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# A GRAMMAR OF THE NISGHA LANGUAGE

bу

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Licence-ès-Lettres, Paris (Sorbonne) 1963 M.A., Cornell University, 1965

# A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT

OF THE PEQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

GRADUATE STUDIES DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY -ACULTY OF in the Department of Linguistics DEAN We accept this dissertation as conforming to the required standard Dr. T.M. Hess Dr. T.E. Hukari Dr. G.N. O'Grady Dr. D.Mitchell Dr. L.Howard Dr. P.A.Shaw

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#### ABSTRACT

The Nisgha language, a member of the Tsimshianic family, is spoken in the Nass Valley of British Columbia. This grammar, based on recent first-hand research provides an overview of the structure of the language. The first part covers the phonology, the main features of the morphology, and most of the syntax, including regular and predicate-focused clauses and the focusing system. The second part is a detailed reference guide to word-classes, word-formation and morphophonemic rules.

The theoretical viewpoint is conservative and eclectic, but generally oriented towards functional explanation. Features of this language which are of current theoretical interest include syntactic ergativity, focusing, noun-incorporation, and reduplication.

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# ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

#### ABBREVIATIONS

A Absolutive

A-Adt Adjunct to the Absolutive pronominal argument

A-nominal Nominal having Absolutive function but not

coreferring with a pronominal argument

ADJ Adjective Adt Adjunct

ADV Adverb or Adverbial phrase

AFF Affirmative

Agt Agent

**AMB** Ambient predicate

AP Antipassive

AP.D Antipassive, Definite AP.I Antipassive, Indefinite ASP (Progressive) Aspect

**ASST** Assertive ATTR Attributive AUG Augment AUX Auxiliary

Ç any consonant

any glottalized consonant

COM Commiserative CON Connective CONTR Contrastive COR Coordinator CTL Control

DC Determinate connective

DEF Definite Medial DETR Detransitive

DIST Distal

DISTR Distributive plural
DM Determinate marker

DM.PL Plural determinate marker

DOM/DOMIN Dominative
DUB Dubitative
E Ergative

E-Adt Adjunct to the Ergative pronominal argument

EVID Evidential (Auxiliary or Postclitic)

FUT Future
HN Head noun

I/I0 Indirect Object (not prepositional)

INST Instrumental
INTS Intensive
IRR Irrealis
JUSS Jussive
IMPS Impersonal

INDEF Indefinite
IND Indirect
K any Velar

MED Indefinite Medial

MIN Minatory
MOD Modifier

Noun or Nominal

NC Non-determinate connective

NEG Negative verb

NUM Numeral

0 Object (of a transitive verb)

Obj Object (role in clause)
OFS Older Fluent Speaker

P Predicate

P<sub>A</sub> Predicate taking one (Absolutive) argument

PAI Predicate taking one (Absolutive) argument and

followed by an Indirect Object

PASc Predicate taking one (Absolutive) argument and a

Specified complement

PEA Predicate taking one Absolutive argument and one

Ergative argument

PEAI redicate taking one Absolutive argument and one

Ergative argument and followed by an Indirect Object

PEASc Predicate taking one Absolutive argument, one

Ergative argument and a Specified complement

P<sub>ESc</sub> Predicate taking one Ergative argument and a

Specified complement

Po Predicate taking no arguments

PAS Passive

PAS.I Indefinite Passive

PERF Perfective
PL Plural

PREP Preposition
PROC Proclitic
PROG Progressive
PRON Pronoun

PROX Proximal PTC Particle

Q Question--Interrogative

R any resonant

R any glottalized resonant

RECIP Reciprocal

RED Reduplication or Reduplicated segment

REFL Reflexive
REL Relative

REL.E Relative-ergative

REP Reportive
RESTR Restrictive

S Subject (of an intransitive verb)/ Any Non-Velar fricative

<b>S.</b>	someone /something
Sc	Specified complement
S.O.	someone
s.t.	something
SUB	Subordinator
Subj	Subject (of an intransitive verb)
SUFF	Unnamed suffix
<b>3.W</b> .	somewhere
TR	Transitive
V	(a) any vowel; (b) verb
<b>V</b> :	any long vowel
X	any Velar fricative
YFS	Younger Fluent Speaker
(46.1-2)	Boas 1902, p. 46, lines 1 to 2

# SYMBOLS

()	basic form of morpheme
	not present in surface phonetic form
[word]FRAME	frame; the gloss for the frame is given in subscript after the second bracket
()	(a) in morpheme: segment inserted by rule; (b) in practical orthography: optional segment
)	after reduplicated segment
-	(a) after prefix; (b) before suffix
=	(a) after proclitic; (b) before connective
==	before postclitic
+	between members of a compound
>	becomes through the operation of a single rule
<b>&gt;&gt;</b>	becomes through two or more rules
*	does not occur in isolation
**	reconstructed form

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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The present study reflects my own views of the structure of the Nisgha language, and I alone am responsible for any errors.

#### INTRODUCTION

0.1. PHYSICAL AND CULTURAL SITUATION OF THE NISGHA PEOPLE. The Nisgha<sup>1</sup> people presently live in four villages on the lower Nass River, an area which they claim to have inhabited 'from time immemorial'. Long isolated by geography from too much contact with encroaching 'civilization', they have managed to escape the worst of the consequences frequently attendant upon such contact, and to maintain themselves as a viable society, with a distinct culture which has been a source of strength in their dealings with the dominant society.

Situated just North of the Skeena, the Nass River flows through a narrow, mountainous vailey, meeting the sea roughly at the tip of the Alaska Panhandle. Many legends attribute present features of the valley to the feats of the culture hero, txe msim 2 Treemsim. But Treemsim is not held responsible for a more recent feature of the valley, the Aiyansh lava flow, the result of the eruption of a small volcano in the eighteenth century. In 1775 the Spanish captain Bodega y Quadra, reaching the mouth of the Nass River, about fifty miles away from the volcano, found the area extremely hot, and illuminated at night (Pethick 1976:50). The lava filled the valley of a tributary of the Nass River, disrupting local drainage patterns and creating a lake; the river was pushed to one side of its valley, forming the canyon which gives its name to the smallest village, Canyon City. A few miles up the river, the village of Aiyansh was relocated in the sixties after a disastrous flood. Unlike the other villages, which are right by the water, on the North bank of the Nass River, New Aiyansh is built on a hillside a couple of miles away from the South bank, commanding a magnificent view of the lava beds and the surrounding mountains. Further downstream are Greenville, at the limit of the tide, and Kincolith, at the river mouth. Access to the isolated valley was by sea, and Kincolith was the gateway, until a logging mad linked Aiyansh to Terrace in the sixties. Nowadays Kincolith remains the only Nisgha village not accessible by road.

Pre-contact Nisgha culture was oriented almost entirely towards the river. which is home to salmon runs including all species of Pacific salmon, and to a large colichan run. Both salmon and colichan were formerly caught and preserved for subsistence, and the enormous oolichan run also provided the Nisgha with their major trading commodity, oolichan 'grease'. This oil rendered from the oolichan was formerly indispensable to the survival of the native peoples of the area, not only because of its high nutritional value, but also because of its role in preserving other foods, especially berries. Nass River grease was prized by other tribes for quality as well as quantity. During oolichan season, about mid-March to early April, the lower river was the site of intense activity as thousands of people. Nisgha and Tsimshian, 3 gathered to harvest and process colichans. Other groups, including Gitksans, travelled from the Interior on the Grease Trails.4 loaded with furs, hides and other products to exchange for the valuable oil. Turn-of-the-century accounts (e.g. Collison) tell of thousands of people congregating at Fishery Bay, a flat area in a bend of the river, below Greenville. Photographs of the place from the same period show dozens of canoes beached below an area thick with shacks and bristling with hundreds of vertical colichan-drying frames several meters high. Even though the site was only occupied for a few weeks each year, a church was built, to take advantage of the concentration of the population.

Modern economic activity includes subsistence fishing (salmon, oolichan, crab), commercial fishing (salmon, halibut, herring), seasonal cannery work in Prince Rupert, some logging in the employ of large companies or in small-scale commercial ventures by the bands themselves, local construction and maintenance, small stores and businesses, band administration, tribal organization, education, and most recently health care. The Nisghas have been successful in taking over from the Department of Indian Affairs many functions in local administration, and the creation of School District No. 92 in 1975, overseeing the elementary and secondary education of about 600 children each year, has given employment to large numbers of Nisgha people at all levels, from janitor to separintendent, including a number of teachers of the

## Nisgha language.

The Nisghas have always been a majority in the valley. The geographical situation and features of the area make it unsuitable for agriculture, and 'white' settlement has been minimal. Some would-be settlers were attracted to the area by misleading advertising shortly before the first world war, and their presence gave rise to some friction as they took over pieces of land, but most of them remained only a few years. Canneries were also built at various sites on the river, but none of them lasted very long. Nowadays a few settlers and loggers are concentrated on a plateau a few miles North of New Aiyansh, where their children go to school with a majority of Nisgha children, and where they shop in the band-owned and operated supermarket. Within each village the largest non-Nisgha group is that constituted by schoolteachers, a small and mobile population, which now includes a steadily growing number of Nisghas. The clergy is also almost entirely Nisgha. Except for the missionaries in earlier times, the few non-Nisgha individuals living permanently in the valley have had very little impact on Nisgha social life, and while adjustment to the new conditions has not been without its share of problems. Nisgha society has been able to maintain its own structures and traditions.

The Nisghas are divided into four 'tribes' or exogamic clans, the Wolf, Raven/Frog, Killerwhale and Eagle, each of which owns a number of chiefly names, or hierarchically ranked titles. The highest titles are also identified with territories within the valley. Although this geographical link is of reduced importance in the modern environment, where tree farm licences do not respect chiefly territories, its economic significance is not: a chief has to be able to look after the welfare of his people. Succession to a chiefly name is matrilineal, from a man to his sister's son; it is orderly but not automatic: high birth is not enough to guarantee a position to an heir who is incompetent, unworthy, or who lives permanently away from his people; a lower-ranking but more capable and deserving individual will be appointed instead. A high-ranking name may also be held in abeyance for years until its rightful

heir has demonstrated his merit and competence; on the other hand, a minor chief can raise his rank somewhat by particularly meritorious activities. These measures ensure that only responsible persons enjoying the respect of the community accede to the highest chiefly positions. Conversely, most responsible positions in administration, church affairs and education are held by high-ranking persons. Although succession and 'rising through the ranks' occur only on the maternal side, there is a complex system of mutual obligations to and from the paternal side as well as between spouses; this means that an individual's duties and privileges extend to clans other than his own, making Nisgha society an extremely cohesive and close-knit one.

The Protestant missions of the last quarter of the nineteenth-century had a deep and lasting effect among the Nisghas. Two Anglican missionaries were responsible for the foundation of the village of Kincolith. Following the example of William Duncan, who had removed his Tsimshian converts from 'heathen influences' by taking them from Fort Simpson to Metlakatla, they escorted a number of converts from Greenville down the river to Kincolith, until then only a seasonal shellfish-gathering site. The new Christian village welcomed converts from other areas, and the missionary Collison was instrumental in taking in the last survivors of a group of Tsetsauts, Athapaskans who had been on the losing side in a series of wars. The village was also a stopping-point for ships, and this is how Boas was able to spend a few weeks there in 1894, studying both the Nisgha and Tsetsaut languages. However, as a non-Christian interested in 'heathen' customs, the doors of the mission remained closed to him, which made his stay in Kincolith rather uncomfortable both materially and socially (Rohner).

The energetic Anglican missionary J.B.McCullagh, who spent almost forty years (1883-1921) in the old village of Aiyansh, left a lasting imprint. Like Duncan in Metlakatla, he sought to equip his flock to survive as an economically self-sufficient Christian community, by teaching them a number of trades as well as how to live in an English-style village. His prolific writings in English,

written mostly for fund-raising purposes and addressed to a British audience, present a lively and colorful if biased picture of Nisgha life at the time. McCullagh is especially important from a linguistic point of view because of his extensive pedagogical work (he taught reading and writing in Nisgha before attempting to teach English), his religious translations and his innovations in spelling; unfortunately none of this work was kept up by his successors.

Today the Anglican church is an important force in the valley and a dependable ally of the Nisghas among the larger society. In the three largest villages,<sup>5</sup> the Anglican clergy is no longer imported from the larger community but drawn from the local people. Most church services are in both Nisgha and English, and some elders are involved in religious translations.

Finally, no survey of modern Nisgha culture is complete without mention of their tenacious and often lonely struggle, dating back to 1873, to validate their claim to aboriginal title to their ancestral lands; the 1973 Supreme Court decision on the Nisgha question is part of modern Canadian history, marking a turning-point in the government's attitude towards the native peoples of Canada. At the time of writing, preliminary negotiations between the Nisghas and the Canadian government have been in progress for several years. 6

O.2. LINGUISTIC AFFILIATION OF THE NISGHA LANGUAGE. The Nisghas are proud of the fact that they have their own language, not spoken by any other people, but they are aware of others that are similar to their own and that they understand or can learn with more or less difficulty. These linguistic relatives of Nisgha (N) are Gitksan (G) on the upper Skeena and Tsimshian proper or Coast Tsimshian (CT) on the lower Skeena and down the Coast. Southern Tsimshian (ST) was formerly spoken further South, at Klemtu. All of these related forms of speech are called by their own speakers Sim<sup>2</sup>álkax 'real language' (N. G sim'algaz. CT sm'algyaz), as opposed to the neighboring languages Tlingit, Tsetsaut (now extinct) and other Athapaskan languages, Haida and Heiltsuk.

Until fairly recently only Nisgha and Coast Tsimshian were known to the linguistic world, through Boas' 1911 grammar, which treated them as dialects of a single 'Tsimshian' language. That they are in fact separate languages was shown by Rigsby & Dunn (1967) after fieldwork in a number of communities and has been confirmed by later research. Although there has been no systematic comparison since Boas, anyone familiar with one of the languages finds the other significantly different. However, rather than being faulted for lumping the two together, Boas should rather be commended for clearly distinguishing them; the terminological question about language and dialect is secondary in the context in which he wrote.

Comments from other observers around the same period give a very confusing picture of the linguistic situation. Thus one encounters comments to the effect that the Nisghas speak Tsimshian, or that the Gitksans speak Nisgha, or Tsimshian (Collison). One needs to consider the sociolinguistic situation in which these observations were made. Around the mid-nineteenth century, the establishment of the Hudson's Bay trading post at Fort Simpson in Tsimshian territory (replacing an earlier, ill-fated attempt close to the site of the future village of Kincolith) gave the Tsimshians, who were already in a geographical situation to be the intermediaries between different groups, added advantage and prestige. In this trading post visited by people speaking languages from at least four different language families. all the Sim'algaz languages would strike an outsider as very similar in comparison with Haida or Tlingit, just as in a Mediterranean port, French, Italian and Spanish could be lumped together as a group distinct from Greek or Arabic. On the other hand, any visitors speaking a form of Sim? alkax sim algaz would have an advantage over others who did not, as they could more easily understand, and adapt their own speech to, this more useful and prestigious language.8 Thus, Nisghas and Gitksans travelling in Tsimshian territory would be influenced by Tsimshian speech, while Gitksans who journeyed to the Nass River overland every spring, in order to be allowed to share in the bounty of the Nass River, would seek to imitate Nisgha speech. Boas' 1902 Nass River Texts are sprinkled with snatches of speech which are purportedly in Tsimshian: in fact, most of them are in 'mock-Tsimshian'—a few phonological details are changed to give the words a Tsimshian character, while the syntactic details remain Nisgha. Today, many elderly Nisghas have some knowledge of Tsimshian as a result of fishing and cannery work in the Prince Rupert area.

Using the single word 'Tsimshian' in the linguistic and anthropological literature has had some unfortunate consequences: it has caused confusion between 'Tsimshian proper', the language of the people who call themselves Tsimshian, and the family which includes this language; and it has led some scholars to interpret the -aa sequence as an adjectival suffix, attached to a putative noun 'Tsimshi' (Hymes ms., Pinnow 1968, 1985)<sup>9</sup>. In fact the word is composed of the two morphemes: Ĉim 'in' ts'im, and CT syan, N san 'Skeena River' Saa. Following the general trend which uses different names for single languages and for families, it seems preferable to use the term Tsimshianic <sup>10</sup>, coined on the analogy of German: Germanic, to designate the language family of which Nisgha is a member: Tsimshian and Nisgha are both Tsimshianic languages in the same way as German and English are both Germanic languages.

The family is an isolate among the languages of the Northwest Pacific Coast. Although tentative attempts, beginning with Sapir 1921, have been made to link it with the Penutian family in Oregon and California, no satisfactory proof has been adduced. 11

The language/dialect question does arise in the case of Nisgha and Gitksan, which are very close in lexicon, morphology and especially syntax. <sup>12</sup> Whether the two should be considered separate languages or dialects of the same language depends partly on a definition of language and dialect which should also include the speakers' attitudes. Rigsby 1986 gives an excellent presentation of the case for considering Nisgha and Gitksan separate languages, rather than a single language 'Nass-Gitksan'. Together the two can be designated as Interior

Tsimshianic. The almost extinct Southern Tsimshian, discovered by Dunn (1976), seems very close to Coast Tsimshian. Together they can be referred to as Coastal Tsimshianic.

In general, Nisgha speakers are proud of the way they speak and frown upon features and expressions from 'up the line' (the old overland telegraph line, which crossed Gitksan territory), while some Gitksans appear to consider that the Nisghas speak better than they do. 13 This may be related to the formerly dominant socio-economic situation of the Nisghas as the controllers of the riches of the Nass River.

As has happened with other languages of the area, the Nisgha speech community has shrunk under the influence of English, especially as imposed by the residential school system, and at present there are hardly any monolingual speakers; even persons in their eighties have some knowledge of English, although they are monolingual for practical purposes. Although no systematic survey has been made, it seems that most people presently in their sixties and above are more comfortable in Nisgha than in English and communicate mostly in Nisgha with those of their own age; many can read and write Nisgha using the old missionary alphabet (see below); those in their fifties and forties display varying degrees of bilingualism, depending on their family circumstances (e.g. degree of contact with elderly Nisgha-speaking relatives) and whether they have spent much time away from the valley; they tend to speak English among themselves, but engage in much code-switching. 14 Adults below these ages tend to have a mostly passive knowledge of the language, again with wide individual variations. Finally, the time is long past when an outsider's children were learning Nisgha before English, as happened with the children of the missionary Collison, who preferred to speak Nisgha among themselves; with extremely rare exceptions the younger generations are monolingual in English. Efforts are now being made to reverse this trend by encouraging the public and private use of Nisgha and teaching the language at all levels in the schools.

- 0.3. EXTANT SOURCES ON THE LANGUAGE:
- 0.3.A. NON-SCHOLARLY SOURCES:
- 0.3.A.1. EARLY SOURCES. Early Nisgha data, mostly in the form of personal and place-names, haphazardly transcribed, are scattered in a number of documents (e.g. those quoted in Raunet). No attempt was made at spelling standardization until the missionary period.
- 0.3.A.2. THE LOCAL RELIGIOUS AND PEDAGOGICAL TRADITIONS. The Anglican missionary J.B.McCullagh, who taught school in Aiyansh through the medium of the Nisgha language, started to write it using the Tsimshian spelling then in use at the Fort Simpson mission, and soon introduced improvements of his own. This modified alphabet, which he used for most of his Nisgha writings, is still known to a number of elderly people. McCullagh was a prolific writer and translator. His English writings include numerous snatches of Nisgha conversation, and in his bilingual newspaper, which he called Hagaga 'the key' (haqaqa Hak'ak'a'a), he included language and spelling lessons in Nisgha and English. His religious translations are extensive. Unfortunately several important manuscripts, including a Nisgha grammar, were lost through fire or flood. A few pages of his notebooks have survived, with etymological speculations noting apparent resemblances between Nisgha words and Greek or Hebrew roots.

Most of McCullagh's work was printed locally on the Aiyansh mission's printing press. Towards the end of his life he decided on a drastic reform of the alphabet he had been using, devising new symbols for the non-English sounds of Nisgha, 15 ordering special fonts from England and training typesetters to use them. The proud possessors of this new skill apparently guarded it so jealously that no one else had the opportunity to learn even the new alphabet (totally unfamiliar symbols for most of the consonants made self-study very difficult). Only a few fragments of written text remain from this belated attempt.

Although McCullagh's transcriptions in his various alphabets are not always very reliable, his Nisgha writings are nevertheless invaluable sources on the language for a person who can decipher the alphabets and retrieve the words. A more recent (1961) publication in the older McCullagh ulphabet is a collection of religious hymns. 16

After Bruce Rigsby taught a few persons a new alphabet (2.4.), a Nisgha Anglican priest, the Rev. Hubert McMillan used it to produce *Liligidim Amadalk'askw*, <sup>17</sup> a Nisgha version of the Anglican liturgy. Other religious translations are in progress, mostly under the direction of the Canadian Bible Society.

The Rigsby alphabet has also been adopted by School District 92 (Nisgha) for all its Nisgha pedagogical works. Most of these consist of teaching materials which I helped produce. For more general reference, a small word-file was started by Linda Walsh, who spent a year in Aiyansh in 1976-77 and whose position I took over; it was greatly expanded over the following years, incorporating Rev. McMillan's compilation of about 1,000 words from his work with Bruce Rigsby, and examples were added for each word. After checking with a group of elders, 18 this material was later gathered into the Hahiimagoohisgum-algazhi Nisga'a / Nisgha Phrase Dictionary (1986), which gives examples for approximately 5000 Nisgha words, in a phrasebook format complemented by Nisgha and English indexes. The sentences cover most of the grammatical constructions in the language. Although this work cannot be guaranteed to be free from errors, it is the most extensive and reliable source of data on the language to date.

## 0.3.B. SCHOLARLY SOURCES:

0.3.B.1. ETHNOLOGICAL STUDIES: Boas' <u>Tsimshian Texts</u> 1902 is a collection of Nisgha legends gathered in Kincolith in 1894, in Nisgha with both free and interlinear English translation. It is a very valuable source for a person who

knows the language and can restore the text behind the many mistakes of transcription and interpretation; for an outsider, the lack of consistency and the inadequacy of the translation (especially of the interlinear translation) sometimes makes for very puzzling or misleading data.

Barbeau assembled a large number of legends for the National Museum of Canada<sup>19</sup>, with the help of William Beynon, a half-Tsimshian. A large proportion of this material consists of Nisgha stories since Beynon settled in Gitlakdamix (Old Aiyansh) with his second wife, a Nisgha woman. They are recorded in English, but contain numerous personal and local names and some Nisgha lexical items. Large amounts of Nisgha data, especially names, are also contained in Barbeau's study of Totem Poles (1929), mixed in with Gitksan data. More extensive Nisgha and Gitksan texts are given in his ethnomusical study of songs (1951), made from his own wax cylinder recordings now kept in the National Museum of Man. Unfortunately, Barbeau's transcriptions and translations are unreliable, and the use of several different orthographies in the same work can be confusing. Beynon's transcriptions sometimes use Tsimshian equivalents rather than the Nisgha terms (ex. CT yaak for N yúkw 'settlement feast' 20 yukw).

On the occasion of the visit of a Nisgha delegation to Ottawa in 1910, Sapir interviewed one of the delegates and wrote data-packed articles on Nass River Society (which gives a large number of names), and Nass River terms of relationship. His transcriptions and translations are reasonably good (much better than Barbeau's) though not perfect. Manuscript notes in the hand of Wilson Duff, kept in the National Museum of Man, appear to be a re-elicitation of Sapir's list of names.

A more recent source, though unpublished, is McNeary 1974, revised 1976, which gives an overview of Nisgha society and living conditions.<sup>21</sup> McNeary cites a number of Nisgha words and phrases. They are, as he explains, indeed recognizable to a person knowing Nisgha, but the transcriptions are not very

reliable and the translations are often also inaccurate.

0.3.B.2. LINGUISTIC STUDIES. Boas' 1895 report on his 1894 trip has a few pages on the Nisgha language, which are mostly of historical interest. Boas' 1911 Tsimshian is a grammar of both Nisgha and Coast Tsimshian, giving a general overview of these languages, for which it is still the standard reference, as there has not been any other work of comparable scope. 22 Valuable as it is, it is not as reliable as one would wish it to be; it suffers from the conditions under which the data were obtained and from the lack of further checking by the author, who never had any more contact with Nisgha speakers. The parts dealing with Nisgha are based in very large part on the 1902 Nass River texts. obtained in Kincolith in 1894, through the slow dictation method, and they have the same limitations. Boas gives a generally adequate description of the most frequent features of the narrative style, but is less good, if not silent, on the conversational parts, because of lack of comparative data of a similar or contrastive nature. In addition, the work covers only a portion of the grammar. The syntax section in particular is very limited, as Boas covers mostly CT syntax, which has more complex surface features.

Rigsby's 1975 article on 'Nass-Gitksan' syntax is the first discussion of the syntax of these languages since Boas. Although the examples are in Gitksan, the discussion applies also to the Nisgha equivalents.<sup>23</sup>

The writing of this grammar has been preceded by several unpublished articles on various aspects of Nisgha structure and evolution (see bibliography). Three of these have been used as the basis for research on Nisgha by others: Tarpent 1981, 1982 by Belvin 1984, 1985 and Jelinek 1986, and Tarpent 1983b by Thompson 1984. Those studies have not added new material, but mostly attempted to recast Tarpent into different models. The descriptions in this grammar should answer most of the issues raised or implied in these papers.

## 0.4. THE PRESENT STUDY.

0.4.A. CONDITIONS OF RESEARCH. This study is based almost entirely on recent first-hand research done as part of my employment as language curriculum developer for School District 92 (Nisgha). Most of my contact with Nisgha speakers has been in Aiyansh, where I lived and worked, from May 1977 to July 1980, during the summer of 1982, and again from September 1983 to the present. I was in daily contact with Nisgha speakers, mostly teachers of the Nisgha language, 26 but at some times also Nisgha elders. 27 In some years, part of my duties involved regular travel to the other District schools in Greenville and Kincolith, especially in 1979-80 and 1984-85. In addition to these contacts arising from my employment, I attended numerous public functions such as church services, weddings, funerals, settlement feasts, Nisgha Tribal Conventions, and other occasions, mostly in Aiyansh and Canyon City, and also occasionally in the other villages. Speeches and prayers in Nisgha are a prominent part of most of these functions, the most important of which are also attended by persons who travel from other villages. During the early days of my learning the language I also attended a number of meetings of the Aiyansh ACW (Anglican Church Women), a church organization comprising most of the older women of the village, whose meetings, involving prayers and singing as well as church business and socializing, were held almost entirely in the Nisgha language. Knowing my desire to learn Nisgha, these ladies made a point of addressing me in their language, a custom I have kept up with some of them. 28 In November 1982 I also conducted a two-day Nisgha literacy workshop in Kincolith; the regular participants were observed by a group of elders who on the second day kept up a steady stream of comments and suggestions in Nisgha.

The working conditions of a linguist in this kind of position are quite different from those of a fieldworker with limited time available; they are closer to that of the missionary faced with a new language. I came to the Nisgha language without any preconceptions as to its structure, and I approached it with a practical goal in mind: to teach it to children. To me, this practical goal meant

that I too had to acquire a speaking knowledge of the language, not just a linguist's abstract knowledge. I felt free to go about acquiring the language in whatever way seemed appropriate, rather than according to the rituals prescribed as field methods. The academic goal of describing the language came much later, after I had acquired a fair amount of language and developed basic intuitions about it.

From the beginning I had the advantage of dealing with persons who could write their language; some had been taught by Bruce Rigsby, who devised the practical Nisgha alphabet in official use (2.4.), and others by Linda Walsh. A person who can write, even with some hesitation, and who can check the general accuracy of a transcription, is not likely to let the linguist new to the language get away with confusing such essentials as long and short stressed vowels, or velars and uvulars.

Traditional field methods give the active role to the linguist, and require little involvement on the part of the consultant. In the present case, I tried to give my consultants as active a role as possible. Even though they were bilingual, I tried to avoid asking for translations, which are inevitably influenced by the language of the original, and to rely on other methods of eliciting natural-sounding language. Over the years, the Nisgha language teachers who were my main consultants have been involved in writing picture captions, dialogues and sketches on various subjects, in adapting children's books into Nisgha, and in correcting and updating the Boas stories, not to mention the many opportunities they gave me of hearing and participating in spontaneous conversation. These consultants and a few others also attended my Nisgha Linguistics course given locally in 1983-84, where a number of (to me) doubtfut points were clarified.

Transcribing tapes of running speech is a very difficult task for the linguist new to a language: this task was beautifully handled by some of my consultants,<sup>29</sup> and I was able to study a number of tapes of speeches and stories

with a written transcription in hand. I have also had access to translations of religious literature by Rev. Hubert McMillan and Mr. Harold Wright, who are both Nisgha elders.

Boas' 1911 grammar, Rigsby's 1975 article, and grammatical notes on the language from both Rigsby and Walsh, were only of real use to me at a later date, once I had acquired enough of the language to be able to interpret and evaluate other linguists' descriptions in the light of my own internalized knowledge.

**0.4.B.** INTENT, SCOPE AND THEORETICAL POSITION. The present study is intended to present a general and balanced overview of the structure of the Nisgha language in a manner intelligible to all linguists regardless of their theoretical orientation.

The language is one of the least known of the British Columbia languages still spoken, and it must be considered on the endangered list as most of its speakers are now at least middle-aged. The only comprehensive reference at present is Boas 1911, which is incomplete, often misleading and sometimes wrong. There is a pressing need for a more accurate and complete description, not just for filling out Boas' or recasting it into modern terms.

A new grammar then should not need any more justification, but it is especially timely because the language is of a type that is attracting more and more theoretical attention lately, as it has ergative syntax. Ergativity, especially syntactic ergativity, is a problem poorly addressed by the main linguistic theories, mostly because it is not commonly found in the European languages familiar to the majority of linguists, from which the most influential theories have been derived. So-called ergative languages seem to upset many assumptions about the universal applicability of some current models (Transformational Grammar, Relational Grammar)—indeed, recently some (Marantz, Levin) have sought to give the term 'ergative' a new and divergent

meaning, in order to bring it into line with a theory. Such controversies cannot be resolved on the basis of an incomplete and faulty description such as Boas'. At the same time, to concentrate specifically on this particular feature in Nisgha would be inappropriate in the absence of a more comprehensive description of the language which gives it its proper background and perspective. Each phenomenon must be understood in the context of the whole, and aspects of a language which have special theoretical interest need to be replaced within their general context, just as theories must be tested against a background of well-established facts in as many languages as possible.

At the present moment, linguistic theory is in the state of flux characteristic of a transitional period, with multiple theories competing and rapidly evolving. Although some theories are better-known than others, there is no longer an accepted paradigm. No current theory is comprehensive enough for a whole grammar: each focuses on certain points which it considers crucial, to the neglect of others; closely following a particular theoretical framework then leads to overemphasis on certain points and utter silence on others, whether one tries to justify or modify the theory. A grammar of a little-known language which seeks to follow a very specific model then runs grave risks of leaving aside some important aspects of the language which are not considered in the theory, while giving undue prominence to others which may be peripheral or even non-existent in the language. Indeed, some facts considered crucial to the theory may not exist at all in some languages. The languages of the Pacific Northwest in particular are very poorly served by the major existing linguistic theories, which are Eurocentric, and especially influenced by the formal and categorial structure of English, 31

It seemed best then to adopt a very conservative theoretical viewpoint, using concepts which are now considered basic to the formation of any linguist, and avoiding those which are closely identified with specific contemporary models. Particular attention has been paid to two principles which have been much too neglected by most modern theories, although they are evident in older, more

### traditional grammars:

- language is used as a means of communication between human beings. The structure of language is not totally independent, but is intimately linked to the need of expressing certain concepts. Sentences are not uttered in a vacuum, but as part of meaningful discourse. It is crucial to recognize the pragmatic function, as well as the structure, of different types of clauses relative to each other. The various levels of language are not just hierarchically ordered, but interrelated, and are analyzed separately only for convenience.
- the present form of a language is the result of centuries of historical development. Its parts have not evolved at the same rate. In some cases, different stages or layers of development may be recognized. Nevertheless speakers must not be presumed to be aware of this development either consciously or unconsciously.

A grammar has been defined as 'a theory of a language' (Chomsky). A grammar is also a book written in order to impart to a reader some knowledge of the organization of a language. Even though the various aspects of a language are interrelated, the presentation cannot be other than linear and sequential, and it must be done with the convenience of the reader in mind. After a general overview of the main features of the language, the first part of this grammar deals with the phonology, then the formal features and categories of the morphology, before a presentation of clausal syntax. The second part is a detailed reference to word-classes, morphemes and morphophonemic rules.

### NOTES

- The spellings Nisgha and Nishga are both in use. Nishga is the missionary spelling representing the pronunciation [NISGa<sup>?A</sup>]. The sh represents a sound intermediate between Eng. [s] and [f], which could just as well be represented by s alone, while g represents the voiced uvular stop [G], contrasting with the palatal [gy] represented by gi. The spelling Nisgha, apparently the result of an error, seems in better conformity with actual pronunciation since the digraph gh is often used to represent a voiced velar or uvular (as in Maghreb or Afghan). This is the spelling used by School District \*92 (Nisgha).
- Within the text, Nisgha words or morphemes are given first in a phonemic transcription, then (after a gloss if necessary) in the Nisgha practical orthography devised by Bruce Rigsby and adopted by Nisgha organizations. in italics. In a few cases I give a gloss in French as well as in English, where French seems to come closer than English to the meaning of the Nisgha utterance.
- 3 Apparently the Tsimshian were allowed certain sites in return for payment of a tax (Mr. Bert McKay).
- <sup>4</sup> Trails along which the Interior peoples journeyed to obtain oolichan grease from Coastal peoples.
- <sup>5</sup> In Canyon City, considered too small and too close to Aiyansh for an Anglican mission of its own, the Salvation Army was able to establish itself. Relations between the two churches are at present most cordial.
- <sup>6</sup> For more detailed information about Nisgha history and society, see McNeary 1974, revised 1976, for an anthropological overview of both modern and traditional conditions, Patterson 1982 for religious history, Raunet 1984 for the land claims. A more specialized work, now somewhat dated in its information, is

Sapir's Nass River Society which explains the tribal organization and the system of hereditary names. For the missionary period and point of view, Collison 1915, edited and published as Lillard 1981, has a long section on Kincolith, and is less outrageously biased than Moeran 1922, which relies heavily on McCullagh's writings to describe the story of the Aiyansh mission. Long letters written by Boas document the picturesque but uncomfortable conditions of his stay in Kincolith (Rohner 1969).

- Most of this research (by Rigsby on Nisgha and Gitksan, Tarpent on Nisgha, Jean Mulder on CT) is still unpublished.
- 8 cf. Collison: the Haidas speak Tsimshian, but the Tsimshians do not speak Haida.
- <sup>9</sup> In addition, it sometimes causes practical problems for the Nisghas in their negotiations with the government, since they insist on their linguistic and cultural identity while being told that scholars only recognize a single 'Tsimshian' identity.
- 10 I coined this term in Tarpent 1983a (before discovering Dunn 1979a's *Tsimshianian*, which I find less euphonious) and have used it ever since. It has also been adopted in Rigsby 1986.
- 11 This is probably because of the paucity of adequate information available on the Tsimshianic family. All of these attempts have been made by specialists of the Penutian languages, relying mostly on Boas' grammar for their Tsimshianic data. The picture may change when the question is approached from the Tsimshianic side.
- Thus the Anglican missionaries McCullagh among the Nisghas and Price among the Gitksans divided between themselves the work of translating the Gospels, producing texts designed to be used by both groups. In spite of an orthography which minimizes the phonological differences between the two,

their texts are still recognizably Nisgha or Gitksan.

- 13 This has been my impression from talking with Gitksans who have made remarks to me along the lines of 'Oh, you speak Nisgha, I must make an effort to speak well when I talk to you.'
- switching back and forth from one language to another during a conversation or even a sentence.
- 15 Perhaps under the indirect influence of Boas, of whom he had at least heard.
- 16 Unfortunately this transcription omits most of McCullagh's diacritics and is also full of other speiling errors. It is an aid to memory for persons who already know the hymns, rather than a real source.
- 17 lìlkit-m ?ama tálqaskw lit. Feast of praise. Would now be spelled lilgidim amaadalk askw.
- In the summer of 1982, Mrs. Rosie Robinson, Mrs. Verna Williams and I prepared lists of doubtful points to be submitted to the group of elders, including Rev. Hubert McMillan, Mr. Joshua Grandison, Mr. Basil Wright, Mrs. Mary McMillan, Mrs. Pauline Robinson and Mrs. Lucy Williams, all of Aiyansh. Mrs. Robinson and Mrs. Williams then took turns asking the questions, so that all the sessions could be conducted entirely in Nisgha. Later, Rev. Hubert McMillan, Rev. Charlie Swanson of Greenville, and Mr. Harold Wright of Aiyansh went over the entire first draft. Mr. Harold Wright also made a number of important contributions to the second draft.
- 19 This material has recently been published by the museum.
- Most Nisghas object to the use of the term 'potlatch', which brings to mind the Kwakiutl custom involving destruction of property, for what they call a

'settlement feast', a public event where they 'settle over' a deceased person, passing on his title to his heir (and that person's title to the next heir, and so on) and gathering and redistributing large sums of money as well as clothing and household articles, according to precise traditional rules.

- McNeary's main consultant was Eli Gosnell, now deceased (1978), who was one of the most respected and knowledgeable of Nisgha elders.
- For CT, Dunn 1979 is quite selective in its coverage. For Gitksan, Rigsby has completed an extensive draft of a Gitksan grammar (1986).
- During Rigsby's stay in Victoria in 1981, he gave me access to his Nisgha field-notes gathered in Aiyansh in 1968 and 1973, and to his Gitksan field-notes, as well as to a few pages of manuscript notes by Wayne Suttles, obtained from Kincolith speakers in the 1960's. I also thank him for many hours of informal discussion on the Nisgha and Gitksan languages.
- <sup>24</sup> See bibliography under Tarpent. Some of the materials and analyses in these papers have been used here, however no part of this grammar is a verbatim copy of any of these papers. As most of them have been circulated and been used in work by others, it may be appropriate to summarize major areas of resemblances and differences between this and my previous work.
- Syntax: The presentation of surface features, including Predicate-downshifting and Focusing of non-predicative elements, and the recognition of the Control suffix -\(\pa\)- (called Ergative in later papers until Tarpent (T) 1986) essentially agrees with T 1981a; however, the present description also takes into account underlying features not always present on the surface. T 1981a did not recognize the focusing of Indirect Objects; this was included in the amended versions (1982, 1984) but the difference between Specified Complement (referred to as Quoted Object) and Focused Indirect Object was not fully worked out. Following Rigsby 1975, predicate-focused clauses were

called 'independent (order) clauses' and regular clauses 'dependent (order) clauses' until this study. The overall view of the predicate phrase as including pronominal arguments has been influenced by Jelinek 1986.

- The problem of *t* shaped morphemes: in T 1981a the singular DM t was assumed to be a connective, the occurrence of which depended on syntactic conditions; its relationship with the plural tip and its underlying presence after the determinate connective = S were first presented in T 1986. The underlying presence of the 3 suffix -t on all predicates (except ambient) in regular clauses, and its loss before the connectives = S and = 1 through Deaffrication were not recognized before this study.
- Plural formation, reduplication: this study gives a tighter presentation of the analyses presented in T 1980 and T 1983b but differs from them only in minor details. The more speculative aspects as to the probable history of certain highly irregular or no longer plural forms have been omitted here. An error in T 1983b resulted from the inadvertent replacement of the term 'syllabic' used in T1980 by the term 'resonant', resulting in incorrect rules for some of the partially reduplicated forms (as was made abundantly clear in Thompson 1984); here the correct original term 'syllabic' has been restored.
- <u>Possession</u>: the presentation here follows T 1986, incorporating the underlying presence of the DM t noted only in a footnote to that paper.
- <u>Postclitics</u>: the presentation here follows the main lines of T 1981c and 1984 and uses some of the same examples; however, the labels and the glosses for the various proclitics sometimes differ. A major difference is in the treatment of ==Sin -sin, which in those papers was paired with ==Qat -gat and wrongly glossed, while ==Sit -sih1 was not included. When Tarpent 1984 was discussed at the XIXth ICSNL, a comment by Eloise Jelinek put me on the track of the meaning of ==Sit -sih1.

- Belvin and Thompson suffer from inadequate or poorly recorded data, with many errors of transcription and interpretation. As also in Jelinek, some incorrect or misleading statements can be attributed to lack of a more substantial background and perspective on the language.
- The following persons are or were involved in teaching the Nisgha language during my stay in the valley: in Aiyansh, in alphabetical order: Mrs. Audrey A. Gosnell, Mrs. Nita Morven, Mrs. Rosie Robinson, Mrs. Verna Williams; other Nisgha language teachers with whom I had fewer contacts were Mrs. Audrey McKay (from Greenville, but a teacher in Aiyansh) and Mrs. Shirley Adams of Aiyansh, Mrs. Rebecca Angus in Greenville, and Mrs. Lydia Barton in Kincolith.
- At the beginning of my stay in Aiyansh I had a number of sessions with the Rev. Hubert McMillan, who had been Bruce Rigsby's main consultant in 1968 and 1973. I also attended Rev. McMillan's Nisgha literacy classes given in 1977 and 1978. I also spent many productive hours with Mr. Harold Wright, who until his retirement was Cultural Researcher for the Gitlakdamix Band in Aiyansh (kit-lax-ta:miks: people-on-pond Gitlagt'aamiks).
- 28 especially Mrs. Pauline Grandison and Mrs. Frieda Morven of Aiyansh.
- especially Mrs. Nita Morven, who was employed by the Bilingual/Bicultural Centre as Literacy worker from 1978 to 1981, and Mrs. Verna Williams.
- 30 cf. T 1982a and 1987.
- 31 cf. Haas 1979:5-6 about linguistic work on the Northwest coast:
  - ... we still need additional grammars—whole grammars, not bits and pieces of grammars.... Since our study of these languages has spanned many decades, there have been various grammatical models in vogue during that time. For some languages we may have only a nineteenth century grammar written on a Latin model. (And it sometimes happens that these are better than later attempts). In other cases we may have

only a grammar written on the Boasian model and in still others on the Bloomfieldian structuralist model. But in more recent years there has been an increasing tendency to do just one little piece of the grammar-relative clauses, causatives, SOV constructions, or what have you. All these things are very fine ... But... there has also been increasing tendency to dip into languages all around the world for some particular feature, such as relative clauses or the like. It is here wherein the danger lies, since the investigator may fail to look at anything else in the grammar and may therefore fail to see how it fits in or whether it is even a significant part of the grammar ... such a structure may have a very low ranking in that language. So we need to get back to the methods employed in the best of the Boasian and Sapirian grammars, namely those that stress the holistic approach.

During the theoretical upheavals of the past twenty years, many important new insights were gained but many other old ones were lost....

#### PART I

#### CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW

### 1.1. MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS OF NISGHA.

1.1.A. PHONOLOGY. Nisgha has a medium-sized phonological inventory. The number of elements and the ratio of vowels to consonants are similar to English.

Compared to other languages of the BC coast, the Nisgha consonantal inventory includes the types of consonants most common in the area--e.g. a uvular series, an important glottalized/non-glottalized contrast--but no exotic developments or overabundance in a particular series. In fact, it has rather fewer consonants's than other mainland languages, especially no labialized uvulars.

Numerous clusters are permitted, usually alternating consonants of different types, mostly stops and fricatives. More and larger clusters occur at the end than at the beginning of a word.

Among the vowels, a long and a short series are in contrast. There are no vowel clusters, and words cannot begin with a vowel.

Nisgha words belonging to major classes (e.g. nouns, verbs) carry stress, characterized by greater energy and higher pitch. Within a clause, or in a compound or phrase, primary and secondary stress are differentiated.

The contrastive use of primary and secondary stress may differentiate between some syntactic constructions (e.g. noun-phrase from verb + Subject noun), but cannot serve to indicate different emphasis within the same syntactic construction as in English. This means that Nisgha uses syntactic means for this purpose.

1.1.B. MORPHOSYNTAX. Nisgha is characterized by great economy of means for obligatory structures versus a variety of choices for the non-obligatory ones. The frontier between morphology and syntax is often fuzzy, especially as concerns morphemes preceding the predicate, which are more or less firmly bound to it. Syntactic conditions may also dictate the choice of some morphemes.

As in most languages of the area, the predicate function is not restricted to the verb, but can be fulfilled also by nouns, adjectives, numerals and some pronouns. Thus the major distinction is not between nouns and verbs, but between transitive verbs and other non-transitive predicatives.

What is expressed in many languages by verbal moods and tenses is handled in Nisgha by various kinds and combinations of particles and/or by auxiliary verbs.

The basic constituent order in a clause (at least for major constituents) is VSO, but methods of focusing, topicalizing and clefting permit emphasis to be placed on various elements of the clause and give Nisgha syntax great flexibility. However, a major distinction between regular and predicate-focused clauses has strict consequences both morphologically and syntactically.

In terms of morphological complexity of the word at the lexical level (dictionary listing), Nisgha is comparable to German: both languages have extensive derivational machinery and readily form compounds. Both freely add circumstantial clitics (of location, motion, manner, etc.) to a word or phrase. Both often over-characterize these circumstantial elements, using more than one morpheme to repeat the same idea, or repeating the same morpheme with different constituents.

e.g. Er gang <u>in</u> das Haus hin<u>ein</u> ... <u>aus</u> dem Haus her<u>aus</u>

He went <u>into</u> the house ... <u>out</u> of the house

lu:=tá: cim-wilp in-sit in-house

S/he stayed in the house.

Luut'aa ts'im wilp.

qalksə= 46°0tkw wil qalksə= n6°-[t]= 4qalaxan through=crawl where through=hole-[3]=NC fence

S/he crawled through a hole in the fence.

Galksihlo'otkw wil galksino'ohl k'alaxan.

The compounding ability of Nisgha is greater than that of German, however; like many other Amerindian languages, Nisgha also forms many object-incorporating verbs (9.2.).

At the most basic level, one can usually recognize a root CVC but most Nisgha words are far more complex. There is little inflection, but a rich derivational system. Within a word, morphemes are not just strung together, but obey a constituent hierarchy.

Most morphemes with grammatical meaning follow the stem and are fused to it by morphophonemic rules. Apart from personal and relative inflectional endings, there is a sizable group of suffixes with verbal meanings such as Causative, Completive, Antipassive, and several others, which are not freely combined but are lexically determined. The number and order of suffixes in a given word is fairly restricted.

Of particular interest are suffixes of the shapes  $/\partial/$  and /t/, inserted between the stem and the inflectional ending, which have widespread use. Morphophonemic rules which both insert and delete  $/\partial/$  and /t/ under certain conditions cause a number of surface irregularities in morphology and syntax and are a particular challenge to the analyst.

Morphemes preceding the stem tend to have lexical meaning, and to be phonologically fairly independent. Among these, the distinction between independent and bound morphemes is often fuzzy, and there are fewer limitations on their number and order. *Frames* are specific combinations of pre- and post-stem morphemes framing the stem, both for inflection and for derivation.

The plural is morphologically speaking the most developed grammatical category; it is expressed mostly by prefixation or reduplication, sometimes both. Synchronically several morphological classes can be distinguished, with many surface irregularities, hinting at a long history for this category, which can be likened to the past tense in English or German with respect to its syntactic importance as well as its morphological complexity.

Case marking is limited to a set of clitic ergative pronouns occurring before a transitive verb when in a regular clause; this set includes both personal and relative pronouns. The relative pronouns, both ergative and non-ergative, are quite distinct in structure and behavior from the interrogative ones, which are more noun-like. There is no Nisgha equivalent of a WH-category.

Although ergativity receives only scanty morphological marking, it pervades the syntax, and Nisgha fulfills nearly all the criteria for the traditional definition of syntactic ergativity (Tarpent 1982).

- 1.2. SPEECH VARIATIONS. There appear to be fewer dialectal differences in Nisgha than in Gitksan or Coast Tsimshian. This is probably because the villages have always been in contact through the river, and missionary activity caused some movement of people from one village to another. However, there are some intergenerational differences. The speech of the older generation (60 plus) is quite similar to that of the Boas stories; younger speakers display some simplifications.
- 1.2.A. DIALECTAL DIFFERENCES: Having heard spontaneous utterances from people from all four Nisgha villages, from listening to live speeches, participating in conversations, and studying tape-recordings of speeches and

stories, my impression is that there are no major dialectal differences in the valley, certainly none that affect the syntax. This is not my impression only, but that of speakers themselves. There are some lexical differences that affect only a few items.

PHONOLOGY: Two traits typical of Kincolith speech were noted by Boas (1911):

- 1. glottalized stops are very lenis. There seems to be a build-up of air pressure, giving an impression of voicing.
  - ex. la: 'to sit' t'aa: Aiyansh (A), Greenville (G) [la:]; Kincolith (K) [da:]
- 2. Utterance-final  $\underline{\mathbf{n}}$  is unreleased and inaudible (but Boas' generalization to  $\underline{\mathbf{m}}$  and  $\underline{\mathbf{l}}$  probably results from a failure to hear the difference between glottalized and non-glottalized syllabics).

In addition, some people seem to have an 'up and down', singsong intonation similar to that of the Coast language.

LEXICON: a few items are different and are cherished as symbols of a difference, for instance:

'smokehouse': A, G, Canyon City (C) Wilp-sə-hó:n lit. 'fish-processing house' wilpsihoon

K Wilp-x-hó:n lit. 'fish-eating house' wilpzhoon.

'bear (esp. black)': A, G, K Smax

C fú fu (a Tsetsaut word; [f] is foreign to the gha consonantal inventory, and among the Athapaskan languages, it is

Nisgha consonantal inventory, and among the Athapaskan languages, it is typical of Tsetsaut).

1.2.B. INTERGENERATIONAL DIFFERENCES: More important are differences between older and younger fluent speakers (cf. Dorian 1981).

Older Fluent Speakers (OFS) are those who grew up in a monolingual home environment and have had little formal schooling in English, although some may be self-taught to a considerable extent. These people are most comfortable and expressive in Nisgha; they have access to the full range of constructions and expressions and to a larger vocabulary including many old words. At the same time, they do not hesitate to make up new words.

Younger Fluent Speakers (YFS) are the children of OFS. They are bilingual, fully able to express themselves in Nisgha on most subjects, but their vocabulary tends to be more restricted; in morphology and syntax they also show some simplification and English influence, for instance the loss of the singular determinate marker t (6.2.A.) before an initial proper name, of the use of the single negation Niti: nidii instead of the pair Ni:-ti:/ni:-ki:-ti: nigii/nigidii (5.13.A.).

Within the YFS group, there are some differences between conservative and innovative speakers. Conservative speakers are closer to the speech of OFS, with whom they have had more contact, over more extended periods; although very fluent, they tend to be somewhat self-conscious, and wary of making up new words that the elders might criticize. Innovative speakers, who tend to have had more formal education in English, have a greater tendency to regularize morphologically and to treat {?an-} an-nominal predicates as transitive verbs (4.6.A.4.). The speech attempts of semi-speakers (Dorian 1977) (persons with mostly passive knowledge, who show considerable breakdown when attempting to speak) are not considered here.

### NOTES

1 It is possible that some younger speakers ascribe to dialectal variation some features of speech which they do not themselves use, rather than to intergenerational variation.

### CHAPTER 2: SURFACE PHONOLOGY

The Nisgha phonological inventory is comparable to that of English in terms of number of vowels and consonants, but the largest number of consonants tend to be articulated towards the back rather than the front of the mouth cavity. This feature is shared with other languages of the area, as is the pervasive contrast between glottalized and non-glottalized consonants. In general the lips tend to be spread or even retracted during articulation, so that the degree of labialization of labio-velars and rounded vowels is slight. There is a definite contrast between long and short vowels under stress. In unstressed position there is a tendency to neutralization, first of length, secondly of vowel quality, especially in rapid speech. However, in most daily situations delivery is usually fairly slow. Stress is characterized by greater energy and higher pitch. It usually falls on the root, or at least the base (augmented root, see 3.1.A.), of the word, but there are a number of exceptions to this statement, so that stress is not absolutely predictable. In connected speech, primary and secondary stress can sometimes differentiate the syntactic use of words.

#### 2.1. CONSONANTS:

2.1.A. INVENTORY: Nisgha has a medium-sized consonantal inventory for a Northwest Coast language, with some typical areal features and no unusual ones. Throughout the system, the basic opposition is between glottalized and non-glottalized series, in both stops and resonants; voicing is a redundant feature of non-glottalized consonants, occurring allophonically in pre-vocalic position.

The Velar series includes palato-velar, labiovelar, uvular and glottal, but not labio-uvular or pharyngeal. The glottals tend to pattern with the glottalized resonants, but the other Velars have matching stop and fricative series. They contrast in most environments although there is a statistical tendency for them to be associated with (or alternately, to never be found with) specific vowels.

There are both dental and lateral affricates, but no palato-alveolar affricates. There is no plain lateral affricate corresponding to the glottalized one, a feature shared with the Salish languages (except Comox).

The points of articulation of the fricative series are less numerous than those of the stop series. Nisgha shares with its neighbors the absence of a bilabial fricative, and it has no dental fricative either.

# NISGHA CONSONANT CHART

	N	0 N -	VELA	R S	VEL	ARS	
	Labial	Dental	Sibilants	Lateral	Anterior		Uvular/ Glottal
STOPS & AFFRI	CATES						
Glottalized	ģ	ť	ć	ž	ĸ	К'n	þ
Non-Glott.	p	t	c		k	kw	q
FRICATIVES			S	4	X	χw	Ż
RESONANTS		SYL	LABIO	: s		GLID	ES
Non-Glott.	m	n		l	у	W	h
Glottalized	m²	'n		î	ý	w³	?

In addition to the relationships shown on the consonant chart:

- The two-dimensional array shows glottalized stops and resonants as being far apart; in fact there are some instances of interchange between  $/m^2/and$  / $p^2/.$  Similarly labials and labio-velars are shown far apart; but there are some instances of interchange between  $/m^2/and$  / $m^2/and$  initially (2.1.B.3.a.1.).
- Glottalized and non-glottalized consonants (for both stops/affricates and resonants) have a close relationship, and glottalization and deglottalization rules occur. Glottalized affricates and the corresponding fricatives also have a close relationship.
- The Velar stops and fricatives have a close relationship, and fricativization of stops and stop-formation from fricatives occur regularly; similarly all the fricatives (except for /S/) and the corresponding non-glottalized resonants have a close relationship evidenced by interchange between them.

#### 2.1.B. CONSONANTAL ALLOPHONES.

#### 2.1.B.1. STOPS AND AFFRICATES.

(a) <u>Plain stops and affricates</u>: These are lenis and slightly voiced intervocalically and initially before vowel.

They are voiceless and fortis utterance-finally. An utterance-final consonant is fully released. In deliberate pronunciation an utterance-final consonant may be aspirated.

After a syllable-initial consonant, the voiced allophone is devoiced but remains lenis.

(b) Glottalized stops and affricates: Glottalized stops are pre-glottalized. A glottalized consonant is distinct from a sequence of a consonant followed by a

glottal stop.

Glottalization is not very strong and is at times barely perceptible. In Kincolith, as observed by Boas, the consonantal articulation is so lenis as to be almost voiced, a characteristic not shared by the other communities.

Contrast between plain and glottalized stops and affricates is most obvious in prevocalic initial and intervocalic position, where the phonetic contrast is between a pre-glottalized voiceless stop and a plain voiced stop. Finally, the contrast is not as audible between a pre-glottalized stop and a voiceless stop with a degree of aspiration. An unglottalized stop is not usually aspirated in preconsonantal position.

### 2.1.B.1.a. Bilabials:

Of the two bilabial stops /p/ and / $\hat{p}$ /, only /p/ has a wide distribution; / $\hat{p}$ / is very rare initially and does not seem to occur finally. There are very few true minimal pairs, but /p/ and / $\hat{p}$ / do occur in similar environments, as in:

#_V	/pá <del>l</del> /	[bá+]	'to be spread flat,	bah!
	/p̃á+/	[p̃á+]	smoothed (cloth, etc.) '(a name)'	Pahl
	/pú·lax/	[bú·la x]	'a preparation of	buulaz
	/pú·lukw/	[þú·lukw]	'a pinch (of s.t.)'	p'uulukw
<b>v_v</b>	/hápax/ /txapax/	[hába x] [txa βa x]	'lid' '(pref.) completely'	habaz tzap'az
	/cí·pilks/	[œí·bɪlks]	'to disappear completely, to burn to the ground'	jiibil <b>k</b> s

	∕ĉi·βi+k <b>"</b> /	[ĉī·p̂ɪɬk̈ʷ]	'to tie up for the night'	ts'iip'ihlkw
	/dapa· qán/ /dapa·lú·/	[dAba·gÁn] [dA þa·lú·]	piece of wood'	k'aba gan <u>k</u> 'ap'aaluu
VC_V	/pi4pá4/	[bɪɬþáɬ]	'(pl.)to be spread	bihlbahl
	/plxpakiks/	[ριςράλικς]	flat, smoothed' '(pl) to be soaked, drenched'	p'ixp'atl'iks

## 2.1.B.1.a.1. /p/ is a plain bilabial stop:

It is voiced before vowels: [b]

#_V	/pán/	[bán]	'belly'	baa
	/piĨisT/	[bɪl͡ɪst]	'star'	bilis(t)
V_V	/hápax/	[hába x]	'lid'	haba <u>x</u>
	/cápin/	[dzábin]	'you made it'	jabin
	/ķipú·/	[gibú·]	'wolf'	gibuu
R_#	/wílpiỷ/	[wíldi?]]	'my house'	wilbiy
	/ <sup>?</sup> ampóqkw/	[?a mbɔ́q́k̃w]	'poplar'	ambo <u>k</u> kw

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel: [b]

C_V	/pixpi·lisT/	[bıçþi·líst]	'each and every star'	bixbiilis(t)
	/xpá·w/	[çþá∙Ÿ]	'jaw'	xbaa w

It is voiceles: finally and before a consonant.

