
k ^w ax ^w adad	spiritual help.
k ^w i'k ^w x ^w ad	a little helper.
k ^w x ^w ad	good luck.
k ^w əd(a)	get, take; hold, grasp.

k ^w əd	have a spell/seizure.
k ^w ədad	take 4.29, take [the other one] 4.31, was taken 4.86.
k ^w əd(d)x ^w	manage to get, manage to grasp.
k ^w ədalik ^w	take again and again (as in fishing, for example).
k ^w ədaʔ	might, maybe [predicate particle 17.1a, 17.3b].
k ^w ədiʔ	way over there (far out of sight), long, long ago [adverbial demonstrative 15.4].
k ^w i	[adjectival demonstrative referring to hypothetical and/or remote entities 15.2].
sk ^w iʔx ^w	rhizomes of the braken fern.
k ^w ix ^w (i)	k ^w ix ^w id sound of pounding, the ringing sound one makes as his adze strikes a log being carved into a canoe.
k ^w uk ^w cut	cook [a loan word from English equivalent to q ^w əl-].

- k^w -

k ^w at'aq	a large cattail mat used most often to line the inside walls of houses. These mats were also used to make temporary shelters during the summer.
k ^w əʔ	hearsay, "... they say." [predicate particle 17.1, 17.1a].
k ^w əʔ	spill, pour.
k ^w əʔəd	pour something.
k ^w əʔdx ^w	spill something.
ʔəsk ^w əʔtx ^w	have something poured out / emptied onto.
k ^w ʔalik ^w	serve liquid repeatedly (e.g., to all the guests).
k ^w ʔibəd	container made from thinly woven cedar bark strips.
k ^w ʔičəd	spill on / pour on someone/something.
k ^w ik ^w əʔ	trickle down.
k ^w əʔk ^w ʔad	keep pouring something.
k ^w il	peek, look from behind something.
k ^w ilid	peek at someone/something; look in on someone but not stay to visit.
k ^w ildx ^w	manage to get a peek.

k ^w iltx ^w	use something to peek (at someone/something).
k ^w ilil	peer.
k ^w it'	go down to the water's edge (opposite of čubə, synonym of lədx ^w čə'k ^w).
ʔask ^w it'alg ^w ił	be down on the shore.
k ^w it'tx ^w	take someone/something down to the water's edge.
k ^w it'tx ^w yid	take [something] down to the water's edge for someone.
ʔiłk ^w it'tx ^w	take one of two down to the water's edge.
sk ^w uy	mother
k ^w uyəʔ	mom, mother (in addressing her).
ciłbask ^w uy	half-sibling with mother in common.

- 1 -

laʔ	point out, establish the location of something.
laʔəd	point something out.
laʔcut	introduce self.
laʔyid	show someone where [something] is located.
ʔəslaʔtx ^w	know where something is located.
ʔəbslaʔil	have a location.
lač	remember.
lačdx ^w	remember someone/something.
lačc	reminisce about people/events.
lačtx ^w	remind someone.
lačbid	remember the whole affair.
lə-	[progressive prefix 11.3b - 11.6].
ləcu-	[continuous prefix 11.3b, 11.8 - 11.8c].
ləg ^w əb	youth, young man.
lək ^w əd	eat something, put something into the mouth (patient oriented verb). Compare ʔəłəd.
lək ^w dx ^w	manage to eat something / to get something into the mouth.
lək ^w yid	eat someone else's food.
lək ^w ucidid	kiss someone.

ləs-	[progressive state 11.3b, 11.7 - 11.7b].
ləḥ	light.
ləḥəd	light something up (Compare hudud turn on a light.)
ləḥil	grow light. sləḥil day.
liʔluʔ	See under luʔ .
liḥ-	by way of, by a particular route [See 16.7a.]
luʔ	hole in (but not through) something (Compare tʔuʔ a hole through something.) səsluʔ a cave 3.49.
ʔəsliʔluʔ	a small hole in the ground, a small cave 3.46.
luʔud	bore a hole.
luʔucut	spawn (lit. <i>make holes for themselves</i>).
luh-	hear, listen.
luud	hear something/someone.
luutəb	be overheard.
ludx ^w	happen to hear about something.
luuc	listen to someone/something.
luḥʔ	old. old person.
luḥʔluḥʔ	elders, ancestors.
luḥʔəb	be old.
luḥʔil	grow old.
luḥʔbid	older than someone/something.
ʔiḥluḥʔ	older, the eldest.
luud	See under luh- .