Finally, it is aspirated:  $[\mathring{p}]$ 

V_#	/cáp/ /kíp/	[œáp̂] [gɪp̂]	to make, do <u>s.t.</u> ' to eat <u>s.t.</u> '	jap gip
R_#	/wilp/	[wílþ́]	'house'	wilp

# Before another consonant, it is not aspirated: [p]

#_C	/ptó²/ /pĉá·n/	[pďá·n]	'door' 'totem pole'	pdo'o pts'aun
V_CV	/cápti·t/	[χpqi-t]	'they made it'	japdiit
_C#	/húpx/	[húpx]	'forehead'	hups

# **2.1.B.1.a.2.** $/\vec{p}/$ is a preglottalized voiceless bilabial stop:

 $/\hat{p}/$  has a more restricted distribution than other glottalized stops. It does not seem to occur finally and is rare in initial position:

<b>#</b> _V	/pá <del>k</del> iks/	[þáðiks]	'to be soaked, drenched'	p'atl'iks
<b>v_v</b>	/líþisT/ /kíþisk <sup>w</sup> /	[líṗis] [gíṗisƙʷ]	'to sew' 'to eat berries while picking'	lip'is(t) gip'iskw
c_v	/plixpakiks/	[ριςράλικς]	'(pi) to be soaked, drenched'	p'ixp'atl'iks
R_V	/ķílþil/	[gílþíl]	'two (objects)'	gìlp'il

2.1.B.1.b. Dentals:

The two dental stops /t/ and /t/ contrast in most environments:

<b>*</b> _V	/tó²/	[ჭეგ]	'cheek'	do'o
	/ťó²/	[ჭეგ]	'to pin <u>s.t</u> .'	t'o'o
<b>v_</b> v	/hatá·x/ /haťá·qs/	[hAtá·ç] [hAťá·qs]	'steering wheel' 'to push with a pole'	hadaax hat'aa <u>k</u> s
VR_V	/tintín/	[dındín]	'beli'	dindin
	/cimtí́n/	[gimlín]	'valley'	ts'imt'in
V_C	/skwátk <sup>w</sup> / /čáťkw/	[sgwátk <sup>w</sup> ] [tsátk <sup>w</sup> ]	'to joke, to be easy' '(sun) to shine'	sgwatkw ts'at'kw
V_*	/hít/	[hít]	'said (s/he)'	hit
	/híť/	[hít]	'to stick to <u>s.t</u> .'	hit'
	/qá·t/	[ďá·ť]	'shark'	<u>k</u> 'aat
	/qá·t/	[ďá·ť]	'cane'	<u>k</u> 'aat'

## Dentals also contrast with sibilant affricates:

# - glottalized /t/ contrasts with glottalized /c/:

<b>*</b> _V	/ᡶó²/ /ᡶó²/	[fɔ̂?ʔ]	to pin <u>s.t.'</u> 'to separate, pull apart'	t'o'o ts'o'o
<b>v_v</b>	/ <sup>?</sup> á·tiksk <sup>w</sup> /	[?á:tīkskw]	'to arrive'	aat'ikskw
	/yáciskw/	[yátskw]	'animals'	yats'iskw

V_#	/háť/	[háť]	'marten'	hat'
	/háč/	[háts]	'to bite <u>s</u> .'	hats'

# - non-glottalized /t/ contrasts with non-glottalized /C/:

#_V	/táp/	$[d\acute{a}\acute{p}]$	'liver; to measure,	dap
	/cáp/	[œáṕ]	judge <u>s</u> .' 'to make <u>s</u> .'	jap
V_V	/hátiks/	[hádiks]	'to swim'	hadiks
	/ <sup>?</sup> áciks/	[?ádziks]	'to be arrogant'	ajiks
V_#	/hít/	[híŧ]	'what s/he said'	hit
	/híc/	[híቴ]	'to send <u>s</u> .'	hits

The glottalized dental stop  $/\hat{t}/$  also contrasts with the glottalized lateral affricate  $/\hat{k}/$ :

<b>#_V</b>	/te·q/	$[\hat{t}\hat{\epsilon}\cdot\hat{q}]$	'to eat too much,	t'eek
	/ <del>%́é</del> ·q/	[ <del>χ</del> έ·႖ၟ႞	too fast' 'a smear on the mouth'	tl'ee <u>k</u>
<b>v_v</b>	/²á·ťiksk <b>*</b> / /pá <del>ľ</del> iks/	[?á·tīkskw] [þáðiks]	'to arrive' 'to be soaked, drenched'	aat'ikskw p'atl'iks

# 2.1.B.1.b.1. /t/ is a plain dental stop:

It is voiced before vowels: [d]

#\_V /táp/ [dá $\dot{p}$ ] 'liver; to measure, dap judge s.'

	/to <sup>?</sup> /	[dɔ́ˀʔ]	'cheek'	do'o
V_V	/²hátiks/ /titó²/	[hádīks] [dīdɔ́?ʔ]	'to swim' 'cheeks'	hadiks dido'o
R_V	/ºálta/ /ºantó-º/	[?álda] [?Andɔ́.?ɣ]	'alpine fir' 'next door'	alda andoo'o

# It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel: [q]

C_V	/kwstins/	[kʷsdíns]	'five (non-humans)'	kwsdins
	/xtá·/	[çgá·]	'mattress'	xdaa
	/ptál/	[pģál]	'ribs; (water) to rise'	pdal

It is voiceless finally and before a consonant.

## Finally, it is aspirated: [t]

V_#	/?á.t/	[ˀá·t]	fishnet, to fish	aat
	/k <b>w</b> sít/	[kʷsíŧ]	with a net' 'autumn'	kwsit
R_#	/sínt/ /číít/	[sínt] [čílt]	'summer' 'mitts, gloves'	siat ts'ilt
C_ <b>#</b>	/ºáx <b>w</b> t/	[²áxʷt]	'porcupine'	axwl

(for final /t/+/t/ see Special cases p. 35).

## Before a consonant, it is not aspirated: [t]

_C* /státx/ [sdátç]	'stinging nettles' sda	atx
---------------------	------------------------	-----

V\_CV: here /t/ is part of the syllable it closes; it is unreleased:

/nikʷó·tti·t/	[nɪgʷɔ́·td̞i·t͡t]	'their father'	aigwootdiit
/hathátiks/	[hathádiks]	'to swim (pl)'	hathadiks

### Special cases:

### (1)/t/+/t/:

a. When two /t/'s are in contact as a result of adding the 3rd person suffix  $\{-t\}$  to a word ending in /t/, both /t/'s are fully released and aspirated:

When a morpheme (t) (Determinate marker or 3E pronoun) is in contact with a word beginning with a consonant, actual realization depends on that consonant:

b. If the consonant is another /t/, or an affricate (/c/ or /c/ or /k), the first /t/ merges with it: the consonantal articulation is held for the length it would normally take to pronounce two /t/'s, but only the second one is released:

c. If the consonant is /t/, as in the combination /t ?an/ '3E RELE'

(6.1.A.2.), the /t/ is fully released; this articulation is distinct both from glottalized /t/ and from the medial sequence /t?/; compare:

# 2.1.B.1.b.2. /t/ is a preglottalized, voiceless dental stop:

<b>*</b> _V	/t̃imí́s(t)/	[t̃ɪmís]	'to write'	t'imis(t)
	/t̃á·/	[t̂á·]	'to sit'	t'aa
v_v	/tiťá·/	[dɪtá·]	'to be sitting, to be h	ome' <i>dit'as</i>
	/ <del>4</del> íťiỷ/	[4ítíːʔʃ]	'my ball'	h <i>lit'iÿ</i>
R_V	/tikwántin/	[tıgwántın]	'to make <u>s.</u> fall'	t'igwant'in
	/x <del>1</del> íítin/	[x†íltın]	'to like <u>a food</u> '	zliİt'in
c_v	/tìxták/	[liçtáky]	'to forget <u>s.(p1.)</u> '	t'ixt'ak
V_#	/4ít/	[4ít]	'ball'	hlit'
	/hát/	[hát]	'marten'	hat'
R_#	/ỹint/	(gínt]	'nit'	ÿint'

<sup>-</sup> Other circumstances cause /t/ to drop before the non-Velar fricatives /S/and /4/ representing the syntactic connectives (6.2.B.)); these cases are described in Chapter 10 (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.).

_C#	/cackw/	[ʁ̃átkʷ]	'(sun) to shine'	ts'at'kw
	/ <del>4</del> íťt/	[4íťt]	'h ball'	hlit't

### 2.1.B.1.c. Sibilant affricates:

Like their fricative counterpart /S/, the two sibilant affricates /C/ and / $\hat{C}$ / are pronounced with the lips somewhat retracted, causing a degree of palatalization.

The two affricates /C/ and /C/ contrast in most environments:

#_V	/cáp/ /cáp/	[·p] [ซáp]	'to make <u>s.t</u> .' 'tribe, village'	jap ts'ap
	/cí·p/	[œí·þ]	to melt away,	jiip
	/či·p/	[t͡ti-þ́]	evaporate' 'to close one's eyes; to tie <u>s.t</u> . w. a knot'	ts'iip
V_V	/ <sup>?</sup> áciks/ /hačiks/	[?ádzīks] [hatsīks]	'to be arrogant' '(unstressed) fiercely looking or acting rough'	ajiks . hats'iks
VR_V	/lámcax/ /nímčax/	[lámœxx] [nímůxx]	'to come in (pl.)' 'to inhale <u>s.t.</u> '	lamja <b>y</b> nimts'a <u>y</u>
V_#	/híc/ /hác/	[híts] [háts]	'to send <u>s</u> .'	hits hets

They also contrast with their dental counterparts (2.1.B.1.b) as in:

<b>_</b> ^_A	/cóq/	[ἀzɔ́႖ၟ႞	'to stay, camp, live'	jok
	/toq/	[đóģ]	'to take <u>s. (pl.)</u> '	do <u>k</u>

	/cak/	[tšákº]	'(fire, light) to be	out' <i>ts'ak</i>
	/cak/	[tákº]	'to forget <u>s</u> .'	<i>t'ak</i>
	/ĉú-ĉ/	[દુત્⊹હ]	'bird'	ts'uuts'
	/ĉú-ĉ/	[દુત્⊹હ]	'coal'	t'uuts'
<b>v_v</b>	/ <sup>9</sup> áciks/	[áœiks]	'to be arrogant'	ajiks
	/hátiks/	[hádiks]	'to swim'	hadiks
VR_V	/ºanĉóº/	[?A n&ɔ́?]	'(place of a)	ants'o'o
	/qantó?/	[GA nťó?]	iand slide' 'safety pin'	gant'o'o
V_*	/híc/	[hít]	'to send <u>s</u> .'	hits
	/hít/	[hít]	'said (s/he)'	hit

# The sibilant affricates /C/ and /Ĉ/ contrast with the sibilant fricative /S/:

#_V	/c̃ád/ /sád/	[ʁád] [sád]	'clam' ts'ak' 'to crack, be cracked' sak'
	/çó²/	[ૡ૾ૺૢૼ?]	to separate, pull ts'o'o
	/só²/	[sɔ́ <sup>ʔ</sup> ]	apart' '(to take) food home
	/či·pk <b>w</b> / /si·pk <b>w</b> /	[tší-p <b>kw]</b> [sí-p <b>kw</b> ]	'to be tied with a knot' ts'iipkw' 'to hurt, be sick' siipkw
VR_V	/lámcax/ /támsaq/	[lámœa x] [dámsa q́]	'to come in (pl.)' lamja <u>x</u> 'to remain tight- damsa <u>k</u> lipped'

V_#	/mó·c/	[mɔ́-t͡s]	'to be softened,	
	/mó·s/	[mɔ́·s]	decaying' 'thumb'	<b>M</b> OOS
	/ <sup>7</sup> i·c/ / <sup>7</sup> i·s/	[?í.ቴ] [?í.s]	'to fry, sear, iron <u>s.t.</u> ' 'urine; to urinate'	iits iis

## 2.1.B.1.c.1. /C/ is a plain affricate:

It is voiced before vowels: [ ]

<b>#</b> _V	/cám/ /cí·c/	[χm] [œí∙É]	to boil, cook <u>s.t.</u> 'Grandmother (term of address)'	j <b>am</b> Jiits
v_v	/ <sup>?</sup> áciks/ /qacá·q/	[?ádzīks] [GAdzá-ģ]	'to be arrogant'	ajiks gajaa <u>k</u>
VR_V	/lámcax/ / <sup>?</sup> ancám/	[lámoza x] [?anozám]	'to come in (pl.)' 'cooking pot'	lamja <u>x</u> unjam

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel:  $[\frac{\partial}{\partial z}]$ :

VC\_V /cipcáp/ [dzipdzáp] to make s.t. (pl.) /ipjap

It is voiceless finally and before a consonant.

Finally, it is aspirated: [15]:

V\_\* /yác/ [yáts] 'to hit, chop s.t., to kill (people)' yats
/kó·c/ [kyóts] 'yesterday' k'yoots

Before a consonant, it is not aspirated: [ts]:

V_CV	/yácti-t/	[yátsði·t]	'they hit,chopped it; they killed them'	yatsdiit
_C#	/q̃ó·c¤/ /wł̃ác¤/ /hayáckʷ/	[dɔ́·ਖx] [wátx] [hʌ yátkw]	'gills and entrails' 'otter' 'a "copper"' (ceremonial shield)	<u>k</u> 'oots <u>x</u> wats <u>x</u> hayatskw

# 2.1.B.1.c.2. /Ĉ/ is a preglottalized, voiceless affricate:

#_V	/c̃áq/ /c̃ú·c̃/	[હૈર્વવૃ] [હૈર્પ·હૈ]	'nose' 'bird'	ts'a <u>k</u> ts'uuts'
<b>v_</b> v	/niči·ĉ/ /hináĉax/	[nɪʤí-ʤ] [hɪnáʤʌːফ়]	grandmother to spank <u>s.o.</u>	nits'iits' hinats'a <u>x</u>
VR_V	/húmĉax/ /qúlĉax/	[hÚmťa x] [gọlťa x]	'to kiss <u>s.o.'</u> 'to carry <u>s.</u> on one's shoulders'	humts'a <u>x</u> golts'a <u>x</u>
<b>V</b> _C	/ĉixčik/ /ĉaĸĉáĸ/	[gv ágy]	'wagon, wheelbarro baby carriage' 'hail'	w, ts'ixts'ik ts'axts'ax
V_#	/ké·č/ /kutáč/	[gyé-t] [kudát]	'(further) downriver, South' 'coat'	geets' k'udats'
VC_V	/háctit/ /nicict/	[háťdit] [nɪťí·ťt]	's/he bit it/h.' 'h. grandmother'	hats'dit nits'iits't

## 2.1.B.1.d. Glottalized lateral affricate:

The preglottalized, voiceless lateral affricate  $/\frac{2}{\lambda}$  does not have a plain counterpart. It is also fairly rare.

The glottalized lateral affricate  $/\frac{2}{h}$ / contrasts with the glottalized dental stop  $/\frac{2}{h}$ /:

#_V	/ <del>lé</del> q/	[λέ-ά]	a smear on the	tľee <u>k</u>
	/tếq/	[tế-ģ]	mouth' 'to eat too much, too fast'	t'ee <u>k</u>
<b>V_V</b>	/yá <del>k</del> iksk*/ /²á:€iksk*/	(yá₹iksk <b>~)</b> [²á∙tiksk <b>~</b> ]	'to slip and fall' 'to arrive'	yatl'ikskw aat'ikskw
with the c	dental affricate	/ <b>č</b> /:		
*_V	/ <del>k</del> áď/ /čáď/	[káq] [र्धेंब्q]	'lower lip' 'clam'	tľa <u>k</u> ts'e <u>k</u>
<b>V_V</b>	/yá <del>ể</del> iksk <b>"/</b> /yácisk <b>"/</b>	[yákīkskw] [yátiskw]	'to slip and fall'	yatl'ikskw yats'iskw
and with t	the palato-alveol	lar glottalized stop	/k/:	
<b>#</b> _V	/ <del>X</del> ó·K/ /Kó·c/	[ϟͻʹϗ϶] [ϗ϶ͻʹͱϗ]	'mud' 'yesterday'	tI'ook' k'yoots
V_ <b>*</b>	/cak/ /cak/	[tśák] [tśák]	'(music) record' 'plate'	ts'atl'

It also contrasts with the nonaffricated lateral /4/:

*_V	/ <del>X</del> áq/	[λáq]	'lower lip'	u'a <u>k</u> '
	/ <del>1</del> áqs/	[4áqs]	'nails, claws'	hla <u>k</u> s
<b>v_v</b>	/sa. <del>¾é</del> .?/	[sa-λε-%]	'to get undressed'	saatl'ee'e
	/ta łé/	[da⋅ <del>1</del> έ⋅]	'sleet'	daah lee
V_#	/c̃á <del>x</del> ∕	[tšák]	'(music) record'	ts'atl'
	/cá+/	[dzá+]	to fail, be defeated;	jah1
			to eat <u>s.t.</u> up <sup>r</sup>	

Although  $/\tilde{\chi}$  is relatively rare, it occurs in a variety of environments comparable to those of other glottalized obstruents:

<b>#</b> _V	/ <del>Xé·</del> q/	[\$:\di	'a smear on tl'eek	
	/ <del>k</del> ódac/ / <del>k</del> ó-k/	[λόζα &] [λό-Κ <sup>μ</sup> ]	the mouth' 'rhubarb' 'mud'	ti'o <u>k</u> 'ats ti'ook'
<b>v_v</b>	/kwá¾ax/ /ha+(h)ú¾aq+kw/ /sa¾é.?/	lg™á.λλҳ] [hλ+Úλλq+kM [sa.λέ.%]	'snail, slug' 'to boil' hahle 'to get undressed'	gwaatl'a <u>x</u> (h)utl'a <u>k</u> hlkw saatl'ee'e
C_V	/ <del>k</del> ix <del>k</del> ó·kt/	[kiçkó.kt]	'to be muddied (p1)'	tl'iztl'ook't
V_#	/c̃á⊀̃/ /ķí⊀̃/	[tsák] [gík]	'(music) record' 'red sockeye'	ts'atl' gitl'

2.1.B.1.e. <u>Velars</u>: This group is comprised of the anterior Velars (palato- and dorso-velars), the labio-velars, and the uvulars. Among the anterior Velars, palato- and dorso-velars are largely, but not wholly, in complementary distribution depending on their position in the word and the nature of the surrounding sounds.

## 2.1.B.1.e.1. Palato-velars and dorso-velars:

In general, phonetic palato-velars occur initially before every vowel except /i/; phonetic dorso-velars occur before /i/ and /u/ and marginally before short /o/. But there are reasons to consider a slightly different phonological distribution, with phonological palato-velars occurring before all vowels and before consonants, phonological dorso-velars occurring only before back rounded vowels.

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Palato-velars occur before every vowel except /i/, as in:

[gyáþ]	'to dip for s.t.'	gap
[gyɛ́·ɬ]	'to lie (down)'	geeh!
[gyÚkwskw] [dágyu·xkw]	'to be moored, parked 'to wake up' 'bent file for woodcarving'	gyoo gyukwskw hlagyuu <u>r</u> kw
[k͡ <sup>y</sup> áʈ͡p]	'ten (animals, skins)'	k'ap
[kyá·]]	'to be one-eyed'	k'aai
[k³ºέ·ƙʷ]	'one (animal, skin)'	k'eekw
[ଝૈ <sup>9</sup> ၁́-l]	'one (person)'	k'yool
[Ķ <sub>A</sub> n·ẍ́_,]	'and again' (contract	ed form of
	[kt̃i· huxw])	k'yuuxw

Only phonetic dorso-velars, somewhat fronted, occur before short /i/, as in

[gíɒ̞́]	'to eat <u>s</u> .'	gip
$[\hat{k}\hat{i}]$	'one (object)'	k'il

but a degree of palatalization occurs before long /i/ which has a more fronted realization than its short counterpart (2.2.A.1.a.1.): this is especially so with the glottalized consonant:

[gĺ·k̄ʷ]	'hemlock tree;	giikw
	to buy s.t.	
[sk͡ˈsiːk͡y]	'chickadee'	sk'iik'

Only unglottalized dorso-velars occur before the non-velar fricatives /5/ and /4/; unglottalized palato-velars occur before other consonants. Glottalized palato-velars may occur before any consonants. Morphophonemic alternations with the palato-velar fricative /X/ (2.1.B.1.b.1.) and the glottalized palatal resonant / $\sqrt[3]{}$ / (2.1.B.3.b.1.b.) do not make a distinction between palato- and dorso-velars, e.g. with the rule of pre-stress Velar fricativization (10.1.B.1.b.3.a.1.a.), here with reduplicated examples:

[ťıçťákʰ]	'to forget <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '	t'ixt'ak
[ネ1çネó⋅k⁰t]	'to be muddied (pl.)	tl'ixtl'ook't
[?Aç?áks]	'streams'	ax'aks

Dorso-velars and palato-velars also occur in contrast. Dorso-velars occur phonetically before [U], in many cases where [U] is in free variation with [WI], since the sequences  $/k^wi/$  and  $/k^wi/$  (with unstressed vowel) are frequently realized in rapid speech as [gU] or [kU] respectively, as in:

But it is not always possible to consider [gu] and  $[\hat{K}u]$  as realizations of sequences containing underlying labiovelars, as in:

[kudáts] 'coat' (a berrowing) k'udats'

where there is no alternation.

In stressed position,  $[g\acute{U}]$  and  $[\mathring{K}\acute{U}]$  do not alternate with  $[g^w\acute{I}]$  and  $[\mathring{K}^w\acute{I}]$ , as in

[?Agú] 'what' agu
[mi·gúnt] 'strawberries' miigunt
[k²úxw] 'to split st.' (e.g. a tree
with wedges) k'uxw

Even though many, perhaps even most [gU] and [kU] sequences may be traceable to a labio-velor + vowel sequence through comparative evidence, we cannot assume that this information is part of the speaker's knowledge, or that it will necessarily be true in every instance. Treating it so would give a distorted picture of the Nisgha pattern.

- Even though treating  $[g\acute{u}]$  and  $[\mathring{k}\acute{u}]$  as underlying  $/k^wi/$  and  $/\mathring{k}^wi/$  might work where the  $[\acute{u}]$  is short, the problem remains for sequences with long  $[\acute{u}\cdot]$ , as in:

[gú· <del>1</del> ]	'Take it!'	Guuh!
[gv n]	'right now'	guuā
[k̂ú·4]	'year'	k'uuh!

In rapid speech (especially of OFS),  $[U\cdot]$  is often a realization for the sequence /iWi/ or / $\partial$ Wi/, for instance:

/siwila·ks/ [siwila·ks, sulla·ks, su·la·ks] 'to learn s.'

/mə wila-/ [mɪ wɪla-, mulla-, mulla-] '... how you ...(tr. vb.)'
... mi wilaa ...

and one might then be tempted to generalize to stressed  $[\hat{U}\cdot]$  and interpret, for instance,  $[\hat{K}\hat{U}\cdot\hat{A}]$  'year' k'uuhl as underlyingly  $*/\hat{K}iwiA'$ , with vowel adjustment and preservation of the dorso-velar character of the consonant.

However, just the opposite occurs: in the (always unstressed) proclitic

if the initial phoneme was underlyingly a dorso-velar, one would expect dorso-velar realization after vowel-adjustment to the following consonant, which results in a /u/; but the realization is not \*[guWII] but  $[g^gUWII]$ , with a palato-velar.

Similarly, the word

(a borrowing) is probably originally from something like [glwadan].

There are also related words where the initial palato-velar or dorso-velar is conditioned entirely by the following vowel, for instance a number of words and morphemes with the common meaning 'one' carried by the initial consonant (7.1.B.2.c.1.), such as:

[Ķî]]	'one (object)'	k'iİ
$[\hat{k}^y\hat{a}\cdot\hat{l}]$	'one-eyed'	k'aai
[ĸ'nę·kw]	'one (animal, skin)'	k'eekw
[{·cُv <sup>2</sup> / <sub>4</sub> ]]	'one (person)'	k'yool

Finally, when suffixed including vowels (inherent or epenthetic) are added to

words ending in palato-velars, the phonetic realization of the final consonant becomes dorso-velar if the vowel is realized as [I], but not otherwise, for instance:

Nisgha has general morphophonemic rules adapting suffix vowels to the preceding consonant (10.1.A.1.a.1.), and causing some final consonants to change before a suffix vowel (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.), but the alternation here is purely phonetic.

Dorso-velars and palato-velars must be differentiated phonologically because they contrast before /u/. Two interpretations are possible:

The phonetic dorso-velars occurring before /i/ and /u/ could be considered as representing phonological dorso-velars, with contrast with the palato-velars occurring only before /u/. There is also one case where dorso-velar "g' occurs before short /0/, in the interjective predicate [gom] Gom/ 'Go ahead! Do it!' (5.11.): this could be considered a marginal case, and short /0/ and /u/are largely in complementary distribution. But this strictly phonemic interpretation would not do justice to all the facts and would cause needless complication in the statement of morphophonemic rules.

It seems preferable to consider the dorso-velars as phonological elements with limited distribution, occurring only before the back vowels /u/and /o/, where they contrast with the more generally occurring palato-velars. All other

instances of anterior velars are attributed to the palato-velar phonological series. In the phonological transcriptions, palato-velars are indicated by plain  $\langle k \rangle$ , contrasting dorso-velars by underdotted  $\langle k \rangle$ .

English borrowings and their derivatives normally keep their dorso-velar sound, e.g.

Were this trend to continue, there might eventually be full contrast between palato- and dorso-velars.

## Contrast between Nonglottalized and Glottalized anterior Velars:

Glottalized and nonglottalized anterior Velar stops (whether palato-velars or dorso-velars) contrast with each other:

#_V	/káp/ /káp/	[k͡ºáþ́] [gºáþ́]	ten (animals, skins)' <i>k'ap</i> to dip for <u>s.t.</u> ' gap		
	/Ķil/ /ķil/	[kíí] [gí]]	'one (object)' k'il  'to pick, gather <u>s.t.</u> gil  (berries, clams, etc.)'		
	/ķú· <del>1</del> / /ķú· <del>1</del> /	[kử.4] [gứ.4]	'year' k'uuh! 'Take it!' Guuh!!		
V_#	/cak/ /cak/	[tśák²] [tśák²]	'plate, dish' ts'ak' '(fire, light) to be out' ts'ak		

Palato-velar and dorso-velar stops contrast with labio-velars and uvulars:

## - With labio-velars:

#_V	/ké·ɬ/ /kʷé <sup>ʔ</sup> ɬ/	[gʷɛ́·ɬ] [gʷɛ́ <sup>ʔɛ</sup> ɬ]	'to lie (down)' 'sack; scrotum'	geohl gwe'ehl
	/ķí·k*/ /k*í·k*/	[gí·kw] [gwí·kw]	hemlock tree; to buy <u>s.t.'</u> marmot'	giikw gwiikw
	/k͡itá·/ /k͡witá·t/	[kîdá·] [kwidá·t]	'oolichan rake' 'to be alone in a boat or vehicle'	k'idaa kw'idaat
#C_	/skát/ /sk <b>w</b> átk <b>w</b> /	[sgʷát] [sgʷátkʷ]	'to be born' 'to joke, to be easy'	sgat sgwalkw
V_ <b>*</b>	/lák/ /lák <b>w</b> /	[lák̄ч] [lák̄w]	'to occur as a mass' 'firewood'	lak lakw
	/ski̇́·k/ /pi̇́·kw/	[bí·k²w]	'chickadee' '(to tell) lies'	sk'iik' biikw'
_C#	/ták4/	[dáķ4]	'tie, ribbon, band (not 'necktie')	dakhi
	/hákw4/	[hák <del>~4</del> ]	'hook'	hakwhi
	/?áks/	[²ák̞s]	'water, stream;	aks
	/ <sup>?</sup> ák <b>*</b> s/	[?ákws]	to drink' 'whitewash, lime'	akws

## -With Uvulars:

<b>*</b> _V	/ká+k <sup>w</sup> /	[g <sup>y</sup> áłkw]	to pierce, stab,	gahlkw
	/qá+kw/	[gá+kw]	to give <u>s.o.</u> an injection to pierce <u>s.t.</u> through	
	/k̞ús(t)/ /qús/	[gÚs] [gọ́s]	'that' 'to jump'	gus gos
	/káp/ /dáp/	[ଝႝºáႃၒၟ႞ [႖ၟၴáႃၒၟ႞	'ten (animals, skins)' 'piece'	k'ap <u>k</u> 'ap
<b>"</b> C_	/ská/ /sqán/	[sg̞ºá] [sgán]	'herring' 'fish scales'	sga sgan
V_#	/cák/ /cáq/	[र्छर्बर्फ़) [र्छर्बर्ष्]	'(fire, light) to be out	ts'ak ts'a <u>k</u>
	/čák/ /čáď/	[&ák²] [&áq]	'plate, dish' 'clam'	ts'ak' ts'a <u>k</u> '
	/né·k/ /né·q/	[né·͡k] [né·d]	'orphan' 'dorsal fin'	neek'
V_C	/ták⁴/	[dáķ+]	'tie, ribbon, band (not 'necktie')'	dakh!
	/táq+/	[dáq4]	'hammer'	da <u>k</u> hl
_C#	/sé·ks/ /sé·qs/	[sé·ks] [sé·qs]	'to splash water on <u>s</u>	seeks seeks
Palato-ve	elar stops contra	st with the palato-	velar fricative /X/:	

[lák̄º]

'to occur as a mass'

12K

**v\_\*** /lák/

	_ / _		
/lax/	[láç]	'fur, body hair'	lax.

The glottalized palato-velar stop  $/\hat{k}/$  contrasts with the glottalized palatal resonant  $/\hat{y}/$  and with the glottal stop  $/^{?}/$ :

<b>*_V</b>	/ƙáns/ /yáns/	[k³áns] [y³áns]	'(X)'s property' 'leaf, blade of grass'	k'aas (X) yaas
	/Ķ̃iŧé. <sup>?</sup> /	[Ķ14 <sub>€</sub> . <sub>5</sub> 8]	'to push off	k ihlee e
	/ <sup>?</sup> i+é. <sup>?</sup> /	[? <sub>I</sub> 4ć.?§]	at an angle' 'blood, to bleed'	ihlee'e
V_#	/sáľ/ /?asáý/	[sák³] [?A sá <sup>?I</sup> ]	to stretch' foot, leg	sak' asaÿ
	/tík/ /titíý/	[dɪdíʔ]	'to be embarrassed' 'to look after <u>s</u> .'	dik' didiÿ

# 2.1 B.1.e.1.a. Distribution of palato-velars:

## 2.1.B.1.e.1.a.1. /k/:

/k/ is a plain palato-velar stop. It is depalatalized before /i/, especially short /i/= [I], and before non-Velar fricatives.

It is voiced before vowels: [g] before /i/, [gy] before other vowels:

<b>#_V</b>	/kát/	[g¤át]	'man; people'	gat
	/kúk*sk*/	[g¤Úk~sk~]	'to wake up'	gyukwskw
V_V	/ķiké· <del>1</del> /	[gɪgʰɛ́·ɬ]	'to be lying (down), to be in bed (sg)'	gigeehl

	/ <del>1</del> áku·xk <b>"</b> /	[4ágyU·xkw]	'bent file for woodcarving'	hlagyuu <u>x</u> kw
VR_V	/ <sup>?</sup> amké·k/	[?Amgyé·ky]	'duck species'	amgeek
	/ <sup>?</sup> ankát/	[?Angyát]	'parent'	angat

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel:  $[g^y]$ :

C_ <b>V</b>	/taxkát/ /xská·k/	[xsgyāţ] [dx xgyāt]	'to be strong (sg)' 'eagle'	da <u>rg</u> at <u>r</u> sgaak
	/sķĺ/	[sgí]	'(object) to be	sgi
	/laxsķí·k/	[JV XSŘį·Ķā]	(somewhere)' 'the Eagle clan'	La <b>z</b> sgiik

It is voiceless finally and before a consonant.

Finally, it is aspirated: [ky]

V_#	/čák/ /čixčík/	[戌ɪċ戌ੑ१४ <sub>7</sub> ] [戌९१४ <sub>7</sub> ]	'(fire, light) to be out 'wagon,wheelbarrow, baby carriage'	
VC_#	/ĉú·sk/	[ʤÚ·sƙʰ]	'to be small'	ts'uusk

Before a consonant, it is unaspirated and somewhat depalatalized: [k]: this occurs in forms with inflexional suffixes, as in

/c̃ixc̃íksim/	142+-4261+21	[fire, light]	
/CIXCIKSIIII/	[tsiçtsiksim]	'your (pl.) wagon/ wheelbarrow/baby	<i>ts'ixts'iksim</i> carriage'

and before a non-Velar fricative (noted by S), especially /S/, in a consonantal cluster:

V_S#	/ma·ks/	[má·ķs]	to put a net in	maaks
	/qá·k <del>1</del> /	[gá·ķ+]	the water' 'mouse'	gaakhi
#_SV	(The S is always	:/s/)		
	/ksí4k™/ /ksú·₩/	[ksí4kw] [ksú->Ų]	'salamander, lizard' 'processed hemlock cambium (a food)'	ksihlkw ksuuŵ
#_SRV	/ksláx*/	[ksláxw]	'to be undermost'	kslarw
#_SCV	/ksqó·q/	[k̞sgɔ́-q̊]	'to be first'	ksgook
V(R)_SV	/qamksi·wá·/ /wìlptikłé·?/	[d] mķsi·wá·] [wìlpgiķ4é·?§]	'white person' 'jail' (lit. 'house of binding')	k'amksiiwaa wilpdikhlee'e
V_S*	/hátiks/ / <sup>?</sup> áks/ /w <sup>i</sup> i <sup>.</sup> ?ó·ks/	[hádīķs] [?áķs] [włi-?ó-ķs]	'to swim' 'water; to drink' 'to be wide'	hadiks aks vii ooks
	/ták4/	[dáķ4]	'tie, ribbon, band' (not 'necktie')	dakh!
VR_S#	/táyks/ /cí·pilks/ /ksímks/	[dáyķs] [dzí·bilķs] [ķsímķs]	"Indian ice-cream" to burn to the groun to scrape s.t. (e.g. snow off a road)	ksimks

VC_S#	/kítks/	[gítķs]	'to search'	gitks
V_SC#	/pláksk <b>"</b> / /squksk"/	[p]áķskw] [sďÚķskw]	to be tired' '(supplies) to	plakskw s <u>k</u> 'okskw
	/yá <del>X</del> iksk <b>"</b> /	[yáłıķskw]	run short' 'to slip and fall'	yatl'ikskw

# **2.1.B.1.e.1.a.2.** $/\frac{2}{K}$

 $/\hat{k}/$  is a preglottalized palato-velar stop. It is somewhat depalatalized before short stressed  $/\hat{l}/$  but otherwise - angly palatalized.

#_V	/ké·kʷ/ /kó <sup>?</sup> / /k️itá·/	[Ķīdā·] [ͳɔɔ̣ʔs] [ͳṣ·ၾ~]	'one (animal, skin)' 'backbone of a fish' 'oolichan rake'	k'eekw k'yo'o k'idaa
#C_V	/xkáy4/	{xk³чáy+}	payment for traditional	<u>i</u> k'ayhl
	/ski̇́·k̂/	[sk͡ví·k͡v]	services rendered' 'chickadee'	sk'iik'
	/tk̂ə/	[[t]kı ~[t]	dropping down to a lower level (proclitic)	tk'i/tk'8

(Note: the /t/ is prone to loss in this position, 10.2.A.2.b.1.).

<b>v_v</b>	/stiké·k*/	[sġɪk͡чé·k͡w]	'playmate, little	sdik'eekw
	/hak̃ó²/	[ha k²yɔ́?§]	brother or sister' '[the] back'	hak'yo'o
V_#	/cak/ / <del>k</del> ó.k/	[ťáťº] [λ̀ó·Ќº]	'dish' 'mud'	ts'ak' tl'ook'

V_C	/cakt/	[tšák³t]	'h. dish'	ts'ak't
	/ <del>⊀</del> ó∙kt/	[λó⋅κ²чt]	'to be muddied'	tľook't

### 2.1.B.1.e.1.b. Distribution of dorso-velars:

The dorso-velars occur almost exclusively before /u/, whether long or short, stressed or unstressed.

## 2.1.B.1.e.1.b.1. /k/

/k/ is a plain dorso-velar stop.

It is voiced before vowels: [g]

#_V	/ķúx <b>w</b> / /ķóm/	[gÚx <b>"]</b> [gòm]]	'to shoot and kill <u>s.</u> ' 'Go ahead {= do it}!'	guxw Gom!
V_V	/²aķú/ /xpəķú·4/	[²AgÚ] [xỳıgÚ-4]	'what; thing' 'Catch it!'	agu <u>X</u> biguuh!!
•	/mi·ķúnt/	[mi-gÚnt]	(in mid-air)' 'strawberries'	miigunt
VR_V	/?anķú/	[?A ngÚ]	'lone'sl concern'	angu

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel: [g]:

#C_V	/tķún/ /4ķú·4kw/	[tgÚn] [4kÚ·4Ŕw]	'this' '(one's own) child; to give birth to a chi	<i>tgun higuuhikw</i> ild
v_cv	/ <sup>?</sup> an <sup>?</sup> axkú/	[ <sup>?</sup> a n <sup>?</sup> a xgÚ]	's.t. none of one's business'	an'azgu

# 2.1.B.1.e.1.B.2. /k/

/k/ is a pre-glottalized dorso-velar stop.

(cf. note p. 61).

#### 2.1.B.1.e.1.c. Summary of palato-velar and dorso-velar distribution:

Palato-velars and dorso-velars contrast only before back vowels; in other positions the contrast is neutralized. In this representation palato-velars have been considered the primary phonological elements, with dorso-velars identified as such only under contrast.

#### 2.1.B.1.e.2. Labio-velar stops:

The labio-velar stops  $/k^w/$  and  $/k^w/$  are pronounced with only slight lip-rounding. Finally and before a consonant they sound like a velar followed by a voiceless [y]. They do not occur before long or short /u/.

The two labio-velar stops  $/k^w/$  and  $/k^w/$  contrast with each other:

#C_	/skwiné:?/ /skwinhitkw/	[sgʷɪnɛ́·?§] [sk͡ʷɪn·ítkʷ]	'yellow cedar' 'to stand at the end of a line or row'	sgwinee'e skw'inhitkw
V_#	/múk <b>~</b> / /mú <b>ť~</b> /	[múk <b>~</b> ] [múk <b>~</b> ]	'to be ripe' 'to be bruised'	mukw mukw
	/ <b>kʷ</b> i̇-kʷ/ /pi̇-k͡ʷ/	[gwí·kw] [bí·kw]	'marmot' '(to tell) lies'	gwiikw biikw'

Labio-velar stops contrast with palato-velar and dorso-velar stops (p. 55-56), except before /U/ and after short /i/, where labio-velars do not occur.

<b>*</b> _V	/kʷĺ·kʷ/	[gʷí·ƙʷ]	'marmot'	gwiikw
	/kĺ·kʷ/	[gí·ƙʷ]	'to buy <u>s.t</u> .'	giikw
#C_	/skwátkw/ /skát/	[sgwátkw] [sgyát]	'to joke, to be easy' 'to be born'	sgwalkw sga!
	/skwiné. <sup>?</sup> /	[sgwiné. <sup>9</sup> 8]	'yellow cedar'	sgwinee'e
	/sķinist/	[sginíst]	'pine'	sginist
V_#	/ťák*/	[ťákw]	'to twist <u>s.t.'</u>	l'akw
	/ťák/	[ťáku]	'to forget <u>s.'</u>	l'ak
V_C	/má·k <b>*</b> s/ /má·ks/	[má·kʷs] [má·k̞s]	'snow (on the ground 'to put <u>a net</u> in the water'	naakvs maaks
VC_C	/lílkʷs/ /lí4ks/	[lílkws] [lí4ķs]	'to steal' 'to stand guard, to watch'	lilkws lihlks

/?ánkws/	[?ánk <b>w</b> s]	'to be cooked,	ankws
		baked, done	
/hánks/	[hánķs]	'(water) to be	hanks
		shailow'	

# Labio-velar stops contrast with uvular stops:

<b>*</b> _V	/kwántkw/	[gwántƙw]	'to be close enough to <u>s.</u> to touch it'	gwantkw
	/qántk <b>"</b> /	[gántkw]	'to be straight'	gantkw
V_#	/lák <b>w/</b> /láq/	[lák̄w] [láq̄́]	'firewood' '(animal) to live in water'	lakw la <u>k</u>
	/?ú·k <b>'~</b> / /?ú·q/	[?Ú. <b>k̂~]</b> [?Ú.႖ၟ๋]	'homebrew' 'brass, copper'	'IU <b>kw</b> ' UU <u>k</u>
CV_#	/lu·sa·ná·4kw. /ná· <del>1</del> q/	/ [lU-sa-ná:4k͡w] [ná:4t͡q]	to be amazed at s.'	luusaanaahikw naahik

# Labio-velar stops contrast with the labio-velar fricative /Xw/:

V_#	/łák*/	[ťák*]	'to twist <u>s</u> .'	t'akw
	/łáx*/	[ťáx*]	'to sweep, brush <u>s</u> .'	t'axw
	/múk <b>w</b> /	[mÚkw]	'ripe'	MUKW
	/múx <b>w</b> /	[mÚxw]	'ear(s)'	MUKW
	/pĺ-k**/	[bí·k²~]	'(to tell) lies'	biikw'
	/cĺ-x**/	[œí·x~]	'porpoise'	jiixw

# 2.1.B.1.e.2.a. /kw/ is a plain labio-velar stop:

It is voiced before vowels: [gw]

#_V	/kwiné.xkw/	[gwīné·xkw]	'(object) to be	gwineexkw
	/kwálkw/	[gwálkw]	cold' 'to be dry'	gwalkw
V_V	/nikwó.t/ /nakwa.wóq/	[nɪgwɔ́.t͡] [nagwa·wɔ́q̃]	'father' 'to sleep late'	nigwoot nagwaawo <u>k</u>
R_V	/kwàlkwa·hó·n	/[gwálgwa·hɔ́·n]	'dried fish'	gwalgwa hoon

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel:  $[g^w]$ 

#C_V	/skwátkw/	[sgwátkw]	'to joke,	sywatk w
	∕tk <b>~</b> á∕	[tgʷá]	to be easy' 'crystal, glass'	lgwa
#CC_V	/¤skwiné-qs/	[xsgwɪnɛ́·qs]	'to feel cold'	<u> zsgwineek</u> s
VC_V	/łkú·łkwiý/	[4ķÚ.4gw[3]]	'my child'	hlguuhlgwiý

It is voiceless finally and before a consonant.

Finally, it is aspirated: [kw]

V_#	/ķí·kw/	[gí·kʷ]	'to buy <u>s.t.</u> '	giikw
	/cákw/	[œákʷ]	'to kill <u>s.</u> '	jakw
	/múkw/	[múkʷ]	'to be ripe'	mukw
R_#	/yánkw/ /háykw/	[yánkw] [háykw]	'to be mouldy' 'odor, spirit'	yankw haykw

C_#	/cápkw/	[χpkw]	'to be made'	japkw
	/ <del>1</del> óqk\\	[4jqkw]	'to swallow <u>s.t.</u> '	hlo <u>k</u> 'kw
	/°áҳkʷ/	[ˀá¤̞ƙʷ]	'night'	axkw

Before a consonant, it is unaspirated: [kw]

## #\_C (the C is always a non-Velar fricative)

/k <b>~</b> sít/	[kʷsít]	'autumn'	kwsit
/k <b>"</b> stáqs/	[kʷsd̥áqs]	'to abandon <u>s.</u> '	kwsda <u>k</u> s
/k <b>w</b> 4i./	[kw4i.]	'all over, randomly	kwhlii
		(proclitic)	

## \_C# (the C is always a non-Velar fricative)

/súk\s/	[sÚk <b>~</b> s]	'driftwood'	sukws
/lilk <b>~</b> s/	[lílk <b>~</b> s]	'to steal ( <u>s.</u> )'	lilkws
/hák <del>w</del> ł/	[hákʷɬ]	'hook'	hakwhl

# 2.1.B.1.e.2.b. /kw/ is a preglottalized voiceless labio-velar stop:

<b>*</b> _V	/kwácikskw/ /kwó·tkw/ /kwini·skw/	[kwádziķskw] [kwó-tkw] [kwini-skw]	'to rock, to teeter' 'to be missing, lost' 'to bend down'	kw'ajikskw kw'ootkw kw'iniiskw
<b>V_V</b>	/cakwiskw/ /múkwilkskw/	[χkwiskw] [múkwilķskw]	'animal' '(water) to be roiled'	jakw'iskw mukw'ilkskw
VR_V	/qílkwa <sup>?</sup> / /kwinkwán/	[gélkwa?&] [kwinkwán]	'kerchief' 'to be palsied, uncoordinated'	gelkwa'a kw'inkw'an

V_s	/sipí·k̃ <b>~</b> s/	[sɪbíˈk͡ʷs]	'pacifier'	sibiikw's
V_#	/ťúľw/ /ľú·ľw/ /pí·ľw/	[ťúk <b>~]</b> [ķúk <b>~]</b> [bík <b>~]</b>	'navel' 'animal's tail' '(to tell) lies'	t'ukw k'uukw' biikw'
#s_V	/skwin/	[skwin]	'at the end of a line or row (proclitic)'	skw'ic

## 2.1.B.1.e.3. <u>Uvulars</u>.

The uvular stops /q/ and / $\mathring{q}$ / do not occur before long / $\mathring{i}$ -/ or / $\mathring{u}$ -/. They contrast with each other:

<b>#</b> _V	/qó²/	[g၁ဴ <sup>၇</sup> ၇ႆ]	to go <u>s.w.</u> ,	go'o
	/đó²/	[ď၃ <sub>5</sub> δ	to go get <u>s.</u> 'thimbleberry'	<u>k</u> 'o'o
#s_V	/sqán/ /sqan/	[sgán] [sqán]	'fish scales' ' bush, support'	sgan sk'an
<b>V_V</b>	/k°é·qan/ /k°é·qan/	[ଝ <sup>ୁନ</sup> ୍ଟ dan]	'to drill a hole in <u>s</u> .' 'to chase <u>s</u> . away'	k'eegan k'eek'an
	/qaqítkʷ/	[ga gétkw]	to be difficult,	gagetkv
	/qaq̃itkw/	[GA qetkw]	expensive' 'to howl (e.g. wolf)'	gak'otkw
R_V	/yimqan/	[yı́mga n]	'your whiskers,	yimgan
	/mimdan/	[mímq̃an]	your beard' 'Smile!'	Mimk'an!
<b>v</b> _c	/°ampóqk <b>"</b> /	[°A mbɔ́q́k̄w]	'poplar'	ambo <u>k</u> kw

	/+óqk <b>~</b> /	[ <del>4</del> ɔ́q̂ <b>k</b> ~]	'to swallow s.t.'	hlo <u>k</u> 'kw
V_#	/sáq/	[sá́q́]	to be sharp, very	sa <u>k</u>
	/sáq/	[sád]	cold' 'to crack'	sa <u>k</u> '
	/né·q/ /né·d∕	Iné∙á] [né∙á]	'hooves' 'dorsal fin'	nee <u>k</u> nee <u>k</u> '
R_#	/ỷìmq/ /mìmq/	lyímá] [mímá]	'whiskers, beard' 'to smile'	ÿim <u>k</u> mim <u>k</u> ′

# The uvular stops contrast with the palato-velar, velar and labio-velar stops:

*_V	/qá+kw/ /ká+kw/ /kwálkw/	[gá4kʷ] [gyá4kʷ] [gwálkʷ]	'to pierce <u>s</u> , through 'to pierce, stab, gaff 'to be dry'	
	/qús/ /kús(t)/	[gós] [gÚs]	'to jump' 'that'	gos gus
V_#	/láq/ /lák/ /lák <b>"</b> /	[]áģ] []ák͡º] []ák͡ʷ]	'to live in water' 'to occur as a mass' 'firewood'	la <u>k</u> lak lakw
	/sád⁄ /sák̂/	[sád] [sák³³]	'to crack' 'to stretch'	sak' sak'
	/ <sup>^</sup> ú·q/ / <sup>^</sup> ú·k**/	[?Ú.ẩ] [?Ú.ẩ~]	'copper, brass' 'homebrew'	<i>นบ<u>ไ</u></i> ร <i>บบโ</i> ร <b>พ</b> ์
R_C#	/silĺmqs/	[sılímqs]	'to raise <u>s. (pl)</u> (children, animals)'	silim <u>k</u> s

	/silímks/	[sɪlímķs]	'to compose songs'	silimks
V_S#	/táq4/	[dáq4]	'hammer'	dakhi
	/ták+/	[dáķ4]	'tie, ribbon, band'	dakh1
	/hákʷɬ/	[hákʷɬ]	'hook'	hakwh!
	/táqs/	[dáqs]	'flounder'	da <u>k</u> s
	/ <sup>9</sup> áks/	[?áķs]	water, stream,	aks
	- /	,	to drink'	
	/²ákʷs/	[²ákʷs]	whitewash, lime	akws
C#	/nĺsq/	[nísq́]	'upper lip'	nisk
	/lisk <b>w</b> /	[lískw]	'to hang (pl.)'	liskw
The uvula	r stops contrast	with the uvular fr	icative /V/	
		with the broken in	icative / ʌ/.	
V_#	/wóq/	[pcw]	'to sleep'	₩0 <u></u> £
	/wód/	[pcw]	'to dig s.'	wok'
	/wox/	[xcw]	'to bark'	wo <u>r</u>
		•		# 0 <u>#</u>
and with t	he glottal stop			* V <u>#</u>
and with t		17/:		
	he glottal stop / /qáp/ /²áp/		'piece' 'bee, wasp'	<u>k</u> 'ap ap
	/q́áp/ /²áp/	/ <sup>?</sup> /: [dấp] [ <sup>?</sup> áp]	'piece' 'bee, wasp'	<u>k</u> ap ap
	/q̃áp/	/ <sup>?</sup> /: [q̃áp̃] [ <sup>?</sup> áp̃] [q̃á·t̃]	'piece' 'bee, wasp' 'shark'	<u>k</u> 'ap ap <u>k</u> 'aat
	/dáp/ /?áp/ /dá·t/	/ <sup>?</sup> /: [dấp] [ <sup>?</sup> áp]	'piece' 'bee, wasp'	<u>k</u> ap ap
	/dáp/ /?áp/ /dá·t/	/ <sup>?</sup> /: [q̃áp̃] [ <sup>?</sup> áp̃] [q̃á·t̃]	'piece' 'bee, wasp' 'shark' 'fishnet; to fish	<u>k</u> 'ap ap <u>k</u> 'aat

V_ <b>#</b>	/wóq/ /woq/	[wɔ́d͡] [wɔ́d͡]	'to dig <u>s.t.</u> ' 'to call, invite <u>s.o.</u> '	₩0 <u>\$</u> -'
	/né·ď/	[né·d]	'dorsal fin'	nee <u>k</u> '
	/sk <b>w</b> iné· <sup>?</sup> /	[sgʷɪné·?§]	'yellow cedar'	sgwinee'e

# 2.1.B.1.e.3.a. /Q/ is a plain uvular stop:

It is voiced before vowels: [G]

<b>*</b> _V	/qán/	[gan]	'tree, log, wood'	gan
	/qó·t/	[cɔ́·t́]	'heart'	goot
	/qúk <b>~</b> /	[gokw]	'watertight basket'	gok w

# $V_{-}V_{-}$ [G] is often fricativized as [ $\gamma$ ] especially between unstressed vowels:

	/qaqítkw/	[gayétkw]	to be difficult,	gagetkv
	/máqat/	[mágať, má	expensive' [YAt] 'Put it away!'	Magat!
R_V	/qanqán/ / <sup>?</sup> amqó·t/	[ga nga n] [?a mgɔ́-t]	'trees, logs' 'to remember <u>s.</u> '	gangan amgoo(t)

It is devoiced between a voiceless consonant and a vowel: [G] (the C is always a non-Velar fricative)

S_V	/sqĺnx/ /sqáns/	[sgénç] [sgáns]	'little finger' 'elbow'	sgenx sgans
	/x <del>1</del> qáyx <b>~/</b>	[x4&v Axm]	'to sneak up on <u>s.t.</u> (an animal)'	zhigayzw
	/qasqó·/ /ksqó·q/	[ga sgó·] [ķsgó·ģ]	the size of' 'to be first'	gasgoo ksgoo <u>k</u>

It is voiceless finally and before a consonant.

Finally, it is aspirated:  $[\mathring{q}]$ . Slight spirantization may also occur as a concomitant of the uvular articulation:  $[\mathring{q}^h]$ .

V_#	/ĉaq/	[ʁ̃áq̃]	'nose'	ts'a <u>k</u>
	/pté·q/	[pɡ́ɛ́·q̃]	'"tribe", clan'	pdee <u>k</u>
	/tóq/	[dɔ́q̃]	'to take <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '	do <u>k</u>
R_#	/ỷimq/	[ỷímắ]	'whiskers, beard'	ÿim <u>k</u>
	/qal <sup>^</sup> inq/	[GA l <sup>?</sup> ínắ]	'traditional	gel'in <u>k</u>
	/kálq/	[g <sup>y</sup> á]ģ]	storage box' 'outside'	gal <u>k</u>
S_#	/q̃í+q/ /qásq/	[q̃é+q̃] [gásq̃]	'chest' 'to be bitter'	k'eblk gask

# Before a consonant, it is not normally aspirated: [q]

V_C	/c̃áqt/ /qó·qti·t/	[ʁ̃á႖ႂ́] [ၹ်·႖ၛၟ႞ႋႄ႞]	'h. nose' 'in front of them'	ts'a <u>k</u> goo <u>k</u> diit
_C#	/ñé·q⁴/	[ñé·q4]	'killer whale'	ńeekhl
	/m̃áqs/	[m̃á·qs]	'pants'	maks
	/sú·qsk <b>™</b> /	[sú·qskw]	'to dive'	suukskw

# (but it is aspirated before a Velar stop in

	/ <sup>7</sup> ampóqk <b>"</b> /	[*Àpcdm a <sup>c</sup> ]	'poplar'	ambo <u>k</u> kw)
R_C*	/límqs/	[límqs]	'to grow (pl.)'	lim <u>k</u> s
	/ĉiwl̃inq4/	[tsvvínq4]	'cape, point'	ts'iẃin <u>k</u> hl

2.1 B.1 e.3 b.  $\frac{\vec{q}}{\vec{q}}$  is a pre-glottalized voiceless uvular stop.  $[\vec{q}]$ 

Slight spirantization may also occur as a concomitant of the uvular articulation:  $[\vec{q}],\,[\vec{q}^h]$ 

<b>#</b> _V	/ďáq/ /ďó·qst/	[đá d] [đó qst]	'to be open' 'maple'	<u>k</u> 'a <u>k</u> <u>k</u> 'oo <u>k</u> st
<b>v_v</b>	/qaq̃it <b>k"/</b> /haq̃ú <del>1</del> /	[ga detkw] [ha dó4]	'to howl (e.g. wolf)' 'filleting knife'	ga <u>k</u> 'elkw ha <u>k</u> 'ohl
VR_V	/támďan/ /ďawďá·w/	[dámdan]	'to pull on <u>s.t.</u> (e.g. a rope)' 'crow'	damk'an k'awk'aaw
V_#	/c̃ádٟ/ /né·dٟ/ /lú·ladٍ/	lgad] [néd] [lú·l∧d]	'clam' 'dorsal fin' 'ghost, corpse'	ts'a <u>k</u> ' nee <u>k</u> h! luula <u>k</u> '
R_#	/mĺmď/ /ksámď/	[mímď] [ksámď]	'to smile' 'blue-black clay'	mimk' ksam <u>k</u> '
<b>*</b> _C	The Cis /S/or	·/t/:		
	/sqé·xk <b>~</b> /	[sq̃є́·xk̄ʷ]	'to be dark (e.g. at night)'	s <u>k</u> 'ee <u>r</u> kw
	/tq̃isk*/ /tq̃al/	[t]q́eskw] [[t]q́Al]	'to attack, charge <u>s.'</u> 'flush against (proclitic)' (cf. note p. 61.)	tk'eskw tk'al
_C#	/ <del>1</del> óqk <b>*</b> /	[4ɔ́q̃k̞ʷ]	'to swallow <u>s.t.</u> '	blo <u>k</u> 'kw

#### 2.1.B.2. FRICATIVES.

All fricatives are normally voiceless. They can be subdivided into a laminal and a velar group.

#### 2.1.B.2.a. Laminal fricatives: /S/ and /4/

Both /S/ and /4/ are produced with the front part (not the tip) of the tongue blade. The most significant phonetic difference between them is that with /S/ the airstream escapes at the front of the mouth, with /4/ at the sides of the mouth.

Both have a very wide distribution within the word. In addition, they provide the connectives that link the major constituents of most Nisgha sentences (6.2 B.), and can thus be added to almost any Nisgha word regardless of phonological shape.

However, if either /S/ or / $\frac{1}{4}$ / is added to a word already ending in the same consonant, the two /S/ 's or / $\frac{1}{4}$ /'s assimilate; there is no gemination or long consonant as happens with /t/ (2.1.B.1.b.1. Special cases, p. 42-43).