- † -

ḥaʔḥ	bowl, platter (Compare q^wḥəyʔulč large wooden bowl, č^wawəyʔulč ceramic dish, ciliwʔ basin, pan.)
ḥiʔḥaʔḥ	small bowl, small platter.
ḥačʔ	fire goes out.
ḥačʔad	put fire out.
ḥačʔdx ^w	manage to put fire out.
ḥačʔalik ^w	fight forest fire. dx^wsḥačʔalik^w fireman, firefighter.

stādəyʔ	woman.
staaʔədəyʔ	girls.
stādadəyʔ	woman (living) alone.
stəʔdəyʔ	girl.
stəʔədəyʔ	girl friend.
stəʔadəyʔ	women.
ʔalil	go ashore, land/dock a boat; reach the end of a row when harvesting crops.
ʔalis	go ashore after something.
ʔaliltxʷ	put ashore, take to shore.
ʔalildxʷ	manage to reach shore.
ʔaʔlil	dwell, live some place. <i>dəxʷəsʔaʔlils</i> where he dwelled 4.1.
ʔax	dark(ness).
ʔaxil	grow dark. <i>stəxil</i> night. <i>səʔaxil</i> evening.
ʔəč	"get started" under influence of one's spirit power.
ʔčil	arrive, <i>ʔiʔčil</i> arrive occasionally.
ʔčis	arrive for someone/something, arrive for a specific purpose.
ʔčisič	be visited at an inconvenient time.
ʔčiltxʷ	arrive with someone/something.
ʔčildxʷ	manage to arrive with someone/something.
ʔčiltxʷiyitəb	something/someone is brought for the benefit of someone.
ʔəgʷʔ	leave.
ʔəgʷəlb	be left by someone.
ʔəgʷəldxʷ	inadvertently leave someone behind.
ʔəgʷəlyid	leave someone/something for someone, ... <i>ʔə tiʔiʔ stəgʷəlyitəbs</i> [(s)] <i>uʂəbitəbs</i> <i>ʔə tiʔiʔ c'ixc'ix</i> <i>ʔə tiʔiʔ sʷuladxʷ</i> ... with the salmon which Fish Hawk, [out of] pity left for him ... 4.94.
ʔət'əd	flip something away.
ʔi	[second person (12.4) plural imperative 11.10].
ʔiʔʔaʔx	See under <i>ʔaʔx</i> .
ʔiʔʔdahəb	See under <i>ʔid</i> .
ʔič	get cut. <i>səxʷič</i> (aʔkʷčup) a saw. <i>ʔičʔadəd</i> scar.

†ič'id	cut someone/something, †i†ič' cut into little pieces, †ič'†ič'g'asəd slice something, †ič'šadid amputate someone's leg/foot.
†ič'ib	cut cattails for mat making; cut grass, etc. to make something.
†ič'dx'	accidentally cut someone/something.
†id	tied. †idalšəd tumpline (named for the way it is made using the foot). dx'†idič bowstring.
†idap	trawl. †i†dahəb troll (for fish).
†idid	tie someone/something.
†idg'asəd	tie them together (to make [rope]) longer.
†ix'	three.
†ix'ə†dat	three days.
†u-	[irrealis prefix 13.1, 13.3, 13.4, also 9.2].
†(u)ads-	sequence of †u- + ad- + s-.
†ubə-	sequence of †u- + bə-.
†udəx'-	sequence of †u- + dəx'-.
†uds-	sequence of †u- + d- + s-.
†uq'(u)	peel.
†uq'ud	peel something.
†uq'ač	bald head.
†us-	sequence of †u- + s-.

- x' -

x'ac'(a)-	cinch.
x'ac'ad	cinch something [unattested].
x'ac'əb	cinch up (one's own belt).
x'ac'ahəb	cinch up at one's own waist.
x'ac'apəd	belt.
x'ač'ac'apəd	ant [lit. <i>little cinched up [one]</i>].
x'al	put on clothing.
x'alš	put something on.

ʰalib	[See 22.1.c.]
ʰaldxʷ	manage to get something on, e.g., struggle to put on something a bit too tight.
ʰəsʰaltxʷ	wear something.
ʰalyid	put article of clothing on someone.
ʰalabacəb	clothe body. sʰalabac garment, clothing.
ʰalalic'aʔb	put clothes on. ʰalalic'aʔ clothes.
ʰalšədəb	put shoe(s) on. sʰalšəd skis, snowshoes.
ʰalšədidi	put shoe(s) on someone.
ʰalšədyid	put shoe(s) on someone for someone else (as in helping a busy mother dress a child).
ʰalaliqʷəb	put on a hat.
ʰalʰ	also, too [predicate adverb 17.2].
sʰəlayʰ	shovel-nose canoe (used on rivers. It was poled, not paddled.)
ʰiq(i)-	emerge.
ʰiq	emerge, come out of hiding, emerge from thick brush, come out of the water.
ʰiqidi	take something/someone out of enclosure.
ʰiqdxʷ	manage to get someone/something out of an enclosure.
ʰiqagʷil	come out of an enclosure.
ʰqil	come out of hibernation.
ʰu-	[habitual prefix 13.1, 13.2].
ʰ(u)as-	sequence of ʰu- + as- / əs-.
ʰub	well, fine, good, OK.
ʰubəd	agree to something.
ʰubtxʷ	get something fixed / arranged satisfactorily.
ʰubil	become well.
ʰubildxʷ	agree with someone.
ʰub	[as predicate adverb 17.2, 17.2a] should, ought to, had better.
ʰubə-	sequence of ʰu- + bə-.
ʰubəxʷ-	sequence of ʰu- + bə- + as-/əs- + dxʷ-.
ʰudəxʷ-	sequence of ʰu- + dəxʷ-.
ʰuil	thin person.
ʰuʰuil	very thin.

- ʰus- sequence of ʰu- + s-.
 ʰxʷayʷ dog salmon, chum.
 pədʰxʷayʷ autumn, November, dog salmon time.

- m -

- miʷmanʷ small, ʷəsmiʷmanʷ It [must] be small. 3.43.

- p -

- pač(a) lay out gifts, display gifts to be given.
 pakʷahəb lie with rear up.
 pəd- time of.
 pišpiš domestic cat. pišpiš kitten.
 pus get hit by something thrown or falling (experiencer stem).
 pusud throw at someone/something, hit something/someone by
 throwing something (patient oriented stem).
 pusdxʷ accidentally hit by throwing, manage to hit by throwing
 something.
 pusil throw, toss (agent oriented stem). dxʷspusil baseball pitcher.
 pupsil toss pebbles.
 pusilyid pitch for someone.
 pusildxʷ throw/toss something (instrumental oriented stem).
 pusiltxʷ throw someone (as in wrestling) (patient oriented causative
 stem).
 -pus-
 ʷəxʷpusəb raise one's head.
 put adverb [17.2a] which intensifies the significance of its predi-
 cate [16.1]: very 3.4, 3.55, just 4.81, 4.91, just plain
 1.45, just plumb 2.22, 2.56, even more 2.43, still more
 2.50, really! 2.48, 3.54, sound(ly) 2.57.

- p' -

p'ał'ał'	junk 3.14, 3.32, worthless 3.17.
p'ayəq	hew, especially hew out a canoe, (loosely: make a canoe), use an adze.
p'il	flat.
p'ilid	flatten something.
p'iləb	something goes flat; be flooded.

- q -

sqə	older sibling, older cousin, dəx'ʷsqatəd older siblings, older cousins.
qa(h)	many, much, a lot.
qa(h)il	becomes a lot, ləqa(h)il there comes to be a lot (of).
qaw'qs	raven.
qc'ap	Kitsap, a famous leader of a Southern Lushootseed group.
qəladiʔ	up-rooted tree/stump, snag(s).
qiʔqəp'adiʔ	the daughter of Basket Ogress (so named because her hair was so tangled).
sqəlalitut	spirit power, guardian spirit.
qəlb / qələb	rain. qəlbəq'ʷuʔ rain water.
qəlbic̣	get caught in the rain.
dx'ʷqəlb	A very common name for rivers and streams in Lushootseed territory. The name refers to the turbid quality of the water.
ʔəx'ʷqələbil	[A river] is turbid.
qəʔ, qʔ-	wake up; regain consciousness, come to.
qəʔəd	wake someone up.
qəʔdx'ʷ	inadvertently awaken someone.
qəsiʔ	uncle, brother of one's father or mother.
-qid	1. head (See sɣəy'us.) 2. dx'ʷ- . . . -qid voice.

-iy-a-qid	1. top of some relatively large or high object. 2. over one's head.
-əl-qid	wool, hair.
- q' -	
q'ax ^w	freeze. sq'ax ^w ice.
q'ax ^w ad	freeze something.
q'c-	q'cač strike back of head (against something).
sq'əd ² u?	(human) hair.
q'il	1. ride in canoe (or any conveyance). 2. (salmon) travel upstream.
q'ilid	load things (into canoe (or other conveyance)).
q'iltx ^w	load canoe (or other conveyance).
q'ildx ^w	1. manage to load things. 2. manage to load canoe.
q'ilil	go along for the ride.
q'ilag ^w il	get on board, mount a horse.
q'ilag ^w is	catch a ride.
q'iləb	load one's own canoe.
q'ilad	the load carried.
q'il'bid	canoe (general term, includes all types).
q'ilicut	a riffle in a river, white water.
q'əwab	howl.