The two non-velar fricatives /S/ and /4/ contrast with each other:

<b>#</b> _V	/sa·/	[sa·]	'suddenly'	SAA
	/ <del>1</del> a∙/	[ <del>1</del> a·]	'by now'	hlaa
	/sáxw/	[sáxw]	'mouth (of a river)'	SAXW
	/ <del>l</del> áx*/	[łáxw]	'underside'	hlaxw

	/só <sup>?</sup> /	[sɔ́ºŷ́]	(to take) food home	so'o
	/ <del>1</del> ó²/	[45°8]	from a function to go, walk (pl.)	hlo'o
#_CV	/s <b>ķ</b> ĺ/	[sgí]	'(object) to lie, be, be put (s.w.)'	sgi
	/ <b>ł</b> ķí/	[+gí]	'children (offspring)'	hlgi
	/sỷó·n/	[s.yɔ́·n]	'glacier'	sýoo <b>n</b>
	/⁴ỷó·n/	[4.ŷó·n]	'elkhide'	hlýoon
#C_C	/xsqalánq/	[xsgA lánģ]	'to serve <u>s.t</u> . (a food) last'	<u>Isgalank</u>
	/x <del>1</del> qáyx <b>"</b> /	[x <del>4</del> &v_xm]	'to sneak up on <u>s</u> .'	<u> zhlgayzw</u>
<b>v_v</b>	/misó <sup>?</sup> / /ha <del>4</del> ó <sup>?</sup> /	[misɔ́º͡ð] [ha +ɔ́ºʔ]	'sockeye salmon' 'sail, cloth'	miso'o hahlo'o
V_#	/mó·s/ /mó· <del>1</del> /	[mɔ́·s] [mɔ́·ɬ]	'thumb' 'barrel-shaped fish-trap; barrel'	moos moohl
VC_#	/táqs/ /táq+/	[dáqs] [dáq+]	'flounder' 'hammer'	da <u>k</u> s da <u>k</u> hi
V_C#	/másk <b>w</b> / /máłk <b>w</b> /	[máskw] [má+kw]	'reddish-brown' 'to be announced'	maskw mahikw
R_C#	/msk*/ /m4k*/		(suffix, 7.2.C.2.b.4.c.) (suffix, 7.2.C.2.b.4.b.)	

### 2.1.B.2.a..1 /S/

/S/ is a voiceless laminal groove fricative. The phonetic quality of /S/ varies according to individuals, with the extent of contact of the tongue blade with the dental/alveolar region. Many naive English speakers feel that the Nisghas confuse English /S/ and /J/. As usual in such a case, the actual pronunciation is different from both since the jaw is closed and the lips somewhat retracted during articulation.

The extremes of the Nisgha range are comparable to those of Japanese /S/ before /U/ and /i/. The latter have been described as a fronted alveolar or even a dental groove spirant (Jinushi 1967:16) and represented by one researcher (Daniels 1958) with the symbol  $[\S]$ . Here however, the phonetic symbol [S] alone will be used, as there is little palatalization in the speech of most persons.

/S/ probably has the widest range of occurrence of any Nisgha phonological element, as shown for instance in

	/ <sup>?</sup> anxsksí·sk™	V [ <sup>?</sup> ∧ nxsksí·sḱw]	'payment made as compensation for a crime'	an <u>z</u> sksiiskw
#_V	/sí·pkʷ/ /sá/	[sí·pkw] [sá]	'to be sick' 'day'	siipkw su
v_v	/lísims/ /m̃isá·x/	[lísīms] [mīsá·ç]	the Nass River'	Lisims misaar

#C_V	/ksáx*/ /k*sít/ /xsít/	[ķsáx*] [k*sít] [xsít]	'to go out' 'autumn' 'to vomit'	ksaiw kwsit <u>I</u> sit
V_#	/más/ /mó·s/	[más] [mó·s]	'to grow' 'thumb'	mas moos
*_RV	/smáx/	[smáç]	'meat; body, corpse; bear'	SM&X
	/snáx/	[snáx]	'hawthorn berries'	snax
	/swán/	[swan]	'to blow on <u>s.</u> '	swan
	/sÿ́é∙n/	[s. <b>ŷ́ɛ∙n</b> ]	'bottom (of a boat, container)'	sÿeen
	/sm̃inc/	[s.mínts]	to shoot at a blaze scar on a tree	smints

# ( /S/ is pronounced separately before a glottalized resonant.)

#_CV	/spíks/ /skí⋅k/ /sqañíst/	[sþíķs] [skví·kv] [sga níst]	'high-bush cranbe 'chickadee' 'mountain'	sry'sbiks sk'iik' sgaåist
C_#	/má·k <b>~</b> s/	[má·kʷs]	'snow (on the	maakws
	/²áks/	[ <sup>?</sup> ák̞s]	'water, stream, to drink'	aks
	/sí́lk <b>~</b> saxs/	[sílk <b>w</b> sa xs]	'midday'	silk wsags
R_#	/síns/ /ha﴿ál͡s/ /?áws/	[síns] [ha <del>l</del> á <sup>?A</sup> ls] [ <sup>?</sup> Á Us]	'to be blind' 'to work' 'sand'	sins hahlaİs aws

V_C#	/cuˈsk/ /nisq/ /lisk <b>w</b> /	[&Ú·sk̄ч] [nís႖̃] [lísk̄w]	'to be small' 'upper lip' 'to hang (pl.)'	ts'uusk ais <u>k</u> liskw
V_RV	/lisÿ́e·n/ /mis²áws/	[lɪs.ŷɛ́·n] [mɪs.ʔá ys]	'mink' 'red ochre'	lisýeen mis'aws
v_cv	/nisqá <sup>?</sup> / /hiscóqs/	[nisgá?A] [hisdzóqs]	'Nisgha (person), the Nisghas' 'to go camping'	Nisga'a hisjo <u>k</u> s
#C_RV	/ksláx*/ /xswĩnq/	[k̞sláxʷ] [x̞s.w̃ín႖̞́]	'to be undermost' 'herring eggs'	kslaxw xswin <u>k</u>
*C_CV	/pstáy/ /kwstimó·s/ /xsqalánq/	[psģá?]] [kwsģīmó·s] [xsga lánģ]	'blue grouse' 'nine (non-humans)' 'to serve <u>a food</u> second or last'	psdaý kwsdimoos Isgalank
VR_C#	/líþilsk"/ /likínsk"/ /wánimsk"/	[líptlskw] [lɪkt͡ɔˈnˌskw] [wántmskw]	'to mend (esp. nets)' 'grizzly bear' 'to seat people at a function'	lip'ilskw lik'ińskw wańimskw
VC. C#	/máqskw/ /kúkwskw/ /°ákst/	[máqskw] [gyÚkwskw] [?áķst]	'to stand (pl.)' 'to wake up' 'to be wet'	makskw gyukwskw akst
V_CC#	∕qísxk <b>~</b> /	[gę́sxḱw]	'to stop talking, crying, laughing, etc	geszkw
VRC_#	/límqs/ /silímks/	[límqs] [sɪlímk̞s]	'to grow (pl.)' 'to compose songs'	limks silimks

#### 2.1.B.2.a.2. /4/

/4/ is a voiceless lateral fricative. Contact is between the body of the tongue and the palate. In the speech of some people, especially when speaking very deliberately, there is despirantization in the middle of phonation, and the effect is that of a sequence /41/.

When asked to demonstrate this sound, many speakers stick their tongue out between their teeth (but friction occurs with the palate, not the teeth). It is not surprising then that early English-speaking observers wrote the sound <thl> or <!th>.

The lateral fricative /4/ contrasts with the other non-Velar fricative /S/ as described in 2.1.B.2.a.1. It also contrasts with the non-fricative lateral /l/ in most environments:

#_V	/4ít/	[4í <b>ť</b> ]	'ball'	hlit'
	/lít/	[1íť]	'wedge'	lit
	/ <del>1</del> ó·ĉ/	[4ó·၆]	'whitefish'	hloots'
	/ló·ĉ/	[ló·၆]	'elderberries'	loots'
	/łáqs/	[4áqs]	'nails, claws'	hlaks
	/láqs/	[láqs]	'to bathe'	laks
<b>v_v</b>	/hĺ· <del>l</del> ukw/	[hí·4Ukw]	'morning'	hiihlukw
	/mĺ·lukw/	[mí·1Ukw]	'to dance'	miilukw
	/kslá· <del>l</del> aqs/ /lá·laqs/	[k̞slá-ɬʌ qs] [lá-lʌ qs]	'to kick <u>s.t. (pl.)'</u> 'to bathe (pl.)'	kslaahla <u>k</u> s laala <u>k</u> s
V_#	/ťá+/	[ťáł]	'to adhere'	t'ahl
	/ťál/	[ťál]	'to split <u>s.t. (a tree)</u> '	t'al

V_C#	/máłkʷ/ /málkʷ /	[má4kw] [málkw]	'to be announced' 'to throw <u>s.t.</u> into a fire'	mahikw maikw
VC_V	/łux <del>wł</del> ákws/	[4Uxw4ákws]	'to shake oneself	hluxwhlakws
	/luxwlúxw/	[luxwlúxw]	(e.g. wet dog) 'to refuse to give, etc. <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '	luxwluxw
	/4ip4án/ /liplé·t/	[+1p+án] [l1plé·t]	'human body' 'priest'	hliphlan Iipleet

## It also contrasts with the palatal fricative /X/:

#_C	/4pin/	[4þín]	'whale'	hlbin
	/xpil/	[çþíĴ]	'ten [objects]'	xbil
V_#	/mó· <del>1</del> /	[mɔ́·ɬ]	'barrel'	mooh!
	/mó·x/	[mɔ́·ç]	'to act like <u>s.o.</u> '	moox
	/tá·4/	[dá·‡]	'Lady! Ma'am!'	Daah!!
	/tá·x/	[dá·ç]	'perimeter'	daax

The lateral fricative /4/ occurs in many environments, like the non-lateral fricative /5/:

<b>*</b> _V	/4áp/ /4óqs/ /4ú·ťux*/	[4áþ] [4óqs] [4ú:ťuxw]	'to be deep' 'sun, month' 'to value, treasur to cherish <u>s.o.</u> '	<i>hlap</i> hloks e <u>s.t.</u> hluut'uxw
VV	/mi <del>1</del> á/	[mɪ+á]	'bile'	mihla
	/hí· <del>1</del> uk <b>~</b> /	[hí·4U <b>k</b> w]	'morning'	hiihlukw

	/tá·łak*/	[tadákw]	'tomorrow'	t'aahlakw
V_#	/mí4/ /kှိú·4/	[mí4] [§·1·4]	'fire, to burn' 'year'	mihl k'uuhl
#_R	/ <del>ł</del> yó·n/	[4.ỷó·n]	'elkhide'	hlÿoon
(/4/ is p	ronounced sepa	arately before a g	lottalized resonant.)	
<b>*</b> _C	/4ķĺ·k <b>~</b> /	[4gí·kw]	'(female's) sister'	hlgiikw
#C_V	/k <b>w</b> +i·/	[kw4i:]	'(proc.) all over, randomly'	kwhlii

In this position there is a certain amount of neutralization with the liquid /l/. A despirantization rule in this position (10.1.B.1.b.4.) is part of the morphophonemics and accounts for alternations such as:

	/ <b>4</b> áx <b>w</b> /	'underside'		undermost' fix (kS-))
#C_RV	/x਼4nੌa·/	[x̞4.㎡a·]	'(proclitic) trying to be inconspicuous'	xhliaa
#C_CV	/x਼4qáyx <b>"</b> /	[x4ga´yxw]	'to sneak up on <u>s.</u> '	<u>xhigayx</u> w
VR_V	/ĉin4ík/ /qún4aq/	[gọn4aq]	'squirrel' 'to be stunned (by a blow)'	ts'inblik' gonbla <u>k</u>
VC_V	/+ip+án/ /+ix+á·k/	[41p4án] [41ç4á·ƙº]	'(human) body' 'to be scratched (pl.)'	hliphlan hlixhlaak

VR_#	/ <sup>2</sup> im <del>4</del> /	[?ím4]	'pail'	imhl
VC_#	/hák <del>w4</del> /	[hákw4]	'hook'	hskwh!
V_C#	/ná· <del>1</del> q/ /si²ó·4k <b>*</b> /	[ná·4ģ] [sɪ²ɔ́·4ƙw]	'breath' 'to get firewood'	naahl <u>k</u> si'oohlkw
V_CV	/má4ti·t/ /ká4hó·n/	[máłqi·t] [gyałhó·n]	'they told it' 'to pitch or gaff fish'	mahldiit gahlhoon
VC_C#	/ <sup>?</sup> áq+k*/	[?áq+kw]	'to succeed in reaching one's goal; to (finally) make it'	akhikw
VR_C#	/wó <sup>?</sup> omłk <sup>w</sup> /	[wɔ́²ɔm٩ḱw]	'cradle (hanging)'	wo'omhlkw
V_CC#	/qí4xkw/ /lí4ks/	[géłxk̃w]	'to shout, holler' 'to stand watch, to guard, babysit'	gehlzkw liblks
V_CCC#	/mĺ <del>4</del> xk <b>w</b> s/	[míłxkws]	'moxibustion'	mihlzkws

#### 2.1.B.2.t. Velar fricatives

There are three Velar fricatives, corresponding to the anterior velar, labio-velar and uvular series. They do not occur initially prevocalically, a position where the corresponding resonants occur instead (2.1.B.3.b.).

The three Velar fricatives contrast with the corresponding stops (2.1.B.1.e.) and with each other (although /X/ and  $/X^w/$ occur in fewer positions than /X/):

V_#	/láx/	[láç]	'fur, body hair'	18X
	/lax/	[láx]	'on, surface of'	18 <u>X</u>
	/táx/	[dáç]	'hill'	dax
	/táx <b>~</b> /	[dáx <b>"</b> }	'to die, be dead (p1)'	daxw
	/ťáx/	[ťáx]	'lake'	t'a <u>r</u>
	/ťáx*/	[ťáxw]	'to brush, sweep <u>s.t</u> .'	t'arw
#_C	(except before	other fricatives)		
	/xtá·/ /xʷtáx/ /x̞táx/	[çgá·] [xʷdáç] [xdáç]	'mattress' 'to be hungry' 'to eat with <u>s.o</u> .'	xdaa xwdax xdax
<b>#_</b> R	(glottalized resonant only)			
	/x̞ná/ /xn̂úkʷ/ /lax̞ x²á·t/	[x.ná] [ç.núkw] [la xç.?á.t]	'understand <u>s.t</u> . (words, language)' 'Iknouk' (a river)' '(an inlet)'	<u>x</u> áa Xáukw La <u>x</u> X'aat
VC_V	/ <sup>7</sup> á·pxin/	[ºá·pçɪn]	'to be light(weight)'	aapxin
	/łá·pxan/	[ťá·pxʌn]	'to nail <u>s.t.</u> '	t'aapxan
*C_V	/txáks/	[tyáķs]	'net-float'	tyaks
	/txa/	[txa·]	'all (prefix)'	t <u>x</u> aa
R_*	/ťílx/	[ťílç]	'oolichan grease'	t'ilx
	/tílx/	[dílێٜ]	'tongue'	dil <u>x</u>
C#	/mátx/	[mátç]	'mountain goat'	matx
	/ďátx/	[ďátx]	'to patch <u>s.t</u> .'	<u>k</u> 'atx

The fricatives /X/ and  $/X^{W}/$  are to a certain extent in complementary distribution with the resonants /Y/ and /W/ (2.1.B.3.b.), for instance:

/X/, never /y/, occurs word finally after stress, and before consonant:

/y/, never /X/, occurs initially before vowel.

In most cases a word-final /X/ alternates with /y/ before a non-consonantal suffix.

The suffix  $\{-7x\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1.) has the complementary shapes  $/(C)^7iX/$  and  $/(C)^7ay/$  after non-uvulars and uvulars respectively.

Similarly /X<sup>w</sup>/ occurs initially before a consonant, never initially before a vowel; in most cases, a word-final /X<sup>w</sup>/ alternates with /W/ before a non-consonantal suffix.

/X/, but not /X<sup>w</sup>/, occurs after syllable-initial non-Velar stop. Only in very deliberate pronunciation is it realized as [c] as is the case elsewhere. Usually it appears as devoiced [c], as in:

The case of /X/ here parallels that of /X/ (2.1.B.2.b.3.) as in:

/txa·.../ [txa·, t(h)a·] 'ail, every ...' 
$$txaa$$
...

## **2**.1.B.2.b.1. /x/

/X/ is a voiceless palato-velar fricative.

/X/ does not occur in initial prevocalic position nor before a word-final consonant. In most cases it is realized as  $[\zeta]$ :

V\_V: only in suffixed forms (otherwise, /y/ occurs, 2.1.B.3.b.1.):

	/lú·xa/ /hó·pixiỷ/	[lú·ça] [hɔ́·bɪçɪˀ̞ᠯ]	'[Is it] alder?' 'my spoon'	Luuxa? hoobixiý
V_#	/táx/	[dáç]	'hill'	dux
	/hó·pix/	[pɪd·c̀d]	'spoon'	hoobix
	/lú·x/	[lÚ·ç]	'alder'	luux
	⁄°á∙tix/	[?á·ťɪç]	'to touch, sense,	aat'ix
			guess <u>s.t.</u> '	
VR_#	/límx/	[límç]	'to sing'	limx -
	/ <sup>?</sup> úlx/	[ʔʊ́lç]	'salmonberry	ulx
			sprouts (a food)	
	/hánx/	[hánç]	'to be thin	hanx
			(not thick)	
VC_#	/mátx/	[mátç]	'mountain goat'	matx
VRC_#	/liķímtx/	[lɪgimtç]	'fleece, wool'	ligimtx
	/támtx/	[dámtç]	'fern species'	damtx
V_RV	/ <sup>?</sup> ax <sup>?</sup> áks/	[?Aç?áks]	'streams'	ax'aks
	/mixmá·x(t)/	[mɪçmá·ç]	'(boats, vehicles,)	mixmaax(t)
			to be loaded	,

#### \*\_RV /X/ is pronounced separately before a glottalized resonant.

	/xďúkw/	[ç.nlúkw]	'Iknouk (river)'	Xáukw
#_CV	/xpíľ/ /xtá·/	[çţí]] [çţá·]	'ten (objects)' 'featherbed, mattress'	xbil xdaa

VR\_C /hakimx?úntkw/ [hagimç?Úntkw] 'hand-towei' hagimx'untkw /qanxtáqs/ [gançdáqs] 'sternsheet(?)' ganxdaks

VC\_V in a medial cluster following a stressed vowel: [Ç]

/?a.pxin/ [?a.pçin] 'to be light(weight)' aspxin

 $*C_V [\zeta]$  only in very deliberate pronunciation; usually realized as a devoiced  $[\chi]$ :

/pxántkw/ [pyántkw] 'to appear suddeniy' pyantkw /txáks/ [tyáks] 'net-float' tyaks /txáytkw/ [tyá? hytkw] 'thunder' tyaytkw

### 2.1.B.2.b.2. /xw/

 $/X^{w}/$  is a voiceless labiovelar fricative. As the features back and labial are its distinctive characteristics, the exact place of articulation may vary; it is normally pronounced noticeably further back in the mouth than the palatovelar /X/, and after an open vowel it may be as far back as the uvular /X/; after

a high vowel it is more fronted, but still quite distinctly further back than /X/.

Like /X/, /Xw/ does not occur prevocalically; unlike /X/, it can be the initial but not the final member of a consenant cluster.

The labio-velar fricative  $/X^{W}$ / contrasts with the other Velar fricatives (see above 2.1.B.2.b.) and finally also with the labio-velar resonants /W/ and /W/:

V_*	/hú·xʷ/ /tú·ŵ/	[hÚ·x*] [dÚ· <sup>?Ų</sup> ]	'saw-whet owl' 'over there'	huuxw duuŵ
	/lá·xʷ/	[lá·ێʷ]	'trout'	laarw
	/tá·w/	[dá·ਖූ]	'ice; to be frozen'	daaw
	/sitxé·x <b>w</b> /	[sityé·x*]	'to change <u>s.t.</u> '	sityee <b>r</b> w
	/ĉé·ŵ/	[gé.? <sup>V</sup> ]	'insides, guts'	ts'eeŵ

/XW/ occurs only in a few positions:

V_#	/sáxw/	[sáxʷ]	'to shake, wave <u>s.t.</u> '	SHIW
	/hú·x <b>™</b> /	[hÚ·xʷ]	'saw-whet owl'	huuxw

# V\_V: only in suffixed forms:

	/hú·xʷa/	[hť·xwa]	'[Is it] a saw-whet	Huurwa?
	/4ú·ťuxwiý/	[\$Ú·ťuxwīð]	owl?' 'I treasure it, I cherish h.'	Hluut u <b>rw</b> iy.
V_CV	/haxwtákw/ /luxwtí·tix/	[ha xwdákw] [lUxwgí·diç]	'bow, yew' 'to be hungry (pl.)'	haxwdakw luxwdiidix
V_C#	⁄°áx₩t/	[²áxʷt]	'porcupine'	aswi

/°i.°uxwt/ [°i.°Uxwt] 'men, boys' ii'uxwt

**#\_C** only before stops:

/xwtákw/ [xwdákw] 'to shoot' xwdakw /xwtáx/ [xwdác] 'to be hungry' xwdax

### 2.1.B.2.b.3. /x/

/X/ is a voiceless uvular fricative; it has a wider distribution than /X/ and /X<sup>w</sup>/.

\*\_V [ $\dot{x}$ ] can occur phonetically in initial position before a vowel, but in this position it seems to always represent an underlying sequence  $/\ddot{x}h/$  (see 2.1.B.3.b.3.a.):

	/xhá <sup>?</sup> / /xháykw/ /xhó <sup>?</sup> oks/	[xáykw, x.ayk	'(male) slave' 'to capsize' oks] '(body part) to have a rash'	<u>x</u> ha'a <u>x</u> haykw <u>x</u> ho'oks
v_v	/dalaxan/ /qé-xan/	[daláxan] [gé-xan]	'fence' 'to grind, mash <u>s.t.</u> '	k'alazan
VC_V	/ťá·pxan/	[tá·pạa n]	'to nail <u>s.t.</u> '	t'asp <u>x</u> an

/X/ occurs in positions similar to those of the other Velar fricatives, but participates in more clusters.

V...\* /tax/ [tax] 'lake' tax /qox/ [qox] 'to yawn' k'oox

### #C\_V (only where C is /t/)

/txa·/	[txa∙]	'all (proclitic)'	L <u>x</u> aa
/txux/	[txoç]	'halibut'	<i>L</i> xox
/txó·xk <b>~</b> /	[txɔ́·xk͡ʷ]	'to eat (pl.)'	<i>Lyooykw</i>
/txé·msim/	[txé·msim]	(name of the	Tzeemsim
		cultura hero)	

In the speech of some persons the initial cluster /tx/ is realized as a slightly aspirated  $[t^h]$  or even plain [t], thus for instance:

This seems to be restricted to the position before low and back vowels and may be due to Gitksan influence. In any case, the realization of post-consonantal uvular /x/ as its resonant counterpart /h/ parallels that of palatal /x/ as its resonant counterpart /y/ (p. 84) as in:

\*\_C/\*\_R This is a very common position because of the prefix  $\{X_-\}$  'eating ..., consuming ..., taking one's share of ...'  $\underline{x}$ ... (7.1.B.2.a.1.a.7.). However, not all words where  $\langle X_- \rangle$  is the initial member of a cluster start with this prefix.

/x/ is pronounced separately before a glottalized resonant, including the glottal stop:

#_C	/xtáx/ /xkú+kw/	[xďáç] [xửú·4kw]	to eat with <u>s.o.</u> (s.o.'s) age	<u>x</u> dex zk'uuhlkw
#_SR	/xswĩnq/	[prìw.ex]	'herring eggs; to eat herring eggs'	<sub>g</sub> svia <u>k</u>
#_SC	/xstá·/ /xsku·sí·t/ /xskwiné·qs/ /x4qáyxw/	[xsgá·] [xsgwīné·qs] [x4gkyxw]	'to win' 'to eat potatoes' 'to feel cold' 'to sneak up on <u>s.'</u>	rsdaa rsguusiit rsgwineeks rhigayrw
VR_#	/tíl¤/ /qín¤/	[díl¤, díl <sup>A</sup> ¤] [gẹ́n¤, gẹ́n <sup>A</sup> ¤]	'tongue' 'path, road; (tree) to fall'	dil <u>s</u> gens
VC_#	/hupx/ /wacx/ /witx/	[hópx.] [wátx] [wítx]	'forehead' 'otter' 'food eaten with oolichan grease'	hupz watsz witz
V_C*	/txó·xk <b>*</b> / / <sup>?</sup> áxk <b>*</b> /	[txó·xk*] [²áxk*]	'to eat (pl.)' 'night'	l <u>xoox</u> kw a <u>x</u> kw
v_rv	/maxmúx <b>w</b> / /naxná·x/ /naxná/	[ma xmúxw] [na xná·x] [na xná]	'earrings' 'duck' 'to hear <u>s.t.</u> '	uažuas uažuasž mažmuzw
v_cv	/paxpáx/ /qaxqó <sup>?</sup> /	[gy xôɔɔ͡ś] [dy xbax]	'to run uphill' 'to go get <u>s. (pl.)</u> '	bazbaz ga <u>xg</u> o'o
VR_C	/?úm <b>xk</b> */	( <sup>?</sup> Úm <b>x</b> kw)	'to hate <u>s.</u> , not to' be able to stand s.'	umzkw

VS_C	/qĺsxk <b>"</b> /	[ <b>Gę́s</b> x̞k͡ʷ]	to stop talking, etc.	etc. geszkw
	/qí <b>+</b> xk <b>~</b> /	[Gė́4x́ḱ~]	(= Fr. se taire)' 'to shout, holler	goblzkw
VC_V		[ťá·pxan] [gwálkwxan]	'to nail <u>s.t.</u> ' 'to dry <u>s.t.</u> '	t'aap <u>x</u> an gwalkw <b>x</b> an
VR_SRV	∕ <sup>?</sup> anxsnik <b>w</b> ó∙t	kw/ [?An(^)xsni	igwótkw] 'adopt:	ive father' an <u>r</u> snigwootkw
VR_SCS V	∕°anxsksí·skw.	/ [?kn(^)xsk	• •	ent made as nsation for a crime' an <u>x</u> sksiiskw

#### 2.1.B.3. RESONANTS:

Resonants can be divided into syllabics (/m//n//l/ and their glottalized counterparts) and glides (/W//y//h/ and their glottalized counterparts). Although /h/ and /?/ are realized phonetically as a fricative and a stop respectively, they are included in the inventory of phonological resonants because much of their behavior parallels that of the true glides (similarly in Lillooet). The latter are partly in complementary distribution with Velar fricatives (2.1.A.2.b.2.) although some of their behavior is shared with the syllabics.

Non-glottalized syllabic resonants are normally voiced. They are unreleased finally. The non-glottalized glides are rare in final position (where /h/ in particular does not normally appear although it can be postulated for an earlier stage of the language, 10.2.B.1.c.1.c.2.b.

All glottalized resonants are preglottalized and voiceless, and most easily perceived in intervocalic position (within a word or in external sandhi). In final position the glottalized syllabics are unreleased and barely audible. The

glottalized glides end in a whispered vowel.

In preconsonantal position the glottal stricture occurs well in advance of the resonant articulation; the interval is filled with a weak vowel echoing the pre-resonantal vowel. The effect is that of a phonetic sequence glottal stop-vowel-plain resonant, for instance:

/cal/	[c͡á]]	'eyes'	ts'ai
/calt/	[c͡á <sup>ɔA</sup> lt]	'h. eyes'	ts'ait
/pčáýt/	[p&á?]]	'to comb <u>s.t.</u> (one's h	
/pčáýtk <b>»</b> /	[p&á?^ ytkw]	'to comb one's hair'	
/tá·ŵ⁴/	[dá.?^ ¼]	'to leave'	daawihl
/cawqs/	[gá?^ ¼qs]	'shoes'	ts'awa <u>k</u> s

Alternately, with glottalized glides (especially after long vowel), a vowel may be inserted between the glottalized glide (which then has its normal intervocalic pronunciation) and the following consonant, e.g. the more deliberate pronunciations:

depending on the particular resonant, the particular consonantal environment, and the individual speaker's preference.

Glottalized resonants contrast with a sequence Resonant + Glottal stop, as in:

/lim <sup>9</sup> ó·ỷ/	[lɪmˀɔ́.ºt͡]	traditional	lim ooy
		funeral song	
/41mol/	[4:m2·]]	'to wrap <u>s.t.</u> '	hlimool

Both occur in the next examples (which are fully reduplicated forms, 8 2.B.1.)

Conversely, the glottalized resonants also contrast with a sequence Glottal stop + Resonant or high vowel, as in

#### 2.1.B.3.a. Syllabics:

The syllabics includes the nasals /m/ and /n/ and the liquid /l/. In reduplicated forms they occur prefixed to themselves or to their glottalized counterparts, without an intervening vowel. In this case the first, unglottalized resonant is pronounced as a continuous long resonant, lasting approximately the same length as a short unstressed syllable; phonation starts once oral closure is achieved, and lasts until the onset of the next consonant, which is clearly audible:

/lláyੈ/ [l·lá?
$$J$$
] 'to be large (pl.)' \*/ llay / nníi-lukw/ [n·níi-lukw] 'to be long (pl.)' \*/ nāiilukw

(cf. the fricatives /S/, / $\frac{4}{\sqrt{x}}$  before initial consonant). This happens even if a prefix ending in a vowel occurs in front of the syllabic resonant, e.g.,

Although only unglottalized nasals and liquids can actually have syllabic

function, this section covers both glottalized and unglottalized varieties because of their similar privileges of occurrence.

## 2.1.B.3.a.1. Bilabial nasals:

The two bilabial nasals /M/ and /M/ contrast:

<b>*</b> _V	/mítk <sup>w</sup> /	[mítkw]	'to be full,	mitkw
	/mitk <b>"</b> /	[mítkw]	plentiful' 'to be scattered, in powder form'	<i>milkw</i>
	/másk <b>"</b> /	[máskw]	'to be clay-colored,	maskw
	/másk <b>w</b> /	[máskw]	to fart	<i>mask</i> w
	/múk <b>"</b> / /m̂úk <b>"</b> /	[múkw] [múkw]	'to be ripe' 'to catch <u>fish</u> '	mukw mukw
<b>v_v</b>	/timís/ /timís/	[timís] [dimís]	'to write' 'how much/many'	t'imis dimis
	/⁴imó·mis/	[sım·cmɪ+]	'[X] helped [Y]'	
	/°ó⋅m̂is/	[?ó·mls]	'pillowcase'	omis (X t) oomis
	/4imó·m/ /4imó·l/	[41mɔ́·m] [41mɔ́·l̂]	'to help <u>s.o</u> .' 'to wrap <u>s.'</u>	hlimoom hlimool
V_*	/ťám/ /tám/	[ťám] [dám]	'to write <u>s.t.</u> ' 'to press <u>s.t.</u> '	t'am dami
	/?á·m/	[?á·m]	'to be good'	88.M

	/tim4a·m/	[tɪmɨa·m]	'shin'	t'imhlaam
<b>V</b> _C	/ťámtkw/ /támtkw/	[ťámtkw] [dá <sup>9A</sup> mtkw]	'to be written' 'to be pressed'	t'amtkw damtkw
#S_V	/smáx/ /sm̃inc/	[smáç] [s.mínts]	'meat, body, bear' 'to shoot at a blaze scar'	smax smints

The glottalized bilabial nasal  $/m^2/$  usually contrasts with other glottalized bilabials or labio-velars, as in

/mitk*/	[mítkw]	to be scattered,	ńitkw
		in powder form'	
/wiitkw/	[wítkw]	'to come (from s.w.)	witkw
		to be back'	

but there are a few instances of free or individual variation, e.g.

/miiiimks/ [miiiamks] or /wiiiamks/ [wiiiamks]

'to choke (on liquid)'

mihlihlimks/wihlihlimks

#### 2.1.B.3.a.1.a. /m/

/m/ is an unglottalized bilabial nasal, normally voiced.

<b>#_V</b>	/mí·lukʷ/ /mó·4/	[mí:lukw] - [mó:4]	'to dance' 'barrel-shaped fish-trap, barrel'	miilukw moohl
<b>v_v</b>	/łimó·m/ /°amúkws/	[41mɔ́·m] [²a múkʷs]	'to help <u>s.o.</u> ' 'to listen'	hlimovm amukws
V_ <b>*</b>	/cám/ /kʷó·m/	[dzám] [gwó·m]	'to boil <u>s.t.</u> ' 'dust, ashes'	jam gwoom
#_M	Initially before	another /m/ or	/m/: syllabic realiza	tion:
	/mmí4k <b>~</b> /	[mmí4k <b>"</b> ]	'to be lit, shining (star, etc)'	amihlkw
	/mmá·l/	[m̞mấa·l]	'canoes'	mmaal
#C_V (aft	er/S/or/X/)			
	/smáx/ /xmiyé·n/	[smáç] [xmıý̂é·n]	'meat; body, bear' 'to smoke'	smax <u>x</u> miÿeen
v_c	/límx/ / <sup>?</sup> ím4/ /qámks/	[límç] [?ím4] [GAmks]	'to sing' 'pail' 'arrowhead'	limx imhl gamks
V_CV	/cimcám/ / <sup>?</sup> amqó·kit/	[czimczám] [?a mgó-git]	'to boil <u>s.t. (pl.)'</u> 'to be pretty'	jimjam amgoogit
VC_V	/mitmítk\/	[mɪtmítkw]	'to be full,	<i>mitmitk</i> w
	/maxmúx <b>w</b> /	[ma xmÚxw]	plentiful (pl.)' 'earrings'	<i>ma<u>x</u>mux</i> w
V_CC	/ťámtk <b>"</b> /	[ťámtkw]	'to be written'	t'amtkw

	/wó <sup>o</sup> om4k*/	[wɔ́ <sup>?O</sup> m4k̄w]	'hanging cradle'	wo'omhlkw		
<b>2.1</b> .B.3.a.1.b. $/m/$						
/m/ is a ;	/m²/ is a preglottalized nasal; it is always voiceless.					
#_V	/mlá·l/ /mló·ĉiks/ /mlúkw/	[má·1] [mó·ʁ̃ɪks] [mlúkw]	'canoe' 'breast; (baby) to nurse' 'to catch fish'	maal moots'iks mukw		
<b>v_v</b>	/ºó·mlis/ /hamló·q/	[?ɔ́·m̃ɪs] [ha m̃ɔ́·á]	'pillowcase' 'cow parsnip'	oomis hamoo <u>k</u>		
V_*	/tám/ /wánsim/	[dám] [wánsim]	'to press <u>s.t.'</u> 'Sit down! (p1)'	dam wansim		
#R_V	Only after /M/	in reduplicated fo	rms:			
	/mm̃á·l/	[m̞mlá·l]	'canoes'	mmaa!		
#S_V	/sm̃inc/	[ร.ฑ์เ๊กซ์]	'to shoot at a blaze scar'	smints		
V_C(*) only if the C is (part of) an inflectional suffix:						
	/tim4á·mt/ /kómsim/	[t̃ɪm+á.ºA mt] [gɔʻºɔʻmsɪm]	'h. leg' 'Go ahead! (pl)'	t'imblaamt Gomsim!		
VR_V	/?ammá·l/ /qanmó·c̃iks/	[?A mmá-l] [GA nmɔ́-tiks]	'cottonwood' 'baby bottle'	emmaal ganmoots'iks		

vc_v	/mitmitk*/	[mitmitkw]	'to be scattered, in powder form (pl.)'	<i>mitmitkw</i>
V_CC	/timtámtkw/	[dɪmdá <sup>?A</sup> mtƙw]	'to be pressed, squeezed (pl.)'	dimdamtkw

## 2.1.B.3.a.2. Dental nasals:

The two dental nasals /n/ and / $\mathring{n}$ / contrast with each other:

#_V	/yax/	[náx]	'snowshoes'	กลรั
	/uax/	[nax]	'bait'	กลรั
	/nó·m/	[nɔ́·m̂]	'our mother'	.000 ம்
	/n̂ú·m̂/	[n̂ú·m̂]	'us'	ம் பயம்
<b>v_v</b>	/sķinist/	[sgɪnist]	'pine'	sginist
	/sqañist/	[sgʌ ñist]	'mountain'	sganist
V#	/qin/	[gén]	'skunk'	gen
	/qin/	[gén]	'to chew ( <u>s.t.</u> )'	gen
v_c		[ťá pxa nskw] [ťá pxa <sup>?</sup> nskw]	'nail' 'to nail, to do the nailing'	<i>t'aap<u>x</u>ansk</i> w <i>t'aap<u>x</u>ansk</i> w
	/kíntk <b>"</b> /	[gíntkw]	'to be fed [s.t.], to be	gintkw
	/qíntkʷ/	[gę́ <sup>?</sup> ņtk̄w]	given s.t. to eat' 'to be chewed'	geätkw

In the speech of Kincolith, the glottalized nasal  $/\vec{n}/$  is sometimes replaced by the glottalized lateral  $/\vec{l}/$  before an unstressed vowel. This occurs especially with the proclitic  $/\vec{n}i\cdot/$  down on ...'  $\dot{n}ii...$ , Kincolith  $/\vec{l}i\cdot/$  (Boas' transcriptions, recorded in Kincolith, consistently show  $\langle li: \rangle$ ; as McCullagh also uses the

spelling (li) for this morpheme, it seems to be a conservative pronunciation).

2.1.B.3.a.2.a. /n/

/n/ is a non-glottalized dental nasal, normally voiced.

<b>#_V</b>	/né·q/ /nó²/	[né-ģ] [nó <sup>9</sup> 8]	'hooves' 'hole, to have a hole'	nee <u>k</u> no'o
v_v	/ <sup>?</sup> anó·q/ /ná·nax/ /tiní·/	[?a nó·ģ] [ná·na x] [dɪní·]	'to like, approve of <u>s.'</u> 'pairs of snowshoes' 'Athapaskans (Déné)'	្នានខ្មាន
V_#	/qán/ /hó∙n/ /si·lín/	[gán] [hɔ́·n] [si:lín]	'tree, log, wood' 'fish, esp. salmon' 'to chase, go after s.'	gan hoon siilin
#_C	only before /t/	in two related wo	ords:	
	/ntá/ /nté <sup>.</sup> ?/	[ndá] [ndé·?§]	'place, which way' "Pass the"'	nda Ndee'e
<b>#_</b> R	only before an	other/N/or/n/ii	n reduplicated forms:	
	/ndi-luk*/	[ņdí-lukw]	'to be long (pl)'	a <i>äiiluk</i> w
<b>#</b> S_	/snáx/	[snáx]	'hawthern berries'	SDAZ
V_C*	/sqáns/ /qĺnx/	[sgáns] [gén(A)x]	'elbow' 'path, road; (tree) to fall'	sgans genz
	/sint/	[sínt]	'summer'	siat

V_CC#	/ <del>1</del> intx/	[4íntç]	'to be angry, mad'	hliatx		
	/ <del>l</del> ántk <b>"</b> /	[4ántk̃w]	'to sway, move in one spot'	hlantkw		
V_CV	/łinłíntx/ /sinhó·n/	[41n4íntç] [sinhón]	'to be angry (pl.)' 'to go after fish'	hliahliatx siahooa		
vc_v	/naxná·x/	[na xná·x]	'duck'	<i>บลรับสลร</i> ั		
2.1.B.3.a.2	2.1.B.3.a.2.b. /fl/					
/11/ is a preglottalized dental nasal, always voiceless.						
#_V	/㎡á來/ /㎡úଐ/ /㎡iks/	[náx] [níú?y] [níks]	'bait' 'to die, be dead' 'to claim <u>s.t.</u> '	na <u>x</u> nuw niks		
<b>v_v</b>	/sqañist/ /hani·tá·/ /sina <sup>^</sup> ask <b>*</b> /	[sga níst] [ha níta] [siná°askw]	'mountain' 'chair' 'to bait one's traps'	sgañist hañiit'aa siña'askw		
V_#	/qín/	[géॄती]	'to chew ( <u>s.t.</u> )'	gen		
*R_V	only after /II/	as a result of redu	plication:			
	/nrli·tá·/	[nnitatate]	'to be sitting (on s.t.)'	nāiit'as		
*C_V	/xฺn̂a·/ /x़4n̂a·/		'to understand <u>s.t.</u> (we '(proc.) trying to be inconspicuous'			
V_C(*)	/qínt/	[gę́²ņŧ]	'Chew it!'	<u>G</u> eåt!		

	/qintax/ /²an²úns/	[gę́ <sup>?</sup> ndax] [³an²Ú²ns]	'to chew food for s.o.' gendar 'sleeve' an'uns	
VC_V	/naxná∙/	[nʌ x̞ná]	'to hear <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>nuặna</i>	
V_CC	/si·línsk <b>~</b> /	[si:líˀn̞sƙʷ]	'to hunt' siilinsk	W.

### 2.1.B.3.a.3. Laterals:

The two laterals /l/ and /l/ contrast in non-initial positions: /l/ does not occur in initial position except in the interjection /le/. However, in Kincolith speech it occurs before unstressed vowels in some forms where other speakers have /ll/ (see remark under 2.1.B.3.a.2.).

<b>v_v</b>	/ <sup>?</sup> alísk <b>"/</b> /qalísk <b>"/</b>	[?alískw] [galískw]	'to be weak' 'to let go'	aliskw galiskw
	/mĺ·lukʷ/ /nďí·lukʷ/	[mí·lukw] [nníí·lukw]	'to dance' 'to be long (pl.)'	miilukw náiilukw
V_#	/čál/	[ર્હેર્લ]	'to fillet salmon; half-smoked	ts'al
	/c̃ál/	[હેર્વી]	salmon fillets' 'eyes, face'	ts'aİ
V_C*	/síls/ /síls/	[síls] [sí <sup>ʔ</sup> ̞̞̞̞̞̞̞̞̞̞	'(X) is drunk' 'to spin yarn'	sils(X) sils
V_CC	/ķílsk <b>"/</b> /ķílsk"/	[gíls <b>k</b> w] [gí?lskw]	'to moan' 'to pick, gather (berries, clams, etc.)'	gilskw gilskw

#### 2.1.B.3.a.3.a. /1/

/l/ is a non-glottalized dental lateral; it is normally voiced, except after an obstruent.

*_V	/lá·n/ /líl <b>k™</b> s/ /lú·c/	[lá·n] [lílk <b>w</b> s] [lÚ·ේ]	'fish eggs' 'to steal' '(hair, fur) to fall, shed'	laan lilkws luuts
V_V	/milít/	[mɪlít]	'steelhead'	milit
	/qaná·luk*/	[ga ná·lUkw]	'sparks'	ganaalukw
	/wilá·x/	[wɪlá·ç]	'to know <u>s.</u> '	wilaax
V_ <b>#</b>	/ptál/	[pdál]	'ribs; to rise'	pdal
	/ <sup>?</sup> úl/	[²úl]	'black bear'	ul
	/lipwé·l/	[lɪpwɛ́·l]	'frying-pan'	lipweel

\*C\_V As there is a tendency to devoicing in this position there may be slight spirantization and confusion with the lateral fricative /4/ (see /4/2.1.B.2.a.2.), especially after a Velar fricative.

/pláksk <b>"</b> /	[p]ákskw, p4ál	plakskw	
/xlíl̃/	[x]íl, x4íl]	'to be delicious'	<u>x</u> liİ
/xlip/	[xlip, x4ip]	'(proc.) at the tip'	<u>x</u> lip

Conversely, after a Velar stop the lateral fricative /4/ may be despirantized and realized as /1/: (cf. p. 80):

\*\_R/\*R\_ only before or after another /l/ in reduplication:

	/llilk <b>~</b> s/	[llilkws]	'to be stealing, to always steal'	llilkws
V_C#	/káls/ /kwalkw/ /čimílx/	lg <sup>y</sup> áls] [gwalkw] [tsimílç]	'mussels' 'to be dry' 'beaver'	guls gwalkw ts'imilx
VR_V	/'allisk"/ /saqanlak"s/	['A llísk''] [SA GA nlak''s]	'to be weak (pl.)' 'woodpile'	alliskw saganlakws
V_RV	/ <sup>?</sup> al <sup>?</sup> áÎaq/	[?a l?ála q	'to show anger aggressivenes, determination, (pl.)'	al'ala <u>k</u>
V_CV	/milmal/	[mítlmál]	'to button <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '	m'ilmal
VC_V	/liple·t/	[hplet]	'priest'	lipleet
V_CC#	/ptáltkʷ/ /txálpx <b>/</b>	[pdáltkw] [txálpx]	'to climb' 'four [non-humans]'	pdallkw t <u>x</u> alp <u>x</u>
V_C#	/lált/	[lált]	'worm, snake'	lalt

## 2.1.B.3.a.3.b. ///

 $/\hat{1}/$  is a pre-glottalized dental lateral, always voiceless. It does not occur initially.

V_V	/qate·lip/ / <sup>?</sup> álaq/	[GA de lip] [?alA ql	anchor to show anger, determination,	gadeelip ala <u>k</u>
	/piľist/	[bːlíst]	agressiveness' 'star'	bilist

V_#	/lé·Î/	[າຣ໌-ໃ]	'to forbid <u>s.o.</u> to do sthg'	leeİ
	/ĉá]/	[tsá]]	'eyes, face'	ts'ai
V_C*	/číít/ /dó·lt/ /ķstú·lt/	[ૡ૾ૺૼૼ <sup>?I</sup> ]t૾] [ઌૣૺૼ૾ <sup>?ට</sup> ]t૾] [ksgÚ <sup>(U</sup> ]t]	'mittens, gloves' 'six (non-humans)' 'tears'	ts'ilt <u>k</u> 'oolt ksduult
v_cv	/lílkit/	[lí?lkɪt]	'feast, to hold a feast'	lilgit
	/hałálsisim/ /do·ltó·l/	[h+4á <sup>2A</sup> lsisim] [q̂ɔ <sup>.20</sup> ldɔ́·l]	"Work!" (pl.)' 'six (humans)'	Hahlaİsisim! <u>k</u> 'ooldool
V_CC#	/yò <sup>?</sup> oksčáltk <b>"</b> /	[yó?oks&á <sup>?A</sup> ]tk	"] 'to wash one's face'	yo'oksts'altkw
VC_V	/qalixlitit/	[ga]ixlíqit]	's/he dropped them'	galixlidit

#### 2.1.B.3.b. Glides:

The plain glides /y/ and /w/ have glottalized counterparts  $/\hat{y}/$  and  $/\hat{w}/$ .

Glottalized  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  and  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  each have two basic allophones;

- before a vowel, glottalization occurs simultaneously with the resonant articulation, and a single consonantal sound is heard:

- finally or before consonant, glottal stricture occurs separately, ahead of the resonant articulation, and two distinct sounds are pronounced and heard. In absolute final position, this separation results in a glottal stop followed by a

high voiceless echo vowel with the same place of articulation as the resonant. [J] for  $/\sqrt[3]{}$ , [U] for  $/\sqrt[3]{}$ , for instance:

$$/m\hat{a}\cdot\hat{y}/$$
  $[m\hat{a}:^{7}]$  'berries' *masy*  $/t\hat{u}\cdot\hat{w}/$   $[d\hat{u}:^{2}\hat{y}]$  'over there' *duuw*

In preconsonantal position, this realization also occurs if the vowel preceding  $/\sqrt[3]{l}$  is  $/\sqrt{l}$ , that before  $/\sqrt[3]{l}$  is  $/\sqrt{l}$ , as in:

In general though, the realization corresponds to that of the glottalized syllabics: a vowel is inserted between the glottal stop and the plain resonant. The quality of this vowel mirrors that of the preceding vowel and is not related to the resonant. Alternately, a vowel may be inserted between  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  or  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  and the following consonant, placing the resonant in intervocalic position, where it has its normal single-sound realization. This pronunciation is the more deliberate one, and occurs especially if the preceding vowel is long, and/or if the resonant is followed by a suffix containing /S/.

The two glottalized glides are partly in complementary distribution with the glottal stop /?/. Although the three contrast in most positions, only  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  occurs after long /i-/, only / $\sqrt[3]{}$  occurs after long /u-/.

#### 2.1.B.3.b.1. Palatal glides:

The palatal glides /y/ and  $/y^2/$  contrast with each other:

	/ỹim/	[ỷím]	'porcupine quills'	ýi <b>m</b>
v_v	/wi.yé.n/	[wi: yé·n]	'large cloud'	wii yeen
	/miye.n/	[miyé·n]	'smoke'	miyeen

There is no contrast in final position as /y/ does not occur in that position, but in this position  $/\hat{y}$ / contrasts with the fricative /X/ (2.1.B.2.b.1.):

/lá <b>ý/</b> /láx/	[lá?]] [láç]	'to be large' 'fur, body hair'	laÿ lax
/lim²ó⋅ỷ/	[lɪm²ó·ỷ]	'traditional	lim'ooÿ
/mó·x/	[mɔ́-ç]	funeral song' 'to act like <u>s.o.</u> '	moox

as well as the glottalized palato-velar stop /k/:

and the glottal stop /?/:

2.1.B.3.b.1.a. /y/

/y/ is a palatal resonant, normally voiced.

<b>#</b> _V	/yĺpx̞/	[yípx]	'slime, gravy'	yip <u>r</u>
	/yú·xk <b>w</b> /	[yÚ·xkw]	'to eat'	yuu <u>x</u> kw
	/yáx <b>*</b> /	[yáxʷ]	'to hide ( <u>s.t.</u> )'	yaxw

<b>v_v</b>	/miyá4/	[miya4]	'blueberry sp.'	miyah!
	/piyó·sk <b>~</b> /	[bɪyɔ́·sk͡w]	mosquito,	biyoosk w
	,		black fly	
	/ºantú-yin/	[?andú-yin]	'garden'	anduuyin

 $V_{-}$ \* /y/ does not occur word-finally except after unstressed vowel, in the suffix  $\{-^{7}X\}$  which occurs as  $/(C)^{7}ay$ / after uvulars (7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1.):

	/maxmáday/	[ma xmáda y]	'rainbow'	maxma <u>k</u> 'ay
V_C(C)#	/ <del>4</del> áyx/	[4áyx]	'sour berries preserved in oolicha	<i>hlay<u>∓</u></i> ∙n
	/táyks/	[dáyks]	grease and water' "Indian ice-cream" (soapberries	dayks
	/dapdúyp/ /da <sup>9</sup> úyx <b>*</b> /	[d͡ʌ pd͡oyp်] [t͡sʌ ºoyxʷ]	whipped with snow)' 'bunchberries' '(place) underground	k'spk'oyp
v_cv	/qúypax/	[qóyða x]	'light; to be bright'	goyp'ag
VR_V	/hinyánčiks/ /qalyĺn/	[hinyántiks] [galyín]	to tickle <u>s.o.</u> to go into a house secretly, usually for nefarious purpos	<i>hinyants'iks</i> <i>galyin</i> es'
S_V	/syáx/ /hasyáyks/	[syáç] [ha syáyks]	'to be scorched'	syax hasyayks

Remark: Devoiced [y] after an initial stop is better classified as a realization of /X/, because it alternates with a pronunciation [ $\zeta$ ] and because of Velar fricative patterning (2.1.B.2.b.). After /S/, pronunciation is [y], never [ $\zeta$ ], and occurrence is consistent with that of the glide /W/ (2.1.B.3.b.2.a.), not that

of a Velar fricative. Occurrences of [y] after /S/ are therefore considered realizations of the glide /y/.

**2.**1.B.3.b.1.b. /ỷ/

 $/\hat{y}$ / is a pre-glottalized palatal resonant, voiceless.

<b>#</b> V	/g̃ímq/ /g̃úx <b>~</b> / /gáq/	[ỷímắ] [ỷúx~] [ỷáắ]	'whiskers, beard' 'to fish with a line' 'to hang (s.t.)'	ýimk ýurw ýsk
<b>v_v</b>	/miyé·n/	[mɪỷé·n]	'smoke'	miÿeen
V_#	/?asáỷ/ /cí·ỷ/ /lim?ó·ỷ/	[?Asá?]] [dzí:?]] [lɪm?ɔ́:?]]	'foot, leg' 'partitions in a canoe 'traditional lament'	asaý jiiý lim'ooý
#S_V	/sÿ́é·n/ /4ÿ́ó·n/	[s.yɛ́·n] [4.ŷɔ́·n]	'bottom (of a boat or container)' 'tanned elk hide'	sýeen hlýoon
VR_V	/damyé·n/	[đam.ýć·n]	'toilet paper'	k'amÿeen
VC_V	/maxýimq(t)/	[maxyímq(t)]	'bearded, wearing	ḿa <u>xý</u> im <u>k</u> (t)
	/lis <b>ÿé·n/</b>	[lis.ŷé·n]	a moustache' 'mink'	lisÿeen
V_C(C)#	/kíýt/ /sáýs/ /sk <b>w</b> á·ýtk <b>w</b> /	[gí <sup>?l</sup> t] [sá <sup>?A</sup> ys] [sgwá. <sup>?A</sup> ytkw]	'here' 'pilings' 'to rest'	giýt saýs sgwaaýtkw
V_CV	/háýtax/	[há <sup>ʔ[</sup> dʌx̞]	'Haida(s)'	Haÿda <u>x</u>

## 2.1.B.3.b.2. Labiovetar glides:

The labiovelar glides /W/ and  $/W^2/$  do not occur before long or short /U/. They contrast with each other:

#_V	/wá/ /wa/	[wá] [wá]	name to find, reach <u>s</u> .	wa va
v_v	/siwá/ /ksiwa/	[sɪwá] [ksɪwá]	'to name <u>s.'</u> 'to find out <u>s.t.</u> '	siwa ksiwa
	/tá·wa/ /qaná·wa/	[dá·wa] [ga ná·wa]	'Is it ice? Is it frozer 'Is it a frog?'	n?' Daawa? Ganaawa?
V_#	/tá·w/ /qaná·w³/	[dá·Ų] [ga ná·? <sup>Ų</sup> ]	ice, to be frozen'	daaw ganaaw
	/ké·w/	[gaę·ሺ]	'below the houses,	geew
	/c̃é·₩́/	[દ્ષ્ટુદ્•ડિંતુ]	down by the river' 'insides, guts'	ts'eeŵ

The labiovelar glides do not occur after long or short /i/ in word- or syllable-final position.

## 2.1.B.3.b.2.a. /W/

/W/ is a non-glottalized labiovelar resonant, voiced.

<b>*</b> _V	/wílp/	[wílṗ]	'house'	wilp
	/wóq/	[wɔ́ɸ́]	'to sleep'	wo <u>k</u>
	/wilá·x/	[wɪláːç]	'to know <u>s.</u> '	wilaar
<b>v_v</b>	/huwílp/	[huwílþ]	'houses'	huwilp

	/wó·waq/ /ta·wé/	[wɔ́·wʌð̞] [aw·ab]	'to sleep (pl.)' 'mountain sheep'	woowa <u>k</u> daawe
<b>#</b> \$_	/swán/	[swán]	'to blow on <u>s.t.</u> '	SWAA
VR_V	/wilwálx/	[wɪlwálç]	'to carry <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> on one's back'	wilwalx
VC_V	/waxwóq/	[p͡cwx aw]	'bat'	wo <u>x</u> wo <u>k</u>
Syllable-	finally, it has a v	ocalic realization:		
V_ <b>*</b>	/ké·w/	<b>[</b> Β <sub>Α</sub> ξ·ሸ <b>]</b>	'below the houses,	geew
	/tá·w/	[dá·ਪූ]	down by the river' 'ice; to be frozen'	daaw
V_C#	/²áws/	[²ʌ´U̯s]	'sand'	aws
V_CV	/qáwsuk <b>"</b> / /qawqá·w/	^	'to be quiet' 'crow'	gawsukw <u>k</u> 'aw <u>k</u> 'aaw
<b>2.</b> 1.B.3.2.	b.2. <u>/w</u> /			
/w³/	is a glottalized	labiovelar resona	nt, voiceless.	
<b>#_V</b>	/wén/ /wák/	[we·n] [wá·kʰ]	'teeth; fisher' 'young (of a large animal), calf, cub'	₩een ₩aak
	/w <sup>3</sup> ó <sup>?</sup> /	[ӎ҇ <sub>၃</sub> ၁န်]	'to call, invite <u>s.o.</u> '	tivo 'o
<b>v_v</b>	/siwé·ntkws/ /miwácx/	[sīwentkws] [mīwatx]	'dentures' 'to be naughty, crazy'	siweentkws miwats <u>r</u>

V_#	/xpá·w/ /nuw/ /cé·w/	[çþá <sup>.?V</sup> ] In <sup>Ú?V</sup> ] Itéé. <sup>?V</sup> ]	'jaw' 'to die, be dead' 'insides, guts'	xbaaŵ auŵ ts eeŵ
#CS_V	/xsw̃inq/	[xs.wint]	'herring eggs'	<u>xswink</u>
VC_V	/hiswe-skw/ /witwa/	[hɪswɛ́skw] [wɪtwá]	'to show off' 'to find, reach <u>s. (pl.)</u> '	hiswooskw Witwa
V_CV	/háwtin/	[há <sup>yy</sup> tīn, háwīt	In] 'to put a stop to <u>s.t.</u>	hawt in
V_C#	/tá·₩4/ /tá₩4/	[dá <sup>.?A Ư</sup> Ḥ , dá·w [dá <sup>?A ƯḤ</sup> , dáw]	14] 'to leave' 4] 'early (in the mor	
V_CC#	/c̃áv/qs/	Itšá? A Uqs, tšáwi	A qs] 'shoes'	dawihl ts'awa <u>k</u> s

<u>Remark</u>: In deliberate pronunciation non-final  $/\hat{W}$  is almost always followed by a vowel. Because of this, in the following chapters the transcription follows the practical orthography in indicating this vowel: thus  $/t\hat{a}\cdot\hat{W}$  to leave instead of  $/t\hat{a}\cdot\hat{W}$ .

#### 2.1.B.3.b.3. Glottals:

The glottals are /h/ and /?/. Although they are respectively a stop and a fricative, some of their behavior is shared with the resonants, and in some alternations (e.g. in reduplication) /h/ is to /?/ as /m/ is to /m/ and /n/ to /m/.

The glottals /h/ and /?/ contrast prevocalically:

<b>*</b> _V	/hi/	[hi-]	'(pref.) going to (a place)'	<i>ħii-</i>
	/?i·/	[?i:]	'and then'	<i>ii</i>
	/háp/	[háṕ]	'to cover, clamp on, jump on <u>s.t.</u> .'	hap
	/ <sup>?</sup> áp/	[ <sup>?</sup> áṗ]	'bee, wasp'	ap
	/há·t/ /°á·t/	[há·t] [°á·t]	'guts, intestines' 'fishnet; to fish [w. a net]'	haat aat
<b>V_V</b>	/qahá·tti·t/ /qa <sup>?</sup> á·tti·t/	=	'their guts' 'their nets'	gahaatdiit ga'aatdiit
	/tìhú·t/	[dɪhÚ·t]	'to take <u>s.t.(pi.)</u> and	dihuut
	∕si²ú·t/	[sɪʔÚ·t]	run away with them' 'to bake potatoes'	si'uut

# $V_{-}^{*}$ There is no contrast in final position, where /h/ does not occur, but /?/ contrasts with a plain vocalic ending:

/yá <sup>?</sup> / / yá/	[yá <sup>?</sup> &] [yá]	'spring salmon' ' said' (used in o	ya'a
/ ya/	(Aa)	said (used in C	(uotes) ya
/ná·?/	[ná.?4]	'Mom'	Naa'a
/ná·/	[ná·]	'Who?'	Naa
/só <sup>?</sup> /	[sɔ́ˀɣ်]	'(to take) food hom	ne <i>so'o</i>
/k₩a·só/	ig <b>™</b> a∙sɔ́i	from a feast'	awaaso

The glottal stop  $/^2/$  also contrasts with the glottalized uvular stop  $/\hat{q}/$ 

(2.1.B.1.e.3.b.).

#### 2.1.B.3.b.3.a. /h/

/h/ is a voiceless glottal fricative. The amount of articulatory energy expended to pronounce /h/ varies from strong to minimal and even zero, depending on the environment and on the speaker's consciousness of morphophonemic relationships.

\*\_V /h/ is fully audible in this position although it may be weakened in sandhi:

/hátiks/	[hádiks]	'to swim'	hadiks
/hé·dal/	[hé·d̃∧l]	'to insist, to urge'	hee <u>k</u> 'al
/hó·n/	[hɔ́·n]	'fish, esp. salmon'	hoon
/hú·xʷ/	[hÚ·xʷ]	sawwhet owl'	huuxw

/h/ is also fully audible intervocalically before stressed vowel:

V_V	/ºahá·/	[²ʌ há·]	what a sight!	ahaa
			(interjection used	
			for the beauties of	
			nature)'	
	/sihó·n/	[sɪhɔ́·n]	'to catch and	sihoon
			process fish'	

Initially before unstressed vowel, /h/ is weakly pronounced and may drop altogether after a word ending in a consonant.

/hani·tá·/	[hʌ rli-ta-]	'chair'	hań i it aa
/lax hani tá/	[la xa ni tá.]	on the chair	lax hañ iit aa

/hahé-/ [hahé-] to be speaking, hahee making a noise'

/Máry4 hahè·t/ [Máry4 h hè·t] "Mary speaking" Maryhl haheet.

(on the phone)

/huwil/ [hUwilj 'to be (somewhere)' huwil/
/nta wil huwilin/ [ndawilUwilin] 'Where are you?'

Nds wil huwilin?

V\_\* /h/ does not occur finally or before a consonant in normal speech. In emphatic speech, as in oratory, one frequently hears [sah] 'day' not [sa]. Older derivatives show evidence of former /h/ in this position, e.g. in the long vowel of /txalpxsa·ta/ 'four-day period' txalpxsaada; newer ones do not, cf. the short vowel of /satkw/ 'day of ...' satkw, or /yukwsatkw/ 'to be caught by nightfall' yukwsatkw.

C\_C After a stop. /h/ is fully audible: less so after a fricative:

/hathátiks/ [hathádiks] 'to swim (pl.)' hathadiks
/hapháp/ [hapháp] 'to cover, clamp on, haphap
jump on s.t.(pl.)'

After a fricative or resonant, /h/ often does not have a glottal onset; it may disappear altogether, or be marked only by a juncture phenomenon: the previous consonant is pronounced as syllable-final in the previous syllable rather than syllable-initial in the syllable beginning with /h/; thus the vowel preceding that consonant is shorter than if it was in an open syllable. There is no hiatus between the consonant, and the vowel following /h/ and the difference between such a sequence and an ordinary consonant-vowel sequence is very slight, and is often not made. Persons who do make the distinction perceive a silent /h/. This occurs most often in words which have a readily observable relationship with others where /h/ is initial, especially

reduplicated or prefixed forms where the plain word is also in use, as in:

/haxhó-x/ [haç.ó-ç] 'to wear, use s.t. (pl.)' haxhoox (full reduplication on /hó-x/ [hó-ç] 'to use, wear s.t.' hoox)

/qanháča?/ [GA n.áts A? A] 'clothespin' ganhats a a

(prefix on /háča?/ [háts A? A] 'to bite' hats a a)

/danhix/ [dan.ic] 'edible pine-bark' k'anhix (prefix on /hix/ [hic] 'fat' hix)

After initial /x, the presence of /h may similarly be marked by a slight lengthening of the fricative:

/xhó·n/ [x.ó·n] 'to eat fish' <u>xhoon</u> /xháykw/ [x.áykw] 'to capsize' <u>xhaykw</u>

Because of this, an underlying or historical /h/ must be suspected in many words of otherwise unusual phonological or phonetic shape, for instance

[qA4Úmq] 'to swallow s.t. <u>k'ahlumk'</u> at one gulp' prob. from /da4húmd/

[hA4ÚÅAq4kw] 'to boil' hahl(h)utl'akhlkw (reduplicated form /ha4)hú¾aq4kw/)

even where there is no historical or comparative evidence as there is in

/?anú4/ [?Anú4] 'drum' *anuhl*(prob. from /?anhú4/ cf. C.T.

nahoo! [nAhɔ́-4])

/hakwilúxw/	[hagwilÚxw]	'rope' (C.T. <i>hagwil<b>h</b>urw</i> )	hagwiluxw
/qanáta/	[ga náda]	'Frog-Raven clan' (Boas (Ganhada))	<u>G</u> anada

## 2.1.B.3.b.3.b. /?/

The glottal stop /?/ has a wider distribution than /h/. It occurs word-finally, but not after high vowels, where it is in complementary distribution with  $/\hat{y}/$  and  $/\hat{w}/$ . /?/ is not very forcefully articulated. The release of /?/ in final or preconsonantal position is accompanied by a weak vowel echoing the vowel preceding /?/. In this transcription the weak vowel is indicated in preconsonantal position, but not in final position.

#_V	/ <sup>?</sup> á·t/	[?á·t]	'fishnet; to fish	aat .
	/²ús/ /²í.c/	[?Ús] [?í.၆]	with a net' 'dog' 'to fry, iron <u>s.t.</u> '	us iits
<b>V_V</b>	/q̃a²ít/ /ha²í-c̃a²/ /²í-²uxwt/	[q̃a²íŧ] [ha²í·ťa²4] [²í.²Uxwt]	'dog salmon' 'an iron' 'men, boys'	k'a'it ha'iits'a'a ii'uxwt
VR_V	/ <sup>?</sup> al <sup>?</sup> álkax/ / <sup>?</sup> an <sup>?</sup> ánk <sup>w</sup> s/	[?A l?álg <sup>y</sup> A x] [?A n?ánkws]	'to speak (pl.)' 'to be cooked, baked, done (pl.)'	ai'aiga <u>x</u> an'ankws
VC_V	/°as°ús/ /°at°á∙ťiķsk∾/	[?As?Ús] [?At?á·ťikskw]	'dogs' 'to come, arrive (pl.)'	as'us 'ikskw
	/lax਼ <sup>9</sup> ú/	[la x²ú]	top surface (of s.t.)	

\*C\_V This occurs after consonantal prefixes. The presence of /?/ causes slight lengthening of the preceding Velar fricative:

	/x਼ºú·t/		'to eat bread' 'to eat baked potatoo 'S] '(hair) to be red'	<u>x'aaax</u> es' <u>x'uul</u> xs'ihlee'elkws
		[lʌ¤ç.ºát]	'Observatory Inlet'	Luz x'aat
V_#	A voiceless co	py vowel is added	after final post-vocalio	c / <sup>?</sup> /.
	/²é.²/ /ptó²/	[pďɔʔʔ]	'yes' 'door'	ee'e ndo'o

to clap; to pat

or slap s.t.

t'a'a

and also in preresonantal and preconsonantal position:

V_R	/mó <sup>?</sup> n/	[mɔ́ <sup>ʔϽ</sup> n]	'salt'	mo'on
V_C	/ló <sup>?</sup> p/ /ká <sup>?</sup> ł/	[]ɔ́ <sup>ɔɔ</sup> p] [gਖáɔæɬ]	'stone, rock' 'Look! (lit. see the)'	lo'op Ga'ahi!
V_CC	/yó <sup>?</sup> ks/ /ká <sup>?</sup> skʷ/	[yɔ́ <sup>ʔɔ</sup> ks] [guá́ <sup>ʔa</sup> skw]	'to wash <u>s.t.</u> ' 'to look (around)'	yo'oks ga'askw

Remark: Although the preconsonantal echo vowel is predictable, in the following chapters the transcription follows the practical orthography in indicating this vowel: e.g. /yo'oks/ not /yo'ks/ 'to wash s.' yo'oks, /saksa'anskw/ not /saksa'nskw/ 'to clean up' saksa'anskw.

V\_CC /yó
$$^{9}$$
ks/ [yó $^{9}$ ks] 'to wash s.t.' yo'oks /ká $^{9}$ sk $^{w}$ / [g $^{y}$ á $^{9}$ dsk $^{w}$ ] 'to look (around)' ga'ask $^{w}$ 

Remark: Although the preconsonantal echo vowel is predictable, in the following pages the transcription follows the practical orthography in indicating this vowel: e.g. /yo'oks/ not /yo'ks/ 'to wash\_s.' yo'oks, /saksa'anskw/ not /saksa'nskw/ 'to clean up' saksa'anskw.

#### 2.2. VOWELS.

Nisgha has both long and short vowels, occurring in both stressed and unstressed syllables. However, not all vowels occur in all environments. Only long and short /a/ occur in all consonantal environments; the other vowels have each at least one consonantal environment where they do not occur.

- Long and short vowels of similar quality contrast with each other, especially under stress:

#### /i /contrasts with /i./:

/ <sup>?</sup> is/ / <sup>?</sup> i·s/	[?ís] [?í·s]	'soapberries' 'urine; to' urinate'	is iis
/čip/ /či·p/	[ଝíp̂] [ଝí·p̂]	'bone' 'to close one's eyes; to tie <u>s.t.</u> w. a knot'	ts'ip ts'iip
/pil̃ist/ /pi·l̃ist/	[bːlíst] [bi·líst]	'star' 'stars'	bilist biilist

## NISGHA VOWELS

## Long:

	Front	Back
High	i.	u∙
Mid	e·	0.
Low	ć	ì·

## Short:

	Front	Back
High	i	u
Mid	е	0
Low		a

## /u/contrasts with /u-/:

	/?úl/ /?ú·l/	[?Ú] [?Ú-]]	'black bear' 'baby clam'	ul uul
	/lukws/ /lukws/	[lÚkws] [lÚ·kws]	'(X)'s belongings' 'bundle of forty dried fish'	lukws (X) luukws
	/kún/ /kú·n/	lgúnl lgú-ríl	'this' 'now, today'	gun guuń
	/kutác/ /lu-qác/	[k̃Udát͡s] [lU-gát͡s]	'coat' '(liquid) to be in s.t.'	k'udats' luugats
/a/ contra	asts with /a·/			
	/pá4/ /pá4/	[bá+]	'to be spread flat, smooth (e.g. blanket)	bah! baah!
	/pa· <del>1</del> /	[Da-Ŧ]	to cut open <u>s.t.</u> (an animal)	08801
	/ptál/ /ptá·l/	[pdál] [pdá·l]	'(water) to rise; ribs' 'to flood'	pdal pdaal
	/hátiķs/ /há·tiķs/	[hádīks] [há-dīks]	'to swim' 'raw hemlock cambium'	hadiks haadiks
	/hanáď/ /ha·náď/	[ha náq] [ha náq]	'woman' 'women'	hana <u>k</u> ' haana <u>k</u> '

/e/contrasts with /e/: as /e/ is very rare (2.2.B.3.), there do not seem to be any true minimal pairs:

	/ĉé <b>ێ</b> / /ĉé·d̞/	[gex] [geq]	'mountain juniper' 'to be deaf; pus from the ears'	ts'ez ts'ee <u>k</u> '
	/yé <sup>?</sup> / /yé·/	[yέ <sup>?</sup> ξ] [yέ·]	'Grandfather!' 'to go, walk'	Ye'e yee
/0/contra	sts with /0./:			
	/łóq/ /łóq/	[t͡ɔ႖͡] [t͡ɔ-႖͡]	'to claw at <u>s.t.'</u> 'to suck at <u>s.t.</u> '	t'o <u>k</u> t'oo <u>k</u>
	/yó <sup>?</sup> oķs/ /yó <sup>.?</sup> oķs/	[yɔ́ <sup>ʔɔ</sup> ks] [yɔ́ <sup>ʔɔ</sup> ks]	'to wash <u>s.t.'</u> 'to wash <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '	yo'oks yoo'oks
	/ <sup>?</sup> ató <sup>?</sup> / / <sup>?</sup> antó <sup>.</sup> ?/	[?A dɔ́??] [?A ndɔ́.??]	'Gol' 'next door'	Ado'o/ andoo'o .
	/ķiló/ /ló·/	[gɪ]ɔ́] [lɔ́·]	'Don't!' 'to be moored, parked (pl.)'	Gilo! Ioo

The long vowels contrast between themselves, but not all of them appear in all environments: for instance, within a word or syllable long  $/i\cdot/$  does not occur before or after uvulars, and long  $/u\cdot/$  does not occur before anterior velars or uvulars; neither of these high vowels occurs before a glottal stop.

/i/ and /e/

C_	/kí·s/ /ké·ĉ/	[gí·s] [gyé·t͡s]	'to be or do wrong' '(place) downriver, to the South'	giis geets'
	/laxskí·k/ / <sup>?</sup> amké·k/	[] A mgɛ́·k͡ч]	'the Eagle clan' 'duck sp.'	La <u>x</u> sgiik amgoek
	/Ķ̃i·la²/ /Ḱe·la²/	[ki·la ?4] [kyé·la ?4]	'the palm and wrist'	k'iila'a k'eela'a
	/či·kʷ/ /ċé·ŵ/	[tši.kw] [tšé.?V]	'to leak' 'insides, guts'	ts'iikw ts'eeŵ
_C	/cí·xʷ/ /sitxé·xʷ/	(œí·xʷ] [sɪtyέ·xʷ]	'porpoise' 'to change <u>s.t.</u> '	jiixw sityeexw
	/lí·lip/ /qaté·lip/	[lí·lɪþ] [ga dɛ́·lɪþ]	'stone weir' 'anchor'	liilip gadeelip
/e·/ and	/a·/ contrast und	der stress:		
C_	/sé·ks/	[sɛ́·ks]	'to splash water on <u>s.</u> '	seeks-(di)
	/sá·k/	[sá·kʰ]	'oolichans'	saak
	/qé·x/ /qá·q/	[gế·x̞] [gá·q́]	'to grind, file <u>s.t.'</u> 'raven; to point a finger at <u>s.'</u>	gee <u>x</u> gaa <u>k</u>
	/kwé. <sup>?</sup> / /kwá·s/	[gʷéːˀ&] [gʷá·s]	'to be poor, pitiful' 'to lend s.t. to <u>s.o.</u> '	gwee'e gwaas-(di)
_c	/ <sup>o</sup> e·q/	<b>[</b> <sup>γ</sup> έ·႖ૄံ]	'coho'	ee <u>k</u>

/ <sup>2</sup> á·q/	[²á·ģ]	'mouth, lips'	aa <u>k</u>
/ké·w/	[B <sub>A</sub> ę·Й]	below the houses,	geew
/dá·w/	[dá·ਪූ]	near the water' 'ice; to be frozen'	daaw

Remark: There is sometimes free variation between  $/e\cdot/$  and  $/a\cdot/$  in some unstressed morphemes, especially before /y/, as in:

$$/\hat{y}$$
aqay/~ $/\hat{y}$ a·y/~ $/\hat{y}$ e·y/~ $/\hat{y}$ e·/ 'precisely, exactly, instead'  $\hat{y}$ ay

/a·/ and /0·/:

C_	/qá·q/	[gá·ģ]	raven; to point	gaa <u>k</u>
	/qó·q/	[ <b>G</b> ɔ́-q]	a finger at <u>s.'</u> '(place) [in] front [of], (time) before	gook
	/sá·q/ /só·d/	[sá·႖ိ] [sɔ́·႖ိ]	'to stretch <u>s.t.</u> (a pelt)' 'robin'	saa <u>k</u> -(di) soo <u>k</u> '
	/ná·sik/ /nó·sik/	[ná·sik³] [nó·sik³]	'raspberries' 'wolverine'	naasik' noosik'
_C	/qá·p/ /qó·p/	[gá·ႃဝုံ] [gɔဴ·ႃဝုံ]	'to scratch <u>s.t.</u> (lightly 'wave'	goop
	/²á·ta·/ /²ó·ta·/	[?á·d.A.] [?ó·d.A.]	'[spider] 's web' 'diapers'	aada ooda
/0·/ and	/u-/:			
c_	/só·d̞/	[sɔ́·d̞͡]	'robi <u>n</u> '	500 <u>k</u> '

	/sú·qsk <b>"</b> /	[sű·qsk <b>™</b> ]	'to dive'	suu <u>k</u> skw
	/ló·ķs/ /lú·k <b>™</b> s/	[lɔ́·ks] [lú́·kʷs]	'to float (pl.)' 'bundle of forty dried fish'	looks luukws
	/hó·/ /hú·/	[hố·] [hÚ·]	'to scream, holler' 'to make a loud continuous noise (e.g. siren)'	hoo huu
_c	/qó·q/	[gɔ́·q]	'(place) [in] front [of], (time) before	<b>g</b> 00 <b>₫</b>
	/?ú·q/	[ʔÚ-q]	'copper, brass'	
	/sqó·l/ /ķstú·lt/	[sgɔ́·ʔ] [ksd̞lĺ·ʔ <sup>U</sup> lt͡]	'to be cross-eyed' 'tears'	sgooi ksduuit
	/ló·laq/ /lú·laď/	[lɔ́·lʌ ð̞] [lឃ́·lʌ d̞́]	'to be rotted (pl.)' 'corpse, ghost'	loola <u>k</u> luula <u>k</u> '

#### 2.2.A. Long vowels

The long vowels /i-/, /e-/, /a-/, /0-/, /u-/ contrast in most environments, although some have restricted occurrences.

In stressed position in a word, a long vowel is always longer than a short one, and when it bears the major stress of a sentence it can be several times longer.

In unstressed (usually pre-stress) position a long vowel may remain long; as stress is characterized by higher pitch, sometimes in slow speech an unstressed long vowel starts on a fairly low pitch and 'climbs' towards the higher pitch in two steps, so there is no abrupt transition, e.g.

On the other hand, a long vowel may also be shorter than in stressed position, especially in rapid speech:

but it is not usually as short as a short vowel. While most short vowels in unstressed positions are predictable according to their immediate environment (see below 2.2.B.4), shortened long vowels do not usually lose their distinctive quality (although there are cases where they are replaced by short vowels of predictable quality). In the phonetic transcription used in this section, long stressed vowels are indicated by [V:], long unstressed vowels (where shortened) by [V:].

#### Long vowel shortening:

Long vowels are usually phonetically shorter in unstressed than in stressed environments, e.g.:

and they are then sometimes as short as short vowels, but where the quality of unstressed short vowels is largely predictable from the surrounding consonants, that of long vowels is not (2.2.B.4.).

Many people have unstressed long vowels in deliberate speech, which they shorten without loss of vowel quality in ordinary speech.

There are also cases where YFS regularly have short vowels where OFS have long vowels, especially in a number of modifiers (always unstressed) where a long vowel in OFS speech results from /Q/-deletion:

Boas, very formal: OFS: YES:

/paqayt/ /pa·yt/ ~ /payt/ [bAyt] 'in the middle' ba(a)yt/yaqay/ /ya·y/ ~ /yay/ [yAy] 'precisely, exactly, instead' ya(a)y

#### 2.2.A.1. The high vowels /i-/and /u-/:

#### 2.2.A.1.a. /i·/

/i./ is a long high front vowel [i:], with some speakers [e:]; some older speakers have slight diphthongization) [e:i]. It does not occur adjacent to a uvular within the same syllable (but occasionally, affixation may bring it in contact with a uvular).

#### Under stress:

C_C#	/cí·c/ / <b>kʷ</b> í·k <b>ʷ</b> / /ta· <del>l</del> í·sk/	(Œĺ·Ś) [gwĺ·Ŕw] [da·ŧĺ·sŔ <sup>y</sup> ]	'Grandmother!' 'marmot' 'socks'	Jiits gwiikw daahliisk
c_cv	/mí·lukʷ/ /plí·4ikskʷ/	[mí·lukw] [p]í·41kskw]	'to dance' 'to be tired (pl.)'	miilukw pliihlikskw
C_#	/kantə <del>1</del> i·/ /qatipti·/	[g₄v uqi+į́·]	'coyote' 'the size of ( <u>s.t. pi.)</u> '	gandihlii gadipdii

#### Before stress:

V	/²i·nú·/	[?i∙nÚ·]	'turnip'	iinuu
	/kwi·lá/	[gʷi·lá]	'blankets'	gwiila
	/si·lĺn/	[si:lín]	to chase, pursue,	siilin
			hunts.'	

/mi-do qst/ [mi do qst] salmonberries miik ookst

In the last example, long /i:/ occurs before a uvular because it is part of the prefix (mi:-).

#### After stress:

In the last example, the suffix (-1) is attached to the word /piláq/ 'tree moss' bilak which ends in a uvular, causing lowering of the long high vowel.

#### 2.2.A.1.b. /u./

 $/u\cdot/$  is a slightly unrounded and lowered high back vowel [u:], sometimes [o:]; some older speakers have slight diphthongization [o: $\underline{v}$ ].

#### Under stress:

C_C	/tú·s/ / <sup>7</sup> ú·q/ /Ķú·kw/ /4ķú·4kw/	[dÚ·s] [?Ú·q] [k²Ú·k²w] [4gÚ·4k²w]	cat' 'copper, brass' 'tail (of an animal)' '(one's) child; to have a child'	duus uu <u>k</u> k'uukw' higuuhikw
C_#	/kipú·/	[grbÚ·]	'wolf'	gibuu
	/²i·nú·/	[?i·nÚ·]	'turnio'	iinuu

#### Before stress:

V	/mu·lá·/	[mU·lá·]	'sawmill'	muulaa
	V .	lyU ha dá,çl	'to drive'	yuuhadaax
	/cu·cáwaqs/	[tsu·tsáwa qs]	'pairs of shoes'	ts'awa <u>k</u> s

## 2.2.A.2. The long low vowel /a./:

/a-/ is a low, slightly fronted vowel.

#### Under stress:

C_C	/ <sup>?</sup> á·m/	[?á·m]	'to be good'	aam
	/má·ỷ/	[má·?]]	'berries'	maaÿ
	/qacá·q/	[ga Œá·ģ]	'cross'	gajaa <u>k</u>
c_cv	/tá·la/	[dá·la]	'money'	daala
C_#	/ťá·/	[ťá·]	'to sit'	t'aa
	/pilá·/	[bilá·]	'abalone'	bilaa

#### Before stress:

V	/pa·pá/	[ba·bá]	'Dadd <del>y</del> '	Baaba
	/ta· <del>4</del> ák™/	[t̂a⋅ <del>4</del> áƙʷ]	'tomorrow'	t'aahlakw
	/maska·wátax/ [maskya·wádax] 'butterfly'			mask'aawada <u>x</u>
	/txa·nítkws/	[txa·nítkws]	'all of , every'	t <u>x</u> aanitkws

In the speech of older speakers,  $/\hat{a}\cdot/$  is used to adapt English stressed (er) as well as (ar), e.g.

while /a/ adapts unstressed (er):

/pi·ta/	[pí·ṯa]	'Peter'
/píya/	[díya]	'beer'

## 2.2.A.3. The mid vowels /e/ and /o/:

## 2.2.A.3.a. /e·/

/e·/ is a lower mid, front vowel [8:].

### Under stress:

c_c	/ĉé-ĉiks/	[ඡිé·ඡිːks]	'dirt, ground'	ts'eets'iks
	/sé-qs/	[sé·qs]	'spruce'	see <u>k</u> s
	/yé-n/	[é·n]	'fog, cloud'	yeen
	/°é-q/	[?é·ģ]	'coho'	ee <u>k</u>
C_#	/ka·ta·lé·/	[gyada·lś:]	'spider'	gadaalee
	/yé·/	[yś:]	'to go, walk (sg)'	yee

#### Before stress:

<b>V</b>	/le·x/	[lɛ́·x̞]	(proc.) at both end	ds, <i>lee<u>x</u></i>
			back and forth'	
			(alternates with /la·X/ laag)	
	/te xŷúxʷ/		'halibut lines'	dee <u>x</u> ÿuxw
	/te·xhalímx/	[de·x.alimc]	'guitar, banjo'	dee <u>x</u> halimx

## **2.2.**A.3.b. /o·/

/0./ is a lower mid, slightly rounded back vowel [3:].

#### Under stress:

C_C	/kó·c/	[ૠૺં <sup></sup> ંદે]	'yesterday'	k'yoots
	/kwó·m/	[gʷɔ́·m]	'dust, ashes'	gwoom
	/qó·l/	[gɔ́·l]	'loo <b>n</b> '	gool
	/hamó·q/	[h∧mɔ́·q́]	'shaman's sucking	hamook
			tube; cow parsnip'	

/0-/ is slightly nasalized before unglottalized /n/ in the same syllable:  $\tilde{\mathfrak{I}}$  (this has not been indicated in the rest of the transcriptions)

	/hó·n/	[hɔ̃·n]	'fish, esp. salmon'	hoon
	/qó·ntk <b>w</b> /	[cɔ̃·ntkw]	'to be braided'	goontkw
C#	/qasqó·/ /kó·/	[ga sgɔ́·] [gਖɔ́·]	'the size of ( <u>s.</u> )' 'to be parked, moored'	gasgoo gyoo

#### Before stress:

<b>V</b>	/ko·lu·/	[kgao-JU-]	'alone (unstressed)'	k'yooluu
	/lo· <del>4</del> ikó·tk <b>w</b> /	[lɔ·ɬɪgʊ́ɔːtk͡w]	'axe'	loohligyootkw

### 2.2.B. Short vowels

The high vowels /i/ and /u/ and the low vowel /a/ are found in most stressed environments, the mid vowels /e/ and /o/ in more restricted environments, almost but not quite complementing those of /i/ and /u/.

In unstressed positions, slightly centralized versions of /i/, /u/ and /a/ predominate, largely but not wholly depending on the consonantal surroundings. The mid vowels /e/ and /O/ do not occur unstressed except as echo or transitional vowels.

#### 2.2.B.1 Contrasts between short vowels:

#### The short vowels all contrast under stress:

/tás/	(dás)	to touch <u>s.t.</u>	das
/tús/	(dús)	bone marrow	dus
/ķĺp/	[gíþ]	'to eat <u>s.t</u> .'	gip
/káp/	[g <sup>y</sup> áþ]	'to dip <u>s.t</u> .'	gap
/qís/	[gés]	'hair'	ges
/qús/	[gós]	'to jump'	gos
/yá <sup>ʔ</sup> /	[yá <sup>?</sup> &]	'spring salmon'	ya'a
/yé <sup>ʔ</sup> /	[yє́ <sup>?</sup> &]	'Grandfather!'	Ye'e
/náx/	[náx]	'snowshoes'	na <u>x</u>
/nóx/	[nɔ́x̞]	'mother'	

# 2.2.B.2. Contrasts between high and mid vowels.

The short vowels [E] and [D], which are phonetically the short counterparts of the long vowels (E) and (D), are almost always in complementary distribution with [I] and [U] respectively: [E] and [D] occur before uvulars and the glottal stop, and also often before glottalized resonants; [I] and [U] occur before non-uvulars/glottals. For instance, for [U] and [D]:

/qúl/ /qús/ /qó <sup>?</sup> /	[gúl] [gús] [gɔ́?͡ɣ]	'to run (pl.)' ' jump' 'to go <u>somewhere</u> , to go get <u>s</u> .'	gos goʻo
/ķún/	[gún]	'this'	gun
/ķóm/	[gɔ́m]	'go ahead!'	Gom!

/tus/ /tóq/ /tóx/ /tó <sup>?</sup> /	[dús] [dɔ́q́] [dɔ́ʔʔ]	'bone marrow' 'to take <u>s.t. (pl.)'</u> '(objects) to lie, be 'cheek'	dus do <u>k</u> do <u>r</u> do'o
/tilús/	[dɪlús]	gooseberries' 'to deny <u>s.t</u> . (a reque 'reefs' 'rock(s)'	dilus
/lúx <b>*</b> /	[lúxʷ]		st)' luxw
/lóx̞/	[lɔ́x̞]		lo <u>x</u>
/ló <sup>ʔ</sup> p/	[lɔ́ʔʔp]		lo'op

In most cases, then, there is complementary distribution between [U] and [3] depending on the following consonant, but contrast between the two does exist in word-final position (even though some of the words may be borrowed ones), and it is maintained before suffixes and clitics:

/simú/ /simútkws/	[sɪmú] [sɪmútk*s]	'to be true, right' 'to believe, be a believer, a Christian'	simu simutkws
/qampú/ /qampútkwt/	[ga mbú] [ga mbútkwt]	'shakes, shingles' 'his/her shakes, shin	gambu gles' gambutkwt
/kwa·só/	[ce·swg]	'pig' ( <ch.jargon, <fr.="" cochon)<="" td=""><td>gwaaso</td></ch.jargon,>	gwaaso
/kwa·sótkwt/	[gwa·sótkwt]	'his/her pig'	gwaasolkwl

Because of these contrasts, /u/ and /o/ must be considered phonologically distinct.

The short vowels [I] and  $[\epsilon]$  are also largely in complementary distribution, but the few areas of contrast warrant a phonological distinction.

In general, preconsonantally  $[\epsilon]$  is found only before uvulars and the glottal stop, and [I] is found only before other consonants:

/yĺm/ /yĺpx/ /yé?/	[yím] [yípx] [yé%]	'to smell, sniff <u>s.t.'</u> 'slime, gravy' 'Grandfather!'	yim yip <u>x</u> Ye'e
/c̃ip/	[ၒၖႆ႞ၟႜႜ႞)	'bone'	ts'ip
/čin/	[tổin]	'to come in'	ts'in
/ĉéx̞/	[ťšéx̞]	'mountain juniper'	ts'ex

There is a contrast between [1] and [8] in final position:

/skí/	[sgí]	'(object) to lie, to be (s.w.)'	sgi
/hĺ/	(hí]	'ω say'	ħi
/le/	[ໃέ]	'(interjection)' (see also 2.1.B.3.a.3.b. for initial $/\hat{1}/$ )	le!
/ta·wé/ /naqaĉé/	[da·wé] [na ga ťé]	mountain sheep	daawe nagats'e

Even though the last two words are Athapaskan borrowings, they must be taken into account in the phonology of present-day Nisgha.

To summarize: in native words high and mid short vowels are in complementary distribution, but borrowings have introduced contrast in some positions. Therefore the pairs /u/ and /o/, /i/ and /e/, must be considered phonologically distinct in the present state of the language.

# 2.2.B.1. The short high vowels /i/ and /u/:

# 2.2.B.1.a. /i/

/i/ is a high front vowel, lower and more retracted than its long counterpart /i./. It does not occur before labiovelars in the same syllable, or before uvulars.

#### Under stress:

# /i/ has two allophones under stress:

a. after uvulars: [e] generally, [I] for some speakers, especially in Greenville.

/qin/ /qíc/ /qíwin/	(gén) (det) (géwin)	'skunk' 'chin' 'seaguil'	gen k'ets' gewin
b. otherwise:	[1]		
/nipĺp/ /ťílt/ /sķinĺst/	[nɪbíþ] [tíːʔlt] [sgɪníst]	'maternal uncle' 'to be early' 'pine tree'	aibip t'iİt sginist
/ <sup>?</sup> asķí́/	[²A sgí]	to be abnormal,	asgi
/²í/	[ <sup>2</sup> []	(interjection)	<i>I!</i>
	/qíwin/ b. otherwise:   /nipíp/ /tilt/ /sķinist/ /^asķi/	/q̃ic/         [q̃eß]           /qíwin/         [géwin]           b. otherwise:         [I]           /nipíp/         [nɪbíþ]           /tílt/         [tí²lt]           /sķiníst/         [sgɪníst]           /²asķí/         [²Asgí]	/qic/ [qes] 'chin' /qiwin/ [gewin] 'seaguil'  b. otherwise: [I]  /nipip/ [nibip] 'maternal uncle' /tilt/ [ti^It] 'to be early' /skinist/ [sginist] 'pine tree'  /easki/ [easyi] 'to be abnormal, funny, ugly'

## Before stress:

<b>V</b>	/kipáyk <b>~</b> /	[gɪbáyƙw]	'to fly'	gibaykw
	/piláq/	[bɪláʧ]	'tree moss'	bila <u>k</u>

/i/ is lower, more centralized next to nasals, especially labials, or glottals; in this position it may alternate with  $\frac{a}{A}$  in the speech of some speakers:

/milit/ [milit, malit] 'steelhead' milit

### After stress:

V	/wĺlpiỷ/	[wilbi?]]	'my house'	wilbiÿ
	/ho·pix/	[hɔ́-bɪç]	'spoon'	hoobix
	/hátiks/	[hádīks]	'to swim'	hadiks

/i/ is lower and more centralized before  $/m^2$ /: (in some people's speech,  $[\theta]$  or even [A] occur instead):

/wilpim/ [wilbim, wilbam] 'our house' wilbim

# **2.**2.B.1.b. <u>/u/</u>

/U/ is a high back, slightly retracted and rounded vowel. It occurs frequently before labiovelars, never before uvulars.

#### Under stress:

/u/ has two major allophones:

a. after a uvular: [0] ([U] for some speakers):

/ $\hat{q}$ úc/ [ $\hat{q}$ 0 $\hat{b}$ ] 'to cut s.t.' **k**'ots /txúx/ [txọc] 'halibut' **txox** 

Within a word, after a glottal stop in rapid speech, it can be realized as [0] or even [0], although deliberate pronunciation is [0] or [U]:

/?am?úkit/ [?Am?Úgit,?Am?ógit,?Am?ógit] 'clothing'

am'ugit
/ĉa?úyxw/ [ßA?Úyxw,ßA?óyxw] '(place) underground,
basement' ts'a'uyxw
/?àntimi+?ú/ [?Andimi+?Ú,?Andimi+?o] 'pillow'

andimihl'u

# but this more open realization does not occur after another long or short /u/:

/lu-?úks/ [lu-?úks] 'to occur luu'uks (at a certain time), to be time (for s.t.)'

# b. otherwise, (U]:

/t kun/ [tgun] 'this' tgun /'umxkw/ ['umxkw] 'to be unable umxkw to stand s.'

# /u/ is frequently found before labiovelars:

/múk<sup>w</sup>/ [múk<sup>w</sup>] 'to be ripe' *mukw*/lúx<sup>w</sup>/ [lúx<sup>w</sup>] 'to deny <u>s.t.</u> /uxw

(a request)'

C. /qampú/ [GA mbú] 'shingles, shakes' gambu
/?akú/ [?agú] 'what?; (some)thing' agu

# Before or after stress: unstressed /u/ occurs exclusively before labiovelars:

\_KW /luxwtákw/ [lUxwdákw] 'to shoot (pl.)' /uxwdakw /hí-łukw/ [hí-łUkw] 'morning' hiihlukw /qaná-lukw/ [GA ná-lUkw] 'sparks' ganaalukw /lukukwskw/ [lugukwskw] to wake up (pl.) lugukwskw

### 2.2.B.2. The low vowel /a/:

/a/ is a low, slightly fronted vowel.

### Under stress:

 $C\_C$  a. after uvulars and next to glottalized labials it can be somewhat centralized: [A] (some individuals, especially men, have a more definitely back vowel [a])

/dáp/	[đ̃ λ͡p]	'piece, end'	<u>k</u> 'ap
/máqs/	[m]x[qs]	'pants'	maks

b. otherwise it is slightly fronted:

	/pán/	[bán]	'belly'	ban
	/čák/	[tšák³]	'dish'	ts'ak'
	/háč/	[hátš]	'to bite <u>s.t.</u> '	hats'
C_#	/miłá/	[mɪ+á]	'bile'	mihla
	/wá/	[wá]	'name'	wa

Before or after stress, the vowel is noticeably centralized next to a back consonant, less so otherwise, but not as open as under stress.

# Before stress: a. after a uvular or a glottal stop:

/ <sup>?</sup> ancám/	[?andzám]	'cooking pot'	an jam
/qanháča <sup>?</sup> /	[gan.átša?4]	'clothespin'	ganhats'a'a

b. otherwise:

c. an unstressed /a/ may be backed and rounded in the vicinity of a labial and a uvular, especially in rapid speech:

#### After stress:

a. next to uvulars: centralized:

/ºálaq/	[²áĺ A ģ]	to show anger,	ala <u>k</u>
		determination,	
		aggressiveness'	
/ <sup>?</sup> á·qaý⁄	[?á·GA ?]]	'my mouth'	aagay

b. otherwise: slight centralization:

### 2.2.B.3. The mid vowels /e/ and /o/:

These vowels have more restricted environments than the other short vowels. In particular, they never occur in unstressed position (except as echo vowels).

2.2.B.3.a. /e/

/e/ is a lower mid front vowel  $[\epsilon]$ . It is relatively rare. In native words it

occurs only before uvulars and glottals, where it is in complementary distribution with /i/ (2.2.B.2.):

C_C	/yé <sup>?</sup> /	[yɛ́ <sup>ʔ</sup> §]	'Grandfather'	Ye'e
	/ĉéx̞/	[ʁ̃ɛ́x̞]	'mountain juniper'	ts'e <u>x</u>
	/té <sup>?</sup> entk <b>"</b> /	[dé?entkw]	to lead, guide <u>s.o.</u> '	de'entkw
	/haqé <sup>?</sup> s/	[ha gé?es]	'sharpening tool'	hage es

but it also occurs in other environments in interjections:

/l̂é/	[lé]	(interjection)	Ĺe!
/tép/	[dép]	(interjection)	Dep!

# It also occurs in a number of borrowings:

C_#	/ta·wé/	[da·wέ]	'mountain sheep,	daawe
	/naqace/	[na ga tšé]	domestic goat' 'fox'	nagats'e
C_CV	/swé <u>t</u> a/	[swéta]	'sweater'	swela

# **2.2**.B.3.b. <u>/Q/</u>

/0/ is a lower mid back rounded vowel [3]. Like /e/, it occurs almost exclusively before uvular, glottal and glottalized consonants. However, there are numerous instances of this use.

C_C	∕ <del>1</del> óqs/	[apċ4]	'sun, moon, month'	hloks
	/ptó <sup>?</sup> /	[pďą5å]	'door'	pdo'o
	/nóx/	[nɔ́x̩]	'mother'	10 <u>7</u>
	/mó <sup>?</sup> on/	[mɔ́ <sup>ʔϽ</sup> n]	'salt'	mo'on
	/hóxďat/	[háxqat]	'to smell good'	hozk'at

Finally, /0/ occurs mostly in borrowings, such as

and also in the interjective predicate (5.11.)

(the colloquial form of  $/\dot{k}il\acute{o}^{?}/Gilo\acute{o}$ ), which can be used by itself or with a clause).

#### 2.2.B. 4. Remarks on short vowels in unstressed position

In unstressed position, [I], [A], [U], and to a certain extent [8] and [3], all occur. In most cases they are in complementary distribution, depending on the neighboring consonants, and there is some free variation as well as instances of contrast.

Consider for example the partially reduplicated forms (progressive meaning) of words beginning with /h/ or  $/^2/$ , where the reduplicating consonant is /h/: the vowel there is entirely predictable, as a short copy of the stem vowel:

Plain:	'to'	Reduplicated: 'to being'		
/hó·x/	'to use, wear <u>s.t.'</u> 'to flee (pl)' 'to make a noise, to speak'	[hAhó:ç]	hoox/hahoox	
/hú·t/		[huhú:t]	huut/huhuut	
/hé·/		[hahé:, heh	£:]hee/hahee,hehee	
/?á·t/	'to fish with a net' 'to fry or iron <u>s.t.'</u>	[hA?á:t]	aat/ha'aat	
/?í·c/		[hi²í:t]	iits/hi'iits	

The range of unstressed vowel quality is not usually so extensive, however. The

most frequent alternation is [A] next to a back (uvular) consonant, [I] otherwise: for instance, when adding the proclitic (KSO-) 'out' (see remark 4 below for the meaning of the symbol  $\Theta$  here):

[gús]	'to jump'	gos	[ksagús]	'to jump out'	ksugos
[bax] [45°8]	'to run' 'to walk, to go (pl.)'	ba <u>x</u> hlo'o	[ksibax] [ksi4ɔ́?ʔ]	'to run out' 'to go out (pl.)'	ksiba <u>x</u> ksihlo'o

# Similarly with the prefix (SO-) to pick, gather ...':

[gAbɔ́:q́]	'cockles'	gaboo <u>k</u>	[sAgAbɔ́:q́ ]	'to gather cockles' sagabook
[má:?] [ló:č]	'berries' 'elderberries'	•	[sɪmá:?] [sɪlɔ́:ĉ]	'to pick berries' simany 'to pick elderberries' siloots

# and the suffix $\{-n\}$ '25':

[náq]	'dress'	na <u>k</u> '	[náq̃An]	'your dress'	០ឧ <u>៥</u> ឧ០
[máqs]	'pants'	ma <u>k</u> s	[máqsin]	'your pants'	ma <u>k</u> sin
[qáyt]	'hat'	gayt	[qáydin]	'your hat'	gaydin

In the same way, the unstressed vowel occurring next to a labiovelar is normally [U], as in:

[mí:lukw] [qá <sup>y</sup> sukw] [?í:?uxwt]	'to dance' 'to be quiet' 'men, boys'	miilukw gawsukw ii'urwt
[huxw]	'again'	humv
[luxʷtíːtiç]	'to be hungry	(pl.)' <i>luxwdiidix</i>

It would seem logical then to consider these various vowels as predictable phonetic realizations of a phonological neutral vowel /ə/.

But there are also cases where the quality of an unstresssed vowel is not so easily predictable from the phonological environment alone.

1. Compare, for instance, the reduplicated form quoted above (p. 140):

[hɪʔíːcl

'to be frying, ironing <u>s.t.</u>'

hi'iits

where the vowel of the reduplicated syllable is a shorter version of that of the stem [?i:c], with the derivative

[hA?i:cA?A] 'an iron'

ha'iits'a'a

the prefix of which always has the phonetic shape [hA] regardless of what follows.

Other examples with phonologically unpredictable vowels are:

[hAnád]	'woman'	hana <u>k</u> '
[hAbɔ́:î]	'to keep, look after <u>s.</u> '	habooi
[hAkɔ̃?ʔ]	'[the] back'	hak'yo'o
[hʌ xʷdáƙʷ]	'bow (for arrows)'	haxwdakw

versus the predictable vowels in:

[hɪɬá႖̞́]	'to break (e.g.stick, bone)'	hihla <u>k</u>
[hɪnáčʌx]	'to spank <u>s.o.'</u>	hinats'a <u>r</u>
[hUxʷdá:k͡ɪn]	'grandchild'	huxwdaak'in

Compare also the reduplicated form

where the [A] of the reduplicated syllable is predictable from the preceding /?/, with the prefixed form

2. In another case, [I] / [A] alternation occurs, but distribution is not so clear-cut as that for instance in suffixes. A number of compounds are formed with a linking vowel between the two terms; this vowel is usually [A], but may be [I], depending it seems on more complex factors than the nature of just the immediately adjacent consonants, probably involving clustering, adjacent vowels, etc. (In this case, the underlying vowel is A:/ and it is often shortened to A and sometimes despecified to A.) Thus in:

[magagadook] 'corduroy pants' maksagabook ([maga] 'pants', [gabo:q] 'scallop', referring to the ridged appearance of corduroy)

and: [magsidzáyn] 'blue jeans' magsijayn (lit. Chinaman's pants)

the normal rule [A] next to a uvular, [I] otherwise, seems to apply, but in:

[hìld k lớu: ts]

'a multitude of birds'

([hìlt] 'to be many', [tsu: ts] 'bird')

and: [qAyùkwsAyá?A] 'smoked spring salmon fillets'

\*k'ayukwsa ya'a

([qAyùkws] 'smoked salmon fillets',

[yá?A] 'spring salmon')

this rule would give [1] as the linking vowel, not [A].

3. A final unstressed [A] which never alternates with [I] is found in a number of words, e.g.:

[gɔ́:dA]	to be all gone	gooda
[Ab:c <sup>^</sup> ]	'covers, diapers'	ooda
[ hĺ:dA]	'(they, we) said'	hiida
	(when quoting words)	

#### including the English borrowings:

[swétA]	'sweater'	sweta
[dá:lA]	'money'	daala
[bíyA]	'beer'	biya

4. If we were to consider instances of [A] as realizations of a phonological element /a/ (eg in  $[hA^2i:cA^2A]$  'an iron' ha'iits'a'a), and those which alternate with other vowels according to predictable rules as realizations of a phonological element /a/, there are cases where the decision in favor of one or the other would be arbitrary: for instance, should the [A] of the distributive prefix (qa-) be assigned to /a/ since it never alternates, or to /a/ since the realization [A] is obligatory after uvulars?

Because of these difficulties then, unstressed [I], [E], [A], [O], [U] are considered here as realizations of /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/, and /u/ respectively, in the transcription of actual words. Morphemes which have alternants depending on their environment are quoted with the vowel  $\Theta$ , but this is not to be taken as a phonological element, only a convenient notation. The actual words containing these morphemes are transcribed in their normal phonological form, or, especially in discussions of syntax, in the Nisgha practical orthography.

#### 2.3. Suprasegmentals:

#### 2.3.A. Stress:

Every major Nisgha word (noun, verb, adjective, independent or interrogative pronoun, adverb) has independent stress on one of its syllables. Stress is characterized by greater articulatory energy and higher pitch. Stress is independent of length, and both long and short vowels can occur either stressed or unstressed, as in the contrasts

/ha·nád⊄	'women'	haana <u>k</u> '
/ná·nad⊄	'dresses'	naana <u>k</u> '
/pi·ĺist/	'stars'	biilist
/ni·niksk <b>*</b> /	'spouses'	niinikskw
/lu·láq/	(fish, etc.) to be	luula <u>k</u>
/lú·lad/	in water in <u>s.t.</u> corpse, ghost	luula <u>k</u> '

Unstressed short vowels are slightly more centralized than stressed ones; unstressed long vowels are often shorter than stressed ones, sometimes as short as short vowels, but do not usually change their quality.

Stress is not predictable phonologically, e.g. also

but there are nevertheless many morphological regularities since it usually falls on the root or base syllable, so many related words have the same stress pattern. However, there also exist a few stressed suffixes (7.2.C.2.a.2.) and there

are cases of stress on the prefix (10.3.B.2.a.), or on the reduplicated syllable (10.3.B.2.b.). Most vowel-final borrowings are stressed on the final syllable, although English borrowings keep their original stress pattern.

#### Examples:

#### Stress on the root:

1. base \*/kwo·t/; fully reduplicated form (plurai) \*/kwitkwo·t/

/kwo·tkw/ 'to be lost, missing' kw'ootkw
/kwo·tin/ 'to lose s.t.' kw'oot'in
/kwo·til/ 'to lose track of s.t.' kw'oot'il
/kwo·tilskw/ '(person) to be kw'oot'ilskw
unconscious'
/kwo·tim+kw/ 'to miss menstrual kw'oot'imhlkw
periods because of
pregnancy'

2. root /tam/: fully reduplicated form (plural) /timtam/

/tam/ 'to write s.t.' t'am

/tamtkw/ 'to be written' t'imt'am

/ni.tamtkw/ 'to be written down' niit'amtkw

/ni.tamtkwit/ 'Scripture' Niit'amtgwit

#### Stress on the suffix:

1. root /tam/ 'to write s.t.' t'am

/timis(t)/ 'to write, writing, s.t. written' t'imis

/qantimis(t)/ 'pencil' gant'imis

/hani-timis(t)/ 'pad, desk, etc. haniit'imis

(support for writing)'

2. root/ťál/ /ťilísk <sup>w</sup> / /haťilísk <sup>w</sup> /	to split <u>s.t.</u> (a tree)' 'to make shakes' 'froe'	t'al t'iliskw hat'iliskw
3. root */ká+/	'to pierce, stab'	gahl
/ķi+é.?/	'to embroider'	gihlee'e

# Stress on the prefix:

1. base /skát/	'to be born'	sgat
/lískit/	'to be born (pl.)'	lisgit
2. stem /kúk <sup>w</sup> sk <sup>w</sup> /	'to wake up'	gyukwskw
/lúķuk <b>~</b> sk <b>~</b> /	'to wake up (pl.)'	lugukwskw
3. root /yé <sup>?</sup> /	'Grandfather!'	Ye'e
/niyé <sup>?</sup> /	'grandfather'	niye'e
/nìỷs/	'Grandfather of'	Niýs
	(prefix forming	
	a number of chiefly names)	

# Stress on the reduplicating syllable (plural):

root /nox/	'mother'	<b>10</b> 7
/nó·nax/	'mothers'	100nax
	(from */noxnox/, 1	0.3.B.2.b.)

In words ending in vowels, stress is usually on the last syllable, in both native and borrowed words:

/?alá/	'smokehole'	ala
/kwilá/	'blanket'	gwila
/ķipá/	to wait for s.o.	giba

/ta·we/ mountain sheep, daawe
domestic goat' (< Athapaskan)
/kanti4i/ 'coyote' (< Athapaskan) gandihiii
/kwa·so/ 'pig' (< Chinook jargon gwaaso
< French cochon)

#### but there are a few instances of final unstressed vowels:

/^o.ta/ 'covers, diapers' ooda /hata/ 'breeze' hada /na.qe.ta/ 'muskrat' naak'eeda

### including English borrowings:

/tá·la/ 'money' (dollar) daala /swéta/ 'sweater' sweta /piya/ 'beer' biya

In compound words (9.), a secondary stress may be heard on the first part of the compound, main stress falling on the second:

/hìtkumskátkw/

'to stand up like a man'

hitgumsgatkw

(/hitkw/ 'to stand' hitkw, /kát/'man, person' gat)

/yò?oksnó?o4/

'to wash the dishes'

yo'oksno'oh!

(/yò?oks 'to wash s.t' yo'oks, /nó?o4/ 'dishes' no'oh!)

/màska-watax/

'butterfly'

maska-wadar

(meaning of constituents unknown)

Indeed, some words are identifiable as composed of two major words by this feature, whereas proclitics do not receive stress, as in the following example:

# 2.3.B. Intonation (sentence-level):

Nisgha sentences are normally intoned in a medium to high voice register, dropping on utterance-final unstressed vowels. The major words of the sentence keep their inherent stress but receive differential pitch. There is no difference in intonation between statements and questions.

### Some examples:

/aplákskwiý/	'I am tired'	Hlaa plaksgwiÿ.
/plákskw ni·ý/	'I am <u>tired</u> '	Plakskw ńiiż.
/ni-d plákskwina/	'Are you tired?'	Niihl plaksgwina?
/ <del>?akùd-ei</del> capinis/	'What are you do	ing?' <i>Aguhl jijabinis?</i>
/ <del>yukw4</del> yú·xkwiỷ/	'I am eating'	Yukwhi yuu <u>rg</u> wiÿ.
/yuk <del>w1</del> siswétatkwiý/	'I am working or	n a sweater' Yukwhi siswetatgwiý
/tim-huxwka2ay ni.n/	'Good bye' (lit. I	will see you again).  Dim huxw ga'ay niin.
/ci kaxkú ni tim huxw ka	an/ When wil	l l see you again?'  Ji gazgu ni dim huxw ga'an?

/fadákwini tim huxw kapan/

'I will see you tomorrow'

Taahlakw ni dim huxw ga'an.

/wilayin-i simbalkaxa/

'Do you know Nisgha?'

Wilaayinhl sim'algaxa?

/sim wila vis Macyd sim alkax/

'Mary knows Nisgha very well' Sim wilaayis Maryhl sim'algax.

/sim wilayis Mary/

'Mary knows it very well'

Sim wilasyis Mary.

/sim wila yith sim alkax/

'She knows Nisgha very well'

Sim wilaayith! sim algax.

In formal oratory, as in traditional speeches at a settlement feast (as distinct from informative speeches), or in prayers, a special intonation is used. Voice level rises on the first stressed syllable and remains at a fairly high pitch throughout the speech. Such speeches end very abruptly, with a sudden drop in the voice at the end.

# Examples:

/txa·taxkatkum sim o·kit .../

'Ali-powerfui God ...'

Txaadaxgatgum Sim'oogit ...

/simkikat, siķitimha nad, kupa wilksi+kw/

Chiefs, chieftainesses, princes and princesses, Simgigat, sigidimhaanak, k'ubawilksihlkw...

/lu Pá·m+ gó·tiỷ.../

I am happy ... luu'aamhl goodiy'...

## 2.4. The Nisgha practical orthography:

A practical alphabet designed by Bruce Rigsby has been in official use in the Nass Valley since 1973. As it represents a broad phonetic transcription and uses convenient symbols and conventions, it is relatively easy to learn and use. Through the efforts of the Bilingual/Bicultural program of School District 92 (Nisgha) it is being taught to all schoolchildren in the district and is slowly spreading to the adult population. It is used in public communications by the Band Councils and the Nisgha Tribal Council. For these reasons it has been used in this study, concurrently with more technical transcriptions.

#### 2.4.A. Consonants:

- voiced and voiceless consonantal allophones are distinguished; this allows easy integration of English loanwords:
- plain k and g indicate palato-velars before non-back vowels (i, e, a), dorso-velars before back vowels (o, u); palato-velars occurring before back vowels are indicated by a following g, thus  $/k0\cdot 1/[k^20\cdot 1]$  one [person] k'yool;
  - uvulars are indicated by underlining, thus [q] k, [x] J, [G] K;
- digraphs are used for labialized consonants, thus  $[k^w] \not k w$ ,  $[g^w] \not g w$ ,  $[X^w] \not x w$ , as well as for voiceless affricates:  $[C] \not k$ ,  $[\mathring{\mathcal{K}}] \not U'$ ; the voiced dental affricate [CZ] is represented by f;

- the lateral fricative [4] is represented by h1.
- glottalized resonants are indicated by a comma or apostrophe over the symbol, thus [m]  $\vec{m}$ ,  $[\hat{y}]$   $\vec{y}$ ;
- glottalized stops and affricates are indicated by a following apostrophe, thus for instance  $[\mathring{K}] \mathscr{K}'$   $[\mathring{K}^{w}] \mathscr{L}''$ ;
- the glottal stop is not indicated in absolute initial position as it is predictable before a vowel; elsewhere it is indicated by an apostrophe, thus

except where the apostrophe would be confused with a glottalization sign for the preceding consonant; in this case the apostrophe is replaced by a hyphen to indicate a sequence  $C + \frac{2}{3}$ , as in

### 2.4.B. Vowels:

- stress is not indicated:
- length is indicated by doubling, thus /i/ ii, /a/ aa;
- the predictable echo-vowel after the glottal stop is indicated in all cases, thus:

/yé
$$^{?}$$
/ [yé $^{?}$ §] 'Grandfather' Ye'e /stó $^{?}$ 0ks/ [sq $^{\circ}$ 2'ks] 'next to ...' sdo'oks

- the distribution of the symbols i, e, o, u reflects a slightly different analysis than is used here; it places e and o after uvulars and finally, i and u elsewhere, thus

/qís/	[qés]	'hair'	ges
/qú́s/	[qọs]	'to jump'	gos
/haqé <sup>?</sup> s/	[ħAqé <sup>ʔE</sup> s]	'sharpening tool'	hage'es
/qó <sup>?</sup> /	[qɔ́ʔ͡ɣ]	'to go <u>s.w.</u> ,	
		to go get s.'	go'o

This distribution requires a pronunciation rule for e and o after uvulars: they have a closed sound, unless they are followed by another uvular or by the glottal stop. This rule rarely seems to cause inconvenience, however, in what is otherwise a very practical, easy-to-use orthography.

#### CHAPTER 3: MORPHOLOGICAL OVERVIEW

The following is a brief overview of Nisgha word-formation, processes and morphological categories. Detailed descriptions are given in Part II.

#### 3.1. THE FORMAL MATERIAL.

#### 3.1.A. FROM THE ROOT UP.

A Nisgha word always consists of a <u>root</u> CV(C), which may be extended into a <u>base</u> by one or more consonantal augments preceding and/or following the root. Almost any non-glottalized consonant may be an augment, including the glottal stop. In the present state of the language augments are not productive and have no recognizable meaning. Only in a few cases do augmented roots have some semantic similarity to unaugmented roots. Some examples are:

root + augment p: + augment s:	tó <sup>?</sup> p.tó <sup>?</sup> s.tó <sup>?</sup>	'cheek' 'door' 'one side, one	do'o pdo'o sdo'o
root + augment q:	ỹím ỹím.q	half of a pair' 'porcupine quills' 'whiskers'	ÿim ÿim <u>k</u>

Although many Nisgha words consist only of a shape CVC which can be taken as a root, it is not often possible to break down larger words as far as this basic root shape CV(C). In particular, a root CVK (K = any Velar) often appears preconsonantally under the shape CV:, but in the absence of alternate forms where the Velar does appear it is not possible to recover the original root, nor is this necessary for a basically synchronic description such as this study. However, it is safer to consider most shapes CV:(C) as representing bases rather

than roots.

Conversely, not all CVC shapes can be considered roots. For instance, in  $\sqrt[2]{1}$  one'  $\sqrt[2]{2}$  the first consonant  $\sqrt[2]{2}$  is found in a number of other words denoting unicity (7.1.B.2.c.1.) and the last consonant  $\sqrt[2]{2}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.). Such observations suggest that roots may be ultimately decomposable into smaller elements. Another suggestive fact is the existence of a number of pairs of roots differing in the length and/or quality of the vowel, and having related meanings, such as:

ptál	'(water) to rise'	pdal
ptá∙l	'(water) to flood'	pdaal
pán	'beli <del>y</del> '	ban
p <b>íntk</b> w	'to stick out one's belly'	bintkw

These facts however do not play a grammatical role in present-day Nisgha, although they are undoubtedly important for historical and comparative study.