- q^w -

sq ^w ali?	hay.
sq ^w i?q ^w ali?	hay, grass. sq ^w i?q ^w ali?ali hayfield. sq ^w iq ^w q ^w ali? grass of a lawn.
sq ^w əbay?	dog. sq ^w i(?)q ^w əbay? puppy.
q ^w ib	prepare, ready.

q ^w ibid	prepare something/someone, fix something; ... čada ʃuq ^w ibid <i>and I will fix him!</i> 3.13 [This use of q ^w ibid is a loan translation from the English colloquial expression.]
ʔəsq ^w ibtx ^w	have something/someone ready, have it prepared.
q ^w ibil	recover health (emotional or physical).
q ^w ic	go downstream (opposite of təyil).
q ^w ic'	unwilling, indifferent, lazy.
q ^w ic'bid	unable to do something.
q ^w ist	bovine.
q ^w ʃayʔ	log, stick. Sometimes used to mean <i>tree</i> of any kind.
q ^w ʃayʔulč	large wooden bowl or platter (See ʃaʔx̄.)
q ^w uʔ	water, especially fresh water as opposed to sea water.
q ^w uʔq ^w aʔ	drink.
q ^w uʔq ^w a(?)did	drink something.
q ^w u(?)bid	(mouth) waters for something.

- q^w -

q ^w əl	ripe, ripen. sq ^w əlaʃəd berry (lit., <i>ripe food</i>). sq ^w iq ^w əlaʃəd little berry.
dx ^w sq ^w əl	hot (weather).
dx ^w sq ^w əlil	grow warm (weather).
q ^w əl(ə)d	cook something.
q ^w əl(ə)b	someone cooks.
q ^w uʔ	gather, unite.
(?)əsq ^w uʔ	be gathered.
q ^w uʔəd	gathered something, collected something.
q ^w uʔtəb	[people] were brought together 1.47, 2.30, 4.28.
q ^w up'	shrink, shrivel. -q ^w up'q ^w up'ačiʔ shrivel(ed) hands 4.81, 4.91.

- s -

- s- [a nominalizing prefix 3.2, 12.1, 18.1 *ff*, 20.1 *ff*]. If a noun cannot be found under s-, it is to be sought under the following consonant [3.2, 12.1].
- s Third person suffix [12.3 - 12.3d, 12.4a, 12.5, 12.6, 20.3].
- s Goal suffix [4.1, 4.4, 5.4].
- saʔ bad.
- saʔtxʷ dislike someone/something.
- saʔil become bad; get in trouble.
- saʔsəliʔ See under saliʔ.
- saliʔ two.
- saliʔil become two, become the second.
- saʔsəliʔ two small items.
- səsaʔliʔ two people.
- saqʷ fly.
- saqʷtxʷ fly off with something/someone.
- saxʷəb jump, run (especially in a short burst of energy as opposed to **təlawil** which is to run for a sustained period).
- saxʷəbid jump/run after something/someone.
- saxʷəbtxʷ run off with something/someone, kidnap someone.
- siʔab See under ʔiʔab.
- siʔiʔab See under ʔiʔab.
- sixʷ Predicate particle [17.1] meaning *again, as usual*. (Often - but by no means always - **sixʷ** carries connotations of mild annoyance.)
- stab what?, what (in the sense of an English relative pronoun) 2.54, thing 3.31. (Ultimately, this word is derived from **tab**.)
- stabigʷs belongings, (prized) possessions, treasure.
- suʔsuqʷaʔ See under suqʷaʔ.
- sula 1. located at the center of a room 2. located at the front of an assembly hall (opposite of ʔalqʷ).
- sulad place something in the center of the room.

sulayid	place [something] directly in front of someone (especially, in front of someone who is facing the center of the room) for that person.
sulatx^w	bring something toward the center of the room / the front of an assembly.
sulabid	1. located toward the center in relation to someone/something. 2. located toward the front of someone in a room.
suq^waʔ	younger sibling, younger cousin.
suʔsuq^waʔ	little younger sibling, little younger cousin.
suq^wsuq^waʔ	younger siblings, younger cousins.
- š -	
-š	Suffix for patient oriented stems [22.1a - 22.1c].
šab	dry.
šabad	dry something.
šabəb	dry something of one's own, e.g., clothing, body part.
šabalik^w	dry to preserve food.
šawʔ	bone.
šəbad	enemy.
dx^wšəʔəb	See under šut .
šəq	up in the air, high. šqabac on top of some relatively bulky object.
šəqəd	raise something.
šqil	hold in high regard.
dx^wšəq	upward.
liʔšəq	by way of the top, be on top.
tulʔšəq	from above.
šəqbid	upper side of something, at the top.
šqabac	on top (Compare tʔag^wt .)
šqabac	See under šəq .
šudx^w	See under šut .
šul(u)	pass beneath, sheathe, insert, enter cramped place.