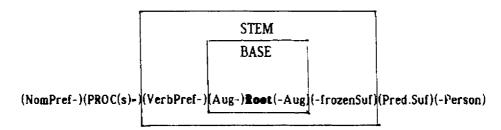
There are also a number of instances of CVCV shapes, e.g. kipa to wait for significant. Sometimes a sequence CVCV can be decomposed into CV- prefix and CV(h) root, but there are also cases which appear to consist of a CVC root with stressed vowel suffix. In general, CVCV shapes are best treated as unanalyzable bases.

Even though the root of a word is not always recoverable, it is usually the part that receives stress. Stressed suffixes are rare, and cases of stress preceding the root occur only in some older, now irregular processes.

To a root or base may be added derivational affixes, especially prefixes, resulting in a <u>stem</u>, to which predicative affixes, mostly suffixes, may be added. The term 'stem' can then refer to different constituents, as a word built by the addition of one affix may become the stem for another word built by the addition of another

affix. There may be words then that consist only of a root, a base or a stem, but most are considerably longer.

The morphemes surrounding the root or base are not just strung together. Nisgha words have an inner constituent structure with a hierarchy of constituents. The general formula for predicatives (words capable of being clause predicates) is:



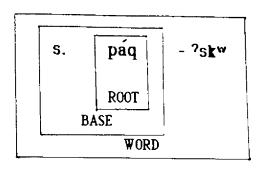
Only the root is indispensable. An augment may occur before the root. Nominal prefixes and the Jussive verbal prefix (kWin-) gwin- (7.1.B.1.a.2.b.) can come before proclitics, which come before the Dominative verbal prefix (ta-) di-/da- (7.1.B.1.a.2.a.). It is rare to find more than one prefix, but common for a word to have two or even three proclitics.

After the root, there may be an augment, and the root or the base thus formed may be followed by one or two predicative suffixes. (It is sometimes difficult to tell whether a consonant cluster should be considered as one suffix or more).

Most predicative suffixes are intransitive. Those that are transitive may be followed by a Medial suffix, causing the verb to become Passive. The Indefinite Medial suffix causes Passivization of some transitive stems, and makes some intransitive stems transitive. Some verbs which do not have one of the transitivizing suffixes take the Definite Medial suffix -T which is not always felt as part of the quotation form of the word, especially by younger speakers (7.2.C.1.a.). Inflectional suffixes (7.2.C.1.a.) are added after the predicative suffixes.

### Examples:

1.



- root = base = stem

paq

to feel, try s.

bak

+ augment s: base = stem

s.paq

'to taste [the taste of] s.' sbak

+ AP.I suffix - ?Skw:

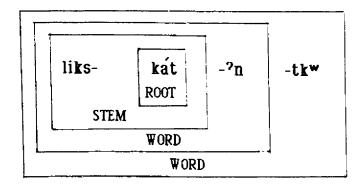
spágaskw

to taste things,

sbak'askw

to have the sense of taste'

2.



- rost

\*Kat 'person, people, man' gat; (different but

vaguer meaning in derivation):

+ prefix liks - 'different': likskat

'to be different'

liksgat

+ CAUS suffix -?n:

likskáťin

'to find s. different'

liksgat'in

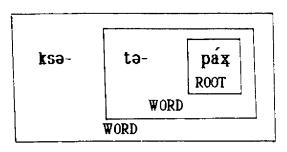
+ MED suffix -tkw:

likskáťintkw

'to have been found different'

liksgat'intkw

3. A word may also include one or more circumstantial proclitics:

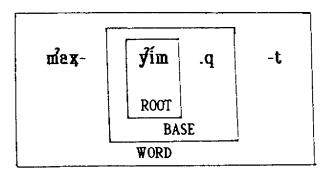


- root = base = stem páx 'to run' bax

+ DOMIN prefix tə- : tipáx 'to run, taking s.' dibax

+ proclitic ksə- 'out' ksitipáx 'to run out, taking s.' ksidibax

4. Some prefixes and proclitics are bound with specific suffixes and enclose a word in an affixal <u>frame</u> with a particular meaning:



 Surrounding the word, ergative clitic pronouns, other clitic particles, subordinators, evidential postclities and syntactic connectives may be bound to it phonologically, but not morphologically.

The morpheme order for the predicate phrase is (the connectives link the predicate phrase to the following word under certain conditions):

```
CLITICS (variable order) WORD POSTCLITIC (CONNECTIVE)

(E-clitic)
(Modal particles) Predicate (-Person) (==Evidential) (=S, =\frac{1}{2})
(Subordinator)
(Restrictive particle)

as in

nta=yima? mə tim wil ho:x-T-[t] = \frac{1}{2} ansu:xW t kun=sa
which.way==DUB 2E FUT SUB use.s.-DEF-[3] = NC yarn DM this==PROX

...==EVID E.PRON PTC SUB ... ...=CON ... ...=EVID
```

I wonder how you are going to use this wool here.

Ndayima'a mi dim wil hooyihl answurw tgun-sa?

(a polite way to ask: What are you going to do with ...?)

#### 3.1.B. MORPHOLOGICAL PROCESSES.

Roots, bases and stems are subject to the morphological processes of affixation and reduplication.

For the purpose of contemporary description, most Nisgha morphological

processes can be described as applying either to the word, the stem or base. In only a few instances is it necessary or useful to refer to the root, with processes which appear to represent an older layer of development.

3.1.B.1. <u>Affixation</u>: Both inflection and derivation make use of affixes, singly or in combination. Most prefixes, including the circumstantial 'proclitics', have lexical meaning and do not affect the base phonologically. They can have various shapes, from a single consonant or an open syllable with unspecified vowel, to a more complex syllable phonologically almost indistinguishable from a separate word, for instance:

x-má·ỷ eat-berries	'to eat berries' <i>zmaaÿ</i>
ha-ko <sup>?</sup> having-backbone	'back [of a person]'  hak'yo'o
tə-páx DOMIN-run	'to run away with <u>s.</u> ' <i>dibag</i>
ķit-lax-ta:miks people-on-pond	'People of the ponds'  Gitlast'samiks
si:p- <sup>?</sup> asáý hurt-foot/leg	'to have sore feet or legs' siip-asay

Practically all suffixes have grammatical meaning; most of them consist of one or more consonants, and their addition usually causes some alteration in the shape of the base, especially glottalization or fricativization, for instance:

Affixation also includes framing by a definable, meaningful combination of a prefix or proclitic with a suffix, as in

With both prefixes and suffixes, vowel-insertion rules break up unacceptable clusters, and vowel-specification rules adapt affix vowels to their consonantal surroundings.

3.1.B.2. Reduplication: Full and partial reduplication both prefix a portion of the root, base or stem to itself. In most cases, full reduplication (Cvc-) is used to build plural forms, partial reduplication (C-) for aspectual forms. Full reduplication occurs under three major sub-categories which can be shown to correspond to three historical stages, the oldest one evidencing many irregularities which point to a very long history for the process. Each stage shows an extension of the reduplicative formula, starting with the root in the oldest stage, progressing to the base and the stem in the middle stage, then involving the whole word in the currently productive stage (8.2.B.).

Only the oldest form of full (Cvc-) reduplication, now occurring only with some CVK roots (RED<sub>1</sub>), can come between a root and a preceding augment. Regular full reduplication (RED<sub>2</sub>) occurs before the root or base. Cix- reduplication (RED<sub>3</sub>), the modern, productive form of the fully reduplicative process, occurs mostly word-initially. RED<sub>2</sub> sometimes occurs on forms which already have RED<sub>1</sub>, and RED<sub>3</sub> sometimes occurs on forms which already have RED<sub>1</sub> or RED<sub>2</sub>:

# $(RED_3)(PROC(s)=)(VerbPref-)(RED_2)(Aug-)(RED_1)-Root(-Aug)(Suffixes)$

Partial reduplication usually occurs word-initially but sometimes occurs between a proclitic and the following stem, depending on the particular verb and the exact meaning intended (see Proclitics, 7.1.A.).

(R)(PROC(s)=)(R)(VerbPref-)(R)(Aug-)-Root(-Aug)(Suffixes)

Earliest period: (type 1, 'archaic'): reduplication affects the root only:

Middle period: (type 2, 'regular') reduplication affects the root, base or stem:

root	cáp	'to make <u>s.t.'</u>	cip)cáp	'to make <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> ' <i>jipjap</i>
base	có·q	'to be ashamed, embarrassed' jook	са <b>җ)с</b> о́∙ <b>q</b>	'(pl.) to be ashamed, embarrassed' ja <u>xjook</u>
stem	⊁sqíks sqíksk™	'to be injured' sgekskw	sa <b>x)sq</b> ĺksk <b>"</b>	'(pl.) to be injured' sarsgekskw

stem	ná·⁴q	'breath; to fast'	na <b>x)n</b> á. <b>4q</b>	'(pl.) to fast' <i>ne<u>x</u>naahl<u>k</u></i>
	ksəna	, t-4xkw 'to breathe (	out'	
		ksinaahlakw	ksə <b>n</b> a <b>x)ná·4xk</b> w	'(pl.) to breathe out' <i>ksinaznaahlzkw</i>
stem	<b>w</b> ilá·x	'to know <u>s.</u> '	<b>w</b> il) <b>w</b> ilá∙x	'to know <u>s.(pl.)</u> ' <i>wilwilaax</i>

# Modern period: (type 3, 'modern') reduplication affects the entire word:

word	yú-timq 'to advise, admonish, lecture <u>s.o.'</u> yuuhlimk	<b>hix)y</b> ú-imq	'to advise, admonish, lecture <u>s.o.(pl.)</u> ' hixyuuhlimk
word	k)ķíl > <b>ķ</b> iķíl 'to look for <u>s.</u> '	ķix)ķiķíĺ	'to look for <u>s.(pl.)</u> ' <i>gixgigil</i>
word	sqa= pi4e <sup>.7</sup> 'curtain' sgabihlee'e	six)sqa= piłé.?	'curtains' sixsgabihlee'e
word	?am-qókit 'to be pretty, beautiful'? amgoogit	hix)?am-qóķit ?ax)?am-qóķit	'(pl.) to be pretty, beautiful' hix'amgoogit

#### 3.1.C. MORPHOPHONEMIC RULES.

on.one.side-hold.s.

Affixes and reduplicated segments are bound to the stem by morphophonemic rules which may also affect the stem itself.

3.1.C.1. In morphemes preceding the stem, whether prefixes or reduplicated segments, a consonant that comes in contact with the word is subject to weakening or simplification: affricates lose their stop onset, glottalized consonants lose their glottalization, and Velar stops are fricativized, Velar fricatives sometimes vocalized. However, the stem itself is unaffected.

hac)hác > hashác 'to bite s.'

PL)bite.s. hasháts'

Kil-qá:x > Kilqá:x 'one fathom'
one-fathom k'ilk'aax

coq)cóq >> caxcóq 'to live, camp, stay s.w.'

PL)stay, camp, live jaxjok

stax= yúkw > sta:yúkw 'to hold s.t. in one hand, under one arm'

3.1.C.2. With morphemes following the stem, there is much closer phonological integration of the suffix with the stem. For instance, many predicative suffixes begin with a glottal stop, which causes glottalization of the stem-final consonant, as in

sdaxyukw/sdaayukw

\*
$$lip^{-2}sT > lipis(t)$$
 'to sew'  
sew.s.-AP.D lipis(t)

Other consonantal suffixes often cause fricativization of a stem-final Velar, as in

ksə-ná:4q-tk" > ksiná:4xk" 'to breathe out' remove-breath-MED

ksinaahlxkw

Suffixes beginning with vowels, whether inherent or inserted by rule, can also cause alterations in some stem-final consonants, as in

?an-[hó:x-a?] > ?anhó:ya? 'tool, implement, vehicle, object'
CAUSE-[use.s.-DETR] anhooya'a

- 3.1.C.3. At the frontier between morphology and syntax, some of the same rules serve to bind the word to ergative clitic pronouns and evidential postclitics. The presence of these morphemes however does not affect the word grammatically or lexically.
- 3.2. MORPHOSYNTACTIC CATEGORIES.

#### 3.2.A. CATEGORIES OF NOMINALS.

The nominal classes include all nouns and most non-suffixed pronouns: demonstratives, indefinites (which can be used interrogatively) and independent personal pronouns ( $\tilde{\Pi}1$ -pronouns, 5.8.). DETERMINACY is a gender-like category separating nominals into two classes; POSSESSION affects nouns which are put into a relation with other nouns.

3.2.A.1. DETERMINACY. Nominals may be determinate or indeterminate. These gender-like categories cut across the nominal classes.

#### Determinates include:

- given names of individual persons or animals (not names of mountains, lakes, groups of people, etc.):
- the indefinite/interrogative pronoun (5.6.) Ná: 'someone, who' nua and its derivative, the name kiná: 'So-and-So' K'inaa:

- the demonstrative pronouns kún(i) 'this' gun(i) and kúst(i) 'that' gus(di) (5.7.).

In general, determinate words are preceded by a Determinate Marker (DM)(sg. t., pi. tip dip, (6.2.A.) unless linked to the preceding word by the connective (6.2.B.) =S, in which case the DM's do not occur overtly because of a phonological consonant-deletion rule (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.). Non-determinates are linked to the preceding word (where appropriate) by the connective = 1 ...h1.

Determinates can occur in apposition to and co-referring with a noun, as in

child-1S DM S.

A few other nouns (kinship terms starting with the frozen prefix  $(\mathbf{N}\partial^{-})$ , (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.2.) and the independent personal pronouns seem to be 'courtesy determinates': they are usually preceded by the determinate rather than the non-determinate connective, but they do not share all the properties of true determinates. In particular, they do not occur in apposition to a noun.

hlguuhlgwiy t Sgavo

3.2.A.2. POSSESSION. Non-determinate nouns can be 'possessed', i.e. placed into a relation with another, dominant or controlling noun. This head noun is the 'possessor', although ownership is only one of the semantic relationships subsumed under the term 'possession'.

3.2.A.2.a. <u>The possessor</u>: The possessed noun takes a personal suffix identifying its possessor; if this suffix is the 3 suffix -t, its reference can be made explicit by a noun Adjunct after the appropriate connective, as in:

If there are several possessors, the Distributive prefix qa-ga is used before the noun. The plural noun stem is used if it is separate from the singular:

but there are cases where either the singular or the plural noun stem can be used, with a difference in meaning:

## 3.2.A.2.b. Definite and indefinite possession:

Two categories of 'possession' can be distinguished: definite and indefinite. Definite possession is that of body parts, personal belongings such as clothes and household utensils, canoes, houses, relatives, and other items which form

part of the normal environment of the daily life of a person. Usually these items have an emotional value for their possessor. <u>Indefinite</u> possession, marked by the Indefinite Medial suffix -tkW/-s (7.2.C.1.b.) is that of items considered collectively, and/or to which there is no emotional attachment.

### 3.2.A.2.b.1. Definite possession:

A definite possession can be considered either as belonging to its possessor, or analytically, as an isolated or alienated part or feature, for instance when describing parts of an animal killed for meat. The latter type is indicated by using the restrictive particle 40 hli/hls (6.1.B.2.) before the noun. Compare:

- non-alienated possession:
- si:pkw= +timqis-y My head hurts.
  hurt=NC head-1S Siipkwh! t'imgesiy.
- sim ?anó:q-ə-[t]= 4 tù:s-ŷ ta: 4a: nə qap)qá:p-[t]= 4 timqis-t really like.s.-CTL-[3]=NC cat when now 1S.E.PL)scratch.s.-[3]=NC head-3

  My cat likes it when I scratch its/his/her head.

  Sim anoogahl duusiý daa hlas na gapgaaphl t'imgest.
- alienated possession:
- kuws-m+mu:s= 4 wak-y?i:-t kin-m?a= 4 4ə timqis-t
  kill-ATT+moose=NC M's.brother and-3E give.food.to.-1P PREP=NC ... head
  My brother killed a moose and gave us the head.

  Guwsim-muushl wagiy iit ginim ahl hli t'imgest.

The particle is used before parts of animals or objects, and items normally associated with them, when considered analytically, in themselves:

$$4 \Rightarrow \hat{y}$$
im-[t]=  $4 \hat{y}$ im-t  
... quills-i3]=NC porcupine/... ...-3

'the quills of a porcupine/the quills' hli ýimhl axwt / hli ýimt

'the peel of a potato/the peel' hli maashl squusiit / hli maast

'dog food (the food of a/the dog)/ the food [of the cog] hli giphl us / hli gipt

canoe)/the covers' hli oodahl maal / hli oodat

• kwálkw-[T]-ti:t = 4 4a ?anná:s-t.  $\hat{\Pi}$ -[t]=  $\frac{1}{2}\hat{K}$ ::-tksə- $\hat{L}$ -[T]-ti:t=  $\frac{1}{2}$ -ga-smáx-t dry.s.-[DEF]-3P=NC ... skin PL-3 that's-[3]=NC and-3E out-put.s.PL-[DEF]-3P=NC ... DISTR-body-3 They dried the skins [of the squirrels they killed] and threw away the bodies.

Gwalkwdiithl hii annaast, nihl k'iit ksit'ahldiithl hia gasmart.

Terms of kinship applied to animals also take the particle:

bear cubs (the children of a/the bear) /the cubs'

hli hlgihl smax / hli blgit

The 'possessions' of a human being, such as relations, clothing, houses, etc., never take the particle:

'the woman's children/her children' higihi hanak' / higit

• tqal=kó.-[t]=† màil-y tú: W I have a canoe over there. (106.2) against=moored-[3]=NC canoe-1S there Tk'algyoohl maaliy duuw.

Parts of the human body do not generally take it, unless the human possessor is already dead:

• nuw=4 kàt==ki: ... ni-[t]=4 ki: hi4á:4aq-T-[t]=4
txa:nìtkWs-[t]=4 4ə ci)cíp-t
dead=ND man==DISTAL ... that's-[3]=NC and break.PL-DEF-[3]=NC
all-[3]=NC ... PL)bone-3

The man was dead ... and all **the** bones were broken. (209.12-13)

Nuwhl gat-gi ... aihl k'ii hihlaahlagahl traanitkwshl hli jits'ipt.

But the analytical attitude indicated by the particle 40 hli/hla does apply to what can perhaps be called 'emanations' rather than parts of the human body or personality:

- substances excreted by the body:
- kímk-[t]=440 núc-n Wipe your nosel wipe.s.-[3]=NC ... snot-2S Gimkh! hli nuts'in!
- other 'undesirables' associated with the body:
- qúl=1 10 čiskW-t S/he has lice.

  run.PL=NC ... louse-3

  Golh! hli ts'iskwt
- abstract or intangible possessions:

ta ?óːcin-ỷ 'my soul'
... soul-1S

ta hatáxk W-ỷ 'my sin'
... sin-1S

hli hat'azgwiÿ

+a qantaxkàt-[t]=+qa-niyé?-tkW-m 'th ... strength-[3]=NC DISTR-grandfather-INDEF-1P

the traditions of our

hia ganda<u>rg</u>athi ganiye'etgum

ancestors'

?amqó:t-ə-t=+ +ə cáp-t
 remember.s.-CTL-3=NC ... tribe-3

She remembered her tribe/people. (209.13-14) Amgoodith! hli ts'apt.

• ?akú=4 4ə ?anhè:-[t]=4 qalcáp what?=NC ... meaning-[3]=N ? village What are they talking about in the village? (138.15-139.1)

Aguhi hie anheehi galts'ap?

3.2.A.2.b.2. <u>Indefinite possession</u>: Indefinite possession is indicated by the Indefinite Medial suffix (-tkW/-s) (7.2.C.1.b.) It seems that the meaning 'indefinite' in the case of possessed nouns is interpretable as 'collective', hence:

- groups of relatives:

our ancestors'

DISTR-grandfather-...-1F

kix)kimxtítkW-ÿ

PL)opp.sex.sib.-...-1S

nó:nax-{t]kW-ÿ

mother.PL-...-1S

iour ancestors'

ganiye'etgum

'(all) my brothers and sisters'

gizgimzditgwiy

'(all) my "mothers"' (= my mother and all her sisters)

noonazgwiy

<sup>-</sup> masses, especially of stored items:

- †a:húkax-[t]=†qapì:-[t]=1hó:n-tkW-m We have enough fish now. by.now right-[3]=NC amount-[3]=NC fish-...-1P Hlas hugaxhl gabiihl hoontgum.
- ?àq=\frac{1}{2} má:\hat{y} \tau \textbf{k} \textbf{W} \hat{y} I don't have any berries.

  non-existen = NC berries-...-1S

  Akhl maa\hat{y} tgwi\hat{y}.
  - animals considered collectively, not as separate individuals:
- huxW iki=i wi: tù:s-m ?i: qal hilt-[t]=i tù:s-[t]kW-m again have.young=NC big cat-1P and too many-[3]=NC cat-...-1P

  Our cat had kittens again, and we have too many cats.

  Huxw higihi wii duusim, ii gal hilthi duusgum.

In what appear to be more recent formations, the suffix is applied to single items: it seems that the indefinite collective meaning has led to the meaning 'non-intimate possession' since the semantic range of the words in question covers more remote relationships without emotional involvement:

lip <u>bíshop</u>-[t]k $^{\mathbf{W}}$ - $\mathring{\mathbf{m}}$  self bishop-...-1P

'our own Bishop' *lip Bishopgui*n

ká:-tkW-ý

'my car' (OFS; YFS: ká.-ỷ )

ksāigwiÿ (/ksaỷ)

- 3.2.B. VERBAL CATEGORIES: Most of the verbal categories summarized below are indicated by affixes; the meaning of these affixes is discussed together with their form, in Chapter 7.
- 3.2.B.1. VALENCE. Roots and bases do not seem to have inherent valence. The Medial suffixes (7.2.C.i.) (Definite -T, Indefinite -tkW/-s) may transform a  $P_A$  stem into a  $P_{EA}$ , any stem into a  $P_A$ . Transitive affixes include two prefixes (7.1.B.1.a.2.), Dominative  $t\partial$  and Jussive kWin-, and among the suffixes, Causative -7n, Completive -7l, and other miscellaneous predicative suffixes which are no longer productive (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.). Chief among intransitive suffixes which transform  $P_{EA}$  stems into  $P_A$ 's are the Antipassive (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.) and Detransitive (7.2.C.2.a.) suffixes.
- 3.2.B.2. VOICE. There is no marker for the Active voice, although the Definite Medial suffix -T may play this role; suffixes mark Passive (originally Indefinite Medial -tkW / -S) and Antipassive (-?S). Both can be definite or indefinite (marked by the Indefinite Medial suffix added to the Passive or Antipassive suffix). The Antipassive label may not be entirely accurate since the Definite Antipassive suffix can also be used to form nouns from other nouns. Frames ending in one of the Medial suffixes indicate Reflexive (7.3.a.1.a.2.a.1.) and Reciprocal (7.3.A.1.a.1.b.).
- 3.2.B.3. MODALITY. There are suffixes for Causation and Completion, as well as other less definable suffixes (probably Temporary, Recurrent, etc.)(7.2.C.)

- 3.2.B.4. CONTROL. Grammatical control is expressed by the suffix  $\neg \partial \neg$  for predicate-focused transitives (7.2.A.3.); there are also two prefixes expressing dominance: Dominative  $t\partial \neg$  (physical control, 7.1.B.1.a.2.a.) and Jussive  $k^{\mathbf{W}}$ in  $\neg$  (mental control, authority, 7.1.B.1.a.2.b.).
- 3.2.B.5. ASPECT.  $P_A$ s (excepting most nouns) can be inflected for Progressive Aspect, through partial reduplication (of the preceding auxiliary  $yuk^W$  if not of the predicate itself). (See Reduplication, chapter 8).
- 3.2.B.6. TENSE and MOOD are expressed syntactically by combinations of semi-free morphemes (modal particles, auxiliaries and subordinators), not morphologically.

### 3.2.C. CATEGORIES COMMON TO NOUN AND VERB.

3.2.C.1. DEFINITENESS. In the verb, there are Definite and Indefinite Medial suffixes (7.2.C.1.). Nouns can be marked for Definite or Indefinite possession (3.2.A.2.b.). For both noun and verb, Indefiniteness is marked by the suffix -tkW/-s (7.2.C.1.b.).

Among compounds, Object-incorporating verbs can occur unmediated (without a suffix, corresponding to a definite meaning, or mediated (with the Attributive suffix -M), corresponding to an indefinite meaning. The use of a transitive verb + noun construction instead of an Object-incorporating verb marks the noun as definite (9.).

- 3.2.C.2. NUMBER. Most verbs and adjectives and some nouns have separate singular and plural forms (Tarpent 1983b), which show great surface diversity. However, this diversity can be greatly reduced by a more thorough analysis.
- 3.2.C.2. a. According to purely superficial criteria it is possible to recognize the following classes:

## **3.2.C.2.a.1.** Pure types:

## 3.2.C.2.a.1.a. Class I: full reduplication (statistically the most important):

## 1. root ending in Velar: the formula is

	CAK>	CvX)CVK	
Examples:	Singular	Piural	
	cóq	cax)cóq	to stay, camp,
	jo <u>k</u>	ja <b>∡</b> jo <u>k</u>	live (s.w.)
	ťák	ťix)ťák	'to forget <u>s.t.</u> '
	t'ak	t'ixt'ak	

## 2. root ending in other consonant:

	aat ikskw	at-aat'ikskw	
	²á∙tiķsk <b>™</b>	<sup>?</sup> at) <sup>?</sup> á∙ťiķsk™	'to come, arrive'
Examples:	tám <i>t'am</i>	lim)lám <i>tìml'am</i>	'to write <u>sthg</u> '
	CVC>	Cvc)CVC	

## 3.2.C.2.a.1.b. class II: partial reduplication:

	CVC>	C(v))CVC	
Examples:	pá <sup>?</sup> ba'a	pi)pá <sup>?</sup> <i>biba a</i>	'thigh'

	ḿá∙l <i>ṁaa!</i>	m)má·l <i>mṁaal</i>	'canoe'
3.2.C.2.a.1.c. class II	I: prefixation:		
1. with lə <i>li/l</i>	la/lu: (a small, clos	sed class):	
Examples:	<sup>?</sup> áķs	lə- <sup>?</sup> áķs	'to drink'
	aks	li'aks	
	tə-mó·tk <b>w</b> dimootkw	tə-lə-mó·tk <b>w</b> <i>dilimootkw</i>	'to cure, save <u>s.o.</u> '
2. with <b>qa</b> - ga	s-: (a productive c	lass)	
Examples:	wóx	qa <del>w</del> óx	'to bark'
	₩0 <u>₮</u>	gawo <u>r</u>	
	<sup>9</sup> á∙t	qa- <sup>2</sup> á-t	'to fish (w. net)'
	aat	ga'aat	
3.2.C.2.a.1.d. class I	V: unstressed vowe	el-lengthening (a very	y small class):
	CVCV>	CV:CV	
Examples:	hanáď <i>hanak</i>	ha:náď <i>haana<u>k</u> '</i>	'woman'
	pilist <i>bilis</i> t	pi·list <i>biilis</i> t	'star'

## 3.2.C.2.a.2. Apparently mixed types:

3.2.C.2.a.2.a. class V: partial reduplication with velar infix (a productive class):

cv... --> cix)cv...

examples: kitax kix)kitax 'to ask s.o. s.t.'

gidax gixgidax

?amqó-kit hix)?amqó-kit 'to be pretty (us.

amgoogit hix amgoogit other than
persons)'

3.2.C.2.a.2.b. class VI: partial reduplication with vowel lengthening and stress-shift; roots ending in Velars only (a non-productive class which includes many irregularities):

CVK ---> CV:)CvK

examples: Wóq Wó·waq 'to sleep'

wok woowak

náks ní·nikskw 'spouse'

naks niinikskw

3.2.C.2.a.3. To these classes should also be added yet another, that including the suppletive stems, as in:

ťá∙	wán	'to sit'
t'aa	wa <u>n</u>	
máq	ťá4	'to put <u>s.t.</u> (away)'
ma <u>k</u>	t'ahl	

3.2.C.2.b. However, apart from the suppletive stems the apparently diverse methods used to form the plural can be reduced to two, prefixation and reduplication.

The many irregularities (including pleonastic or doubly-marked formations) are explainable in terms of three stages of historical evolution (see also Chapter 8). At each stage, prefixed forms seem to be mostly distributive in meaning, reduplicative forms mostly repetitive: the plural meaning of reduplication then seems to derive from an aspectual meaning. That Aspect is also indicated through a form of reduplication confirms this.

3.2.C.2.b.1. Stage 1 (Archaic): stress occurs on the prefixed syllable: (10.3.B.2.a.):

### 3.2.C.2.b.1.a. Prefixation with la-:

skát lískit 'to be born'
sgat lisgit

Most plural stems formed with this prefix begin with a Velar, which is deleted intervocatically, hence forms like

qinx linx '(tree) to fail'

Some plural stems of this shape no longer occur by themselves, but have been used as the base for full reduplication in Stage 2. Vocalic alternations such as in

ké: d lá: d 'to lie (down),
geehl lashl to go to bed'

confirm that this is an archaic type (see T 1983b).

3.2.C.2.b.1.b. Full reduplication (RED<sub>1</sub>): in the present state of the language this type is evidenced through the class of plurals of the shape CV:CvK, formed on roots of the shape CVK (class VI above), where the Velar in pre-consonantal position has become vocalized (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.(b)), for instance:

kwsdaks	kwsdaadaks	'to leave s.'
kw.s.táq.s	kw.s.*t <b>áq</b> )taq.s	s>kws <b>tá</b> :taqs
<i>по</i> <u>т</u>	noonex	
ĸóx	*n <b>óx</b> )nox > n <b>ó</b> :	nax 'mothers'

These forms were not affected by the stress-shift which, in the next stage, must have affected plurals formed on roots ending in other consonants.

### Vowel-alternations such as in

confirm that this is an archaic type.

3.2.C.2.b.2. <u>Stage 2: (Classical)</u>: stress is on the root/base/stem, not on the prefixed syllable:

3.2.C.2.b.2.a. Prefixation: prefixation with 10-occurs within a fram. 10 -T (7.3.A.1.a.1.a.) as in

3.2.C.2.b.2.b. Full reduplication (Red 2) (class I above) affects  $C_1 V C_2$  bases and stems, with a widening of the definition of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  so that larger and larger stems are affected, e.g.

cá <b>m</b> <i>jam</i>	ci <b>m)cám</b> jimjam	'to boil, cook s.t.'
?á: <b>m</b> <i>aam</i>	?am)?á.m am'aam	'to be good '
<b>sq</b> íksk <sup>W</sup> <i>sgeksk</i> w	sax)sqíksk <sup>W</sup> saxsgekskw	'to be injured'
<b>w</b> ilá:x <i>wilaax</i>	wil)wilá:x <i>wilwilasx</i>	'to know <u>s.</u> '
<b>q</b> ó:?o <b>s</b> T goo'os(t)	qas)qó:?osT gasgoo'os(t)	'to be/have cooled'

including stems pluralized with 10- (in Stage 1) and now monosyllabic, as in

3.2.C.2.b.2.c. Partial reduplication is used for the plural of terms designating groups or sets, e.g.

ċák <i>ts'ak'</i>	ci)čák <i>jits'ak'</i>	'dish'
inkit	ti)tínkit	'(sg.) Tlingit;
hlingit	<i>bliblingit</i>	(pl.) slaves'

mostly nouns, but also a few adjectives and verbs, including one irregular CV:CvK formation (Stage 1):

Partial reduplication on a stem of the shape KVCV results in an intervocalic K which is deleted, causing a long vowel: K)KVCV > KVKVCV > KV:CV, for instance

This formula is reinterpreted as CVCV > CV:CV, a formula which is used with stems other than those with initial Velar, hence the Class IV plurals, e.g.

pilíst	pi:líst	'star'
bilist	biilist	

(Remark: this word, the only one in this class which does not begin with a Velar, also has a fully and classically reduplicated plural pil)pilist bilbilist, showing alternate tries at pluralizing a word which does not quite fit canonical forms. That is is originally bimorphemic is shown by its Gitksan counterpart bil'ust).

This class includes some prefixed formsuch as:

3.2.C.2.b.3. <u>Stage 3 (Modern)</u>: prefixation and reduplication are productive under new forms.

3.2.C.2.b.3. a. Prefixation uses the Distributive prefix qa=(7.1.B.1.a.1.b.), especially with intransitive verbs and adjectives:

wóx	qa-wóx	'to bark '
₩0 <u>x</u>	gawo <u>x</u>	
xčáý	qa-xcáý	'to be thick'
<u> z</u> ts'aý	gazts'aÿ	

but also with some nouns which do not have a plural:

lipleet	galipleet	( <ch.j. <fr.)<="" th=""></ch.j.>
liplé:t	qa-liplé:t	-liplé:t 'priest'

3.2.C.2.b.3.b. Full reduplication (Red 3)(class V) occurs under the shape Cixwhich is one of the reduplicative allomorphs of the Stage 2 pattern; this shape can be prefixed to any type of word, including those beginning with proclitics:

and borrowings such as

<b>p</b> úc	pix)púc	'(pair of) <u>boots</u> '
buts	bixbuts	

and plurals formed by other methods, especially those forms which are no longer recognizable as reduplicated, as in

lu≔ <b>y</b> ó?oks	lu≔ <b>hix)y</b> ó:?oks	'to wash <u>s.t.</u> out'
in=wash.s.	in=PL)wash.s.PL	
luuyo'oks	luuhixyoo'oks	

The addition of the Cix- syllable on an already plural form emphasizes the meaning of separateness, as in

<b>p</b> i·list	'stars'	<b>pix)p</b> i·list	'each and every
biilist,		bixbiilist,	star'

Partial reduplication is not a method of plural-formation at this stage.

### CHAPTER 4: SYNTAX OF THE CLAUSE

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION.

## 4.1.A. The predicate phrase.

A Nisgha sentence may consist of one or more clauses, each of which includes a predicate phrase. The predicate phrase consists obligatorily of a predicate, ambient, nominal or verbal, which may be accompanied by one or two pronominal arguments. The predicate phrase carries a great deal of information, both within the predicate and in the more or less tightly bound morphemes that surround it, encapsulating or anticipating in a general way the relations between all the semantic elements of the clause (4.2.).

In its morphosyntactic structure, the predicate phrase provides a general, abstract schema or structural description of the relations among the predicate and the non-predicative constituents, which may then be amplified and fleshed out by independent elements carrying lexical content, such as nouns and adverbs, which indicate the precise semantic referents of the more abstract morphemes attached to the predicate. Since the predicate phrase is normally the first major constituent of a clause (although usually preceded by minor constituents), it can be said to provide a 'table of contents' for the clause. Under suitable circumstances, when the semantic referents are already known (as in answering yes to a question), this capsule description of the syntactic structure of the clause can do duty for the entire clause.

The predicate stem is usually accompanied by one or two bound pronouns indicating the presence and syntactic nature of the arguments; nominals with semantic content indicating the precise reference of these pronouns may also occur elsewhere in the clause, but are adjuncts to the pronouns rather than arguments themselves. Sorting out which nominal adjuncts correspond to which pronominal arguments is accomplished by strict word order and in one

case by differential stress. There is also one case (in the Predicate-focused clause, 4.4.) where some bound pronouns cannot appear, but a suffix added to the predicate stem ensures that syntactic relations are kept in order. However, the predicate- pronominal structure is not always transparent, because a phonological rule of consonant-deletion (10.2.A.2.b.1.) can, under certain conditions, obliterate some surface representations of pronominal morphemes.

In addition to the pronominal arguments, circumstantial proclitics (7.1.A.) which can be prefixed to the predicate give considerable detail as to the location, direction, manner, etc. of the action described by the predicate; the individual circumstances to which these proclitics apply can be made explicit by nominal or adverbial complements. Combinations of these proclitics with some verbal suffixes (Frames, 7.3.) indicate yet other syntactic relationships between arguments and complements.

Not all nominal elements in a clause corefer with the pronominal arguments. In a number of cases the clause includes an obligatory nominal with specific semantic properties, here referred to as the Specified Complement, placed before the predicate, in addition to the pronominal arguments (4.7.B.). It is not clear what the status of this constituent should be, whether argument or complement, but it is similar to the Second Object found with some English verbs.

The predicate stem itself often carries a great deal of information. Modifications of the predicate stem mark aspect and number. Many predicate stems carry one or more affixes indicating such verbal categories as Causative, Jussive, Medial, Detransitive, and others, which indicate the precise relation of the arguments to the action or state indicated by the predicate, as well as to each other (7.2.C.). Compounding provides a way of integrating a meaning-carrying adjunct within the predicate itself, as when a specific noun is incorporated into the predicate (9.2.A.).

Optional elements such as Future and Irrealis particles (6.1.B.1.), modal and

discourse modifiers (5.15.), and evidential postclitics (6.3.), also occur within the domain of the predicate phrase. Subordinators (5.16) can also be bound phonologically to the predicate phrase although they are not part of it syntactically.

With so much information concentrated in the predicate phrase, there seems to be little role left for the non-predicative elements, beyond providing semantic referents for parts of the predicate phrase. However, any non-predicative adjunct, whether nominal or adverbial, can receive special emphasis through the process of Focusing (4.7.A.), characterized primarily by position in front of the predicate. Focusing of non-predicative meaning-carrying adjuncts is the major counterweight to the rigid structure of the predicate phrase and to the heavy load of information it carries.

But the predicate itself can be given focus by placing it into first position: this entails some morphological adjustments which lighten the predicate structure by omitting one of the pronominal arguments. Predicate-focused clauses (4.4.) are rare in narrative style, since they are used to give factual precisions and explanations, not to move the narrative forward. They are much more frequent in conversational style.

Under certain conditions a predicate phrase can also function as adjunct. Downshifting (4.5.) occurs when a predicate and its argument, for instance a nominalized transitive verb and its Object, are used in a non-predicative function within the clause. Conversely, a possessed noun, the result of downshifting, can itself be raised to the role of clause predicate (4.6.).

The result of all this is an extremely flexible syntax with an incredible variety of surface clause types.

## 4.1.B. Ergative and Absolutive:

The arguments can have the functions of Subject, Agent and Direct Object.

Their treatment defines the character of Nisgha morphology and syntax.

It is now well-documented that languages differ according to how they treat these three functions (e.g. Dixon 1979). Since the intransitive Subject function is in complementary distribution with those of Agent and Direct Object, it is rarely kept totally distinct from them, whether morphologically, syntactically, or both. Instead, it is usually considered to be equivalent to one of these functions. In most European languages, for instance, Agent and Subject functions are marked in the same way, both syntactically and morphologically, and the Object is marked differently:

Eng He helped He helped Fred

Subj(NOM) Agt(NOM) Obj(ACC)

He helped him

Agt(NOM) Obj(ACC)

Fred helped him

Agt(NOM) Obj(ACC)

Fr II a aidé II a aidé Fred
he has helped he has helped F.
Subj(NOM) Agu(NOM) Obj(ACC)

Il l'a aidéFred l'a aidéhe him has helpedF. him has helped

Agt(NOM) Obj(ACC)

In Nisgha, as in a variety of other languages widely scattered around the world (Basque, Caucasian languages, Australian languages, some North American and Polynesian languages, etc.), the Subject function is marked like the Direct Object function, and a special form or other distinctive treatment marks the Agent function:

Agt(NOM) Obj(ACC)

...Wil timó:misk W-y

SUB help.out-IS

Subj(ABS)

....wil hlimoomisgwiy.

....nə wil timó:m-n

IE SUB ...-2S

Agt(ERG) Obj(ABS)

....mə wil timó:m-y

....as/when I helped you.

....ni wil hlimoomin.

Agt(ERG) Obj(ABS)

....ni wil hlimoomin.

2E SUB ...-1S

....ni wil hlimoomiy.

Agt(ERG) Obi(ABS)

It is traditional to refer to systems of the Agent = Subject = Object type, like English or French, as Nominative/Accusative systems, and to systems of the Agent = Subject = Object type as Ergative/Absolutive systems: (Ergative refers to the Agent forms; Absolutive to the Subject = Object forms). These terms are used for convenience, whether the language has a full-fledged case system marking all arguments, as in Latin or Russian, or whether morphological case marking is restricted to a subsystem such as the personal pronouns of English or Nisgha, where the differentiation of arguments (or their coreferent adjuncts) is achieved mostly by word order. In these two languages, morphological case marking is marginal, but numerous other features of morphology and especially syntax converge to give to Nisgha a distinctly Ergative<sup>2</sup> character, to English a distinctly Accusative character.

While an adequate description of Nisgha requires reference to the syntactic functions of the various arguments, there are many cases where greater simplicity can be achieved and the nature of the system made clearer by referring to the Ergative/Absolutive argument dichotomy rather than to the three distinct functions of Subject. Agent and Direct Object. In describing the structure of the Nisgha clause, then, the predicate phrase can be represented using the general formula

#### P((E)A)

where P is the predicate, E the Ergative argument(Agent function), A the Absolutive argument (Subject or Object function):

P ...wil má:tim ... as/when it snows/it's winter. SUB snowing/winter ... wil maadim. …wilłimó:misk<sup>w</sup>-**ў** ... as/when I helped out (with SUB help.out-1S traditional services). ... wil blimoomisgwiy. P E Å ...mə wil timó:m-y ... as/when you helped me. 2E SUB ...-1S ... 🛋 i wil hlimoomiÿ.

The Attribute of a nominal predicate can also be identified as Absolutive on morphological and syntactic grounds, since it behaves like the Subject of an Intransitive verb, as in (regular clause):

P A
...Wilhanáq-y .... as I am a woman.

SUB woman-IS .... wil hanak'ay.

Predicates will be referred to according to the number and kind of arguments they take: thus a P<sub>A</sub> takes only an Absolutive argument while a P<sub>EA</sub> takes both an Ergative and an Absolutive argument.

## 4.1.C. Order of morphemes:

In a normal (not predicate-focused) transitive clause, the Ergative argument pronoun, a clitic, is placed before the predicate (before or after a subordinator

and/or particles if present), its Absolutive counterpart, a suffix, after the predicate. If the nouns that these pronouns refer to are mentioned in the same clause, they are placed after the predicate, in the same order:

$$\dots E \dots P-A (E_{Adt}) (A_{Adt})$$

... as/when s/he helped him/her.

... wilt hlimoomt.

The Specified Complement (Sc) is placed before the E pronoun:

Sc E P A

Péter t siwátT-t

S/he named him Peter.

Peter t sivadit

P. 3E name.s.-3

Sc E P A E-Adt A-Adt

Péter t siwátT-[t]=s [t] Màry=+ +kú:+kW-t

P. 3E name.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M=NC child-3

Mary named her child Peter.

Potor t siwadis Maryhl hlguuhlkwt.

In an intransitive clause, which does not have an Ergative argument, the order of morphemes is otherwise the same:

P A ...Wil imó: misk W-t SUB help.out-3

... as/when s/he helped out (with traditional services).

... Wil hlimoomisk wt.

P A A-Adt
...wil imó misk W-[t]=s [t] Màry

SUB help.out-[3]=DC [DM] M. ...wil hlimoomisk ws Mary.

In a predicate-focused clause, the predicate occurs in first position, and it does not carry an Absolutive pronoun. The Ergative argument is indicated by a suffix pronoun after a Control suffix (the suffix pronoun does not always occur on the surface, because of the consonant-deletion rule,). Other nominals<sup>3</sup>, if present, are in the same E-A order as in a regular clause:

P E
dimó.m-9-t S/he helped him/her.
help.s.-CTL-3 Hlimoomit.

P E E-Adt A-Nom
dimó.m-9-[t]=s[t]Màry t Lúcy Mary helped Lucy.
help.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M. DM L. Hlimoomis Mary t Lucy.

p
dimó:miskW

S/he helped out
help.out

(with traditional services).

Hlimoomiskw:

P A-Nom
fimó:misk<sup>W</sup> t Màr y
helped out
help.out DM M. (with traditional services).

Hlimoomiskw t Mary.

#### 4.1.D. Predicate downshifting:

All predicates that can take an Absolutive argument can be accompanied by this argument (and its nominal Adjunct) while performing non-predicative functions in a main clause. Since such a predicate phrase is now only one of

the main constituents of a clause, rather than a clause in its own right, we can say that both predicate and argument have been *downshifted*. Predicate and argument are still linked, but in a different way Downshifting (4.5.) may occur through:

- possession of a noun: the possessor is downshifted:

?à.t-[**t]=s[t]** <u>Péter</u>

Peter's net

net-[3]=DC[DM] P.

aats Peter

 $\dot{m}\dot{u}k^{W}$ -[t]=s[t] <u>Péter</u>

Peter's catch (of fish)

catch[3]=DC[DM]P

mukws Peter

- attribution :

si mùkWs-mhón

fresh-caught fish

new caught-ATT fish

sii **muk** wim hoon

- relativization of an intransitive verb (= Focusing of its Subject):

(t) <u>Péter=</u> ?à:t-(a)t

Peter fished (with a net)

(DM) P.=NC fish.w.net-REL

(T) Peterh! sadit.

ksaxt<u>Péter=ł mukw-(ə)t</u>

Only Peter caught [something]

only DM P.=NC catch-REL

Ksart Peterhl hugwit.

- nominalization of a transitive verb:

de càp-T-[t]=d ?á:t

....(the) making (of) a net

the make.s.-DEF-[3]=NC net

...hli jabihl aat

də **mùk₩-T-**[t]=d hó:n

...(the) catching (of) fish

... catch.s.-DEF-[3]=NC fish

...hli **mugvi**hl hoon

(Remark: the key words in these examples have multiple class membership; most words would only fit into some of these patterns).

- nominalization of an adjective:

## 4.2. MAJOR CLAUSE CONSTITUENTS.

#### 4.2.A. THE PREDICATE.

Most predicative words can also take the argument roles, and words capable of being arguments can also be predicates, so it makes sense to classify these words on the basis of their capabilities as predicates, i.e. according to the number and kind of arguments and complements they take. As in English, many words have multiple class membership.

## 4.2.A.1. Predicates occurring singly: (P0):

These are mostly words referring to natural phenomena such as

hay wis (to) rain hay wis ma: tim (to) snow, winter masdim

## 4.2.A.2. Predicates with arguments (A and E) only:

## 4.2.A.2.a. Predicate with Absolutive argument only:(PA):

This category comprises a number of classes:

1. intransitive verbs (5.2):

- non-stative:

yú xk <sup>W</sup>	'to eat'	<i>yuu<u>x</u>kw</i>
čín	'to come/go in'	ts'in

- stative:

ta: 'to sit/exist' t'aa

2. adjectives (5.3);

nák<sup>W</sup> 'to be long, far' nakw

3. numerals (5.4):

kol 'one (person)' k'yool

4. nouns (5.5):

wilphousewilpnóxmothernox

## 4.2.A.2.b. Predicates with one Ergative and one Absolutive argument (PEA):

These comprise the majority of the transitive verbs (5.1.). Some must take the Definite Medial suffix (DEF) (-T) (7.2.C.1.a.). In predicate-focused clauses, all transitive verbs are followed by the Control (CTL) infix -3-. (7.2.A.3.).

ká?	to see <u>s</u> . (A)	ga'a
qúc	'to cut <u>s.t.</u> (A)'	<u> </u>
tálq	'to talk to <u>s.o.</u> (A)'	dal <u>k</u>
kipá	'to wait for s.o. (A) (th	at's coming)' gibs

Transitive verbs including Jussive verbs formed by prefixing (kWin-) 'Jussive' gwin- (7.1.B.1.a.2.b.) to another verb:

JUSS-make.s. to have <u>s.t.</u> (A) made' gwin-jap (Fr. faire faire qqch)

## 4.2.A.3. Predicates with Specified Complement (Sc):

Semantically, the Specified Complement adds precision to a predicate which already has a very restricted semantic domain, whether or not this predicate also takes a Direct Object: most of the cases are verbs of saying, but there are also others. The Specified Complement is normally anteposed to the predicate, but a number of details differentiate it from a Focused constituent (4.7.B.).

# 4.2.A.3.a. Predicates with Absolutive argument and Specified Complement: (PASc)

wá	'name of "Sc"'
name	Wa
siwá-tk <sup>W</sup> name.sPASS	'(place, etc.) to be named "Sc"'  siwatkw
siwá-tk <sup>W</sup> s name.sPASS.INDEF	'(object, plant, animal, etc.) to be called [by the common name] "Sc"'  sivatkus

# 4.2.A.3.b. Predicate with Ergative and Absolutive arguments and Specified Complement: $(P_{EASc})$

hiks to say "Sc" to s.o. (A)' hiks
kin to give s.o. (A) a food (Sc)' gin

was-T to price s.t. (A) at "Sc"; to charge
or quote the price "Sc" for s.t. (A)'

was-di

## 4.2.A.3.c. Predicate with Ergative argument and Specified Complement: (PESc)

Only one predicate fits this description:

This predicate is unusual in many respects, including the fact that it has an E argument but no A argument (see also 7.2.A.1.c.).

4.2.A.4. Predicates with Indirect Object: Even though the Indirect Object (10) is not part of the arguments, it is mentioned here because of it often corresponds to an underlying argument (for instance, the Absolutive argument of a transitive verb can also occur as the IO of an Antipassive verb, cf. Tarpent 1982). The Indirect Object is indicated by a prepositional phrase or an Indirect pronoun (5.9.).

# 4.2.A.4.a. Predicates with Absolutive argument and Indirect Object: (PAI): Only a few of these actually require an Indirect Object:

kWódisT 'to miss (=not see/meet) s.o. (I)'

kw'oot'is(t)

wa:kátkW 'to miss (=feel the absence of) s.o. (I)'

waagatkw

In many cases the Indirect Object is optional:

In particular, Antipassive verbs (derived from transitive verbs, 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.) can take an optional Indirect Object (which is equivalent fo the DO of the corresponding transitive verb):

# 4.2.A.4.b. <u>Predicates with Ergative and Absolutive arguments and with Indirect Object</u> (P<sub>EAI</sub>):

These are a few transitive verbs which take an Indirect Object in addition to a Direct Object (this use is rare in Boas 1902 but normal nowadays):

#### - human I:

#### - non-human I:

kítax 'to ask 
$$\underline{s.o.}$$
 (A)  $\underline{s.t.}$  (I)' gidax hó:X-T 'to use  $\underline{s.t.}$  (A) for  $\underline{s.t.}$  (I)' hoox(di)

These include Jussive verbs, formed by framing a transitive verb with the Jussive frame [kWin-...-T-] gwin-...-di, (7.3.A.2.a.1.) which take an Indirect

Object:

## 4.2.B. ADJUNCTS AND COMPLEMENTS.

Adjuncts co-refer with the pronominal arguments which are part of the Predicate phrase. The first adjunct noun after the predicate is connected to it by a Connective clitic (6.2.B.). Adjuncts can still accompany the predicate when the latter is downshifted (4.6.). Absolutive Adjuncts (i.e. adjuncts to the Absolutive pronominal argument) can be incorporated into the predicate itself through compounding (9.2.A.)

<u>Complements</u> occur in addition to the predicate phrase and are never a part of it; they are not connected to the predicate or to an Adjunct; they are never incorporated into the predicate phrase.

Both Adjuncts and Complements can be focused (4.7.A.). Both can be simple or complex. Complex adjuncts and complements may be noun-phrases (possessive or attributive), numeral phrases, or conjoined nominals (5.17.). Entire clauses can also function as Adjuncts with certain verbs, and as circumstantial Complements.

4.2.B.1. Adjuncts: Adjuncts are usually nouns (or noun-phrases) or pronouns (except Indirect pronouns). They can be determinate or non-determinate (3.2.C.1.). Some transitive verbs can take a clausal Adjunct, as in

intr.: tə-tá:-(y)ə-t=f sita:fi:sk-t She sat knitting.

DOMIN-sit-CTL-3=NC knit-3

Dit'aayith! sidaahliiskt.

- 4.2.B.2. <u>Complements</u>: There are three kinds of complements: Specified Complements, circumstantial complements and Indirect Objects.
- 4.2.R.2.a. Specified complement: The Specified complement of a P<sub>ASC</sub> predicate does not corefer with anything in the predicate phrase and cannot be omitted. It is always quoted in full in the clause; it has a very restricted semantic range (e.g. name, place, instrument), whereas the Adjuncts are usually defined in more general terms (e.g. s.t., s.o.).; for instance

In regular clauses it occurs in first place before predicate, unless another constituent is focused, in which case is appears after the Adjuncts, preceded by the preposition  $7a \ s$  (5.18).

4.2.B.2.b. <u>Circumstantial Complement</u>: A circumstantial complement can indicate place or time.<sup>5</sup>

There may be more than one such complement in the clause. A complement indicating place often refers to a Proclitic (7.1.) in the predicate: the proclitic indicates the type of location or motion described by the predicate, while the complement indicates the exact site of the action.

Circumstantial complements can be nouns (and noun-phrases), adverbs (5.14), or clauses. Those various elements can often be preceded by the preposition ? a which is sometimes used as a subordinator (5.18).

A circumstantial complement usually occurs after the argumental Adjuncts, except if it is focused, for instance:

Pred.-foc.: timmílukW-ti: wilpqalčáp ta: tákW

FUT dance-IMPERS community.hall tomorrow

Tomorrow there is a dance at the hall.

Dim miilukwdii vilpgalts'ap t'aahlakv.

Foc.Loc.: wilpqalcap tim  $wilmiluk^W$ -ti: (ta:4á $k^W$ )

com.hall FUT SUB dance-IMPERS (tomorrow)

The dance (tomorrow) is at the hall.

Wilpgalts'ap dim wil miilukwdii (t'aahlakw).

Foc.Time: ta:tákW tim wil mí:lukW-ti:

The dance is tomorrow.

tomorrow FUT SUB dance-IMPERS

T'ashlakw dim wil millukwdii.

4.2.B.2.c. <u>Indirect Object</u>: The Indirect Object expresses semantic categories such as Goal, Beneficiary, Instrument, etc., for instance

timkińám-ə-ỷ?a=s[t] Máry

I'll give it to Mary.

FUT give.s.-CTL-1S PREP=DC [DM] M.

Dim giñamiÿ as Mary.

timķińám-ə-ỷ**lò**:-n

I'll give it to you.

FUT give.s.-CTL-1S IND-2S

Dim gińamiý loon.

Like the circumstantial complements, the Indirect Object, if present, is placed after the Adjuncts unless focused. It can be represented by a prepositional phrase 7a + nominal, or by the Indirect 10:-pronoun (100...)(5.9). Like other constituents, the Indirect Object can be focused (4.7.A.3.a.); however, the 10:-pronoun cannot occur in focused position (it is replaced by an independent 11-pronoun, 11).

4.3. THE REGULAR CLAUSE: THE PREDICATE PHRASE AND ITS ADJUNCTS.

## 4.3.A. The basic predicate phrase:

The syntactic unit consisting of the predicate and its pronominal argument(s) is normally not uttered alone (see 4.3.C. below for exceptions). It is usually introduced by other constituents: by a Subordinator (5.16), a Specified Complement (4.7.8.), a Relative-Ergative clitic (6.1.A.2.), or by an Auxiliary (5.12) or Negative (5.13) verb, or by another predicate, verbal or nominal.

These structures where the predicate is preceded by various elements contrast with the predicate-focused clause (4.4.) where those elements cannot appear and the predicate is the first constituent of a main clause.

In both types of structure, the predicate phrase can include a modal particle (6.1.B.) and/or one or more modifiers (5.15), as well as an evidential postclitic (6.3.).

The imperative clause (4.3.D.) can be described as a truncated predicate phrase.

## 4.3.A. Introductory elements:

#### 4.3.A.1. Non-verbal elements:

### 4.3.A.1. a. Subordinator: (5.16)

- P<sub>0</sub>: ta: má:tim It's winter now. by.now snowfall Hlas masdim.

- P<sub>A</sub>: †a: NákS-t S/he is married now. by.now married-3 Hise nakst. ... wil hałálsT-t

... as/where/when s/he worked/works.

as... work-3

... wil hablals(i)t.

... wila: hó:ks-t

... how it's used.

how used-3

... vilse hookst.

-P<sub>EA</sub>: (In a P<sub>EA</sub> clause, the subordinator occurs after the ISE or 2E clitic pronoun, but before other pronouns).

...  $a:-tnáksk^W-t$ 

... when s/he married him/her.

by.now-3E marry.s.-3

... hlast nakskyt.

... nə wil kipá-n

... as/when/where I wait(ed) for you.

1S.E as,... wait.for.s.-2S

... ni vil giban.

... mə **wila**: hó:x-T-t

... how you use(d) it.

2E how use.s.-DEF-3

... mi vilaa hooyit.

4.3.A.1.b. Specified Complement (Sc):

 $P_{ASc}$ : the connective =  $\frac{1}{2}$  is used between the Sc and the predicate:

<u>Máry</u>=ł wà-ỷ

My name is Mary.

M.=NC name-1S

Maryhl way.

?aÿáns+ siwàtkW-t

It is called Aiyansh.

A.=NC named-3

Ayzashi siwatkwi.

PEASc: Láura tipsiwà-(t)T-t

We named her Laura.

L. 1PE name.s.-DEF-3

Laura dip siwadit.

akú məkin-t

What [food] did you give h.?

what 2E give.food.to.s.-3

Ago mi gint?

PESc: ní: nayá

I said "No."

no 1SE say

" Nii. " ni ya.

ní: t-yá

S/he said "No."

no 3E-say

" Nii, " diya.

?é:? məsim hí:ta

[All of you] Say "Yes."

yes 2E 2P.E say.PL

Le e. mi sim hiida.

4.3.A.I. c. Relative-Ergative pronoun: (in PEA clauses only):

... t **an** kipá-n

... [the one] who is/was waiting for you.

3E RELE wait.for.s.-2S

... tan giban.

4.3.A.2. Verbal elements: Both Auxiliary and Negative verbs can introduce the predicate phrase. The connective = 1 (6.2.B.) is placed between this verb and the predicate if no other morpheme occurs between them.

4.3.A.2.a. Auxiliary verbs: (5.12)

 $\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{0}}$ :

yùkW=1 mátim

It's snowing.

PROG=NC snowfall

Yukwhi maadim.

PA:

**yùk<sup>w</sup>=**4 ha<del>1</del>áÌsT-t

S/he is working.

PROG=NC work-3

Yukwhi hahlaisii)t

tisk W=t hatálsT-ý?i:... After I finish(ed) working, ...

PERF=NC work-1S and then

Hlisk whi hahlalsiy ii ...

P<sub>EA</sub>: yùk<sup>W</sup> nə hó x-t

I am using it.

PROG 1S.E use.s.-3

Yukw ni hooxt.

... łìsk W məhó:x-t

PERF 2E use.s.-3

... after you've finished with it... (after you've finished using it)

... hlisky mi hooxt ...

yùk<sup>w</sup> tipkipá-n

We are waiting for you.

PERF 1P.E wait.for.s.-2\$

Yukw dip giban.

4.3.A.2. b. Negative verbs: (5.13)

 $P_0$ : ni:-ti:má:tim

It did not snow/it is not snowing.

not-INTS snowfall

Nidii maadim.

 $P_A$ : ni:-ti:ha $\frac{1}{2}$ alsT- $\frac{1}{2}$ 

I don't/didn't work.

not-INTS work-1S

Nidii hahlaİsiy.

hawin=4y070ksweintkw-n==a

Have you brushed your teeth yet?

not.yet=NC brush.o's.teeth-2S==Q

Havinhl yo'oksweentgwina?

kilò=1 tál-sim

Stop fighting!

don't=NC fight-2S

Gilohl dalsim!

PEA: nì:-nə-tikipá-t

I didn't wait for h.

not-1S.E-INTS wait.for.s.-3

Nindii gibat.

hawin məká?-t==a

Have you seen it/h. yet?

not.yet2S.E see.s.-3==Q

Havin mi ga'ada?

#### 4.3.A.3. Optional elements within the predicate phrase:

4.3.A.3.a. Modal particles (6.1.B.) and/or Modifiers (5.15.) can occur together with any of the above elements:

Po: ła: tim má:tim

It's going to snow now (soon).

by.now FUT snowfall

Hlas dim masdim.

PTCL

?á:m cə ?ax má:tim

Hope it doesn't snow!

good IRR not snowfall

Asm ji sx masdim!

PTCL MOD

 $P_{A}$ :  $yùk^{W}=1$  tim yò?oks $\dot{w}$ é:nt $\dot{k}^{W}$ - $\dot{y}$ 

I am about to brush my teeth.

PROG=NC FUT brush.o's.teeth

Yukwhl dim yo'oksweentgwiy.

PTCL.

kilò cə tál-sim

Don't fight! (Don't start)

don't IRR fight-2P

Gilo ji dalsim!

PTCI.

nì:-ti: qapnik Wó:t-t lò:-t

He is not h. real father.

not-INTS really father-3 IND-3

Nidii k'ap nigwoott loot.

MOD

ła: qaks náks-t

S/he finally got married.

by.now finally married-3

Hlaa gaks nakst.

MOD

P<sub>EA</sub>: nì: m

nì: mə tim ti:kipá-t==a: Won't you wait for h.?

not 2E FUT INTS wait.for.s.-3==Q Nii mi dim dii gibada?

PTCL MOD

ná:-t?an?ax wilá:x-n

Who doesn't know you? (38.7.)

who-3E REL.E not know.s.-2S

Nast an az wilasyin?

MOD

PEASc: <u>Láura</u> tim tip siwá-(t)T-t We'll name her Laura.

L. FUT 1P E name.s.-DEF-3

Laura dim dip siwadit

PTCL

ntá mə tim wilá:kW-T-t What are you going to do with it/h.?
which.way 2E FUT treat.s.-DEF-3 Nda mi dim wilaagwit?

PTCL

?akú no tim ki)kín-ti:tWhat [food] shall I give them?what IS.E FUT PL)give.food.to.s.-3PWhat shall I feed them?ScPTCLAgu ni dim gigindiit?

4.3.A.3.b. Evidential postclitics: (6.3.) Most of the postclitics can occur in the regular type of clause as part of the predicate phrase (some only occur with a predicate-focused clause, 4.4.).

P<sub>0</sub>: yùk<sup>W</sup>=1 má:tim==a: Is it snowing?

PROG=NCsnowfall==0 Yukwhi maadima?

 $P_A$ :  $4a: \mathring{n} \acute{a} k^W - [t] = 4 ta: \mathring{n} \acute{u} \mathring{w} - t = -(a) ma?$ by.now long-[3]=NC when dead-3==DUB

He must be long since dead (182.8)

Hisa hatwhi das huwdima's.

†a náks-t==a? S/he got married! (believe it or not)
by.now married-3==0 Hlas naksde 'a!

PEA: nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-t==qat I hear s/he doesn't/didn/t know.
not-INTS-3Eknow.s.-3==REP Nidiit wilaart-gat.

4.3.B. The expanded predicate phrase (including nominal adjuncts):

The semantic referent of a 3rd person pronoun (E or A) may be made explicit by

a nominal adjunct in the clause. The nominal adjuncts are placed after the predicate, in the same order E-A as the pronouns.

Whatever its function (E- or A-adjunct), the nominal following the predicate is connected to it by the connectives (6.2.B.) =S if determinate, = $\frac{1}{1}$  -hI if non-determinate (unless the modal particle CO IRR ji/ja intervenes). The sequence is:

but the contact of the suffix pronoun (-t) with a connective, which consists of a non-Velar fricative, produces a cluster which is subject to the phonological rule of consonant-deletion, and the sequence /t/ + fricative is reduced to the fricative alone. On the surface, then, the Adjunct usually appears to be connected directly to the predicate, and to be in complementary distribution with the A suffix pronoun which occurs overtly when no nominal is present.

However, the 3rd person suffix pronoun (-t) does appear when a postclitic (6.3) intervening between the pronoun and the connective prevents contact between the two phonological elements. As well, in Boas 1902, a collection of tales, there are some cases where (-t) is indeed present on the surface, before connective =5, or with omission of the non-determinate connective =1 -hi (persons repeating or dictating a sentence word by word, very slowly, often omit that connective). The overt presence of the suffix pronoun in a sentence which also includes a coreferent noun or nouns shows that the suffix is present in the mind of the speaker.

Another phonological rule further obscures the structures preceding determinate nominals: a regular cluster-simplification rule deletes the singular Determinate marker t (6.2.A.) after the connective =S; the plural DM tip dip is not subject to this rule and is never deleted. (Where the connective does not occur, as after the particle CO IRR ji/ja, the DM does occur on the surface).

In addition, the degemination rule merges a connective with a preceding /S/ or  $/\frac{4}{3}$ .

# 4.3.B.1. Nominal adjunct to the A argument (A-adjunct):

It should be noted that the stress on the nominal Adjunct to the A argument is different for  $P_A$  and  $P_{EA}$  clauses: the A-adjunct of a  $P_A$  receives secondary stress, the A-adjunct of a  $P_{EA}$  receives primary stress (compare with the stress on the E-adjunct, below 4.3.B.2.).

Examples with non-determinate nominal:

PA:

• ta: náks-[t]=t tkù:tk W-m kàt-ỷ My son is married now.
by.now married-[3]=NC child-ATT man-1S

Hlas nakshi higuuhigum gadiў.

ta: náks-t==a?=t tkù:tk W-m kàt-ỷ by.now married-3==ASST=NC child-ATT man-1S

Yes, my son is actually married now!

Hlaa naksda'ahl hlauuhlaum gadiÿ!

ta: náks-t==qa[t]=tkù:tkW-mkàt-ti:tby.now married-3==REP=NC child-ATT man-3P

I hear their son is married now.

Hlas nakst-ga(t)hi higuuhigum gatdiit.

ta: náks-t==(0)ma?=t tkù:tk W-m kàt-ti:t by.now married-3==DUB=NC child-ATT man-3P

Their son is probably married now.

Hlaa naksdima'ahl higuuhigum gatdiit.

 $P_{EA}$ :

• nì:-nə-ti:wilá:x-[t]=4 náks-t I don't know his wife/her husband.
not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-[3]=NC spouse-3 Nindii wilaarh! nakst.

nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-t==qa[t]=+ náks-t
not-INTS-3E know.s.-3==REP=NC spouse-3

I hear s/he<sub>a</sub> doesn't know his<sub>b</sub> wife/her<sub>b</sub> husband.

Nidiit wilaaxt-ga(t)hl makst.

- yùkW-tkipá-[t]=† †kí:kW-t She is waiting for her sister.

  PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC W's.sister Yukwt gibahl hlgiikwt.
- ni[t]=1 ki-t lax)lá:qal-t==ki=1 kWilqa: niti:t==ki:

  that's...=NCand-3EPL)examine.s.-3==DIST=NCallthem==DIST

  Then he examined them ali (144.13).

  Nihl k'iit laxlaak'alt-gihl gwilk'a nidiit-gi.

#### Examples with determinates:

## PA:

• †a: náks-[t]=[s][t] <u>Pèter</u> Peter is married now. by.now married-[3]=DC[DM]F. Hlas naks **Peter**.

da: Náks-t==qa[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> I hear Peter is married now. by.now married-3==REP=DC[DM]F. Hisa nakst-gas Peter.

ta: náks-[t]=[s] tip <u>Pèter qan=s [t] Wèndy</u>
by.now married-[3]=DC DM.PL P. and=DC [DM] W.

Peter and Wendy are married now.

Hlas naks dip Peter gans Wendy.

da: náks-t==a?=stip <u>Pèter qan=s [t] Wèndy</u> by.now married-[3]=DC DM.PL P. and=DC [DM] W..

Peter and Wendy are actually married now!

Hisa naksaa'as dip Peter gans Wendy!

### PEA:

• nì:-nə-ti:wilá:x-[t]=[s][t] <u>Wéndy</u>
not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-[3]=DC [DM] W.

I don't/didn't know Wendy.

Nindii wilaars Wendy.

nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-t==qa[t]=s[t] wendy
not-INTS-3E know.s.-3==REP=DC[DM] W.

I hear s/he doesn't know Wendy.

Nidiit wilaaxt-gas Wendy.

• yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s[t]<u>Lúcy</u>
PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC[DM]L.

She is waiting for Lucy.

Yukwt gibas Lucy.

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s tip <u>Lúcy</u> PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC DM.PLL.

She is waiting for Lucy 'and them'.

Yukwt gibas dip Lucy.

Examples from Boas 1902 show overt presence of the 3rd person suffix pronoun as well as the noun which is the A-adjunct:

- with omission of the non-determinate connective = 1 -h/:

# PA:

•  $\hat{n}i[t]=4 \hat{k}i. hux^W mitk^W-thux^W \hat{k}i]-[t]=4 wilp$ that's...=NC and again full-3 again one-[t]=NC house

Then one more house was full. (158.6)

Nihl k'ii huxw mitkwt huxw k'ilhl wilp.

# PEA:

yùk<sup>W</sup> nə cák <sup>W</sup>-t wi likińsk <sup>W</sup>
 PROG 1S E kill s.-3 big grizzly

I just killed the big grizzly (119.5).

Yukw ni jakwt wii lik'ińskw.

- ?á:m=1 tim ?itkWs-t tim wà-t He should receive his name (165.1).
  good=NC FUT pronounced-3 FUT name-3 Aamhl dim itkwst dim wat.
- ?akú mə qan cát-t hó:n tə cáp-ə-ỷ
   what 2E therefore eat.up.s.-3 fish the make.s.-CTL-1S
   Why did you eat all my fish? (118.3)
   Agu ma gan jahlt hoon hli jabiý?

- with determinate connective =S:

## PA:

- ni[t]=lki:lu:yáltkW-t=s[t]càk

  that's...=NC and turn.back-3=DC [DM] Ts'ak

  Nihl k'ii luuyaltkwts Ts'ak ...
- †a: †é:xkW-[t]=s[t]càk sim cé:x-t=s[t]càk

  by.now finished.eating-[3]=DC [DM] Ts'ak really satiated-3=DC [DM] Ts'ak

  When Ts'ak had finished eating, when he was really full ... (128.6-7).

  Hiaa hieezkws Ts'ak, sim ts'eexts Ts'ak ...

#### P<sub>EA</sub>:

• ...?álkax-[t]=† kò:l-[t]=† kàt?a=s[t]cák - t?ítkW-t=s[t]cák

speak-[3]=NC one-[3]=NC man PREP=DC[DM]Ts'ak - 3E pronounce-3=DC[DM]Ts'ak

... one man spoke to Ts'ak, he spoke Ts'ak's name (120.5-6)

... algarh! k'yoolh! gat as Ts'ak, t ilkwts Ts'ak ...

#### 4.3.B.2. Nominal adjuncts to both E and A arguments:

The nominals are in the order E-A, like the pronouns. The E-adjunct, which is the one connected to the predicate, bears secondary stress, the A-adjunct primary stress. (In the following examples, the E pronoun and its Adjunct are the ones highlighted).

## Examples with determinate nominals:

• yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s[t] Màry t Lúcy PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M. DM L.

Mary is waiting for Lucy.
Yukwt gibas Mary t Lucy.

yùk<sup>W</sup>-tkipá-[t]=s [t] <u>Màry</u> tip <u>Lúcy</u> PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M. DM L.

Mary is waiting for Lucy 'and them'.

Yukwt gibas Mary dip Lucy.

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s tip <u>Màry</u> t <u>Lúcy</u> PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M. DM L.

Mary 'and them' are waiting for Lucy.

Yukwt gibas dip Mary t Lucy.

## Examples with determinate E and non-determinate A:

• yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s[t] Màry=1 1kikW-t
PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M.=NC W's.sister-3

Mary is waiting for her sister.

Yukwt gibas Maryh! hlgiikwt.

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=s tip <u>Màry</u>=\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \f

Mary 'and them' are waiting for their sister.

Yukwt gibas dip Maryh! hlgiikwdiit.

As the connective =1 cumulates the functions of connective and non-determinate marker (6.2.B.), it is used both before the non-determinate E-adjunct (where it is functions as a connective) and the non-determinate A-adjunct (where it functions as a non-determinate marker):

Examples with non-determinate E and determinate A:

yùk<sup>W</sup>-tkipá-[t]=† hanàq t <u>Lúcy</u> The woman is waiting for Lucy.
 PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC woman DM L. Yukwt gibahl hanak t Lucy.

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=1 hanàq tip <u>Lúcy</u>
PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC woman DM.PL L.

The woman is waiting for Lucy 'and them'.

Yukwt gibahl hanak' dip Lucy.

## Examples with non-determinate E and A:

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=1 hanàq=1 4ki:kW-t
 PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC woman DM L.

The woman is waiting for her sister.

Yukwt gibahl hanak hi higiikwt.

yùkW-tkipá-[t]=1 ha:nàq=1 4ki:kW-ti:t PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC woman.PL DM L.

The women are waiting for their sister.

Yukwt gibahl heanak hi higiikwdiit.

#### 4.3.B.3. Adjunct to the Eargument only:

The semantic referent of the E argument can be made explicit either by the 3P pronoun (-ti:t) or by a noun connected to the predicate. Although the 3P suffix cannot be called a 'nominal', it is an Adjunct, in complementary distribution with a noun.

#### 4.3.B.3.a. 3P pronominal Adjunct:

• nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-ti:t They didn't know (it/h.).
not-INTS-3Eknow.s.-3P Nidiit wilaaxdiit.

• yùkW-tkipá-ti:t PROG-3E wait.for.s.-3P

They are waiting for it/h. Yukwt gibadiit.

4.3.B.3.b. Noun Adjunct:

# 4.3.B.3.b.1. When the A argument is a 3rd person pronoun:

In terms of morpheme representation, the surface structure of the  $P_{EA}$  clause with a noun E-adjunct is exactly the same as that with A-adjunct only (see above 4.3.B.1.), as the same phonological rules apply to obscure the presence of some morphemes. However, the nominal E-adjunct receives secondary stress, just as it does when an A-adjunct is also present.

Examples with non-determinate E: the connective = 1 connects the E-adjunct to the verb:

• nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-[t]=1 nàks-ỷ
not-INTS-3E know.s.-[3]=NC spouse-1

My wife/husband doesn't know it/him/her.

Nidiit wilaaxh! naksiÿ.

nì:-ti:-twilá:x-t==qa[t]=+ nàks-y
not-INTS-3E know.s.-3==REP=NC spouse-1

Apparently my wife/husband doesn't know it/him/her.

Nidiit wilaaxt-ga(t)hl naksif.

• yùkW-t kipá-[t]- tkì:kW-t Her sister is waiting for her.

PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=NC W's.sister

Yukwt gibahl higiikwt.

Examples with determinate E: the determinate connective =5 connects the E-Adjunct to the verb:

nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-[t]=s [t] <u>Wèndy</u>
 not-INTS-3E know.s:-[3]=DC [DM] W.

Wendy doesn't/didn't know it/h.

Nidiit wilaaxs Vendy.

nì-ti-t wila:x-t==qa[t]=s[t] <u>Wèndy</u> I hear Wendy doesn't know it/h.
not-INTS-3E know.s.-3==REP=DC [DM] W. Nidit wilaart-gas Wendy.

yùkW-t kipá-[t]s [t] Màry
PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.

Mary is waiting for her.

Yukwt gibas Mary.

yùkW-t kipá-[t]s tip Mary
PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M.

Mary 'and them' are waiting for her.

Yukwt gibas dip Mary.

## 4.3.B.3.b.2. When the A argument is a 1st or 2nd person pronoun:

Unlike the 3rd person suffix pronoun, a 1st or 2nd person suffix pronoun A remains present on the surface as there are no phonological rules capable of deleting it. The nominal E-adjunct occurs after this pronoun and is not linked to it, as shown by the absence of the connective =S (and consequent overt appearance of the DM t) before a determinate:

nì:-ti:-t wilá:x-ý t <u>Wèndy</u>
 not-INTS-3 know.s.-1S DM W.

Wendy doesn't know me. *Nidiit wilaayiy t Vendy.* 

yùk<sup>W</sup>-t kipá-n t <u>Màry</u>
 PROG-3E wait.for.s.-2S DM M.

Mary is waiting for you.

Yukwt giban t Mary.

As the connective =1 cumulates the functions of connective and non-determinate marker (6.2.B.), it is used before the non-determinate E-adjunct as a non-determinate marker:

• nì-tì-t wilá:x-y=t nàks-t His wife/her husband doesn't know me. not-INTS-3 know.s.-1S=NC spouse-3 Nidiit wilasyiyhl nakst.

• yùkW-tkipâ-n=1 1kì:kW-n Your sister is waiting for you.

PROG-3E wait.for.s.-2S=NC W's.sister-2S. Yukwt giban hi higiigwin.

# 4.3.B.4. Remarks: Potential ambiguity with only one nominal adjunct:

When only one of the two arguments of a P<sub>EA</sub> has a nominal adjunct, only stress differentiates the E-adjunct (with secondary stress) from the A-adjunct (with primary stress), thus for instance

• yùkW-t kipá-[t]=s [t] Màry Mary is waiting for h.

PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.

Yukwt gibas Mary

• yùk<sup>W</sup>-tkipá-[t]=s [t] <u>Máry</u> S/he is waiting for Mary.

PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.

Yukwt gibas Mary.

There may then be ambiguity in writing, where stress is not indicated, or under artificial conditions of speech. In practice, however, there is little potential for ambiguity, even in reading, first because these sentences occur in context, second because when the two arguments refer to humans it is usually the E argument that is made explicit by the presence of an adjunct, not the A argument; both have adjuncts when there is a possibility of misunderstanding. 6

# 4.3.C. The free-standing predicate phrase:

In some circumstances the predicate phrase is not preceded by any of the introductory morphemes described above (4.3.A.1).

A predicate accompanied by its pronominal arguments but which is not preceded by a clause, auxiliary, subordinator or specified complement may also occur before other discourse. This occurs in situations, mostly informal, where the conceptual background is already known to the audience. Such clauses do not present totally new information, but are rather a means of interacting with one's audience by referring to something that is already at least vaguely

known. This seems especially common with  $P_A$ 's, but also occurs with  $P_{EA}$ 's.

# 4.3.C.1. Free-standing PA:

# 4.3.C.1.a. Alone, a free-standing $P_A$ with its argument can initiate discourse:

• ¶ísk W-m finished-IP

Finished! ([Now that] we've finished...

[what next?])

Hlisgum!

• ni-t
that's-3

So.. [what's new?]
(informal greeting between people of same age and status) Nit!

## or provide a comment:

• píkW-n lie-2S

Liar! (You're lying)

Biikw'in/

• ni-t==a:
that's-3 ==0

Is that so!

Nida!

ní-t==(ə)ma? that's-3==DUB

Probably! That must be it!

Nidima'a/

ńi-t==a?

That's exactly it!

Nida'a!

• wil-t==(a)ma? act-3==DUB

that's-3==ASST

That may well be!

Wildima'a!

qaksmúx<sup>W</sup>-ÿ
 at.last hear.news-1S

At last I hear about itl

Gaks muwiy!

Such incomplete sentences are used in informal situations where the participants feel comfortable with each other.

- 4.3.C.1.b. <u>Preceding another clause</u>: an incomplete clause can be used to present background material which is already known or incidental to the main point:
- witkw-y qaltimwóit tim?i:sə-ké:ks-y come.from-IS store FUT and make-cake-IS

Once I come back from the store I'll bake a cake. (Fr. Une fois revenu(e) du magasin, je vais faire un gâteau).

Vitgwiÿ galdimwoot' dim ii sikeeksiÿ.

The free-standing predicate phrase is often aspectually reduplicated:

- ki: páx-[t]=s[t] txè:msim p)páx-t ki: sqé:xkW
   and run-[3]=DC [DM] T. ASP)run-3 and dark
   And Txeemsim ran. As he was running, it got dark (27.5).
   K'ii baxs Txeemsim. Bibaxt, k'ii sk'eexkw.
- p)páx-t ki:-tká?-[t]=1smáx ASP)run-3 and-3E see.s.-[3]=NC bear

While /s/he was/running, s/he saw a bear.
(Fr. En courant, il/elle a vu un ours)

Bibart, k'iit ga'ahl smax.

This construction contrasts with a predicate-focused clause (4.4.) which presents new information:

p)páx ki: ... S/he was running, and ...
ASP)run and Bibay, k'ii ...

# 4.3.C.2. Free-standing PEA:

This type also ccurs in informal conversation:

• nəqaykská?-t Finally got to see it/him/her!

1S.E. at.last see.s.-3

Na gayks ga'at/

#### 4.3.D. The incomplete predicate phrase: the imperative:

An imperative structure has the form of an incomplete predicate phrase. It can be described as the truncated form of a type of sentence which actually occurs with imperative force, and which includes a modal particle, tim FUT dim or CO IRR ji/js (6.1.B.1.). The imperative clause can be described as a truncated predicate phrase normally including a modal particle, from which all the morphemes preceding the predicate have been omitted, up to and including the modal particle. The omitted morphemes include the first and second person singular E clitic pronouns, which precede these particles, but not their plural counterparts, which follow them.

This rough description will cover most cases of imperative structures. However, if two P<sub>EA</sub> imperative clauses are conjoined, the second is a full predicate phrase including the clitic pronoun but not a modal particle.

Consider the following sentences, which have imperative force:

P<sub>A</sub>:

• ?à:m=\frac{1}{2} tim \frac{1}{2} d=NCFUT-2 (lit. it is good that you will sit down)

Aamhl dim t'aan.

kilò cə wán-sim Don't (pl.) sit down!
don't IRR sit-2P Gilo ji wasim!

## PEA:

• ?á:m mə tim stil-ÿ
good 2E FUT accompany.s.-1S

You better come with me.

Asm mi dim sdiliy.

• ?á:m mə tim sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó? good 2E FUT barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

You better lock the door.

Asm mi dim sgat akwhi pdo'o.

kilò mə cə simsqa=ták W-[t]=+ ptó? don't 2E IRR 2E.P barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

Don't (pl.) lock the door!

Gilo mi ji sim sgat'akwhi pdo'o!

• kilò mə cə kúk<sup>w</sup>sa?an-[t]=s[t] pé:pi: Don't wake up Baby! don't 2E IRR wake.up.s.-[3]=DC [DM] B. Gilo mi ji gyukwsa'aas Beebii:

The verbs  $?\acute{a}$ : m 'good' aam and kiló 'don't!' gilo/ are higher predicates, the Modal particles tim FUT dim and CO IRR ji/ja belong to the predicate phrase under consideration.

The imperative clauses corresponding to sentences such as the above are identical to the portions of those sentences which follow a Modal particle.

4.3.D.1. For a PA clause, the one argument, a suffix, is unaffected and remains on the predicate:

tá:-n

Sit down!

sit-2S

T'aan/

wán-**siṁ** 

Sit down!

sit.PL-2P

Wansim/

#### 4.3.D.2. For a PEA clause:

4.3.D.2.a. <u>Complete imperative clause</u>: the A argument, a suffix, also remains on the predicate (followed by a nominal adjunct if appropriate). The E argument, a clitic, is deleted if it precedes the modal particle:

?á:m mə tim stíl-ỷ
 good 2E FUT accompany.s.-1S

You better come with me.

Aam mi dim sdiliÿ.

stíl-ý accompany.s.-1\$

Come with me!

Sdiliý!

• ?á:m mə tim sqa=takW-[t]=1 ptó?
good 2E FUT barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

You better lock the door.

And mi dim sgat'akwh! pdo'o.

kilò mə cə sqa=tákW-[t]=4 ptó? don't 2E IRR barring=twist.s.-{3}=NC door

Don't lock the door!

Gilo mi ji sgat'akwh! pdo'o!

sqa=takW-[t]=+ ptó?
barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

Lock the door!

Sgat'akwh! pdo'o!

• kilò mə cə kúk<sup>W</sup>sa?an-[t]=\( \) pé:pi: don't 2E IRR wake.up.s.-[3]=DC [DM] B.

Don't wake up Baby!

Gilo mi ji gyukwsa'ans Beebii/

kúk $^{W}$ sa?an-[t]=4t] pé:pi: wake.up.s.-[3]= $\mathbb{C}$  [DM] B.

Wake up Baby!

Gyukwsa'ans Beebii!

but it remains if it follows the modal particle:7

?á:m tim tip stíl-[t]=s[t]Péter
 good FUT 1PE accompany.s.-[3]=DC [DM] P.

We better go with Peter.

Asm dim dip sdils Peter.

tip stíl-[t]=s[t]<u>Péter</u>
1P.E accompany.s.-[3]=DC [DM] P.

Let's go with Peter!

Dip sails Peter!

• ?áːm tim tip sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó?
good 2E FUT barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

We better lock the door.

Asm dim dip sgat akwh! pdo'o.

tip sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó? barring=twist.s.-{3}=NC door

Let's lock the door!

Dip sgat'akwh! pdo'o!

For the second person plural, the 2E plural morpheme SiM sim, occurring after the modal particle, reinforces the 2E clitic Mo mi/ma which occurs before the particle: in the imperative, only SiM sim occurs, thus differentiating the plural from the singular:

• ?á:m mə tim sim sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó? You (pl.) better lock the door. good 2E FUT 2E.P barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

Aam mi dim sim sgat'akwhl pdo'o.

kilò mə cə sim sqa=takW-[t]=4 ptó? don't 2E IRR 2E.P barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

Don't (pl.)lock the door!

Gilo mi ji sim sgat'akwhl pdo'o!

sim sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó?
2E.P barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

[You (pl.)] Lock the door!

Sim sgat'akwh! pdo'o!

If two imperative clauses are conjoined, E clitic pronouns are obligatorily present in the second clause, but tim FUT dim is not:

• Sqa=tis-[t]=tptó? ?i: mə sqa=takW-t Close the door and lock it. barring=push.s.-[3]=NC door and 2E barring=twist.s.-3

Sgat'ishl pdo'o ii mi sgat'akwt.

The modal particles cannot occur in an imperative clause, but some modifiers can, as in:

• kax tá:-n Sit down for a while!
just once sit-2S Kar t'aan!

• kax imó:m-y Help me a minute!

just.once help.s.-18

\*\*Ex hlimoomiy!

4.3.D.2.b. The incomplete  $P_{\text{EA}}$  imperative: the A-adjunct can be deleted if its referent is present in the context of situation, and if this referent is non-determinate. That the connective  $=\frac{1}{2} -h/1$  is present even without a following noun shows that this is an incomplete clause:<sup>8</sup>

#### Compare:

... see-[3]=NC

(Sim)ká?-t

(2E.PL) see-3

(Sim)ga'at/

(Sim)ká?-[t]=† wi: ?ús

Look at the big dog!

See-[3]=NC big dog

(Sim) ga'ahl vii us!

(sim)ká?-[t]=†

Look! (lit. see...!)

(Sim) ga ah !!

If the A-adjunct is determinate, it cannot be deleted: the sentence

(sim)ká?-[t]=s[t] <u>Máry</u> Look at Mary!
... see-[3]=DC[DM] M. (Sim) ga'as Mary!

cannot be reduced to \*(Sim)ká?-[t]=S (Sim) ga as [wrong].

## 4.4. THE PREDICATE-FOCUSED CLAUSE.9

In a predicate-focused clause, the predicate is never preceded by other predicates (including AUX and NEG), by a subordinator or a specified complement. It can however be preceded by modal particles and/or modifiers, and followed by an evidential postclitic, like a predicate in a regular clause.

The meaning emphasis in predicate-focused clauses is on the action or state described by the predicate, rather than on the participant(s). The corresponding English translations bear extra stress on the verb.

Of the two possible arguments E and A, only E becomes part of the predicate, as a pronoun suffix after the Control suffix  $(-\partial -)$  (7.2.A.3.); a  $P_A$  does not take a suffixed argument. The following schema shows the difference between regular and predicate-focused structures:

Regular: (E) Pred-A (E-Adt) (A-Adt)

P-Foc: Pred (-3-E) (A-nominal)

Predicate-focused clauses are used most often in conversation, especially in questions and answers. In narrative, they are only used to introduce precisions, not to move the narrative forward.

# 4.4.A. The basic predicate-focused clause:

Questions and answers with this type of clause can involve the predicate alone if other circumstances are known from the linguistic or situational context (the English equivalents require a Subject or Object pronoun, but no pronoun is necessary in Nisgha). When a question is asked in this form, the answer usually has the same predicate-focused structure (see below 4.7.A. for other types of questions), using the same or contrasting lexical elements, as in:

PA:

• x+il ==a: --x+il ==ast [Does it] taste good? - Sure does! sweet==Q--sweet==AFF **Ziils**!

 $P_{EA}$ :

• ?anó:q-ə-n==a: - ?anó:q-ə-y You <u>like</u> it? - I do!
like.s.-CTL-2S==Q - like.s.-CTL-1S Anoogana? - Anoogay.

• **ká?**-ə-n==a: - **ká?**-ə-**y**You <u>saw</u> that? - Yes! [I saw it]

sec.s.-CTL-2S==Q-sec.s.-CTL-1

Ga'ana? - Ga'ay.

• tim kipá-(y)-n=a: Will you wait for h.?

FUT wait.for.s.-CTL-2S==Q Dim gibayina?

- tim kipá-(y) - i will [wait for h.].

FUT wait.for.s.-CTL-1S - Dim gibayiy.

• lip cáp-a-n=a: - Did you make it yourself? self make s.-CTL-2S==Q - Lip jebina?

Ní: - **kí:kW-3-ÿ** - No, I <u>bought</u> it. no - buy.s.-CTL-1S - *Nii, giigwiÿ*.

ntá==(y)əma?mətim wilá:kW-T-[t]=łhó:n-tkW-n<sup>10</sup>
 which.way==DUB 2E FUT treat.s.-DEF-{3}=NC fish-MED-2S

What are you going to do with your fish, I wonder?

Ndayima'a mi dim wilaagwihl hoontgwin?

tim simiyé:n-a-n=a (Are you going to) smoke them?

FUTsmoke.s.-CTL-2S==Q Dim simiyeenins?

ní: - tim sitá:w-a-y - No, [I am going to] freeze them.
no - FUT freeze.s.-CTL-IS - Dim sidaeviv.

A reply of this type, question or answer, can also be given to another type of question or comment, or to a situational context:

# $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{A}}$ :

• tá:wił S/he's gone.
leave Desvihl.

• nam wóq S/he wants to sleep.
wanting sleep Nam-wok.

• Sim qal mimst You are/s/he is crazy! really too crazy Sim gal mimst/

• sim ka: witaxkátlò:-n S/he is much older than you.
really most old IND-2S Sim k'as wiit agget loon.

# PEA:

• ?akù==(y)əma?qanqaq-[t]=qanlu:qùypax what CAUSE open-[3]=NC window

Why is the window open [I wonder]?

Aguyima'a gan k'akhi ganluugoyp'ax?

- qaq-T-ə-y==əst - I opened it! [of course!]
open-DEF-CTL-1S==AFF - K'akdiyis!

• Si: SWéta t kùn==i Is this a new sweater?

new sweater DM this==Q Sii sweta tguni?

#### 4.4.B. The expanded predicate-focused clause: with Nominals:

Since only the E argument is attached to the predicate, the term 'adjunct' can only be properly used of a nominal E-adjunct. However, other nominals can appear in the clause.

#### 4.4.B.1. The E-adjunct:

If the Eargument of a  $P_{EA}$  is the 3rd person suffix pronoun (-t), there can be a nominal adjunct following it, linked with the predicate by a connective. As with the regular clause (4.3.), the resulting phonological combination /t/+ non-Velar fricative is subject to the consonant-deletion rule, and only the connective appears on the surface, unless another morpheme such as a postclitic intervenes (see above p. 207 ff. Instances where the suffix appears on the surface also occur in Boas 1902, cf. above p. 210-211). With a determinate nominal, the singular Determinate marker t also disappears from the surface because of a cluster-simplification rule.

The stress pattern is also the same as in a regular clause, with the E-adjunct bearing secondary stress.

• sim?anó:q-\(\partial\_{\text{=s}}[t] \) nox-\(\bar{y}\)

really like.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] mother-1S

Sim anoogas noo\(\bar{y}\).

tim?anó:q-a-t==ama=s[t]nòx-y I wonder if my mother will like it.
FUTlike.s.-CTL-[3]==DUB=DC[DM] mother-1S Dim anoogadima as accy.

• the tim timo:m-a-[t]=s[t]nipip-t His uncle was going to help him.

REST FUT help.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] uncle-3 Hil dim hlimoomis aibipt.

4ə tim 4imó:m-ə-t=qa[t]=s[t]nipip-t
REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3==REP=DC(DM)uncie-3

They say his uncle was going to help him.

Hii dim hlimoomit-gas nibipt.

• it im imó:m-a-[t]=i wàk-t His brother was going to help him.

REST FUT help.s.-CTL-[3]=NC M's.brother-3 Hli dim hlimoomihi wakt.

4i tim 4imó:m-a-t==qa[t]=4 wàk-t REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3==REP=NC M's.brother-3

They say his brother was going to help him.

Hii dim hlimoomit-ga(t)hl wakt.

The following example from Boas 1902 shows the preservation of the 3rd person pronoun suffix  $\{-t\}$ :

• kWityúkW-T-a-t=s[t]càk=ttku qàmt-m ló?op
about hold-DEF-CTL-3=DC [DM] Ts'ak=NC little firestarter-ATTR rock
Ts'ak carried a strike-a-light on him. (Boas)
KWihlyukwdits Ts'akhl hlgu gamdim lo'op.

#### 4.4.B.2. <u>A-Nominals</u>:

Unlike the non-focused predicate, the focused predicate does not carry a pronominal affix indicating its - argument. Nevertheless, a nominal corresponding semantically to the A argument can appear in the predicate-focused clause: since it does not have a pronominal argument to refer to, this nominal cannot be called an 'adjunct', and indeed a number of details differentiate it from a true adjunct such as the E-adjunct discussed above (4.4.B.1.), or the E- and A-adjuncts of the regular clause (4.3.B.). This nominal is

reminiscent of the postposed noun or demonstrative pronoun present in colloquial French sentences such as

Il mange, cet enfant! That child sure eats!

he eats that child

Il mange, celui-la! That one sure eats!

he eats this-there

Il m'a mordu, le chien! The dog bit me!

he me has bitten the dog

In order to avoid the term 'adjunct' here, the nominals will be referred to as 'A-nominals', meaning nominals with the function of A in the clause but not coreferent with any other morpheme.

4.4.B.2.a. A-pronoun: If the A-nominal is a pronoun (except a 3rd person singular pronoun, which is not usually expressed overtly),  $^{11}$  it cannot be attached to the predicate, whether  $P_A$  or  $P_{EA}$ ; instead, it is attached to the base  $\vec{\Pi}\hat{1}$ —'that's ...'  $\vec{n}i$ ; the resulting forms are labeled here 'independent pronouns' (5.8.). These pronouns are highly marked forms, otherwise used mostly for focusing (4.7.A.). In these clauses, they bear secondary stress (as do A-nouns, below 4.4.B.2.b.).

# $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{A}}$ :

• nam wóq nì y I want to sleep.

wanting sleep me Nam-wek niiy.

• CƏ KAX tá: nì:n Sit down (if you like)! You can sit down!

IRR just once sit you

Ji k'ar t'as niin!

• sáksk<sup>W</sup> nìtítt<sup>12</sup> leave.PL them

They went <u>away</u>/they're gone.

Sakskw nidiit.

## PEA:

• tim kítax-ə-ỷñì:n IRR ask.s.o.s.t.-CTL-1S you

I want to ask you a question.

Dim gidaxay niin.

• timhux W ká?-ə-ỷ nìn FUT again see.s.-CTL-1S

Good-bye! (I'll see you again).

Dim huxw ge 's y niin.

• 4ə tim **1imó:m-ə-t** nù:m REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3 us

S/he was going to help us.

Hidim himoomit nuum.

limó:m-ti:tňù:m
help.s.-3P us

They helped us.

Himoomdiit huum.

• cákW-T-ə-ğ==kiỷ nì:n kill.s.-DEF-CTL==MIN you

I could kill you! [if you are not careful, if you don't stay out of the way] (Boas)

Jek whij - giý niin!

#### 4.4.B.2.b. A-noun:

The A-noun is never connected to a focused predicate. The determinate connective =**s** is never used for this purpose, so that both singular and plural determinate markers occur on the surface. For non-determinates, however, the non-determinate connective = $\frac{1}{2}$  does occur between a predicate and an A argument, in its role as a non-determinate marker (see 6.2.B.2.a.): there is a phonological connection, but not a syntactic connection. As with a regular clause, the A noun bears secondary stress with a  $P_A$ , primary stress with a  $P_{EA}$ .

### Examples with determinate A:

# $P_A$ :

• na:m wóq t pè:pi: Baby wants to sleep.

wanting-sleep DM Baby

Naam-wok t Beebii.

kúk<sup>W</sup>Sk<sup>W</sup>==kiỷ t pè:pi:
 Baby is going to wake up! [if we are not careful to prevent it]
 Gyukwskw-giỷ t Beebii!

• SákSk<sup>W</sup> tip <u>Geòrge</u> George 'and them' are <u>gone/went away</u>. leave.PL DM.PL G. Sakskw dip George.

• sim ka: witaxkátt <u>Pèter</u>lò:-n Peter is <u>much older</u>than you.

really most old DM P. IND-2S Sim k'aa wiit'azgat t Peter loon.

## $P_{EA}$ :

• Cakitax-a-nt <u>Máry</u>==(y)as[t] [You could] <u>ask Mary [of course]!</u>

Ikk ask.s.o.-CTL-2S DM M.==AFF (Fr. Demande donc à Marie!)

Ji gidazan t Maryis!

• timqali:=sintin-[ə]-mtip <u>Geórge</u>
FUT upriver=give.ride.to.s.-CTL-1P DM.PL.G.

We are giving George 'and them' a ride up[river].

Dim k'aliisint'inim dip George.

• the tim timo:m-a-t t <u>Péter</u>

REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3 DM P.

Hi dim hlimoomit t Peter.

Examples with non-determinate A: (as the connective in this case only has a noun-marking role, it is written separately from the predicate in the morpheme-by-morpheme transcription, like the DM):

# $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{A}}$ :

- na:m-woq ł ku-tkiłk W The baby wants to sleep.

  wanting-sleep NC little-child Nam-wokhi higuth ihikw.
- Sáksk<sup>W</sup> † kupa:-tkì†k<sup>W</sup>

  leave.PL NC little.PL-child

  Sakskwhl k'ubatk'ihlkw.
- Sim ka: wi:taxkát † nàks-t lo:-t Her husband is much older really most old NC spouse-1S IND-1S than her./His wife ... than him.

  Sim k'as wiit'a gathl nakst loot.

## FEA:

- CƏ kitax-ə-n i iki:k w y == əst [You could] ask my sister [of course]!

  IRR ask.s.o.-CTL-2S NC w's.sister-iS==AFF (Fr. Demande donc à ma sœur!)

  Ji gidaganhi higiiq vivis!
- timqali:=sintin-[ə]-m+kupa:-tki+kW

  FUT upriver=give.ride.to.s.-CTL-1P NC little.PL-child

We are going to take the children up[river].

Dim k'aliisint'inimhl k'ubatt'ihlkw.

With a 3rd person pronoun E, the suffix -t comes in contact with the non-determinate connective  $= \frac{1}{2}$  in its role as a non-determinate marker. Here, contrary to what happens when the nominal is an E-adjunct (4.4.B.1., p. 227) (and with E- and A-adjuncts in the regular clause, 4.4.3.B., p. 206 ff.), there is no  $\frac{1}{2}$ -deletion, and  $\frac{1}{2}$ -remain separate:

• 10 tim 11mó:m-0-t 1 wák-t He was going to help his brother.

REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3 NC M's.brother-3 Hli dim hlimoomith1 wakt.

(Compare with deletion with E-adjunct, where the connective truly connects the

#### noun to the predicate:

• to tim timo:m-o-[t]=t wak-t His brother was going to help him.

REST FUT help.s.-CTL-3=NC M's.brother-3

His dim himoomih! vakt.)

The lack of deletion in the first case shows that the noun A is felt to be separate from the predicate, unlike the noun E. This agrees with the behavior of determinate A-nouns, which are not connected to the predicate by the -s connective (4.4.B.2.b.):

• ta tim timó:m-a-t t <u>Péter</u>

REST FUT heip.s.-CTL-3 DM P.

He was going to help Peter.

Hii dim himoomit & Peter.

#### 4.4.B.3. E-adjunct and A-nominal:

### 4.4.B.3.1. A-pronoun:

4.4.B.3.a.1. A is a 1st or 2nd person \(\tilde{\text{N1}}\)-pronoun: the E-adjunct, bearing secondary stress, is not connected to the predicate, but is placed after the pronoun, preceded by the appropriate marker (DM or NC)(cf. in regular clause, 4.3.B.3.b..2.):

• limó:m-ə-t nì ý t Màry
help.s.-CTL-3 me DM M.

Mary <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomit niiý t Mary.

imó:m-ə-t nù:m t <u>Màry</u> help.s.-CTL-3 us DM M.

Mary <u>helped</u> us.

Hlimoomit åvum t Mary.

• limóm-a-t nì y l lkì k W - y help.s.-CTL-3 me NC W's.sister-1S

My sister <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomit ńiiÿhi higiigwiÿ.

tim imó:m-a-t nìn i iki:kW-y
FUT help.s.-CTL-3 you NC W's.sister-1S

My sister will <u>help</u> you.

Dim hlimoomit hiinhl hlgiigwiÿ.

If the noun Agent is in the plural, the suffix pronoun on the predicate is still the suffix -t which is unspecified for number (7.2.A.1.a.2.a.), never the plural suffix -ti:t (7.2.A.1.a.2.b.) which is only used in the absence of an E-nominal:

• limóm-a-t nì y tip Màry
help.s.-CTL-3 me DM M.

Mary 'and them' helped me.

Hlimoomit ńiiý dip Mary.

• 4imó:m-ə-t nì:ỷ 4 4ix4kì:kWs-y My sisters helped me.
help.s.-CTL-3 me NC W's.sisters-1S Hlimoomit niiyhl hlixhlgiikwsiy.

(Compare with plural suffix:

• timóm-ti:t nì ỷ help.s.-3P me

They <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomdiit hiiy.

but never

• \*imóm-ti:t nì y tip Màry
heip.s.-3P me DM M.

Mary 'and them' <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomdiit ńiiÿ dip Mary [wrong].)

# 4.4.B.3.a.2. A is a 3rd person pronoun:

The use of the 3rd person plural pronoun nitit it nidit (5.8.A.) seems to be fairly recent, in this position as in others (see note 12). It follows noun usage (see below 4.4.B.3.b.) rather than the usage of 1st and 2nd person pronouns (above 4.4.B.3.a.1.):

imó:m-a-[t]=s[t]Màry níti:t
 help.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] M. them

Mary helped them.

Hlimoomis Mary hidiit.

Use of the 3rd person singular pronoun  $\vec{\mathbf{n}}$ it  $\dot{\mathbf{n}}\dot{\mathbf{n}}$  in the same type of structure is only mentioned here because it can occur especially in translations of English sentences, but it is not typical or idiomatic (see note 11).

#### 4.4 B.3.b. A-noun:

The A-noun in a predicate-focused clause which also has an E-adjunct occurs after that noun, preceded by the appropriate marker (DM or NC).

+imó:m-ə-[t]=s[t]<u>Màry t Péter</u>
 help-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M. DM P.

Mary <u>helped</u> Peter.

Hlimoomis Mary t Peter.

• limóm-ə-[t]=s[t] Màry tip Péter help-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] M. DM.PL P.

Mary <u>helped</u> Peter 'and them'.

Hlimoomis Mary dip Peter.

limó:m-a-[t]=s[t]Màry limxtí-t
 help-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] M. NC opp.sex.sib.-3

Mary helped her brother.

Hlimoomis Maryhl gimzdit.

#### 4.5. PREDICATE DOWNSHIFTING: NON-PREDICATIVE FUNCTION OF A PREDICATE.

A predicate may have non-predicative functions in the sentence and retain a relation to its A, which is suffixed to it and the referent of which can be made explicit by an Adjunct. A downshifted predicate bears secondary stress, while the A adjunct bears primary stress.

- 4.5.A. Nominal functions of the downshifted predicate:
- 4.5.A.1. <u>Possessive noun-phrase</u>: (see 3.2.A.2. for the varieties of possession).
- 4.5.A.1.a. P<sub>A</sub> (noun) = possessed, A (suffix pronoun) = possessor.

wìlp-ỷ	'my house'
house-1S	wilbiý
wìlp-ti:t	'their house'
house-3P	wilpdiit

?awá?-m	'at our place (Fr. chez nous)'
and the last AD	

The Adjunct noun to a 3 pronoun is linked to the downshifted  $P_A$  by a connective which causes the immediately preceding 3 suffix -t (and the singular DM t if required) to be deleted (unless a postclitic intervenes), exactly as in a regular PA clause (see p. 206 ff.):

wílp- <b>t</b>	'his/her house'
house-3.	wilpt

wilp-t==ki:sim?ó:kittkùst 'the house of that chief (25.2.)

house-3==DIST chief DM that (Fr. 'sa maison, à ce chef')

wilpt-gi sim'oogit tgus

 $ho:n-tk^W-[t]=s[t]$  Sam's fish [that he has]'

fish-MED-[3]=DC[DM]S. hoontkws Sam

4.5.A.1.b. For those predicates which can have both nominal and verbal meaning, ambiguity with indeterminate adjuncts is prevented by the stress pattern:

... (wil) 4kú.4kW-[t]=4 hanàq ... (as) the woman had a child.

... (SUB) have.child-[3]=NC woman ... (wil) higuuhikwhi hanak'.

†kù:†k W-[t]=†hanáq 'the woman's child' child-[3]=NC woman hlguuhlkwhl hanak'

Usually, of course, the noun-phrase will most often occur in different contexts from the predicate-adjunct sequence, but there are cases where the written form could be ambiguous:

(wil) higuuhikwhi hanak' ant japt (1) (as/when) the woman who made it had a child

hlguuhlkwhl hanak' ant japt (2) the child of the woman who made it

4.5.A.1.c. A noun-phrase can be embedded in another, for instance:

qasqò:-[t]=4[wìlp-[t]=s[t]Sám] 'the size of Sam's house' or:

size-[3]=NC [house-[3]=DC [DM] S.] Sam's house is so big!

gasgoohl wilps Sam

 4.5.A.1.d. Modal particles tim FUT dim and CO IRR ji/ja with possessed predicates:

The modal particles tim FUT dim and CO IRR ji/ja which can occur in front of any sentence predicate can also occur in front of a downshifted predicate:

tim náks-ỷ FUT spouse-1S

'my future wife/husband'

dim naksiÿ

• tim kí:kW-a-y=4 tim kutác-y
FUT buy.s.-CTL-1S=NC FUT coat-1S

I am going to buy myself a coat.

(lit... to buy my future coat)

Dim giigwiyhl dim k'udats'iy.

 $tim ki:k^W-\partial -\dot{y}=1 tim kutàc-[t]=[s][t]Láura$ FUT buy.s.-CTL-1S=NC FUT coat-[3]=[DC][DM]L.

I am going to buy Laura a coat.

Dim giigwiyh! dim k'udats' Laura.

tim kíkW-ə-t=4 tim kutác-t ... buy.s.-CTL-3S ... coat-3

S/he is going to buy h.self a coat. 13

Dim giigwith! dim k'udats't.

• cə ki:kW-ə-n cə kutàc-[t]=[s][t]<u>Láura</u>
IRR buy.s.~CTL-2S IRR coat-[3]=[DC] [DM] L.

[You could/should] buy Laura a coat!

Ji giigwin ji k'udats' Laura!

Note that tim dim can only be used in this way with a downshifted predicate, one that has an argument; if the word functions simply as an argument, tim dim cannot be used:

\*tim kí:kW-ə-y=+tim kutác FUT buy.s.-CTL-1S=NC FUT coat

\* Dim giigwiyhl dim k udats' [wrong]

is ungrammatical, while

is semantically incongruous, as in English.

#### 4.5.A.2. Numeral phrase:

Numerals have both noun-like and adjective-like properties (5.4). A numeral phrase is similar in form to a possessive noun-phrase. The nominal Adjunct to the suffix pronoun can be a noun or a relativized predicate used nominally. Often a numeral meaning 'one' is used to introduce new information, and has the meaning of an indefinite article; this is especially common in narrative, when a new unnamed character is introduced or mentioned.

#### 4.5.A.2.a. Without noun adjunct:

Like a possessive noun-phrase, a numeral phrase (without a noun adjunct) can be preceded by the Restrictive particle †3 hli/hla (6.1.B.): the meaning is usually contrastive:

...ii k'am kw'ihl hitkwhl hli k'yoolt.

4.5.A.2.b. With noun Adjunct: A numeral meaning one is often used with the

semantic value of a kind of article.

kò:l-[t]=†hanáq 'one/a/the woman' one (pson)-[3]=NC woman k'yoo/h/ hanak'

kil-[t]=4 sà 'one day'
one (obj)-[3]=NC day k'ilb1 sa

tipxà:t-[t]=f?as)?ús 'two dogs'
two(animals)-[3=NCPL)dog *t'ipxaath] as'us* 

Remark: Because a numeral phrase is a downshifted predicate phrase, consisting of a downshifted predicate and its argument, it does not admit of other downshifted predicates, such as descriptive attributives (see below 4.5.B.). Phrases of the common English type

## two nice, large, white, etc. houses

where a number of adjectives can occur between the numeral and the noun, are foreign to Nisgha. Such phrases may sometimes be found in texts such as translations of religious works, but they do not occur in the spontaneous speech of competent speakers. Attributive predicates occur after numerals only if they are part of a compound (9.1.B.2.), as in

kil-[t]={hò:pix-m+qán} one (obj)-[3]=NC spoon-ATTR+wood kilhi hoobixim gan

# 4.5.A.2.c. With relativized PA used nominally:

 $\mathring{k} \mathring{O} = \mathring{W} = \mathring{W} = \mathring{U} = \mathring{$ 

 $k \hat{O} = \{t\} = \{sidinsk W - (a)t\}$ one (pson)-[3]=NC hunt-REL

'a hunter' ('one who hunts') k'yoolhl siilinsewit

paqatìl-[t]=4qa-?á:t-(ə)t two(psons)=NC DISTR-fish.w.net-REL

'two fishermen' bagadilhl ga'aadit

## 4.5.A.3. Specification:

The predicate refers to a type uniquely specified by its argument. The predicate, preceded by the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla (6.1.B.) is followed by the Definite Medial suffix -T, before the A argument, which can be followed by a noun Adjunct (see 7.2.C.1.a. for the different shapes of the suffix -T and 7.2.C.1.a.1.c. for more examples of these constructions).

Both PA (nouns only) and PEA predicates can participate in this structure.

## 4.5.A.3.a. With nominal predicate: generic specification:

#### 4.5.A.3.a.1. In general:

- stem ending in C:  $\{-T-\}$  = /i/

de kàt-T-[t]=dlax-há

'the angels' (lit. the people of the sky) the people-[3]=NC on-air hli gadihl lazha

łə yans-T-[t] = ł dó qs(t) 'the maple leaf' ... leaf-... maple

hli yansihl k'ookst

 $4 \Rightarrow c e \cdot w - T - \{t\} = 4 \text{ wilp}$ 'the inside of the house' ... interior-... house hli ts'eewihl wilp

- stem ending in V or R: {-T-} adds epenthetic /t/, hence /ti/ -di-:

4ə sà-tT-[t]=1qanú:tkW
DEF day-...=NC week

'the days of the week'

hli sadihl ganuutkw

to wa-tT-[t]=s[t]?an-mo:q-m+ha:t
... name-...=DC[DM] CAUS-suck-ATTR+guts

'the name of Gutsucker' hli wadis Anmoogam-Haat

tə skàn-tT-[t]=t sé:qs gum-... =NC spruce

'spruce gum'
hli sgandihl seeks

4.5.A.3.a.2. The downshifted nominal predicate can take the Distributive prefix qa-ga... (7.1.B.1.a.1.b.); the resulting frame [qa-...-T] indicates a totality:

 $\theta = [qa - \dot{q} = T] - [t] = \dot{q} = \dot{q} = qs(t)$ the [DISTR-leaf-DEF]-[3]=NC maple

'the foliage of the maple'

40 [qa-hu)wà-tT]-[t]=4 4ip4án the [DISTR-PL]name-DEF]-[3]=NC body

the names of [the parts of] the body'

hls gahuwadihl hliphlan

## 4.5.A.3.b. With transitive predicate: nominalization:

## -stem ending in C:

tə lìcx-T-[t]=tsim-?álkax

the read.s.-DEF-[3]=NC real-talk

(the) reading (of) Nisgha

hli litszahl sim'algaz

də ?ùx-T-[t]=d dít

(the) throwing (of) a ball

the throw.s.-DEF-[3]=N ball

hli uyihl hlit'

də ni tà tk™-T-[t]=dkiwatán

'(the) riding (of) a horse' (see remark)

the sit.on.s.-DEF-[3]=NC horse

hli niit'aatgwihl gyuwadan

- stem ending in V or R:

the sing.s.-DEF-[3]=NC song hli yeedihl limx

Remark: With stems ending in consonants, there can be a possibility of ambiguity between a nominalization, where the transitive predicate takes the suffix -T, and a headless 0-relative clause (4.7.A.2.a.1., 6.1.B.2.b.1.), where it takes the CTL suffix  $-\partial$ — (7.2.A.3.); the overt shape of -T— in this environment is identical to that of  $-\partial$ —; however there is no ambiguity in speaking when the nominal is mentioned, as the stress pattern is opposite: compare:

#### - nominalization:

#### - headless 0-rel.:

In most cases however, there is no ambiguity as the suffix sequence and its realization are different for the two constructions:

to wa-tT-[t]=t ?axWt (the) finding (of) a porcupine

the find s.-DEF-[3]=NC porcupine hli wadihi axwt

the finds.-CTL-[3]=NC porcupine hii wayihi axwt

• ni: mə wilá:x-[t]=4 4ə tam-tT-t==a
not 2E know.s.-[3]=NC the write.s.-DEF-3==Q

Nii mi wilaaxh/ hli t'amdida?

ni: mə wilá:x-[t]=4 +ə tam-tT-ə-t==a Do you know what s/he wrote?

not 2E know.s.-[3]=NC the write.s.-DEF-CTL-3 Nii mi wilaaxhi hli t'amtdids?

• ?á:m=4 40 naxñá-tT-t It sounds/sounded nice (lit. the hearing of good=NC the hear.s.-DEF-3 it is/was nice). Aamhl hli naxáadit.

?á:m=† †ə naxná-(y)ə-t The one s/he heard was nice/good.
good-NC the hear.s.-CTL-3

Aamhi hli naxiavit.

## 4.5.A.3.c. With Adjective: nominalization: abstract quality:

A prefix Q2-28-, identical in shape to the Distributive prefix (7.1.B.1.a.1.b.) and a locational prefix (7.1.B.1b.1.b.3.) can also be prefixed to an Adjectival PA predicate, this time paired with a suffix -\(\theta\)- identical in shape with the Control suffix (7.2.A.3.), resulting in a frame (7.3.B.1.a.). The new word is an abstract noun, which can be used as predicate or argument.

[qa-nàkW-ə]-[t]= sá 'the length of the day, how long iDISTR-long-CTL]\_ABST-[3]=NC day the day is' **ganagwihi** sa

[ $\mathbf{qa}$ - $\mathbf{x}$  $\hat{\mathbf{ca}}$  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ -( $\mathbf{a}$ )]-[ $\mathbf{t}$ ]= $\mathbf{ta}$  $\mathbf{ta}$  $\mathbf{w}$  the thickness of the ice, how thick the ice is **existary**( $\mathbf{a}$ )hl daaw

The plural of the adjective is used if the following noun is plural, just as in a regular clause:

A few such nouns occur only in this framed form, for instance:

the plural of which is a suppletive form:

(Note that the lack of epenthetic /t/ after vowel-final stem rules out identifying the suffix with the vocalic realization of the -T- suffix used with nouns, see above 4.5.A.3.a.2.).