šulud	put something beneath something, insert something into something.
šulag ^w il	crawl beneath, crawl/slither/slide into cramped place 3.42.
šulag ^w is	crawl beneath after something/someone.
šulag ^w ildubut	get self into cramped space 3.44.
šu†	see, look; appearance.
dx ^w šə†əb	look through water.
šudx ^w	see someone/something.
šudubut	able to see because view is not obstructed.
šu†albut	able to see because one's eyes are good/healthy.
šu†tx ^w	show someone (something).
šuuc	look at something.
šuucbicut	look after one's self.
šuucbid	keep an eye out for someone/something, look for someone (to come by).
šuucəb	be visited, [someone comes to] see someone.
šuuc	See under šu†.
- t -	
-t-	See under -d.
tab	As a verb stem tab is a proverb something like <i>do</i> in English. It designates an act that one knows about from context.
stab	See stab under s.
tag ^w əx ^w	hungry.
talə	money [See 14.6b.]
taq ^w u [?]	thirst, thirsty.
tə	[adjectival demonstrative 15.2].
təč	roll, təčtəč roll off, tumble down.
təjəd	roll something, roll someone over 4.84.
təd ^ʔ il	go to bed, ^ʔ təd ^ʔ il lie in bed, be in bed 4.50.
təd ^ʔ iltx ^w	put someone to bed.
təd ^ʔ is	go to bed with someone, go to bed for a specific purpose.

run (especially for a sustained period as opposed to sax ^w ab which means to run with a short burst of energy).	talawil
exercise an animal such as a horse; operate a machine.	talawilt ^w
run for a specific goal, run after something/someone.	talawis
name of Young Mink's younger brother/younger cousin.	talyika
go upstream (in a boat, by swimming, by walking along the bank) (Fish, humans and any animal can be said to tayil.)	tayil
Opposite of q ^w ic.	ti
[adjectival demonstrative 15.2].	ti ^{ʔaʔ}
this [adjectival demonstrative 15.2, 15.2f, 15.2g], this [pro-	ti ^{ʔaʔaʔ}
nominal demonstrative 15.3].	ti ^{ʔaʔaʔ}
these [15.2c].	ti ^{ʔaʔ}
this [15.2, 15.2f, 15.2g].	ti ^{ʔaʔ}
that [adjectival demonstrative 15.2, 15.2f, 15.2g], that [pro-	ti ^{ʔaʔ}
nominal demonstrative 15.3].	ti ^{ʔaʔaʔ}
those [15.2c].	ti ^{ʔaʔaʔ}
that [15.2, 15.2f, 15.2g].	ti ^{ʔaʔ}
immediately, right away; abruptly, suddenly, unexpectedly;	tilab
right there, directly [predicate adverb 17.2, 17.2a], way	
(up) 1.31.	
horse. stitigiw pony, foal. stitigiw horses.	stitigiw
See under ti ^{ʔaʔ} .	stitigiw
See under ti ^{ʔaʔ} .	stitigiw
[past 13.1, 13.5].	stitigiw
See under -tx ^w .	stitigiw
sequence of tu- + as-	stitigiw
man, male, (in appropriate contexts: son, boy).	stutab ^s
a single man among many women.	stutab ^s
men.	stutab ^s
boy.	stutab ^s
boys.	stutub ^s
sequence of tu- + d-	tud-

tudiʔ	over there, yonder [adverbial demonstrative 15.4].
tukʷud	thumping sound.
stuləkʷ	river.
tuɫ-	from [16.7a].
tuɫʔal	from [16.7a].
tus-	sequence of tu- + s- .
tuχʷ	merely, just; otherwise, or else, instead, in contrast to the usual, in contrast to the expected [predicate adverb 17.2].
-txʷ, -tu-	causative suffix for patient oriented stem [Lesson One, 5.4].

- t' -

t'agʷt	1. placed on top of something high (compare šqabac.) 2. noon.
t'at'gʷət	noon.
t'agʷtəd	put something on top of something (especially something high) [22.1b].
t'agʷtəš	put something on top of something (especially something high) [22.1b].
t'agʷagʷil	climb up onto the top of something.
t'aq't	located up inland away from the shore or river bank (opposite of ča'kʷ).
dxʷt'aq't	toward the land, toward the mountains away from the shore.
lədxʷt'aq't	going toward land, going up inland (synonym of čubə).
t'aq'tbid	located on the inland side of something.
t'as(a)	pay.
t'asad	pay for something (patient oriented). t'asatəb something is paid for.
t'asyid	pay someone. t'asyitəb pay someone for something he bought for someone.
t'as(ə)bil	pay for something (agent oriented).
t'asəbildubut	pay one's bill.
t'əqʷ-	See under t'qʷ(u)-.