These abstract nouns built on adjectives can be used as clause predicates (see below 4.6.C.3.a.), but are most often used with an evaluative adjective or verb, as in:

- †a.húkax-[t]=†[qa-kàmk-ə]-t It's hot enough now.

  now right-[t]=NC[...-hot-...]ABST-3 (lit. now its heat is right)

  Hlas hugazhl gagamgit.
- \* ?ali:skW=1 [qa-nnì:]ukW-ə]-t They are not quite long enough.
  lacking=NC[...-long.PL-...] (lit. their length is not quite right)

  Aliiskwhl ganniilugwit.

• si)sa=yé=† [qa-ñàkW-ə]=† sà The days are getting shorter.

ASP)off=go=NC[...-long-...] (lit. the length of the day is decreasing)

Sisaayeehl gañagwihl sa

Like other predicates, the downshifted adjective may be preceded by modifiers:

ntá=+ +a: [qa-màlkaqsW-ə]-[t]=s[t] pè:pi-which.way now [...-heavy-...]-[3]=DC(DM)B.

How much does Baby weigh now?

Ndahl hlas gamalgaksgwis Beebii?

# 4.5.A.2. Attributive function of downshifted PA:

In this function, the downshifted predicate becomes a mere adjunct and qualifier of a noun ("a Noun that is Pred"), which can be predicate or adjunct in a clause. The predicate with this function takes the attributive suffix -m -im/-am/-um.

Nominal Pred -M N: (compare with a compound noun, 9.1.B.2.)

tkù:tk <sup>W</sup> -m hanád child-ATTR woman	'daughter' <i>hlguuhlgum hana<u>k</u>'</i>
nàks-m kát	'married man'
spouse man	naksim gat
łàms-m kát	'father-in-law, son-in-law'
in-law man	hlamsim gat
hanàq-m smáx	female bear
woman bear	hanak'am smax

#### Adjectival Pred -In N

wi-nakw-mqan 'tall tree, long log/stick'

big-long-ATTR tree/stick wiinagum gan

Xtìl-m má ỷ 'sweet/delicious berries'

sweet-... berries zlilim maay

Stative intransitive Pred - III N

tdal=ta:-mengine 'outboard motor'

against-sit-ATTR engine tk'alt'aam injin

?ukWs=cadas-mayt baseball cap

outward-protrude-... hat ukwsts'ak'asim gayt

tàkil-tkW-mhanitá: 'folding chair'

fold.s.-PASS-... chair t'ak'iltgum haniit'aa

Note that only one such attributive predicate is used with a noun, just as there can only be one main predicate in a clause. The piling up of adjectives characteristic of English (more than other European languages) is foreign to Nisgha (cf. remark about Numerals above p. 240).

However, an attributive predicate may be preceded by one or more modifiers (5.15), e.g.

tku kWe?-m tku-tkitkW 'a/the poor child'

little poor-ATTR little-child hlgu gwee'em hlgutk'ihlkw

ya:ytcàmtkW-mwiné:x 'cooked food'

already cooked-ATTR food yayt jamtgum wineex

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Such phrases with downshifted predicates can be used whenever single nouns can occur.

**4.6.** PREDICATIVE FUNCTION OF A DOWNSHIFTED NOMINAL PREDICATE (POSSESSED NOMINAL PREDICATE):

A nominal predicate phrase with noun or pronoun argument, which is downshifted into a possessive noun-phrase, can itself be used as a predicate, in a predicate-focused or regular clause. It can also be used as a higher predicate introducing a clause.

### 4.6.A. In predicate-focused clause:

The structure of a predicate-focused clause with a possessed nominal clause predicate is very similar to that of a predicate-focused P<sub>EA</sub> clause, except that possessed nouns do not take the CTL suffix. The possessor behaves like the E of a P<sub>EA</sub> clause, and the nominal attribute of the clause predicate behaves like the A-nominal in the predicate-focused clause. This partly explains the modern tendency to treat some deverbative nouns as verbs.

In the examples below, the possessor suffix (and its nominal adjunct if present) are highlighted in the same way as the E-argument and its adjunct in the section on predicate-focused  $P_{\rm EA}$  clauses.

- 4.6.A.1. The pronominal suffix argument of the nominal predicate does not have a nominal adjunct: the A-nominal in the clause is a noun or independent pronoun: (cf. predicate-focused P<sub>FA</sub> clause, 4.4.B.2.)
- 4.6.A.1.a. <u>Non-deverbative nouns</u>: (i.e. not abstract nouns derived from adjectives or verbs):
- NÓX-ỷ t Màry Mary is my mother. mother-1S DM M. Nooỷ t Mary.

 nóx-t t Màry mother-3 DM M.

- Mary is his/her mother.

  Nozt t Mary.
- łkù łk W-mhanà q-y t <u>I.àura</u>
   child-ATTR woman-1S DM L.

Laura is my daughter.

Higuuhigum hanak'ay t Laura.

• kWislis-m + +ku kàt t kun nephew/niece-1P=NC little man DM-this

This little boy is our nephew.

Gwislisianh higu gat tgun.

• 4a kú-**ỷ** nì:n==a the something-1S you.S==0

Are you related to me?

Hliguy niina?

wó?otk<sup>W</sup>-ti:tňù:m
guest-3P us

We were their guests.

#### 4.6.A.1.b. Deverbative nouns:

Deverbative nouns formed by prefixation with 7an-an-(7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.) and sometimes with ha-ha-(7.1.B.1.b.1.a.2.) are used as possessed predicates under most circumstances. They are frequently used to refer to general or habitual propensities or states of mind, in contrast with verbs or adjectives which have more punctual meaning. The English translation usually has a verb.

• ?an-xpičáxW-**ỷ** † ?as)?ùs CAUS-afraid-1S NC PL)dog

I am <u>afraid</u> of dogs.
(lit. dogs are my cause of fear)

Anxbits'awiyhl as'us.

(compare with the corresponding adjective or intransitive verb as predicate:

xpicáxW nì ý ?a=1 ?as)?ús afraid me PREP-NC ...

I am/was afraid of the dogs.

Xbits arw niiy ahl as us.)

• hasáq-**ỷ**=1 pòt desire-1S=NC boat

I want a boat (lit. a boat is my desire)

Hasagaÿhl boot.

hasáq-t=† pò:t desire-3 =NC boat

He wants a boat.

Hasakthi boot

• ?an-sí.pinsk<sup>W</sup>-**ỷ** t <u>Màry</u> CAUS-love-1S DM M.

Mary is my friend (lit. M. is my cause

of loving)

Ansiip'insgwiy t Mary.

huxW-ti?an-sí pinskW-n t Màry == a Is Mary your <u>friend</u> too?

again-INTS CAUS-love-2S DM M.==Q Huxwdii ansiip insgwin t Marya?

• ?an-halákak-t ňþý CAUS-laugh.at.s.-3S m.e

S/he makes fun of me

(lit. I am h. cause of laughing at)

Anhalaagazt niiy.

?an-wé?eskW-ti:t nù m CAUS-get.things-3P us

They always want something from us, they come to us for everything, they

are dependent on us (lit. we are their

cause of getting)

An we'eskwdiit nuum.

# 4.6.A.2. The pronominal suffix argument of the nominal predicate has a nominal adjunct; the A-nominal in the clause is a 1st or 2nd person pronoun:

The possessed noun used as regular predicate ends in the 3rd person suffix -t (never the plural suffix -ti:t -diit, even if the possessor is plural); the noun adjunct to the possessor suffix is extraposed to the right of the pronoun, after a determinate marker or the connective =  $\frac{1}{2}$  -h1 in its role as non-determinate marker: this structure parallels exactly that of transitive verbs in similar conditions (cf. the behavior of the E-adjunct after first or second pronoun A, 4.4.B.3.a.1.).

#### 4.6.A.2. Non-deverbative nouns:

• łkù łk W-t ńì ỷ t <u>Màry</u> child-[3]=DC me DM M.

I am Mary's <u>daughter/son</u>.

Hlguuhlkwt ñiiÿ t Mary.

(cf. Fr. Je suis sa fille/son fils, à Marie)

• siłkùłk Ws-t nù m tip Màry adopted.child-[3]=DC us DM.P M.

Mary "and them" <u>adopted</u> us.
(lit. we are Mary...'s adopted children)
Sihlguuhlkwst huum dip Mary.

 siłkù łk Ws-t nù mł?ankikàtk W-t adopted.child-[3]=DC us NC parents-3

His/her parents adopted us. (lit. we are h. parents' adopted children)

Sihlguuhlkwst huumhl angigatkwt.

#### 4.6.A.2.b. Deverbative nouns:

• ?an-xpicáxW-t ni ý 1 1ku pè:pi: CAUS-afraid-3 me NC little baby

The baby is afraid of me.

Anghits'agwt hij'hl higu beehii.

?an-xpićáx<sup>W</sup>-t ňiỷ t <u>Jòhnny</u> CAUS-afraid-3 me DM J. Johnny is <u>afraid</u> of me.

Anzbits axwt hiiŷ t **Johnny**.

?an-halá.kax-t ňì:ý t <u>Màry</u>
 CAUS-laugh.at.s.-3 me DM ..M.

Mary <u>makes fun</u> of me.

Anhaluagazt nii y t Mary.

timsa:?an-halá:kax-t ñìn t kàt FUT CAUS-laugh.at.s.-3 you NC people

People might make fun of you.

Dim saa anhalaagaxt niinhl gat.

(compare with the transitive construction which is definite:

halá:kax-ət nì:ỷ † kàt laugh.at.s.-CTL-3 me NC ...

People made fun of me.

Halaagazat niiýhl gat.)

ha-có:q-t nì y tnipìp-y
 CAUS-ashamed-3 DM uncle-1S

My uncle is <u>ashamed</u> of me. Hajookt hiiÿ t nibibiÿ.

timha-có:q-t ni:n **1?ankikátk** -n
FUT CAUS-ashamed-3 you NC parent.PL.INDEF-2S

Your parents will be <u>ashamed</u> of you, you will bring <u>shame</u> on your parents. (cf. Fr. Tu seras la honte de tes parents)

Dim hajookt hiinhl angigatgwin.

4.6.A.3. The possessor suffix has a noun adjunct: the A-nominal in the clause is a noun or third person plural pronoun: the noun adjunct is connected to the pronoun through a connective (cf. predicate-focused PEA clauses, 4.4.B.3.b.):

In these constructions, the main stress, and the semantic emphasis, is on the possessor.

## 4.6.A.3.a. Non-deverbative nouns:

- nàks-[t]=[s][t] <u>Máry</u> t <u>Pèter</u> Peter is <u>Mary</u>'s husband.

  spouse-[3]=[DC][DM] M. DM P. Naks Mary t Peter.
- huxWtà:kintkW-[t]=s[t] Máry niti:t grandchildren-[3]=DC [DM] M. them

They are Mary's grandchildren.

Huxwdaak'intkws Mary hidiit

4.6.A.3..b. <u>Deverbative nouns</u>: with deverbative nouns this construction seems to be used most often when the A-noun is human or at least animate.

ha-cò:q-[t]=s[t]nixtá:-tt Màry M
 CAUS-ashamed-[3][DM] aunt-3 DM M.

Mary's <u>aunt</u> is ashamed of her. (lit. Mary is <u>her aunt</u>'s cause of shame).

Hajooks mizdaat t Mary.

- 7an-xpicax [t]=s[t] Johnnyt Rèbe] Johnny is afraid of Rebel.

  CAUS-afraid-[3]=DC (DM) J. DM M. (lit. Rebel is Johnny's cause of fear).

  Anghits arms Johnny t Rebel.
- ?an-xpicàxW-[t]=s[t] Jóhnny i wi: ?ùs t kùs[t]
   CAUS-afraid-[3]=DC [DM] J. NC big dog DM that.

Johnny is afraid of that big dog.
(lit. that big dog is J.'s cause of fear).

Anxbits'axws Johnnyh! wii us tgus.

Where the A-nominal is not inimate, and the emphasis is less on the identity of the possesor, other constructions tend to be used, for instance a Focused construction (see 4.7.A.2.b.2.):

• pó:t=1 ti: hasàq-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> Peter vants a boat.
boat=NC INTS desire-[3] DC [DM] P. Booth! dij hasaks Peter.

#### (compare with:

hasàq-[t]=s[t]<u>Péter</u> † pòt <u>Peter</u> wants the boat. boat=NC desire-[3]=DC [DM] P. *Hasaks Peterhl boot.*)

Deverbative nouns are sometimes treated as intransitive verbs with the appropriate marker or connective, and the clausal argument is preceded by the preposition ?a s plus appropriate connective: in effect, the deverbative is treated as a  $P_{A,I}$ :

# •?an-xpićáx t Jòhnny?a=łliki:?akú

CAUS-afraid-[3]=DC [DM] J. PREP=NC something

Johnny is afraid of something.

Anabits'azw t Johnny ahl ligii'agu.

This seems to be a back-formation from the similarity of the regular clause constructions, especially negative ones (see below 4.6.B.2.).

## 4.6.A.4. Tendency towards using deverbative nominal predicates as verbs:

Because of the surface resemblance of the deverbative construction with 3 on 1/2 with the corresponding transitive construction, there are cases where deverbative nouns are treated as transitive verbs, especially by YFS who confuse the two. Examples of confusion are

• tim?an-halá:kaxə-t nì:n 4 kàt People will make fun of you.

FUT CAUS-laugh:at.s.-CTL-3 you NC people

Dim anhalazgazat niinhl gat.

indicating confusion of the nominal predicate construction (no CTL suffix):

tim ?an-halá:kax-t nì ý † kàt People will make fun of you laugh at.s.-CTL-3 me NC ... (in general).

Dim anhalvagast niinhl gat.

with the transitive construction (including CTL suffix):

timhalá:kax-ə-t nì:n i kàt People will make fun of you (now)
FUT laugh:at.s.-CTL-3 you NC people Dim halaagagat niinhi gat.

The verbal nature of English constructions of equivalent meaning has probably influenced the transitive use of such words, but it is likely that this process is not entirely due to foreign interference. For instance, the transitive verb halá: kax halaagar 'to laugh at sbdy', which begins with the prefix ha- ha-

may have been originally a deverbative noun, and the present deverbative 7an-halá:kaxanhalasgas may well be a secondary formation. Similarly the two deverbatives ha-có:q hajook and 7an-ha-có:q anhajook, both meaning '[sthg that causes] shame', coexist at present, but the more complex form is probably a more recent formation.

4.6.B. Regular clause: after subordinator or negative verb.

#### 4.6.B.1. Non-downshifted predicate:

In a regular clause with a non-downshifted predicate, the argument is a suffix on the predicate, to which a nominal adjunct may be linked through a connective (4.3.B.):

• ni:-ti:wiyitkW-[t]=s[t] Màry Mary didn't cry.
not-INTS cry-[3]=DC [DM] M. Nidii wiyitkws Mary.

ni:-ti:wiyitkW-t She didn't cry.
not-INTS cry-3 Nidii wiyitkwt.

... wil wiyitk W-t ... as/when she cried as/when cry-3 ... wil wiyitkwt.

#### 4.6.B.2. downshifted nominal predicate:

When the clause predicate is a downshifted nominal predicate, which already has a suffix, there cannot be another suffix, or a connected nominal; instead, the nominal appears after the preposition ?a s (5.18); the sequence ?a • Noun can be replaced by an indirect pronoun (base 10:- 100-, 5.9). Compare:

• kutác-ýt-kùn This is my coat. coat-18 DM-this K'udats'iỳ tgun.

ni:-ti: kutác-ý?a=s[t]kùn

This is not my coat. not-INTS coat-1S PREP=DC [DM] this Nidii k'udats'iy as gun.

ni:-ti: kutác-ýlo:-t not-INTS coat-1S IND-3

It is not my coat. Nidii k'udats'iy loot.

... wil kutác-ýlo:-t as coat-1S IND-3

... as it is my coat. ... wil k'udats'iy loot.

• hasáq-ỷ 1 pò:t desire-1S=NC boat

I want a boat. Hasagayhl boot.

ni:-ti: hasáq-ý?a=ł pó:t not-INTS desire-1S PREP=NC boat

I don't want a boat. Nidii hasagay ahl boot

ni:-ti: hasáq-ýlò:-t not-INTS desire-1S IND-3

I don't want it. Nidii hasagaý look

hasàq-[t]=s[t]Péter + pó:t desire-[3]=DC [DM] P. NC boat

Peter wants the boat. Hasaks Peterhi boot.

ni:-ti: hasáq-[t]=s[t]Pèter?a=1 pó:t Peter doesn't want a/the boat. not-INTS desire-[3]=DC [DM] P. PREP=NC boat Nidii hasaks Peter ahl boot

ni:-ti: hasáq-tlò:-t not-INTS desire-3 IND-3 He doesn't want it. Nidii hasakt loot.

• ?an-sí:pinskW-y t Màry CAUS- loving-1S DM M.

Mary is my friend. Ansiip'insgwiy t Mary.

... wil ?an-sí:pinskW-ý lò:-t as CAUS-loving-1 IND-3

... as she is my friend. ... vil ansiip'insgwiy loot. ni:-ti: ?an-sí:pinskW-ý ?a=s [t] <u>Máry</u> not-INTS CAUS- loving-1S PREP=DC [DM] M.

Mary is not my friend.

Nidii ansiip'insgwiÿ as Mary.

ni:-ti: ?an-si:pinskW-ŷ lò:-t She is not my friend.
not-INTS CAUS-loving-1 IND-3 Nidii ansiip insgwiÿ loot.

In this respect the surface form of the possessed nominal predicate in a regular clause is identical to that of a  $P_{AI}$  in a regular clause, as in

• ni:-ti: wakátk<sup>W</sup>-y ?as [t] <u>Máry</u> I don't/didn't miss Mary.

not-INTS feel.lonesome-1S PREP=DC [DM] M. *Nidii wasgatgwiy as Mary*.

... wil wa:kátk<sup>W</sup>-ý?a=S[t]<u>Máry</u> ... as I miss(ed) Mary.
as feel.lonesome-1S PREP=DC[DM] M. ... vil waagatgwiy as Mary.

Note also the parallelism between this structure and that of the interrogative clause with relativized possessed predicate (4.7.A.2.b.2.), as in:

• nà:=1 kutác-(a)t?a=s[t]kùni Whose coat is this?

who=NC coat-REL PREP=NC [DM] this==0 Naah! k'udats'it as guni?

nà:=1 kutác-(a)t lò:-t Whose coat is it?
who=NC coat-REL IND-3 Naahl k'udats'it loot?

Here also, the REL suffix on the downshifted predicate noun prevents the addition of another suffix, and an Indirect Object is used instead.

#### 4.6.C.2. Possessed nominal predicates used as higher predicates:

Abstract nouns can be used as higher predicates. This occurs with some deverbatives, but mostly with evaluatives (the latter built on adjectival stems,

see 7.3.B.1.a.1.).

- 4.6.C.2. <u>Use of deverbatives</u>: the use of some deverbatives as higher predicates may be influenced by English, as in:
- hasáq-ý mə tim fó:n-tT-ý I want you to phone me. desire-18 2E FUT phone s.-DEF-18

  Hesegey mi dim foontdiy.
- 4.6.C.3. Evaluative nouns: These abstract nouns, built on adjectival stems (some no longer used) can be used as nominal predicates, but are very often used as higher predicates in association with another clause (for their use as arguments of evaluative verbs or adjectives, see 4.5.A.3.c. above)
- 4.6.C.3.a. <u>Used as clausal predicate</u>: evaluative nouns behave like any other nominal predicates:
- [qa-kámk-ə]-[t]\daggerangih | lagha-sa/
- qasqó:-[t]=1 kstù:ÎT-ỷ My tears were so big!
  size-[3]=NC tear-1S (= I cried so much!)
  (lit. the size of my tears!)

  Gasgooh! ksduuliÿ!
- 4.6.C.3.b. Used as higher predicates: they are followed by a regular clause.
- with PA:

qańákWə-[t]=†kipé?eskW-m We waited so long!
length-{3}=NC wait-1P (lit. the length of our waiting!)

Gańagwih! gibe esgum!

- with PEA:

• qanakwə-[t] tipkipa-sim length-[3] 1P.E wait.for.s.-2P

We waited so long for you!

Ganagwi dip gibasim!

• qasqó:-[t]t sí:pin-n size 3E love.s.-2S

S/he loves you so much!

Gasgoo t siip'inin/

4.7. ANTEPOSED CONSTITUENTS: FOCUSED CONSTITUENTS VS. SPECIFIED COMPLEMENT.

Both Specified Complements and Focused constituents occur before the predicate. It is important to distinguish the two. The Specified Complement (where present with appropriate verbs) is normally the first constituent in a regular clause. Any other major constituent of a clause, outside of the predicate phrase, can be focused, in which case the Specified Complement moves to the end of the clause.

#### 4.7.A. FOCUSING.

Nisgha uses focusing in many cases where a language like English would use contrastive stress to emphasize a particular lexical element in the clause. Focusing is characterized by anteposition of the focused element. Other details may vary according to the type of element that is focused. Many focused clauses are answers to questions which themselves have the form of a focused clause, with the interrogative element in the focused position. Question and answer then have the same structure.

Focusing of non-predicative elements in a clause is important not only because it provides a way of putting extra emphasis on a clause constituent, but because that constituent can be the pivot between two clauses, the second of which then is a relative clause: Nisgha relative clauses are focused clauses where the

focused element is also a constituent of a previous clause. That constituent can also be left out, and the result is a headless relative clause.

In the description of most Nisgha syntactic processes, the major distinction is that between the roles of E and A. This is still true in Focusing, but in addition the various functions covered by A are focused by different processes.

## 4.7.A.1. Focus on E (E-relative clauses):

The focused E-Adjunct is placed in front of the  $P_{EA}$  predicate phrase (which includes the 3E pronoun t). The Ergative Relative pronoun 7an an occurs either before or after the 3E pronoun t  $^{15}$  (if next to the predicate, the 3E pronoun t is often merged phonetically with the next consonant). The other constituents are unchanged.

## Compare the unfocused clause:

• ...(wil) t kipá-[t]=s[t] <u>Máry</u> ... (as) s/he waited for Mary. (SUB) 3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M. ... (wil)t gibas Mary.

#### with the E-focused clauses:

• ná: t?an kipá-[t]=s[t] Máry Who [was it who] waited for Mary? who 3E RELE wait.for.s.-[t]=DC [DM] M. Nas t an gibas Mary?

ná: ?an t kipá-t Who [was it who] waited for her? who REL E-3E wait.for.s.-3 Nas ant gibat?

ná: ?an t kipá-n Who (was it who) for you? who REL E-3E wait.for.s.-2S Nas ant giban?

**ní:ý** t?ankipá-t I am the one who waited for her. me 3E RELE wait.for.s.-3 *Niiý t an gibat*  ní:y t?ankipá-ti:t me 3E REL.E wait.for.s -3P

 $\underline{I}$  [am the one who] waited for them.  $Nii\acute{y}$  t an gibadiit.

<u>Péter</u> t?an kipá-[t]=s[t]<u>Máry</u> P. 3E REL E wait for s = DC [DM] M.

Peter (is the one who) waited for Mary. Peter t an gibas Mary.

use as headless E-relative clause:

• ta: tá: wit-[t] t?an kipá-[t]=s[t] Máry
by.now leave-[3] 3E REL wait.for.s =DC [DM] M.

The one who waited for Mary has left.

Hlaa daawihl t an gibas Mary.

The Progressive Auxiliary yukw can be placed before the E pronouns: the connective =  $\frac{1}{2}$  -  $\frac{1}{2}$  occurs between the E noun and the auxiliary:

unfocused clause:

yukW-t líłk-[t]=s [t] <u>Báby</u>
 AUX-3E REL.E watch.s.-[3]=DC [DM] B.

S/he is watching Baby.

Yukwt lihlks Beehii.

Focused E:

ná:=† yukW-t ?an lí†k-t who=NC AUX-3E REL.E watch.s.-3 Who is watching h. now?

Nash! yukwt an lih!kt?

- 4.7.A.2. Focus on A: Each of the various functions covered by A (Subject, Object, Attribute, Possessor) is affected in its own way by Focusing.
- 4.7.A.2.a. Cases based on the Predicate-focused clause: Other constituents can be placed ahead of the focused predicate.

# 4.7.A.2.a.1. Focus on A (Object) in a PEA clause (O-relative clause):

The A Adjunct (Direct Oject) is anteposed and linked to the predicate by the connective = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \text{. (Compare with predicate-focused clauses, \frac{4}{4} \text{. B.2.b.)}.

7akú=4 ki)kíp-a-n (==ast) 16
 what=NC ASP)ezt.s.-CTL-2S=AFF

(Hey.) what are you eating?

Aguhl gigibin(is)?

**qalmó:s**=1 ki)kíp-ə-ỷ (==əst) crab=NCASP)eat.s.-CTL-1S==AFF

-I am eating crab(of course!)

- K'almooshl gigibiy(is)

• ?akú=1 ka: x4iltin-ə-n
what=NC most like food-CTL-2S

What is your favourite food?
(lit. What [food] do you like most?)

Aguhl k'aa xlilt'inin?

tíkit=4 ka: x4íítin-ə-ỷ smoked oolichans=NC like food-CTL-1S

- Smoked oolichans.
(lit. I like <u>smoked oolichans</u> most.) Digith! k'aa zlilt'iniy.

ná:=ł kipá-(y)ə-[t]=s[t] Màry
 who=NC wait.for.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M

Who did Mary wait for?
Who was Mary waiting for?
Nash! gibayis Mary?

Lúcy=4 kipá-(y)-t L.=NC wait.for.-CTL-3

- She was waiting for Lucy.

- Lucyh! gibayit.

**ni:y-**4 kipá-(y)a-t me=NC wait.for.-CTL-3

- She was waiting for me.

- Niiÿhl gibsyit.

• ná:=†ňa m-nákskW-a-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> Who does Peter want to marry? who=NC want.to-marry.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] P. Naahl naam-naksgwis Peter? Cindy=†na.m-nákckW-a-t

C=NC want.to-marry.s.-CTL-3

- He wants to marry Cindy
- Cindyhl naam-naksgwit

• ntá=4 qó?-a-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> Where did Peter go? which way=NC go.to-CTL-[3]=DC[DM]=DC P. Ndahl go'os Peter?

kinqúlx=† qó?-ə-t - He went to <u>Kincolith</u> Kincolith=NC.....-3 - Gingolxúl go'ot.

use as 0-relative clause:

- ntá==(y)əma?wilmúkWs-[t]=4 qalmó:s=4 ki)kíp-ə-ý
  which.way==DUBwhere caught-[3]=NC crab=NC ASP)eat.s.-CTL-1S==AFF
   I wonder where the crab I am eating was caught.
   Ndayima'a wil mukwshl k'almooshl gigibiý.
- ni:-nə-ti:wilá x-[t]=4?akú=4 wà-[t]=4 ka: x4íltin-[ə]-t 16
  not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-[3]=NC what=NC name-[3]=NC most like.food-[CTL]-3
  I don't know what food s/he likes best.

  Nindii wilaaxhl aguhl wahl k'aa xliit'int.
- ni:-nə-ti: wilá:x-[t]=4 ntá=4 qó?-ə-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u>
  not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-[3]=NC which.way=NC go.to-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] =DC P.

  I don't know where Peter went.

  Nindii wilaaxhi ndahi go'os Peter.

When the head of an 0- relative clause is omitted, it is often replaced by the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla (see examples in 6.1.B.2.).

• lu:=yóxkW-ə-t=+ +a yóxkW-ə-[t]=+huwákkW-t
in=follow.s.-CTL-3=NC the follow.s.-CTL-[3]=NC M's.brothers-3

He followed the route his brothers had followed (202.15)

Luuyozgwith! hli yozgwih! huwakkwt.

# 4.7.A.2.a.2. A-Adjunct in P<sub>A</sub> clause: With Nominal predicate in Equivalence statement (Attribute-relative clause);

Whether the nominal predicate is regular or downshifted, the focused constituent is anteposed and linked to the nominal predicate by the connective = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{

#### Regular nominal predicate:

• lip **hí:ỷ**=4 qìnx self me=NC trail

Lnyself am the trail [said the supernatural woman] (128.8-9)

Lip hiiÿhl genx.

## (the unfocused equivalent would be:

qìnx ní ỷ trail me

I am a trail.

Gen<u>x</u> hily.)

## Downshifted nominal predicate:

• t kún=† haải qò:t-ỷ
DM this=NC thought-IS

This is what I think (lit. my thought is this). Trunhi haniigoodiy.

• ?as)?ú9=1?an-xpicaxW-ỷ
PL)dog=NC CAUS-afraid-1S

I am afraid of dogs.

As ush! anybits awiy.

ksax ñí:n=†?an-?àlqal-t
 only you=NC CAUS-watch-3

S/he only looked at you.

Ksax áiinhl an alk alt.

With a nominal predicate, an interrogative pronoun in focused position is usually followed by the noun wa 'name' wa (see note 16):

- ná:=† Wà-n==0s[t] [Hey.] what's your name? who=NCname-2S==AFF Naahl wanis?
- ná:=† wà-{t}=† kimxtí-n What's your brother/sister's name? who=NC name-[3]=NC opp.sex.sib-2S Naahl wahl zimzdin?
- ?akú=1 wà-[t]=1?an-xpicáx W-ti. What is there to be afraid of?
  what=NC name-[3] =NC CAUS-afraid-IMPERS (lit. what is the name of anyone's
  fear?)

  Aguhl wahl anghits'aswdii?

## 4.7.A.2.b. Cases based on the regular clause: Focusing of Subject or Possessor:

This section applies to intransitive or adjectival clause predicates and to nominal predicates in statements of possession. The A adjunct is placed in front of the predicate, which takes the REL suffix  $-(\partial)t$  -it/at/t (7.2.A.2.).

# 4.7.A.2.b.1. Focusing of A of verbal P<sub>A</sub> (Subject): Relativization of intransitive verb:

The Adjunct is anteposed and linked to the predicate with the connective  $= \frac{1}{2} - hI$ . (sometimes the connective is missing, especially in Boas 1902). In addition, the predicate gets the REL suffix  $-(\partial)t$  -iVat/t (7.2.A.2.) instead of the 3 suffix -t.

#### 4.7.A.2.b.1.a. Intransitive predicate without auxiliary:

#### unfocused clause:

.... (Wil) xstà:-[t]=s[t] Peter .... (as/when) Peter won.
 (SUB) win-[3]=DC [DM] P. .... (Wil) xsdaas Peter.
 .... (Wil) xstà:-t .... (as/when) he won.
 (SUB) win-3 .... (Wil) xsdaat.

## focus on Subject:

• ná:=1 xstà-(ə)t who=NC win-REL

Who won?

Nashi zsdast?

<u>Péter</u>=4 xstà:-(ə)t P.=NC win-REL

Peter won.

Peterhi xsdaat.

• (tip) ná:=† tim nàks-(ə)t
(DM.PL) who=NC FUT married-REL

Who is getting married? (Dip) naahi dim naksit?

tip <u>Péter qan=s [t] Wéndy=</u> tim nàks-(a)t DM.PL P. and=DC [DM] W.=NC FUT married-REL

Peter and Wendy are getting married.

Dip Peter gans Wendyhl dim naksit.

• †kí:k W - ý ?a=†?antó:? wi halàyt-(a)t 17
W's sister-1S PREP=NC next door great shaman-REL

My sister (who lives) on the other side [of the mountain] is the great shamaness [not me] (128 10-11)

Higiigwiy ahl andoo'o wii halaydit.

#### Use as relative clause:

• ntá==qatwilwitkW-[t]=+ hanàq=+ tim nàks-(ə)t which.way==REP where come.from-[t]=NC weman=NC FUT married-REL

Where did they say the bride comes from?
(lit. ... the girl who's getting married ...)

Nda-gat wil withwhl hanar'hl dim naksit?

A headless A- relativized predicate (and its attendant particles and modifiers) can be used instead of a noun as Adjunct in a clause:

• ntá=f tim wil cóq-[t]=f tim si: nàks-(a)t where=NC FUT SUB stay-[3]=NC FUT newly married-REL

Where are the newlyweds going to live?

Ndahl dim wil jokhl dim sii naksit?

## 4.7.A.2.b.1.b. Main verb after auxiliary:

The Progressive auxiliary yuk yuk (5.12.) may be used with the relativized predicate, under the aspectually reduplicated form hi)yuk hiyuk (5.12.a.2.c.); it is not clear why both the auxiliary and the main predicate take the REL suffix, since auxiliaries do not take personal suffixes:

#### unfocused clause:

yuk<sup>W</sup>=ł yu hatá x-t
 AUX=NCdrive-3

S/he is driving/steering.

Yukwhl yuuhadaaxt.

#### Focused Subject:

• ná = 4 hi)yuk W - (a)t = 4 yu:hatá:x - (a)t Who is driving?/...steering?
who=NC ASP)AUX-REL=NC drive-REL Nash! hiyugwith! yuuhadaayit?

## 4.7.A.2.b.2. Focus on possessor in possessive noun-phrase:

The possessor is the nominal adjunct to the suffixed argument of the possessed predicate, which is downshifted (4.6.A.). As in an intransitive clause with focused A-nominal, the predicate ends in the REL suffix  $-(\partial)t_{-it/-at-t}$ .

#### Regular clause:

... (Wil) ?à:t-[t]=s[t] <u>Péter</u>?a=s[t]kùn ... (as) this is Peter's net. (SUB) net-[3]=DC [DM] P. PREP=DC [DM] this ... (wil) asts Peter as gun.

#### Focus on possessor:

ná:=† ?à:t-(a)t ?a=s[t]kùn==i who?=NC net-REL PREP=DC [DM] this==Q	Whose net is this?  Naahl aadit as guni?
ná:=4 ?à:t-(ə)t lo:-t who?=NC net-REL IND-3	Whose net is it?  Nash! sadit loot?
ná:==(y)əma?=†?à:t-(ə)t lo:-t who==DUB=NC nei-REL IND-3	I wonder whose net it is. Whose net is it, I wonder? Whose net can it be? Naayima'ah! aadit loot?
<b>ní:n=4</b> ?à:t-(a)t lo:t==a you=NC net-REL IND-3==Q	Is it your net? (lit. Are you the one whose net it is?) Niinhl aadit looda?

ni:-ki: t ná: cə?à:t-(ə)t ?a=s [t] kùn==i Is this anybody's net?
not-INTS DM who IRR net-REL PREP=DC [DM] this==Q Nigitnaa ji aadit as guni?

The possessed noun cannot be omitted from the clause (as it can be in English), otherwise there would be nothing to attach the REL suffix to. If the specific noun is to be left unmentioned, the general word **kán** kán meaning (as a noun) something like '(s.o.'s )thing, property' must be used. Locally it is translated by the word 'own', used as a noun.

ná:=+ kán-(a)t lo:-t Whose is it?

who=NC (s.o.'s) thing-REL IND-3 (local: Whose own is it?)

Naahl k'anit loot?

**kán-ý**==əs[t] It's mine! [you should know that] (s.o.'s) thing-1S==AFF

(local: (It's) my own!)

- K'aniyis!

The relativized nominal predicate can itself be the focused A of a relativized intransitive predicate (it acts as a pivot between the two clauses to which it belongs):

• nín=1 pùkW-(a)t=1 ni=tóx-(a)t lax-hanitimisT-v you=NC book-REL=NC on=lobjectlile, be.PL-REL on-desk-1S

Are those your books on my desk?

(lit. are you the one whose books are on my desk?)

Niinhl bugwithl niidoxat/niidoot lax haniit'imisiya?

This sort of construction does not seem to be possible with non-interrogative clauses. In other words, it is not used in equivalents to, for instance, "I know the person whose books are on the table."

## 4.7.A.2.b.3. Focus on possessor with Wil 'be/do' wil as a quasi-auxiliary:

Here the emphasis is on the relation between possessor and possessed object: this construction is actually an instance of focus on the A of an intransitive PA (4.7.A.2.b.1), which explains the much wider range of elements which can occupy the focused position, as well as the greater semantic range of relations between predicate and focused Adjunct. The possessor can be an interrogative or indefinite pronoun, or a noun; the predicative 18 wil wil (which has a very general meaning, here indicated by 'do') takes the REL suffix; the possessed noun appears as Indirect Object after the preposition:

ná:=† wíl-(a)t ?a=† ?áttkùn==i
 who=NC do-REL PREP=NC net DM-this-0

Who owns this net? Who does this net belong to? Who had this net made? (etc.)

Naah! wilit ah! aat tguni?

ni -ki: t ná: cə wil-(ə)t ?a=\ ?á.t t kùn==i
not-INTS DM who IRR net-REL PREP=DC DM this==0

Does anyone own this net?

Does this net belong to anyone?

Nigitnaa ji wilit ahl aat tguni?

• nin=4 wil-(a)t lot==a
me=NC do-REL IND 3==0

Does it belong to you?

Niinh! wilit loods?

The possessor can be the pivot between a main and a relative clause, as in:

• ni:-ti: ni:y co wil-(o)t lo:-t It does not belong to me.
not-INTS IRR me IRR do-REL IND-3 Nidii niiy ji wilit loot.

haniqó:t-ýt <u>Sám</u>=† wìl-(a)t lo:t I thought it belonged to <u>Sam</u>.
thought-1S DM S.=NC do-REL IND-3

Hanilgoodiý t Samhl wilit look

# 4.7.A.2.c. Non-predicative function of relativized PA:

#### 4.7.A.2.c.a. Used as nominal:

A headless relativized nonstative P<sub>A</sub> (with REL suffix) can be used as a nominal argument in a clause, or as head of a noun-phrase, with the meaning, 'one who is .... ing', 'a ....er'. The habitual meaning can be reinforced by the prefix kwi:x-gwiix-(7.1.B.1.b.3.b.):

?á:t-(ə)t fish.with.net-REL

'a/the fisherman' [while fishing]

aadit

siwilá ýinskW-(a)t

teach-REI.

a/the teacher [at work] siwilaayinsewit

 $k^{\mathbf{W}}i:\mathbf{x}-4i\hat{\mathbf{t}}-(a)\mathbf{t}$ 

habitually-(play).ball-REL

a/the ballplayer [habitually]

Ewiix-hlit'it

lì+ks-m+hani:txó:xkW-(a)t

watch,guard-ATTR+table-REL

a/the waiter/waitress [at work] lihlksim-haniitxooxgwit

#### Sentence examples:

?akú t(ə)-yá ł lìłks-m+haňi:txò:xkW-(ə)t what 3E-say=NC watch, guard-ATTR+table-REL

What did the waitress say?

Agu diyah! lihlksim-haniitzoozgwit?

• ta:tim?ukWs=hamáqskW-[t]=timqa-?a:t-(a)t by now FUT outward-head s.w.PL-{3}=NC FUT PL-fishnet-REL The [seasonal] fishermen are going to head to sea [it is the fishing season]. Hisa dim ukwshamakskwhi dim ga'aadit.

The REL suffix is used on some locational nouns as well, to form words with this function:

timlá:n-(a)t.

'skipper'

stern (of a boat)-REL

t'imlaanit

timcé q-(a)t

'bowman'

bow (of a boat)-REL

t'imts'eegat

A relativized predicate may be accompanied by a circumstantial element:

lu:=wil-(a)t cim post

'the occupants of the boat'
(the ones that are in the boat)

luuwilit ts'im boot

lu:=hitkW-(a)t qaltimwó.t in=stand-REL store

'a/the storekeeper, store employee'
(one who is standing in the store)

luuhitgwit galdimwoot'

# 4.7.A.2.c.2. Attributive function of relativized PA:

In this type of construction, the downshifted predicate takes the REL suffix, but there is no preposing of the nominal. The connective =1 -hI is used between predicate and nominal. Only non-determinate nominals can enter in this construction.

The downshifted relativized predicate gives Definite meaning to the nominal, as opposed to the Attributive suffix which indicates Indefinite meaning.

## 4.7.A.2.c.2.a. With numeral:

A numeral can be included as part of a noun-phrase. Compare the following sentences:

- predicate-focused clause with numeral in A noun-phrase:
- ?al)?álkax=† paqatìl-[t]=† ha.nád Two women talked.

  talk.PL-[3]=NC two(psons)=NC woman.PL Al'algazhi bagadilhi haanak
- Focus on entire noun-phrase: relativized main predicate:

paqatil-[t]=†ha:náq=†?al?álkax-(a)t There were two women talking.
two (psons) -[3]=NC woman.PL=NC talk.PL-REL Bagadilh! haanak'hl al'algarat.

- Predicate-focused clause, relativized downshifted predicate (numeral) in noun-phrase:

?al?álkax=paqatìl-(a)t=1 ha:náq The two women talked.

talk.PL=NC two...-REL=NC woman.PL Al'algaghi bagadilithi haanak'.

- Focus on noun-phrase incorporating relativized downshifted predicate; main predicate also relativized:

paqatìl (ə)t=+ ha:náq=+ ?al?álkax-(ə)t two...-REL=NC woman.PL talk.PL-REL

It was the two women who talked.

Begadilith! haanak h! al'algaget.

- 4.7.A.2.c.2.b. With adjective or intransitive:
- Predicate-focused clause: adjective as part of a noun-phrase:
- ?álkax=1?àlaq-m hanád A brave/angry woman spoke.

  talk=NC determined-ATTR woman Algazhi alagam hanak'.
- Relativized downshifted predicate (adjective):

7álkax=†ka:?àlaq-(ə)t=†hanád The very brave/bravest woman spoke.

talk=NC determined-REL=NC woman

Algazhl k'aa alagathl hanak'.

- Focus on noun-phrase incorporating relativized downshifted predicate; main predicate also relativized:

ka:?àlaq-(ə)t=+ hanáq=+?álkax=(ə)t
talk=NC determined-REL=NC woman

It was a very brave/ the bravest woman who spoke.

K'as alagath! hanak'h! algagat.

Relativized downshifted adjectival predicates are very common in noun-phrases, as in

ka:?à.m-(ə)t=1 háy kW the Holy Spirit most good-REL=NC spirit K'aa Aamith! Haykw

qalksilàk (ə)t=1 nisqá? the Nisgha graduates' get.through.PL-REL=NC Nisgha (the Nisghas who graduated)

galksilagith! Nisga'a

à:m-(a)t=† qapì:-[t]=† winé:x 'the right amount of food' (lit. the good-REL=NC amount-[3]=NC food amount of food that's good)

aamith! gabiih! wineex

4.7.A.3. <u>Focus on Complements</u>: (Indirect Objects and Circumstantial COmplements, not Specified Complements): a subordinator must be used between the anteposed focused element and the rest of the clause.

# 4.7.A.3.a. Focus on the Indirect Object:

An Indirect Object noun introduced by the preposition ?a a (5.18) when unfocused, by the subordinator wil wil (5.16.B.7.) when focused. An Indirect Object pronoun is an Indirect 10:- pronoun (5.9.) when unfocused, an independent  $\tilde{\Pi}i$ -pronoun (5.8) when focused.

# 4.7.A.3.a.1. PAI: intransitive verb with an Indirect Object:

#### Unfocused clause:

- ...(wil)ksaxkińáma?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> a=s [t] <u>Máry</u> (SUB) give.gift-[3]=DC[DM] P. PREP=DC[DM] M.
  - ... (as/when) Peter gave a gift to Mary.
  - ... (wil) ksazgińama'as Peter as Mary.

# ...(Wil)ksaxkinama?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>lo:-t (SUB) give.gift-(3]=DC(DM)P.IND-3

... (as/when) Peter gave a gift to her.

... (wil) ksazginama'as Peter loot.

• ...(Wil)kipé?esk<sup>W</sup>?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter a=s [t] Máry</u> (SUB) wait [3]=DC[DM] P. PREP=DC [DM] M.

... (as/when) Peter waited for Mary (indefinitely).

... (wil) gibe'eskws Peter as Mary.

...(wil) kipé?esk $^{W}$ ?-[t]=s[t]Pèter lo:- $\mathbf{m}$  (SUB) wait[3]=DC[DM] P. IND-1P

... (as/when) Peter waited for us (indefinitely).

... (wil) gibe'eskws Peter loom.

## Focus on I:

ná: wil ksaxkiňáma?-[t]=st<u>Pèter</u>
 who SUB give.gift-[3]=DC[DM]P.

Who did Peter give a gift to?

Naa wil ksagginama'as Peter?

[t] <u>Máry</u> wilksaxkiňáma?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> Peter gave a gift to <u>Mary</u>.
[DM] M. SUB give.gift-[3]=DC[DM] P. Mary vil ksazgiňama as Peter.

**ní**: **y** wilksaxkináma?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> me SUB give.gift-[3]=DC[DM]P.

Peter gave a gift to <u>me</u>. **Niiý vil** ksagginama'as Peter.

• ná: wil kipé?esk<sup>W</sup>?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> who SUB wait-DC P.

Who did Peter wait for?

Nas wil gibe eskws Peter?

[t] <u>Máry</u> Wilkipé?esk<sup>W</sup>?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> Peter waited for <u>Mary</u>.
[DM] M. SUB wait [3]=DC[DM] P. Mary vil gibe eskws Peter.

**nít wil** kipé?esk<sup>W</sup>?-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> h. SUB wait[3]=DC[DM]P.

Peter waited for her.
Nit wil gibe eskws Peter.

4.7.A.3.a.2. PEAI: transitive verb with an Indirect Object: (examples of both predicate-focused and regular clauses):

• kińám-ə-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=4 čiksná?aqs?a=s [t] <u>Máry</u> give.s.-CTL-[3]=DC(DM) P.=NC bracelet PREP=DC(DM) M.

Peter gave Mary a/the bracelet.

Ginamis Peterhl ts'iksna'aks as Mary.

kińám-ə-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=ł ciksná?aqslo:-ỷ give.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] P.=NC hracelet IND-1S.

Peter gave me a/the bracelet.

Gińamis Peterhl ts'iksna'aks looy.

... (wil)-t kinám-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u>=† čiksná?aqs?a=s[t] <u>Máry</u> (SUB)-3E give.s.-[3]=DC[DM] P.=NC bracelet PREP=DC[DM] M.

... (as/when) Peter gave Mary a/the bracelet.

... (wil)t gińams Peterhl ts'iksna'aks as Mary.

• fálp-ə-t=f qaltú:x ?a=f haqúf-t
whittle.s.-CTL-3=NC horn.spoon PREP=NC knife-3

She whittled the horn spoon, with her knife (8.9)

Halbithl k'aldung and hak obls.

... (wil)-t  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\frac{$ 

(SUB)-3E whittle.s.-[3]=NC horn.spoon PREP=NC knife-3

... (as/when) she whittled the horn spoon, with her knife.

...(wil)t hlalphi k'alduuz ahi hak'ohit.

... (wil)-t dálp-[t]=d daltú:x lo:-t
(SUB)-3E whittle.s.-[3]=NC horn.spoon INDe-3

... (as/when) she whittled the horn spoon, with it.
... (wil)t hlalph! k'alduux loot.

#### Focus on I:

• **ná**: **wil**-tkiňám-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=4čiksná?aqs who SUB-3E give.s.-[3]=DC(DM) P.=NC bracelet

Who did Peter give a/the bracelet to?

Nas wilt ginams Peterhl ts'iksna'aks?

[t] <u>Máry</u> wil-tkiňám-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=†čiksná?aqs [DM] M. SUB-3E give.s.-[3]=DC[DM] P.=NC bracelet

Mary will ginams Peterbl to iksna'aks.

Peter gave 2/the bracelet to Mary.

**nít wil**-tkinám-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=†ciksná?aqs h. SUB-3E give.s.-[3]=DC(DM) P.=NC bracelet

Nit wilt ginams Peterhl to iksna'aks.

That's who Peter gave a/the bracelet to.

• ?akú wil-t łálp-[t]=ł hanàd=ł daltú:x what SUB-3E whittle.s.-[3]=NC woman=NC horn.spoon

What did the woman whittle the horn spoon with?

Agu wilt hlalphi hanak'hi k'alduux?

haqui-t wil-t falp-[t]=f hanàq=f qaltu:x knife-3 SUB-3E whittle.s.-[3]=NC woman=NC horn.spoon

The woman whittled the horn spoon with her knife.

Hak okit wilt hisiphi hanak hi k'alduux.

ní-[t]=4 wil-t dalp-[t]=4 hanàq=4 qaltú:x 19
that's-[3]=NCSUB-3E whittle.s.-[3]=NC woman=NC horn.spoon

That's what the woman whittled the horn spoon with.

Nihl wilt hlalph! hanak'h! k'alduux.

The same construction applies to the Indirect Object of a Jussive verb (framed with  $k^{\mathbf{W}}$ in-...T gwin...-di, 7.3.A.2.a.1.), which is the semantic agent:

• ná: mə tim wil kWin-quc-T-[t]=qis-n who 2E FUT SUB JUSS-cut.s.-DEF-[3]=NC hair-2S

Who are you getting to cut your hair?

(lit. by whom are you getting your hair cut)

(Fr. Par/chez qui vas-tu te faire couper les cheveux?)

Nes mi dim vil gwin-k'ojihl gesic?

(?)Édith no tim wil kWin-quc-T-[t] I am having Edith cut it.

E. 1S.E FUT SUB JUSS-cut.s.-DEF-[3] I am having it cut by Edith.

(Fr. Je vais les faire couper par/chez Edith.)

Edith ni dim wil gwin-k'ojit.

Compare with -the predicate-focused construction:

 $tim k^{W}in-\dot{q}\acute{u}c-T-\partial-\dot{y}?a=s[t]$  (?)Édith FUT JUSS-cut.s.-DEF-CTL-1S PREP=DC [DM] E.

I'll have Edith <u>cut</u> it.
(Fr. Je vais les faire couper,
par/chez Edith.)

Dim gwin-k'otsdi**y** as Edith.

## 4.7.A.3.b. Focus on a circumstantial complement:

A circumstantial complement that is anteposed through focusing requires a subordinator between it and the rest of the clause. Which subordinator is used depends on the semantic content of the complement (see INDEFINITE PRONOUNS, 5.6. and SUBORDINATORS, 5.16., for more examples).

4.7.A.3.b.1. A complement referring to <u>Cause</u> requires the subordinator **Qan** cause, reason why, therefore <u>gan</u> (5.16.B.1.), which introduces a consequence:

• ?akù qan intx-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> Why is/was Peter mad? what reason mad-[3]=DC [DM] P. Agu gan hlints Peter?

In the answer, the focused constituent giving the reason is often a clause rather than a nominal. In the following example, the focused nominal before Qan gan is the focused causal complement of the second clause, which is the Object of the preceding predicate:

ki:-tqamqaytwilaax-[t]=s[t]txe:msim
 and-3E as.it.is know.s.-[3]=DC[DM]T.

t loqapu:lá: qan  $k^W$ ó: $k^W-[t]=1$ ?ks==ki:
DM L. therefore lost-[3]=NC water==DISTAL

Actually, Treemsim knew that
it was because of Logabuulaa that the water had disappeared. (18.4-7)

Kiit L'amgayt wilaars Treemsim t Logabuulaa gan kw'ootkwhl aks-gi.

4.7.A.3.b.2. A complement referring to <u>place</u> requires the subordinator **Wil** will which can be translated here as 'where' (5.16.B.7.)

• ntá wil cóq-n Where do you live? which way SUB stay-2S Nda wil jogan?

• ta: hux w kil-[t]=t wilp wil mitkw-[t]=t k walkw-atxùx now again one-[3]=NC house SUB plentiful-[3]=NC dry-LINK halibut

The dried halibut now filled yet another house (176.1-2)

(lit. there was now one more house where dried halibut was plentiful)

Hiss hux k ilhi vilp wil mitkwhi gwalgwa tzoz.

4.7.A.3.b.3. A complement referring to time also requires the subordinator Wil wit:

kaxkú wil lu yáltk<sup>W</sup>-n
 when? SUB come.back-2S
 When did you come back?
 Gaxgu wil luuyaltgwin?

CƏ kaxkútim wil lu yáltk<sup>W</sup>-n When are you coming back?

IRR when? FUT SUB come back-2S (Ji) gazgu dim wil luuyaltgwin?

• (cə) kaxkúmə tim wil kWin-quc-[t]=qis-n (IRR) when? 2E FUT SUB JUSS-cut.s.-[3]=NC hair-2S

When are you going to have your hair cut?

(Ji) gazgu mi dim wil gwin-k'otshl gesin?

hani:yé:qnə tim wil kWin-quc-t Saturday ISE FUT SUB JUSS-cut.s.-3

I am having it cut on <u>Saturday</u>.

Haniiyook ni dim wil gwin-k'otst.

Unlike Wil, the subordinator ?i: ii (5.16.B.5.) links a clause with temporal meaning with another clause, but it does not follow a time complement.

4.7.A.3.b.4. The expression of manner requires the subordinator Wila: 'how' wiles (5.16.B.8.) However, manner is expressed not by a complement but by a higher predicate, occurring before the subordinator, as in:

• ?á:m wila: Wíl-n==a How are you? (lit. are you well?)
good how be,do-2S==Q Aam wiles wilina?

(For more examples see 5.16.B.8.).

# 4.7.B. SPECIFIED COMPLEMENT.

Specified Complements occur with a small number of predicates (P(E)(A)Sc), most of which are verbs of saying. The Specified Complement is normally in first position. The other elements of the sentence are placed in the normal order for their clause type. When these other elements are focused, the Specified Complement is displaced from its initial position and usually appears after the preposition ?a a, leading to confusion between this Complement and an Indirect Object in some cases.

# 4.7.B.1. The Specified Complement is normally anteposed:

4.7.B.1.a. PASc:

4.7.B.1.a.1. Noun: Wấ wa 'name': <sup>17</sup> Note that for the question asking the name of a person (or pet animal), the interrogative pronoun is Nấ: 'who?' Nas, corresponding to the actual name used in the answer.

• [t] ná:=† Wá-n (==0st) (Hey) what's your name?

[DM] who=NC name-2S-(AFF) Nash! wan(is)?

[t] ná:=4 wà-[t]=s [t] nó:n What's your mother's name?

[DM] who =NC name-[3]=DC [DM] mother.2S Nach! was noon?

[t] ná:=† hu)wà-[t]=†?ankikátkW-n What are your parents' names?
[DM] who=NC PL)name-[3]=NC parents-2S Nach! huwah! angigatgwin?

• [t] <u>Máry</u>=4 wà-ỷ (My name is) <u>Mary</u>.

[DM] M. =NC name-iS **Mary**hl waý.

[DM] L.=NC nam-3 (Her name is) Lucy

[DM] L.=NC nam-3

[DM] Lucyhl wat.

When asking about a person's name, it is not correct to answer with the name alone. But when asking about an object, only the question includes the word Wá 'name' wa. The answer is the name of the object.

?akú=¹ wà-[t]=s [t] kùni
 what=NC name-[3]=DC[DM] this.Q

What is this? (lit. what is the name of this?)

Aguhl was guni?

łáku:xk<sup>W</sup>

- [It's] a spoon-carving tool.

spoon-carving tool

- Hlagyuuxkw.

4.7.B.1.a.2. <u>Intransitive</u>: This category of predicates consists of the passives of the transitive verb SiWá-tT to name s. siwa-(t)di. The answer has the same structure as the question, i.e. it includes the verb.

4.7.B.1.a.2.a. SiWátkW 'to be called/named (by a specific name)' (e.g. individual rivers, mountains, villages, nations, etc., which have received individual names) siwatkw:

• 7akú=4 siwátkW-[t]=4 qali?àkstkùst==i what=NC named-[3]=NC river DM that==0

What is that river called?

Aguhl siwatkwhl k'alii'aks tgusdi?

**lísims=†** siwátk<sup>W</sup>-t

- (It's called) the Nass River.

Nass=NC named-3 - Lisimshl siwatkwt.

4.7.B.1.a.2.b. SiWátkWS 'to be called (by a common word)' (e.g. animals, plants, natural features, etc. which only have generic names) siwatkws:

• ?akú=† siwátkWs-[t]=† càkWiskW t kùst==i what=NC called-[3]=NC animal DM that==0

What is that animal called?

Aguhl siwatkwshl jakw iskw tgusdi?

 $7\dot{a}x^{W}t=1$  siwatk  $^{W}s-t$ 

- (It is called) a porcupine

porcupine=NC called-3

- Azwthi siwatkwst.

4.7.B.1.b. PEASc: Only Siwá-tT to name s. siwa -(t)di occurs in the full range of PEASc constructions. A few other verbs use this construction for the most common questions they occur in, but a PEAI structure for most answers.

4.7.B.1.b.1 SIWá-tT to name s' siwa -(t)di:

• [t] ná: mə siwà-tT-[t]=4 4kú:4kW-n
[DM] who 2E name.s.-DEF-[3]=NC child-2S

What [name] did you name your child?

Name mi siwadihl hlguuhlgwin?

Láura nəsiwà-tT-t

(I named her) Laura.

L. ISE name.s.-DEF-3

Laura ni siwadit.

Péter tip siwà-tT-t

We named him Peter.

P. 1P.E name.s.-DEF-3

Peter dip siwadit.

• <u>Péter</u>t siwà-tT-[t]=s[t] <u>Màry</u>=+ +kú:+kW-t P. 3E name.s.-DEF-[3]=DC[DM] M.=NC child-3

Mary named her child Peter.

Potor t siwadis Maryhl hlguuhlkwt.

• ?akù məsiwá-tT-[t]=s[t]kùn?a=+sim?álkax what 2E name.s.-DEF-[3]=DC[DM] this PREP=NC N.lang.

What do you call this in Nisgha?

Agu mi siwadis gun ahl sim'algag?

#### 4.7.B.1.b.2. Other verbs:

4.7.B.1.b.2.a. hiks: 'to say "..." to s.' (person A); to call s. a "..."

• ?akú mə hìks-[t]=+ +kú:+kW-n What did you say to your child? what 2E say.s.to.s.-[3]=NC child-2S Agu mi hikshi higuuhigwin?

?akú mə hìks-[t]=4 4ki-n what 2E say.s.to.s.-[3]=NC children-2S What did you say to your children?

Agu mi hikshi higin?

• kiló - nə híks-t I said to him/her: "Don't!"

Don't! - 1S E say.s.to.s - 3 "Gilo!" ni hikst.

kóm-sim-nə híks-ti:t I said to them: "Gc ahead!"
Go.ahead!-2P - ISE say.s.to.s -3P

"Gomsim!" ni hiksdiit.