t'əs	cold (weather). pədt'əs winter.
t'əsəd	warm something next to open fire, bake something.
t'əsəb	cold weather.
t'sil	weather becomes cold.
t'ilib	sing.
t'ilibt ^w	sing to someone; play a phonograph, turn on a radio, etc.
st'ilib	song.
t'isəd	arrow.
-t'q ^w ad	See under t'q ^w (u)-.
t'q ^w (u)-	break flexible object in two, snap in two.
t'əq ^w g ^w as	come apart.
t'əq ^w tx ^w	stop a song.
t'q ^w ud	break something flexible in two.
g ^w ət'q ^w ad	faint, pass out. ʔug ^w ət'q ^w ad He passed out 4.60, 4.83.
t'uʔ	hole through something (Compare luʔ a hole in but not through something.)
ʔəst'uʔ	[The cloth] has a hole in it.
t'uk ^w	go/come home.
t'uk ^w tx ^w	take/bring someone home.
t'uk ^w c	go / come home for something

- u -

-u-	[perfective prefix 10.5, 11.3].
uʔx ^w	still, yet [predicate particle 17.1 - 17.1c].
-ubuʔ	us [9.3b].
-ubuʔəd	you folks [9.3b].
-uʔ	us [9.3a].
-uʔəd	you folks [9.3a].
-us	face (See sʔacus.); head (See sʔəy'us, -qid, -ač.); upper part.

- w -

swatix ^w təd	land, region, place; country, world.
we	Syllable concluding a song which has no lexical value.
wəq'əb	cedar chest, box (in general).
swətix ^w təd	trees and plants (in general).
wiliq ^w (i)	question, ask.
wiliq ^w id	question someone, ask someone a question.
wiw'su	children.
swuq ^w ad(i?)	loon.

- x^w -

x ^w -	[reduced from of dx ^w - 'contain'].
x ^w ak ^w il	tired.
x ^w ak ^w is	tired of something, especially tired of something because of the way it affects one.
x ^w ak ^w ilbid	tired of something, especially tired of something because of one's own internal emotional or physical state.
x ^w ak ^w isbid	tired of someone for what that individual does, e.g., ʔəsx ^w ak ^w isbitəbəx ^w čəd ʔə tiʔə? ʔudsud ² əlaχad [They] are tired of me habitually visiting.
x ^w eʔe?	Sequence of syllables ending a song which have no lexical value.
x ^w əb	throw; discard; x ^w əbəbx ^w əbaladi(?)b <i>toss head from side to side.</i>
x ^w əbəd	throw someone down as in wrestling; throw something away.
x ^w əbag ^w il	throw self down.
x ^w i?	no, not. [See Lesson Eighteen for a discussion of x ^w i?.] x ^w i? k ^w [i g ^w]adsuk'awdx ^w <i>Don't bump it.</i> 1.19. x ^w i? [k ^w i] g ^w ədəx ^w (h)aʔts [It is] not good for anything. 3.18. x ^w i? [k ^w i] g ^w əstab[s k ^w i] dəx ^w (h)aʔts <i>Nothing [given was] good for anything.</i> 3.31.

	<i>x'i' k'i g'ədəx'sulag'ildubut 'ə ti'it' č'ka' Rock will not be able to get himself into the cramped space. 3.44.</i>
	<i>x'i' [k'i] g'əshəd'iw'dubuts He won't [be able to] get himself inside. 3.48.</i>
	<i>x'i' k'i g'əsbək'dx's He couldn't manage [to eat] it all. 4.23. x'i'əx' [that there was] nothing [left] now. 4.32</i>
	<i>x'i' Nothing! 4.80.</i>
	<i>x'i'əx' [k'i] g'əsč'əs There was no grease/fat. 4.76.</i>
<i>x'i'əd</i>	refuse someone/something.
<i>x'i'tx'</i>	cause not to be, not allow, not permit.
<i>x'i'il</i>	used up, all gone; (euphemism for) die.
<i>x'it'il</i>	fall off.
<i>x'it'ild</i>	drop something, knock something off.
<i>x'it'ildx'</i>	inadvertently drop something.
<i>x'it'ag'il</i>	rappel, lower one's self by means of block and tackle.
<i>x't'ad</i>	take something down from up high (such as decorations attached to the ceiling or a sign above the door of a store).
<i>x't'ag'il</i>	climb down.
<i>x't'ag'iltx'</i>	take/bring someone (or something) down.
<i>x't'ag'is</i>	climb down after something/someone.
<i>x't'-</i>	See under <i>x'it'il</i> .

- ǰ -

<i>ǰa'ǰa'</i>	1. that which is sacred and/or taboo 2. that which is great, mighty.
<i>sǰa'ǰa'</i>	in-law. <i>tsi sǰa'ǰa'</i> mother-in-law. <i>sǰa(?)ǰa'ǰa'</i> in-laws.
<i>ǰaǰa'ǰa'tx'</i>	forbid someone.
<i>ǰaǰa'ǰa'əd</i>	forbid someone, caution someone.
<i>ǰaǰ'</i>	want, like.
<i>dsǰaǰ'</i>	I want, I like.
<i>ǰaǰ'tx'</i>	want.
<i>ǰaǰ'ildx'</i>	like someone, become fond of someone.

ǰaǰ'il	1. argue, fight verbally 2. talk 'rough'.
ǰayəb	laugh.
ǰayəbdx ^w	make someone laugh.
ǰayəbid	laugh at someone.
ǰayəbtx ^w	smile at someone.
dx ^w ǰayəbus	(someone) smiles.
ǰəc	afraid, scared. (ǰəc + ax ^w > ǰəd ^z ax ^w).
ǰəcdx ^w	scare someone.
ǰəcbid	afraid of something/someone.
-ǰəcǰg ^w as	pulled/cut in two (by the cinched up belt 2.59).
ǰəč	mind, feelings, understanding [The ǰəč is located in one's chest, not the head.]
ǰəčəd	count something.
ǰəčbid	think about something.
ǰəd ^z -	See under ǰəc.
ǰət	sick. s ^t əǰ sickness. s ^t i [?] ǰ ^t mild sickness.
ǰət ^t dx ^w	hurt someone.
ǰətadad	a member of the family is sick.
ʔəsǰtad ^{is}	sickly.
ǰəǰtawil	pretend to become sick.
ʔəsǰtǰǰ ^t il	several grow sick.
ǰətətǰəč	broken hearted.
ǰətǰg ^w asbid	sick of someone, sick about something.
ǰəǰ'	bite.
ǰəǰ'əd	bite something/someone.
ǰəǰ'alik ^w	bite (into something to eat). dx ^w sǰǰ'alik ^w a biter (said of a dog).
ǰəǰ'g ^w as	come together, ǰəǰ'g ^w asuladx ^w spring season (when the ends of the year <u>come together</u>).
ǰiǰəǰ'dup	snack, lunch.
ǰiǰǰ'ustag ^w əl'	converse (lit. 'nibble each other's faces').
sǰəy'us	head (See -ač, -ǰid, -us.)
ǰib	grab, claw.

ħibid	grab/claw something/someone.
ħibħib	hawk, any bird of prey.
ħicil	angry.
ħicis	do something to someone because of anger.
ħicilbid	be angry with someone.
ħiciləb	be grumpy.
ħik^w	[See 10.8.]
ħł-	See under ħəł' .

- ħ^w -

ħ^walitut	snore.
ħ^wał'	lack control, ʔəsħ^wał' čəd I cannot manage (something), I cannot understand (something)/figure (something) out, ʔuħ^wał' čəd I was defeated, I did not get (anything) when hunting/fishing.
ħ^wał'bid	unable to manage/control something or someone [ħ ^w ał'bid is the patient oriented equivalent of ħ ^w ał' which is oriented toward the experiencer.]
ħ^wał'dx^w	get the better of someone, overcome someone.
dx^wħ^wał'ig^wəd	give up 4.24, 4.38.
ħ^wəlč	sea, ocean, saltchuck, Puget Sound.
(s)ħ^wəs	fat, grease.
ħ^wsil	grow fat, become fat.
ħ^wsild	fatten someone, fatten up an animal.
ħ^wul'	only, merely, just (this/that and nothing else), simply [predicate adverb 17.2].

- y -

sya[?]ya[?]	relative, friend. syəya[?]ya[?] relatives. cəx^wsyəya[?]ya[?] in-laws.
yaw'	only if, not until [17.2a], cəx^wyaw' that I should 3.21.

yəhaw'tx ^w	exhortation or exclamation meaning <i>to begin, to start</i> .
yayus	work.
yayusbid	work on something.
yəc-	tell, report, inform.
yəcəd	tell it, tell on someone, report it. <i>yəccut</i> tell about one's own experience.
yəcyid	report (something) for/in place of someone else.
yəcəb	give news. <i>syəcəb</i> news, a story, a report. <i>yəcəbax^w ?ə ti'it bibščəb ?i ti'it susuq^wa's, tətyika, ?ə ti'it sʔaliltubsəx^w</i> (He) reported the news about Little Mink and his little younger brother, Tutyeeakah, about their being brought ashore.
yəcəbid	make up a story about someone, tell about someone and embroider the details.
yəcəbyid	inform (someone) for/in place of someone else.
yəcəbtx ^w	inform someone, tell someone. <i>ʔuyəcəbtubicidəx^w čəd</i> Now I will tell you (as it has been told from generation to generation).
yəhub	
syəhub	traditional story, myth, <i>syəyəhub</i> [variant of <i>syəhub</i> having the same meaning].
yəhubtx ^w	recite a traditional story, <i>yəyəhubtx^w</i> [variant of <i>yəhubtx^w</i> having the same meaning].
yəl	both, pair.
yəlači'bid	use both hands on something.
yələb	uncle or aunt of either parent when that parent is deceased. (Later, when the <i>yələb</i> also dies, then the terms <i>qəsi'</i> and <i>?əpus</i> are used again instead of <i>yələb</i> .)
yəl'yələb	ancestors, parents.
yəxi	because.
yiq'(i)-	work into a tight place, 'worry' something into place.
yiq'id	make a cedar-root basket (patient oriented stem).
yiq'ib	make a cedar-root basket (agent oriented stem). <i>syiq'ib</i> basket (cover term).

yiq'ibad
yubil

awl for weaving cedar-root baskets.

1. starve (when the associated direct complement [16.3] represents a human being).
2. die (when the associated direct complement represents an animal).

APPENDIX



¹Only Central Salish has a distinct /h/ which apparently entered Camosix as a borrowing from a neighboring Wakashan language.

The Lushootseed sound system

There are thirty-seven consonants in the Lushootseed sound system (plus /m/ and /n/ which substitute for /b/ and /d/ in several speech styles). They utilize six positions and six manners of articulation.

	labial	alveolar	alveo-palatal		velar	uvular	glottal													
stops			<table border="0"> <tr> <td>c</td> <td>-</td> <td>č</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c'</td> <td>ɬ</td> <td>č'</td> </tr> <tr> <td>d^z</td> <td>-</td> <td>j</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3" style="text-align: center;">affricates</td> </tr> </table>		c	-	č	c'	ɬ	č'	d ^z	-	j	affricates			k	k ^w	q	q ^w
c	-	č																		
c'	ɬ	č'																		
d ^z	-	j																		
affricates																				
plain	p	t																		
glottalized	p'	t'			k'	k' ^w	q' q' ^w ʔ													
voiced	b	d			g	g ^w	- -													
fricatives		s	ʃ	š	-	x ^w	χ	χ ^w	h											
						labialized														
resonants																				
plain			l	y	w															
laryngealized			p	y'	w'															
			laterals																	

This consonant system is much like those in other Coast Salish languages except for the absence of nasals and the presence of a nearly complete series of voiced obstruents which are rare in Salish. The /b/ and /d/ developed from original /m/ and /n/ while both /d^z/ and /j/ came from proto /y/. Similarly, both /g/ and /g^w/ evolved from proto /w/. Nasals are lacking in no other Salish language except for the neighbouring Twana. The absence of /ɬ/ as a plain counterpart to /ɬ'/ is typically Salish;⁵⁷ and among the Central Coast

⁵⁷Only Comox Salish has a distinct /ɬ/ which apparently entered Comox as a borrowing from a neighbouring Wakashan language.

Salish languages the lack of /x/ is also common. (In most of these languages proto /x/ shifted to /š/.)

In Lushootseed there are four vowels three of which are distinctively long and short.

high	i	u	ii	uu
		ə		
low	a		aa	

This short vowel system happens to be identical to that proposed by Laurence C. Thompson for Proto Salish.⁵⁸ Vowel length (orthographically represented by geminate letters) carries a low functional load, i.e., there are few pairs of words which are distinguished solely on the basis of long versus short vowels.

Although /ə/ is the most frequently heard sound in the language, its status is problematic. In many instances it is simply a weakly stressed variant of /a/. In other cases it is clearly epenthetic. Different from other vowels it is never long.

However, in scores of roots, the only vowel is /ə/ which, depending on suffixes present, takes major stress. Therefore, it is treated in this reader as a vowel equal to the other three whether or not it is etymologically significant.

Word stress (or 'accent') is almost but not quite completely predictable; and the system of writing Lushootseed that has come to be standard ignores stress all together. A few simple statements, however, apply to the vast majority of Lushootseed words.

Except for reduplications (discussed in the second volume) prefixes are never stressed in either Northern or Southern Lushootseed. In the north, the first vowel of a word (following prefixes) is the one receiving major stress unless that vowel is ə. If it is ə, then the first non-ə in the word is the one stressed. However, if all vowels (excluding any prefixes) are ə, then it is the first ə following prefixes that bears primary stress.

(Southern Lushootseed follows a different pattern. This series of readers, however, concerns only Northern Lushootseed, particularly as spoken at Tulalip. Therefore, the more complex rules of the south are passed over here.)

⁵⁸Thompson, Laurence C. 1979. Salishan and the Northwest. Pp. 692 - 765 in *The Languages of Native North America: Historical and Comparative Assessment*. Lyle Campbell and Marianne Mithun, eds. Austin: University of Texas Press. See especially the vowels given in the chart on page 725.

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