• ?akúthíks-nthòn What did your mother say to you? what 3E ....-2S DM mother 2S Agut hiksin t noon?

4.7.B.1.b.2.b. kin 'to give s.o. a food (to eat then, or later)' gin:

• ?akúmə kìn-[t]=? ?úS-n What [food] do/did you give your dog? what 2E feed.s.to.s.-[3]=NC dog-2S Agu mi ginhl usin?

• ?akú tim-t kín-n t nò:n What [food] will your mother give you? what FUT-3E feed s.to.s.-2S DM mother 2S Agu dimt ginin t noon?

4.7.3.1.c. PESc: ...yá/...hí:-ta'to say "..." (sg/pi) (used to report actual words) ...ya/... hiida:

This one verb is a morphological and syntactic oddity. It has a Specified Complement, not in addition to other elements of the sentence, but, it seems, instead of an A. Some syntactic peculiarities can be explained as attempts to

parallel a structure containing an A.

The Specified Complement is the only Object of this verb. It is always anteposed. The Ergative argument is the E clitic pronoun.

# 4.7.B.1.c.1. Morphology:

Singular		Plural	Plural	
1	nə <b>y</b> á <i>ni ya</i>	_ tip hí:-ta	dip biid <b>s</b>	
2	məyá?an miya'an	mə sim hí:-ta	mi sim hiida	
3	t(ə)- <b>y</b> á <i>diya</i>	t(ə)-hi:-ta	dihiid <b>s</b>	

Note the morphological oddities:

- what appears to be the Causative suffix -7n an (7.2.0.2.b.1.a.1.) on the 25 form only; this is probably related to the imperative meaning (4.7.B.1.c.2.b.);
  - 3E clitic prefixed to the verb, with intervening vowel (unique case);
  - irregular plural  $^{21}$  with -ta-da plural ending (7.2.A.1.c.).

## 4.7.B.1.c.2. Syntax:

#### 4.7.B.1.c.2.a. General use:

?akúnəyá What did I say?
 what ISE say Agu ni ya?
 ?akú tim tip hí:-ta What shall we say?
 what FUT 1PLE say.PL-PL Agu dim dip hiida?

?akú**mə sim hí:-ta** ... 2E 2E.PL say .PL-PL

What did you (pl.) say?

Agu mi sim hisim!

way ?á m - nə yá
 well... good - 1S.E say

I said: "Very well! All right!"

"Way aam", ni yz.

ní - t-(ə)-hí:-ta no 3E-(EP)-say-PL

They said: "No!"

## 4.7.B.1.c.2.b. The second person:

• ?akúməyá-?n what 2E say-CAUS(?)

What did you say?

• "... "məyá-?n ... 2E say-CAUS(?)

In the second person singular, the meaning is imperative (probably because of the causative suffix), except after an interrogative pronoun. It is likely that the use of this suffix has been extended to the interrogative construction.

4.7.B.1.c.2.c. The third person: In the third person, an adjunct nominal co-referring with the E pronoun may or may not be present in the clause (note that this noun has secondary stress, as do E-adjuncts generally):

?akùt-(ə)-yá
 what 3E-(EP)-say

What did she say?

Agu diya?

?akùt-(ə)-yát nò:n
 what 3E-(EP)-say DM mother.2S

What did your mother say?

Agu diya t noon?

?akù t-(ə)-yá i kàt what 3E-(EP)-say NC man

What did the man say?

Agu diyahl gat?

• ?akùt-(ə)-hí-ta tipkùst==i What did those people say? who: 3E-say-PL DM.PL that==0 Agu dihiida dip gusdi?

In all other cases of determinates co-referring with E pronouns, the determinate connective (DC) =S -s (6.2.B.) is used between the verb and the determinate noun, as in:

• yukW-tkipá-[t]=s [t] <u>Pèter t Máry</u> Peter is waiting for Mary.

PROG-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC P. DM M.

Yukwt gibas Peter t Mary.

Here there is no connective, and the singular or plural determinate marker is used alone. It would be ungrammatical 22 to say

\*?akút-(ə)-yà=s [t]nón What did your mother say?
...=DC [DM] mother.2S \* Agu diyas noon?[wrong]

But note that the connective is used only after verbal forms which include the 3 suffix pronoun -t (even if it usually deleted before the connective, see discussion in 4.3.B.). As yá/\_hí:ta ...ya/...hiida never takes this suffix, it does not take the connective either.

(For non-determinate nouns, the difference between the two constructions is not apparent, since the non-determinate connective  $=\frac{1}{2}$  -h/ fulfills the functions of both connective (6.2.B.1.) and determinate marker (6.2.B.2.a.)).

4.7.B.1.c.2.d. The first person: in both singular and plural, most older speakers add an independent pronoun co-referent with the E pronoun (as also in Boas):

• ?akúnə yá nì: y What did I say?
what IS E say me Agu ni ya nii y?

• ?akú tim tip hí:-ta nu:m What shall we say?
what FUT 1P.E-say-PL us Agu dim dip hiida nuum?

• ?akú==(y)əma?nə tim yá ř.ì:ÿ I wonder what I am going to say.
what==DUB IS.E FUT say me What ever shall I say?

Aguyima'a ni dim ya ñiiÿ?

This use is probably related to the 3rd person use described above in c. In both cases, the noun or pronoun co-referring with the E pronoun is left unconnected to the verb, a unique case with transitive verbs in regular clauses (for normal transitive constructions see 4.3.B.3.). However, this lack of suffixation to the verb is characteristic of the Absolutive argument in predicate-focused clauses (4.4.B.2.). It seems that speakers feel that a sentence ending in a transitive verb alone is not complete, and they complete the sentence with a word that is grammatically independent although semantically co-referent with the E pronoun.

4.7.B.2. Behavior of the Specified Complement when other constituents are focused.

4.7.B.2.a. Focusing of A in clauses containing a Specified Complement: the Sc is normally anteposed; if another element of the clause is focused, it moves into initial position, taking the place of the Sc; the latter then moves to final position, after the preposition ?a . Other details of the clause remain as usual.

4.7.B.2.a.1. PASc:

4.7.B.2.a.1.a. Noun: Wa 'name' wa

Unfocused clause:

• [t] <u>Máry</u>=1 wà-[t]=s[t] nó:ỷ [DM] M.=NC name-[3]=DC[DM] mother.1S

My mother's name is Mary.

Maryhi was nooý.

Focused A:

## (initially)

• [t] nó:y=4 wà-(a)t ?a=s[t] <u>Màry</u> Mary is <u>my mother's</u> name.

[DM] mother:1S=NC name-REL PREP=DC[DM] M. Nooyhl wat as Mary.

#### (in relative clause)

tqalwa-tT-o-m-4hanaq We met a woman...

meet.s.-DEF-CTL-1P=NC woman

Tk alwatdimhl hanak;

wà-(ə)t ?a=s <u>Máry</u>
name-REL PREP=DC M.

...named/by the name of Mary.
... wat as Mary.

# 4.7.B.2.a.1.b. Intransitives (Passives of siwa-tT siwa-t)di)

#### Unfocused clause:

- lisims=4 siwatkW-[t]=4qali:?aks-mnisqa?

  Nass.River=NC named-[3]=NC river-ATTR Nisghas

  The Nisghas' river is called the Nass.

  Lisimsh! siwatkwh! k'alii'aksim Nisga'a...

This animal is called a porcupine.

Aswth! siwatkwsh! jakw iskw tgun.

#### Focused A:

## (initially)

• ?akú=\siw\atkW-(\text{a})t ?a=\frac{1}{2} lisims \frac{\text{What}}{\text{ is (called) the Nass?}} \frac{\text{What}}{\text{ is (mainly lisims } ?}

• ?akú=†siwàtkWs-(a)t ?a=† ?áxWt 20 What's a 'porcupine'?
what=NC named-REL PREP=NC porcupine What's meant by 'a porcupine'?

Aguhl siwatkwsit ahl "axwt"?

(in relative clause)

• Wá-tit=† qali:?áks(=†)

reach.s.-3P=NC river-(NC)

They reached a/the river ...

Wadiith! k'alii'aks(h!)...

siwatk<sup>W</sup>-(a)t?a=1 lisims ...called the Nass.

named-REL ...... ...siwatgwit ahl Lisims.

•  $\mathring{\Pi} := \mathring{W} \acute{a} - \mathring{t} : \mathring{t} = \mathring{t} \acute{a} \mathring{k} \mathring{W} i S \mathring{k} \mathring{W} (= \mathring{t})$  They came across the/an animal... on-reach s.-3P=NC animal-(NC) Niiwadiith1 jakw iskw(h1)...

siWátk<sup>W</sup>s-(a)t ?a=1 ?áx<sup>W</sup>t ....called a "porcupine".
called-REL .... porcupine ....siwatkwsit ahl axvt.

4.7.B.2.a.2. P<sub>EASc</sub>:

4.7.B.2.a.2.a. Siwá-tT 'to name s.' (see above for details) siwa-(t)di

Unfocused clause:

• 7akú tip siwá-tT-[t]=†cákWiskW t kùn==i 23 what 1P E name.s.-DEF-[3]=NC animal DM this==0

What [name] do we call this animal?

Agu dip siwadihl jakw'iskw tguni?

?áxWt tip siwá-tT-[t]- We call it a porcupine.porcupine 1PE name.s.-DEF-3- "Axvt" dip siwadit.

Focused A (Object): in relative clause:

kíl-[t] wil yé:-[t]=+ cákWiskW one-[3] SUB go-[3]=NCanimal

A kind of animal,...

K'il wil yeehl jakw'iskw.

siwá-tT-ə-m ?a=1 ?áx Wt ....what we call a 'porcupine.'
name.s.-DEF-CTL-1P PREP=NC porcupine .... siwatdim ah1 "axvt."

4.7.B.2.a.2.b. hiks to say s.t. to <u>s.o.</u>' hiks and kin to give <u>s.o.</u> a food gin (cf. 4.7.B.1.b.2.) behave like PEAI's, not PEASc's when focusing their A's; the Specified Complement appears after the preposition, like an Indirect Object, and the rest of clause is an ordinary transitive clause with focused A (4.7.A.2.a.1.):

- [t] ná = † kìn ə n ?a=† hố:n Who did you give fish to?

  [DM] who=NC give s.food-CTL-2S PREP=NC fish

  Nashi ginin shi hoon?
- [t] ná:=† hìks-\(\pa\)-n ?a=\(\frac{1}{2}\) k\(\frac{1}{2}\): \(\frac{1}{2}\) Who did you call a liar?

  [DM] who=NC say.s.to.s.-CTL-2S PREP=NC habitual-lie

Naahl hiksin ahl gwiix-biikw'?

# 4.7 B.2.b. Focusing of E in clauses containing a Specified Complement:

The Specified Complement appears after the preposition, like an Indirect Object, and the rest of clause is an ordinary transitive clause with focused E (4.7.A.1.):

- [t] ná: t?an siwà-tT-[t]=4 4ku kát t kùs(t)?a=s[t] <u>Cúthbert</u>
  [DM] who 3E RELE name.s.-DEF-[3]=NC little man DM that PREP=DC [DM] C.

  Who named that little boy Cuthbert?

  Naat an siwadihi higu gat tgus as Cuthbert?
- [t] ná:-t?an híks-n?a=1 kWi:x-pí:kW Who called you a liar?

  [DM] who-3E REL.E say.s.to.s.-2S PREP=NC habitual-lie

  Naat an hiksin ahl gwiiz-biikw?

- [t] <u>Péter</u>-t?an kin-[t]=s[t] nó.ŷ?a=ł hó:n

  [DM] P.-3E RELE give.s.food-[3]=DC [DM] mother.1S PREP=NC fish

  [It was] <u>Peter</u> [who] gave my mother fish.

  Peter tan gins nooŷ ahl hoon.
- [t] <u>Péter</u>-t?an híks-ỷ?a=**† kW**i:**x**-pí:**kW**[DM] P-T-3E REL.E say.s.to.s.-1S PREP=NC habitual-lie

  [It was] <u>Peter</u> [who] called me a liar.

  Peter t an hiksiỷ ahl gwiix-biikw:

#### NOTES TO CHAPTER 4

- In the literature on ergativity (e.g., Dixon 1979), the trichotomy Subject/Agent/Object replaces the dichotomies Subject/Object and Agent/Patient. The term Agent is used in a grammatical sense, not a thematic one, and refers to what would ordinarily be called the subject of a transitive verb, the term Subject being reserved for the subject of an intransitive verb.
- <sup>2</sup> In this study the definition of ergativity is the traditional one found in Kurylowicz, Comrie, Dixon, and many other serious students of Ergative-type languages, not the highly divergent definition more recently put forward by Marantz (1981) and Levin(1983), which seems to be based more on theoretical considerations than on in-depth familiarity with languages of the Ergative type.
- <sup>3</sup> As there is no pronominal A argument in this type of clause, a nominal with the A role cannot strictly speaking be called an 'adjunct', so it is referred to simply as an A-nominal for lack of a better term.
- <sup>4</sup> Because of this alternation with an ?a prepositional phrase, which corresponds to English structure, there is a modern tendency to shift to this use of the Sc except with a few verbs or even a few uses of these verbs.
- <sup>5</sup> What in English would be expressed by Manner adverbials is indicated in Nisgha either by modifiers or proclitics as part of the predicate phrase, or by a higher predicate followed by the subordinator wila: 'how' wilaa (5.16.8.8.).
- <sup>6</sup> For a fuller discussion see Tarpent 1987.
- <sup>7</sup> That the deleted pronominal clitics are the ones occurring before, not after, the modal particles suggests that more is involved in the order of these elements than just their phonological shape (6.1.a.1.c.).
- <sup>8</sup> Similarly in French, an Object pronoun referring to an inanimate object can be omitted from a transitive imperative if the referent is in the context of situation, as in

Prenez! take.IMP.2PL

Take it! Take some!

which can only be said when actually handing a person something, as opposed to:

Pronoz-lo/ ...-OBJ.MASC Take it!

Preaez-ea!

Take some!

which refer to an object that has been already mentioned in the linguistic context.

- $^{9}$  called 'independent order clause' in previous work by Rigsby, Tarpent and others.
- $^{10}$  As **h6:n-tk** one's fish' *hoontk* is a mass noun here, the verb stem is not plural.
- 11 A third person singular form **nit** exists, but is rarely used in normal speech except for focusing; it can however occur especially in translations of English sentences which have an obligatory pronoun; see Tarpent 87.
- 12 The obligatory use of the 3P pronoun, as in this example, seems relatively recent. In the Boas tales the plural stem of the verb is usually sufficient to indicate the number of the Subject, as in

lu:=yil)yáltk<sup>W</sup> in=PL)turned

They went back (206.11)

Luuyilyaltkw (now Luuhilyaltkw).

However, since not all verbs have separate plural stems, the plural pronoun is sometimes necessary to prevent ambiguity.

- $^{13}$  A downshifted verbal  $P_{A}$  has the same structure:
- $tim kax qó?-\partial-y=tim xko:\underline{f}i-y$  I'll just get myself some coffee. FUT just.now go.get.s.-CTL-1S=NC FUT drink.coffee-1S

Dim k'az go'oyhl dim zkoofiiy.

- $^{14}$  I am grateful to Mrs. Shirley Adams of Aiyansh for first bringing the ambiguity of this phrase to my attention.
- 15 Among YFS the order ?an t an t is more common than t ?an tan, except after interrogative pronoun. As the 3E pronoun t tends to merge

phonologically with a following dental stop or affricate, many YFS use only 7an an, which is sufficient to indicate the ergative status of the focused element.

16 Some people use wi 'name' wa after the interrogative ?akú 'what' agu in this type of clause; this seems to be especially common in Greenville. The answer does not include wi 'name' wa. Example:

?akú=† wà=†ki)kíp-\text{\text{o}}-n==\text{\text{o}}st \ \text{what are you eating?} \ \text{what is it you are eating?} \ \text{Aguhl wahl gigibinis?}

17 in this example the predicate is the word **halayt** 'shaman' halayt which is usually a noun; here it is used as an intransitive verb.

<sup>18</sup> The predicative **wil** wil, which can be used as a noun or verb, should not be confused with the Subordinator **wil** wil (5.16.B.7.) which is always unstressed and never takes a suffix.

Note the difference between the  $\tilde{\mathbf{n}}$ i-pronouns for humans and inanimates; for humans, the 3 suffix -t is considered an integral part of the pronoun and is retained even before the connective = $\frac{1}{2}$ ; for inanimates, it is not, and appears on the surface only before postclitics, as in

nit==a?=1 qan wil-t

that's....3==ASST=NC therefore be,do-3

Nida'ahl gan wilt!

With only these examples of the use of wi 'name' wa it would be difficult to say with certainty which is the clause predicate: whether it is the noun wi wa, with focused Specified Complement, or the name or interrogative pronoun in normal predicative position. That wi wa is indeed the clause predicate is suggested by analogy with the other constructions with Specified Complements described in the following sections, and by its behavior when the A noun in the clause is focused, see below 4.7.B.2.

<sup>21</sup> For the derivation of the singular and plural stems from a single historical form, by regular rules, see Tarpent 1983b.

22 But =s -s is occasionally used with this construction in Boas 1902, showing confusion with regular transitive verbs.

- 23 As with other cases of similar constructions, some YFS confuse and amalgamate features of questions about naming, producing such sentences as
- \* ?akú tip siwá-tT-[t]=†?a=†?áx<sup>W</sup>t What do we call axwt? what 1P.E name.s.-DEF-[3]=NC PREP=NC porcupine \* Agu dip siwadihl ahl 'axwt'? [wrong]

#### PART II

### CHAPTER 5: WORD-CLASSES

Nisgha words can be classified into predicatives (which can take the predicate role in a clause) and non-predicatives. In the following list, predicatives are listed first, starting with  $P_{EA}$ 's (transitive verbs), followed by  $P_A$ 's: intransitive verbs, adjectives, numerals, nouns, and pronouns, the latter comprising indefinite, demonstrative and independent pronouns. Indirect pronouns are included with the other pronouns although they cannot be clause predicates. Next come the minor predicates: ambients and interjectives, followed by the auxiliary and negative verbs. Among the non-predicatives are listed adverbs, modifiers, subordinators, conjunctions and the preposition ?a

# 5.1. TRANSITIVE VERBS (PFA's).

Transitive verbs take one Ergative and one Absolutive argument; some also take a Specified Complement. They are normally used as clause predicates, but can also be nominalized by downshifting together with their Absolutive argument.

#### 5.1.A. Use as clause predicate:

#### 5.1.A.1. In regular clause:

5.1.A.1.a. The verb is preceded by an E clitic pronoun (and the Relative Ergative pronoun in a relative clause) and followed by an A suffix pronoun; if the latter is the 3 suffix -t, it is obscured by the consonant-deletion rule (10.2.A.2.b.1.(c)) if it is directly followed by a connective (6.2.B.); it occurs on the surface if a postclitic (6.3.) intervenes:

• wil-t náksk<sup>W</sup>-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> t <u>Máry</u> ... as/when Peter married Mary. SUB marry.s.-[3]=DC[DM] P. DM M. ... wilt nakskws Peter t Mary.

ná:?an-t nákskW-[t]=s[t] Máry who REL.E-3E marry.s.-{3}=DC [DM] M.

Who married Mary?

Naa ant nakskws Mary?

- wil-t cáp-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u>=† má:l
   SUB-3E make.s.-[3]=DC [DM] P.=NC canoe
- ... as/when Peter built the canoe.
- ... wilt japs Peterhl maal.

wil-t cáp-t==qa[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=+ má:l SUB-3E make.s.-3==REP=DC(DM)P.=NC canoe

... as/when (they say)

Peter built the canoe.
... wilt japt-gas Peterhi maal.

na wilcáp-[t]=† máil ISESUB make.s.-[3]=DC canoe

... as/when I built the canoe.

ná:?an-t cáp-{t}-† má:l
who RELE-3E make.s.-[3]=NC canoe

Who built the canoe?

Naa ant japh! maa!?

... ai wil japhl maal.

• wil-**t** łimó:m-**ỷ** 

... as/when she helped me.

SUB-3E help.s.-1S

... wilt hlimoomiy.

ná:?an-t imó:m-n
who RELE-3E help.s.-2S

Who helped you?

Naa ant hlimoomin?

5.1.A.1.b. The Definite Medial (DEF) suffix (-T) is used with some transitive verbs (7.2.C.1.a.);

- it appears under the phonological shape  $/\partial / i/a$  between consonants:
- wil-tcákW-T-[t]=s[t]cák=ł wi:likíńskW
   SUB-3E kill.s.-DEF-[3]=DC [DM] Ts.=NC big grizzly

... as Ts'ak killed the big grizzly.

... wilt jagwis Ts'akhl wii lik'ińskw.

ná:?an-tcákW-T-[t]=4 wì likíńskW SUB-3E kill.s.DEF-[3]=NC big grizzly

Who killed the big grizzly?

Naa ant jagwihl wii lik inskw?

• wil-tqáq-T-[t]=s[t]Pèter=+ ptó?
SUB-3E open-DEF-[3]=DC[DM]=NC door

... as/when Peter opened the door.
... wilt <u>k</u>'agas Peterhl pdo'o.

ná:?an-tqáq-T-[t]=+ptó? who RELE-3E open-DEF-[3]=NC door

Who opened the door?

Naa ant k'agahl pdo'o?

- it appears as  $/t\theta$ / -di between a vowel or resonant and a consonant:

• wil-tyé:-tT-[t]=s<u>Pèter</u>=4 lim?ó:ŷ
sing.s.-DEF-[3]=DC P.=NC funer.song ...as/when Peter sang a funeral song.
... wilt yeedis Peterhl lim'ooŷ.

wil tip yé:-tT-[t]=4 lim?ó:ÿ ... as/when we sang a funeral song.

SUB 1P.E sing.s.-DEF-[3]=DC P.=NC funer.song ... wil dip yeedihl lim'ooÿ.

ná:?an-tyé:-tT-[t]=\fim?ó:\forall Who sang the funeral song? who RELE-2E sing.s.-DEF-[3]=DC P.=NC funer.song Naa ant yeedihl lim oo\forall?

- 5.1.A.1.c. Transitive verbs can be preceded by auxiliary or negative verbs:
- yukW-tcáp-[t]=s[t]Pèter=4 má.l Peter is building a/the canoe.

  PROG-3E make.s.-[3]=DC [DM] P.=NC canoe

  \*\*Pukwt japs Peter ht mas/.
- ni:-ti:-tha:m-nákskW-[t]=s[t]Màry t Péter not-INTS-3E wanting-marry.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M. DM P.

Mary does/did not want to marry Peter.

Nidsit naam-nakskws Mary t Peter.

## 5.1.A.2. In predicate-focused clause:

5.1.A.2.a. All transitive verbs take the Control (CTL) suffix  $\neg \partial \neg i/a$  (7.2.A.3.) before a personal suffix indicating the E argument (the 3 suffix  $\neg \mathbf{t}$  is lost before a connective, through the consonant-deletion rule, 10.2.A.2.b.1.(c)):

cáp-e-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u>=1 má:l
 make.s.-CTL-(3)=DC[DM]P.=NC canoe

Peter <u>built</u> a/the canoe. Jabis Peterhl maal.

cáp-o-t==qa[t]=s[t]Pèter=+ má:l
make.s.-CTL-3==REP=DC[DM]P.=NC canoe

I hear Peter <u>built</u> a/the canoe.

[abit-gas Peterh! maal.

cáp-o-ý=1 má:l
make.s.-CTL-1S=NC canoe

I <u>built</u> a/the canoe.

[abiÿh] maal.

náksk<sup>W</sup>-a-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> t <u>Máry</u>
 marry.s.-CTL-[3]= DC [DM] P. DM M.

Peter married Mary.

Naksgwis Peter t Mary.

timnáksk<sup>W</sup>-ə-n t <u>Máry</u> FUT marry.s.-CTL-2S DM M.

You are going to marry Mary.

Dim naksgwin t Mary.

5.1.A.2.b. The Control suffix is added after the Definite Medial (DEF) suffix (-T) (hence  $-t\partial -di$ ) when that suffix is used:

• cákW-T-a-[t]=s[t]càk=+ wi:liķíńskW kill.s.-DEF-CTL-[3]=DC [DM]Ts.=NC big grizzly

Ts'ak <u>killed</u> the big grizzly.

Jakwdis Ts'akhl wii lik inskw.

dáq-T-a-[t]=s[t]Pèter=1 ptó?
 open-DEF-CTL-[3]=DC[DM]=NCdoor

Peter opened the door.

K'akdis Peterhl pdo'o.

yé-tT-a-[t]=s<u>Pèter</u>=1 lim?ó ŷ
 sing.s-DEF-CTL-[3]=DC P.=NC funer.song

Peter sang a funeral song. Yeetdis Peterhl lim'ooy.

(see 7.2.C.1.b. for more details of the surface realization and use of the suffix  $\{-T\}$ ).

## 5.1.b. Downshifting: nominalization:

Transitive verbs can be nominalized in the frame (7.3.B.1.b.):

where the transitive verb is preceded by the Restrictive particle 10 h1i/h1a (6.1.B.2.) and followed by the Medial suffix -T- before the 3rd person suffix and the connective that links it to its A nominal.

• 10 licx-T-[t]=1sim-?álkax (the) reading (of) Nisgha' the read.s.-DEF-[3]=NC real-talk hii litszahl sim'algaz

• 10 tam-tT-[t]=tsim-?álkax (the) writing (of) Nisgha' the write.s.-DEF-[3]=NC real-talk hli t'amdihl sim'algas

• to ye:-tT-[t]=timx (the) singing (of) a song the sing.s.-DEF-[3]=NC song his yeedihi limx

Remark: See the Remark to 4.5.A.3.b. for the potential ambiguity of some of these constructions.

#### 5.2. INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

5.2.A. Non-statives: (includes Antipassives)

# 5.2.A.1. Normal role as clause predicate:

5.2.A.1.a. In regular clause: intransitives take a personal suffix as argument:

## 5.2.A.1.a.1. Following a subordinator:

• wil ?á:t-t SUB fish.w.net-3

...as/where/when he fished.

... Wil satt.

wil ?á:t-[t]=s[t] Pèter SUB ...-[3]=DC [DM] P.

...as/where/when Peter fished.

... wil aats Peter.

wil ?á:t-n SUB ...-2S

...as/where/when you fished.

...wil aadio.

5.2.A.1.a.2. Following an auxiliary or negative verb, or sometimes an evaluative verb or a verb of going:

AUX: yukW=+ ha+áis[T]-t PROG=NC work-3

S/he is working. Yukwhi hahiaisit.

NEG: ni:-ti: ha+áls[T]-t not-INTS ...

S/he did not work/is not working. Nidii hahlalsit

• ni:-ti:kWił ?á:t-[t]=sPèter not-INTS around see.s.-AP.I-[3]=DC [DM] P. Nidii kw'ihl aats Peter.

Peter did/does not fish.

EVAL: caxW=+ hatals[T]-t considerable=NC ...

S/he works/worked/is working hard. Ts'axwhi hahlaisit

Verb of going:

tá:wi+=[+] ?á:t-t.

He's away fishing.

leave=NC fish.w.net-3

Daswihl autt.

5.2.A.1.a.3. In the morphosyntactic frame (Wit (liki:) [...]-i:) 'looking like...' wit... (ligii)[...]-ii (7.3.B.2.b.):

• wi[t]=4 liki: kWi4 7a:t-t-i:
...=NC about around fish.w.net-3-SUFF

It looked like he was fishing.
Wihl ligii kw'ihl aatdii.

## 5.2.A.1.b. In predicate-focused clause:

• 7á:t t Pèter fish.w.net DM P.

Peter fished.

Ast t Peter.

• 7á:t nì:ỷ fish.w.net me

I fished.

Ast niiÿ.

5.2.A.2. Non-predicative role:

5.2.A.2.a. Can be A in clause:

5.2.A.2.a.1. With PA as predicate:

 haťáxk<sup>W</sup>=† lìlk<sup>W</sup>s bad=NC to.steal

Stealing is a sin.

Hat'arkwhi lilk vs.

# 5.2.A.2.a.2. With $P_{\mbox{EA}}$ as predicate:

wilá:x-ə-n=+ hátik==a
 know-CTL-2S=NC swim==0

Do you know how to swim?

Wilasyinh! hadiksa?

• tə-lim[x]-ə-t=+7**á**:t-t DOM-sing-CTL-3=NCto.fish-3

He sang while fishing.

Dilimith! estt.

5.2.A.2.b. <u>Downshifted</u>: can take the Attributive suffix (-m) in a compound (9.2.A.2.c.):

txò:xkW-m hí:4ukW eat.PL-ATT morning

'breakfast'

5.2.B. <u>Statives</u>: (including Passives): Statives have a slightly more restricted distribution than non-statives (cf. Nouns, 5.5.C.):

## 5.2.B.1. Normally clause predicate:

5.2.B.1.a. <u>In regular clause</u>: follows a subordinator or negative verb, rarely an auxiliary or evaluative verb.

• wil tá:-t SUB sit-3

> wil **tá**:-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> SUB sit-[3]=DC [DM] P.

- ni:-ti: tá:-[t]=s[t]Màry
  not-INT sit-[3]=DC[DM]M.
- ni:-ti: kWi4 ta:-[t] cə t Màry
  not-INT around sit-[3] IRR DM M.
- ni:-huxW-ti: ká?-tkW-[t]=s Pèter not-again-INTS see.s.-PAS-[3]=DC[DM]P.

... as/where/when s/he sat.

... wil t'ast.

... as/where/when Peter sat.

... wil t'aas Peter.

Mary didn't sit.

Nidii t'aas Mary.

Mary isn't/wasn't sitting!

Nidii kw'ihl t'as ji t Mary/

Peter was not seen again.

Nihuxwdii ga alkws Peter.

#### 5.2.B.1.b. In predicate-focused clause:

• tá: nì:ỷ sit me

tá: t <u>Màry</u> ... DM ...

tá:=t hanád

I sat/was sitting.

T'aa hiiy.

Mary sat/was sitting.

T'as t Mary.

The woman sat/was sitting.

T'ash/ hanak'.

5.2.B.2. In non-predicative role: an intransitive verb is not used as the argument of a main predicate: it often has an attributive role to a noun or other downshifted (p. 255 ff.) predicate, with ATTR suffix  $-\mathbf{m}$ :

tqal=tà:-m <u>éngine</u>
against=sit-ATTR ...

'outboard motor'

tk'alt'aam iniin

**kWàcikskW**-mha-ni:=ťá: rock-ATTR INST-on=sit

'rocking chair'

kw'ajiksgum hahiit'aa

## 5.3. ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives share some of their properties with statives and others with numerals.

## 5.3.A. Can be clause predicate:

5.3.A.1. <u>In regular clause</u>: Like stative intransitives, adjectives do not normally follow auxiliary verbs; they follow subordinators or negative verbs:

wil wi:-ñákw-t
 SUB big-long-3

...as s/he is tall.

... wil wii**nakw**t.

wil  $\dot{\mathbf{W}}$ i:- $\dot{\mathbf{M}}\dot{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}$ -[t]=s[t] $\underline{\mathbf{M}}\dot{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{y}$ SUB big-long-3=DC(DM) M.

...as Mary is tall.

... wil wii**nak w**s Mary.

wil wii:-**nákw-**ỷ SUB big-long-1S

... as I am tail.

... wil wiid**ag w**iy.

• ni:-ti: wi:-nákW-[t]=s[t]Màry
not-INT big-long-[3]=DC[DM]M.

Mary is not tall.

Nidii wiinakws Mary.

## 5.3.A.2. In predicate-focused clause:

• wi:-nakw ni:y

I am tall.

big-long me

Viinsky niiy

wi-**nák**₩ t<u>Màry</u>

Mary is tall.

big-long DM M.

Wii**nakw** t Mary.

wi:-**nák**\=\frac{1}{2} hanáq big-long =NC woman

The woman is tall

5.3.A.3. Adjectives can occur in comparative structures with modifier Ka: 'most' k'aa and preposition ?a a:

• ka: wi:-nakw t Mary ?a=s[t] Lúcy most big-long DM M. PREP=DC [DM] L.

Mary is taller than Lucy.

K'aa wiihakw t Mary as Lucy.

5.3.B. In non-predicative function:

5.3.E.1. As Adjuncts: Adjectives are not normally adjuncts, but some can function like abstract nouns as adjuncts to the arguments of evaluative verbs:

• tə)-[tqal=ye]=+ qaymas[t]=[s][t]Mary
ASP)increase=NCyoung-[3]=DC[DM] M.

Mary is [looking] younger and younger.

(lit. Mary's youth is increasing)

Ditk'alyochik'aymas Mary.

5.3.B.2. In downshifted position:

5.3.B.2.a. In downshifted relativized position: (see 4.7.A.2.c.2.)

 ka: wi:-nákw-(a)t=1?ítiskw-1 kí:kw-a-t most big-long-REL=NC necklace=NC buy.s.-CTL-3

S/he bought the longest/a very long necklace.

K'aa wiinegwith! it'iskwh! giigwit.

 kiňám-[t]=+ lo:-m² 7á:m-(ə)t=+ qapì:-[t]=+ winé:x give.s.-[3]=NC IND-1P good-REL=NC amount-[3]=NC food

Give us ... our daily bread <sup>2</sup>
(lit. ... the right amount of food)

Ginamh! loom ... asmith! gabiih! wineex.

# 5.3.B.2.b. Downshifted as attributive to a noun(-phrase):

w≀i:-**ǹàkW**-m hanáq́

'a tall woman'

big-long-ATTR weman

wiinagum hanak'

### 5.4. NUMERALS.

There are four categories of numerals: humans, animals, canoes/boats, etc., other objects (see chart p. 308).<sup>3</sup>

Higher numbers are formed by adding to di/da for units and Wil for tens, thus for instance:

xpíľ-ta-kílþil

'twelve'

ten-...-two

xbil-di-gilp'il

kWilál-wil-káp

'thirty'

three-...-ten

gwilal-wil-k'ap

txálpx-wil-káp-tə-qantólt

forty-eight

four-...-ten-...-eight

txalpx-wil-k'ap-da-gandoolt

	ABSTRACT COUNTING, OBJECTS	ANIMALS, SKINS, GARMENTS	PERSONS	CANOES, BOATS, VEHICLES
1	kil kil	ké:k <sup>W</sup> k'eekw	kó:l k'yool	damé?et kame et
2	kíl <b>þ</b> il <i>gilp'il</i>	tipxá:t <i>t'ip<u>x</u>aat</i>	paqatíl bagadil	qalpé?eltkws galbe'eltkw
3	k <sup>W</sup> ilá] gwilal	k <sup>W</sup> ilán gwilan	k <sup>W</sup> iló:n gwiloon	k <sup>W</sup> ilá <b>ltk<sup>W</sup>s</b> gwila <b>ltkw</b> s
4	txálpx <i>txalpx</i>	txálpx	txalpxtó:l <i>txalpxdool</i>	txálpxk <sup>W</sup> s <i>txalpxkws</i>
5	k <sup>w</sup> stins <i>kwsdias</i>	k <sup>W</sup> stíns	k <sup>W</sup> stinsó:l <i>kwsdinsool</i>	k <sup>w</sup> stínsk <sup>w</sup> s kwsdinskws
6	ἀó:ĺt <i>≰'ooit</i>	₫ó:Ĭt	<b>ἀ</b> o:ĺtó:l <i>k'ooldool</i>	ἀó:[tk₩s <u>k</u> 'ooltkws
7	tipxó:lt <i>t'ipxool</i>	tipxó:lt ⁄⁄	tipxo:ltó:l <i>t'ipxooldool</i>	tipxó:ltk <sup>w</sup> s <i>t'ipxooltkws</i>
8	qant6:It gandooit	<b>ỷ</b> ux <sup>W</sup> tá:lt <i>ÿuxwdaalt</i>	yux <sup>w</sup> ta:lt6:l <i>yuxwdaaldool</i>	qantó:ltk <sup>w</sup> s <i>gandooltkws</i>
9	k <sup>W</sup> stimó:s <i>kwsdim</i>	k <sup>W</sup> stimó:s 100s	kwsdimoosool	k <sup>W</sup> stimó:sk <sup>W</sup> s kwsdimooskws
10	xpíľ <i>xbiľ</i>	káp k'ap	xpó:l	kápk <sup>W</sup> s <i>k'ap</i>

Numerals share some of their syntactic properties with nouns and others with adjectives, as well as having some of their own.

## 5.4.A. Adjective-like properties:

## 5.4.A.1. Can be clause predicate:

## 5.4.A.1.a. In regular clause: after subordinator or negative verb:

Wil dam kó:l-ý
 SUB just one.pson-1S

... as I am alone (lit. ...I am only one).

... wil k'am k'yooliy.

• wil paqatil-{t}=+ +ki-[t]=s[t] Máry two[persons]-[3]=NC child.PL=DC[DM] M.

... as Mary has two children. (lit. ...Mary's children are two)

... wil bagadilh! hlgis Mary.

...wil paqatil-ti:t
SUB two[persons]-3P

... as she has/they are two.

... wil bagadildiit.

• ni:-ti: lu:=paqatil-ti:t not-INTS in=two[persons]-3P

They weren't two [in the car/boat/etc].

Nidii luubagadildiit.

## 5.4.A.l.b. In predicate-focused clause:

 dam kó:l t Màry just onelperson l DM M.

Mary is/was alone.

K'am k'yool t Mary.

qam**kó:**l=4 4kù:4kW-ỷ
just one[person] =NC child-1S

I only have one child.
(lit. my child is just one)

K'am k'yoolh! hlguuhlgwiy.

# 5.4.A.2. In non-predicative role:

Numerals cannot be Adjuncts, but they can be in downshifted position.

# 5.4.A.2.a. In downshifted relativized position:

• paqatil-(ə)t=1 ha:náq the two women' twolpersonsl-REL=NC woman.PL bagadilithi haanak'

• tipxà:t-(a)t=4?as)?ús 'the two dogs' twolanimals)-REL=NC PL)dog t'ipxaadith1 as'us.

## 5.4.A.2.b. With the Attributive suffix - m when followed by a head noun:

• dam kil-m?asáý Only-One-Leg (a character in a story)
only onelobjectl-ATT leg.foot Kam-kilim-Asaý

#### 5.4.B. Noun-like properties:

# 5.4.B.1. A numeral can be downshifted to head of noun-phrase:

• paqatil-[t]=4 4ki-y 'my two children' two[persons]=NC child.PL-1S bagadilhi higiy

(compare with a clause with the numeral as predicate: note the different stress pattern:

wil paqatil-tl-+ +kì-y ...as I have two children. two[persons]-[3]=NC child.PL-1S ... wil bagadilhi hlgiy.)

• kó:1-t 'one [of them]' one(person)-3S k'yoolt

•  $k\hat{\mathbf{u}}[t]=\mathbf{k}\hat{\mathbf{i}}-\mathbf{t}$  Take one. take.s.-[3]=NCone[thing]-3S Guuh[ k'iit. With a numeral meaning 'one', such a phrase is often used with a more indefinite meaning, corresponding to an English article (definite or indefinite according to the context):

kò:1-[t]=+ hanád one(person)-[3]=NC woman

'one woman, a/the woman'

k'yoolh! hanak'

- 5.4.B.2. A numeral with a personal suffix but without a following noun can be preceded by the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla (6.1.B.2.):
- ?á:m==əma? nə tim kip-[t]=**! !ə kil**-t good-PROB 1E FUT eat.s.-[3]=NC the one[thing]-3S

It's probably all right for me to eat one. Maybe I can eat one. Aamima'a ni dim giphl hli k'ilt.

With humans, the particle seems to be used mostly for contrast:

• kWid hátiks=d kò-1-t about swim=NC one[person]-3 Kwihl hadikshi k'yoolt.

One of them swam,

?i: ksax laqam=ta:-[t]=4 4a ko:1-t and only into.water=sit-[3]=NC the one[person]-3

... and the other one just sat in the water.

... ii ksax lagamt'aah! hli k'yoolt.

5.4.C. Formation of ordinal numbers: all numerals except 'one' can be prefixed with Cu:= 'the ....eth' ts'vu- (7.2.B.1.b.2.b.). The resulting word function as an adjective:

cu:-paqatil-(ə)t other-two[person]-REL

'the second one' ts'uubagadil(i)t • †a: nì-[t]=† wil cu:-kWilál-[t]=† x-kè:ks-n now that's-[3]=NC SUB other-three-[3]=NC eat-cake-2S

That's your third piece of cake!

(you are eating cake for the third time)

Hlas nihl wil ts'uugwilaihi xkeeksin.

For 'first', Boas 1895 gives  $\tilde{C}U:=\hat{k}\hat{l}\hat{l}$  is 'uuk'ii in the category 'Objects' and kSQÓ:Q ksgook in the category 'Persons'. Nowadays the latter seems to be used exclusively, for all categories.

#### **5.5.** NOUNS.

Nouns can be determinate or non-determinate (3.2.A.1.). Determinate nouns include personal names, which have very restricted syntactic properties, as in most languages. The following does not apply to personal names except as indicated.

A special case is that of the six kinship terms referring to an ascendant generation, most of which have the frozen prefix  $\mathbf{n} = ai$  (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.2.)).

These are almost exclusively found in a possessive context. They sometimes function as determinates and sometimes not. As determinates, they are treated like personal names.

- 5.5.A. All nouns can be clause predicates: however, they are most commonly used as arguments.
- 5.5.A.1. Equivalence statements: practically all nouns, including personal names, can be predicates in such statements:
- (t) <u>Máry</u> tkùn (DM) M. DM-this

This is Mary.

(T) Mary tgun.

• 7á:t tkùn net DM this

This is a net.

Ast tgun.

 hanád=1 4kù:4kW-ý woman-NC child-1S

I have a <u>daughter</u>.
(lit. my child is a female)

Henek 'hi higuuhigwiy.

• **kát**=1 mà:l==ki: person=NCcanoe==DIST

The canoe was a person [a monster].

Gathl maal-gi. (106.13)

- 5.5.A.2. <u>Possessive statements</u>: These do not apply to personal names. The nominal predicate is the possessed noun, the noun or pronoun is the possessor: only semantically suitable nouns enter in such statements:
- tá:la nì:n==a money you==Q

You got some money?

Duale niina?

ni=<del>1</del> tá:la-n==a NEG=NCmoney-2S==0

Do you have any money?

Niih! daslana?

lip wilp nitit
 self house they

They have their own house.

Lip wilp hidiit.

wil lip wilp-tit ... as they have their own house.

SUB self house-3P ... wil lip wilpdiit.

### 5.5.B. A noun can be head of a possessive NP:

 ?à:t-[t]=s[t]Péter
 'Peter's net'

 net-[3]=DC[DM]...
 asts Peter

 ?à:t-[t]=f kát
 'the man's net'

 net-[3]=NC man
 asth! gat

 ?á:t-ŷ
 'my net'

 ...-1S
 asdiÿ

## 5.5.C. A possessed noun can itself be the predicate: in an Equivalence clause:

• 7á:t-ỷ tkùn This is my net.
net-iS DM this Andiÿ tgun.

• hani:skát-ỷ-i sà thun Today is my birthday.
birthday-15=NC day DM this Haniisgadiýhl sa tgun.

• †kú:†k W-ỷ t Làura Laura is my child. child-1S DM L. Higauhigwij t Laura.

• tkú:tk W-t ñì ỷ t <u>Ròse</u>
child-3 me DM R.

I am Rose's child. (cf. 5.8.C.2.b.)
(lit. Rose, I am her child; cf. Fr. Je suis son fils/sa fille, à Rose)

Higurhikut hilý t Rose.

• łkù:łk W~[t]=s[t] <u>Gáry</u> t <u>Tràcy</u> Tracy is Gary's son. child-[3]=DC[DM] G. DMT. *Higouhikus Gary t Tracy*. 5.5.D. A predicate noun can be preceded by a Negative verb (not an Auxiliary or evaluative verb):

# 5.5.D.1. Most nouns (except personal names:)

- 5.5.D.1.a. Non-possessed noun: negation is like that of other  $P_A$ 's (5.2., 5.3., 5.4.); the modifier  $k^Wil$  'around, about' kwihl is often used to emphasize negation (cf. statives, 5.2.B.):
- ni:-ti: kWil hanád-[t]=s[t] Tràcy

  not-INTS about woman-[3]=DC[DM]T.

  Nidii kWihl hanak's Tracy!
- kát t <u>Tràcy</u> ni:-ti: kWił hanáq-t Tracy is a boy, not a girl!
  man DM T. not-INTS about woman -3S (lit. ...he is not a girl)

  Gat t Tracy, nidii kwihl hanak't.
- mailt kus ni:-ti: kwił pó:t-t

  canoe DM that ... ... boat-3S

  (lit. ...it is not a boat)

  Maal tgus, nidii kwihl boott.

#### 5.5.D.1.b. Possessed noun:

5.5.D.1.b.1. If there is no A-nominal: negation is the same as for a non-possessed noun (5.5.D.1.a.); the possessor is suffixed to the noun:

• ni:-ti: kWid7ankú-n=0st It's none of your business!

not-INTS ... o's.business-2S==AFF Nidii kWihl angunis!

5.5.D.1.b.2. With A-nominal: since the possessed nominal predicate already has its argument suffixed to it, the A-nominal appears as an Indirect Object (prepositional phrase or indirect pronoun); the modifier  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{1}}$   $\mathbf{k}\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{i}\mathbf{h}\mathbf{1}$  is not normally used: compare the following examples: (A-nominal highlighted):

5.5.D.1.b.2.a. non-negative:

 hasáq-t=fsi:kutáč want-3=NC new coat

S/he wants/needs a new coat.
(lit. a new coat is h. want)

Hasakth/ sii k'udats.'

?ansí pinsk<sup>W</sup>-y t <u>Màry</u>
 friend-15 DM M.

Mary is my friend.

Ansiip'insgwiy't Mary.

5.5.D.1.b.2.b. negative:

 ni:-ti: hasáq-t?a=+ si: kutáč not-INTS want-3 PREP=NC new coat S/he doesn't want/need a new coat.

Nidii hasakt ah! sii k'udats'.

ni:-ti: hasáq-tlo:-t not-INTS want-3 IND-3

S/he doesn't want/need it/one.

Nidii hasakt loot.

• ni:-ti: ?ansí:pinskW-ý ?a=s[t] Màry Mary is not my friend.
not-INTS friend-1S PREP-DC [DM] M. Nidii ansiip'insgwiý as Mary.

ni:-ti: ?ansí:pinskW-ỷ lo:-t not-INTS friend-1S IND-3

She is not my friend.

Nidii ansiip insgwiy loot.

#### 5.5.D.2. Personal names:

Personal names cannot take a personal suffix. Therefore, the A-nominal with such a predicate appears as an Indirect Object in a negative context, just like that of a possessed noun (5.5.B.1.b.2.b.): compare:

5.5.D.2.a. non-negative:

(t) <u>Máry</u> **t kùst**==i
(DM) ... DM-that==0

Is that Mary (over there)?
(T) Mary trusdi?

### 5.5.D.2.b. negative:

ni:-ti: t Máry ?a=s[t]kùs[t]
not-INTS DM M. PREP=DC [DM] that

That isn't Mary.

Nidii t Mary 23 gus.

ni:-ti: t <u>Máry</u> lo:-t not-INTS DM M, IND-3

It isn't Mary.

Nidii t Mary loot.

5.5.E. A noun can take the Attributive suffix -m when followed by another noun (the suffixed noun is the head of the group):

**hanàq**-m ?úl

'a female bear'

woman-ATT bear

hanak'am ul

hò:pix-mqán spoon-ATT wood

'a wooden spoon'

hoobixim gan

5.5.F. A noun can tak the REL suffix -(a)t it/at/t:

5.5 F.1. After Focused possessor: (284)

• nà:=1 **?á**:**t**-ət lo:-t

Whose net is it?

who-NC net-REL IND-3

Naahl aadit loot?

• nin=1 7a:t-ətlo:-t==a:

Is it your net?

you-NC net-REL IND-3==0

Niinhl andit looda?

5.5.F.2. In two morphosyntactic frames (7.3.B.2.a.) with indefinite meaning:

5.5.F.2.a. ?akù=1 wila:s [...]-(a)t

what kind of ...'

Aguhl wilas ....-it/at/t?

• ?akù=+ wilas ?á:t-(a)t lo:-t

What kind of net is it?

Aguhl wilas andit loot?

- ?akù=4 wilas ?á:t-(a)t=4 ti: hó:x-a-t What kind of net does he use?
  [... net ...] =NC INTS use.s.-CTL-3 (= what kind of fish is he after?)

  Aguhl wilas \*\*adith! dii hooyit?
- 5.5.F.2.b. liki:-lip-wila:s[...]-(a)t 'any/whatever kind of ...' ligii-lip-wilas .....-it/at/t

liki:-lip-wilas**?á:t**-(ə)t

Any kind of net, whatever kind of net ligii-lip-wilas andit

5.5.G. A noun can enter into the morphosyntactic frame Wit ...-i: 'looking like...' wit...-ii (7.3.B.2.b.):

5.5.G.1. Where this expression is the predicate:

wi[t]=\frac{1}{2} k\bar{w}isk\bar{w}\dot{o}:s-i:
 [...=NC blue;ay ...]

It was blue. (lit. ... like a bluejay)
Wihl gwisgwoosii. (139.10)

wi[t]=4 ?i+é:?~i:=4 ?ìs
 [...=NC blood ...]=NC soapberries

The soapberries look just like blood (there are so many, so ripe).

Wihl ihlee iihl is.

5.5.G.2. Where this expression is an Adjunct: (here anteposed by Object Focusing, 4.7.A.2.a.)

wi[t]=\frac{1}{2} sm\hat{a}x-\hat{i}:=\frac{1}{2} k\hat{a}\hat{i}\rightarrow-\hat{g}\rightarrow

I saw what looked like a bear.
(lit. what I saw looked like a bear)
Wihl smaxiihl ga'ay.

#### 5.6. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

The three Nisgha 'indefinite pronouns' are really nouns with indefinite meaning and specialized properties. They are used with interrogative as well as declarative meaning. If the latter, their indefinite meaning is usually reinforced by the modifier liki: 'about any' ligit (5.15.8.42.) used as a prefix.

### 5.6.A. <u>Unprefixed:</u>

#### 5.6.A.1. Form and meaning:

determinate: Ná: Someone/Who?

non-determinates: ?akú Something/What?

ntá Somewhere/Somehow/Which way? nda

# 5.6.A.1.a. Determinate Ná: Naa:

5.6.A.1.a.1. Ná: 'who?' Naa recurs in the noun kiná: 'So-and-So' K'inaa, which is determinate and in the modifier lip-?a-ná: 'as the only one...' (5.15.B.3.f.) lip-anaa. As with determinate nouns, only very old speakers use the singular Determinate marker t before ná: naa in absolute initial position, but the plural Determinate marker tip dip is used in the plural, as in:

• tip ná:=4 tim náks-(0)t Who [what couple] is getting married?

DM.PL ...=NC FUT married-REL

Dip nach! dim naksit?

5.6.A.1.a.2. Ná: naa can be used as a determinate noun to refer to an unidentified person, somewhat like English 'X...', in giving an example:

• kiňám-ə-ý?a=s[t]ná: í gave it to X...
give.s.-CTL-1S PREP=DC [DM] ... Giňamiý as Nas.

However, it is most often used as an interrogative or indefinite pronoun. As an indefinite pronoun, it occurs most often preceded by the modifier liki: ligit

(5.15.B.42.), with the long vowel shortened, thus the combination likitná: 'someone, anyone' ligitnaa (5.6.B.2.), where the medial t is the singular Determinate marker.

# 5.6.A.1.b. Non-determinates: ?akú agu and ntá nda:

5.6.A.1.b.1. ?akú 'something, what?' agu consists of the prefix ?a-a-(7.1.B.1.b.5.a.) and the stem kú 'something' gu. The latter is used as an abbreviation of ?akú agu in its interrogative meaning, but it also occurs as the nominal element in a number of derivatives such as ?an-kú'[one's] concern' agu, ?an-sə-kú'something one doesn't pay attention to 'ansigu, ?is-kú 'to smell of something' isgu, and the interrogative adverb kaxkú 'when?' gaggu (5.14.).

Preceded by the definite/restrictive particle 10 hli/hla (6.1.B.2.), it means one's intimate possession (part of one's body, related person), as in:

• 10 kú-n=1 SqíkSkW-(0)t Are you hurt somewhere?

DEF ...-2S=NC injured-REL (lit. your what is injured?)

Hli gunhl sgeksgwit?

5.6.A.1.b.2. Itá 'which way?' ada is phonologically unusual in that it has the initial sequence /nt/ which otherwise occurs only in the word Inté:?'hand me the ...' adee'e which is probably related to it. In combination with the PA Wil 'be/act' wil) it means 'to happen to ..., to be the matter with [sthg or sbdy]', as in:

• ntá=1 wil-[t]=s[t]Péter What happened to Peter? which way-[3]=NC act=DC[DM|P. Ndahl wils Peter?

• ni:-ti: ntá-[t] cə tim wil-ət lò:-t Nothing is going to happen to him. not-INTS- which way-[3] IRR FUT C act-REL IND-3 Nidii nda ji dim wilit loot.

5.6.A.1.b.3. ?akú 'what?' agu and ntá 'which way?' aus are also used as ordinary nouns, as shown by their occurrence with numerals:

kil-[t]=4 ?akú one [thing]-[3]=NC ...

'a thing, something'

k ilhl agu

kil-[t]=4 ntá one [thing]-[3]=N ...

'a place, someplace'

k'ilhi nda

and with adjectives:

wi:qam-wil-m?akú 'an old worn-out thing' big refuse-be-ATTR ...

wii gamwilim agu

5.6.A.1.b.4. Both ?akú'what?' agu and Ntá'which way?' nda can be coupled with subordinators to express precise circumstantial meanings in questions:

- ?akú'what?' agu when followed by the subordinator Qan gan (5.16.B.1.) has the meaning 'why?' (CAUSE) and when followed by the subordinator Wila: wilaa (5.16.B.8.) it has the meaning 'what ...for?' (GOAL). When followed by the subordinator Wil wil (5.16.B.7.) it may have different meanings. depending on the semantics of the verb; these meanings include 'when? at what time?' (TIME) and 'what for' (GOAL).
- ntá which way?' nda as a pronoun is ambiguous as to manner or location. In particular, when followed by Wil wil it has the meaning 'where?' (LOCATION), and when followed by Wila: wilaa it has the meaning 'how?' (MANNER). It is occasionally followed by Qan gan, with the meaning 'why...?' (CAUSE). There does not seem to be a difference between ntá qan nda gan and ?akúqan agu gan, except that the latter seems more general among YFS.
- Although Ná: 'who?' aua can also be followed by the subordinators Qan gan and Wil wil, the circumstantial meaning is more variable and depends on the

verb used.

#### 5.6.A.2. Syntactic use:

An interrogative pronoun is obligatorily the first major constituent in the clause (and usually in the sentence), which means that it is either the clause predicate, the Specified Complement, or a focused constituent. It may only be preceded by a form of the negative verb  $\mathbf{N}\mathbf{i}$ : 'not to be'  $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{i})$  (5.13.A.), in which case it is the argument of this verb. However, even in this situation it is usually in a pivotal position as a focused constituent for a following clause.

#### 5.6.A.2.a. Non-negative use:

5.6.A.2.a.1. As PA of predicate-focused clause: with pronoun or noun as A-nominal (which may also be left unmentioned):

7akútkùni What is this?
 what? DM this.Q Agu tguni?

kú
 What? (e.g. I did not hear you right).
 what?

• ná: nì:n==əst Who are you?
who?you==AFF Nas niinis?

• **ntá** t <u>Màry</u> Where is Mary? What is Mary up to? which.way? DM M.

\*\*Max t Mary?\*\*

#### 5.6.A.2.a.2. As Specified Complement (4.7.B.):

#### 5.6.A.2.a.2.a. as Sc of PASc:

• ?akù=1 sə-wá-tkWs-[t]=[s][t]kùni what?=NC make-name-PAS.I.-[3]=[DC][DM] this.0

What is this called?

Aguhl siwatkws guni?

nà:=4wá-n==0st
 who?=NCname-2S==AFF

What's your name?

Nach! wanis?

akù==(y)=ma?=+wá-t
 what?==DUB=NCname-2S==AFF

I wonder what it is./What could it be?

Aguyima'ahl wat?

### 5.6.A.2.a.2.b. as Sc of PEASc:

akù məsə-wá-tT-t
 what? 2E make-name-DEF-3

What do you call it/him/her?

Agu mi siwadit?

• ?akù nə tim kin-t what? 1S.E FUT give.food.to.s.-3

What [food] shall I give h.?

Agu ni dim gint?

• ntà mətim wilá:kW-T-t
which.way? 2E FUT treat.s.-DEF-3

What will you do with it/h.?

Nda mi dim wilaagwit?

#### 5.6.A.2.a.3. As focused constituent:

### 5.6.A.2.a.3.a. Focused A:

- of a PA:

• ná:=1 nàks-ət
who=NC married-REL

Who got married?

Nach | naksit?

7akú=ł hô:X-S-Ət lo:-t
 what=NC use.s.-PAS-REL IND-3

What is/was used for it? (e.g. to make it)

Aguhl hooksit loot?

- of a PASc:

- ?akú=† siwà-tk<sup>W</sup>s-ət ?a=† "..." What's a "..."?/ What is called "..."? what=NC name.s.-PAS.I-REL PREP ... Aguhl siwatkwsit ahl "..."?
  - of a PrA:
- **nta**=4 q6?-a-n which.way?=NC go.to.s.-CTL-2S

Where did you go?

Ndahl go'on?

• ?akù=1 qó?-ə-n what?= NC go.to.s.-CTL-2S

What did you go get?

Aguhl go'on?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b. <u>Focused circumstantial complement</u>: in combination with a subordinator:

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.1. with subordinator Wil wif:

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.1.a. ná: 'who?' naa is Focused Indirect Object:

- of PA: usually Beneficiary: 'to whom?'

• **ná**: wiksax-kiňám-a?-n

Who did you give presents to?

... ... only-give.s.-DETR-2S

Naa wil ksaxginama'an?

- of PEA: usually Beneficiary: 'to whom?'

• **ná**: mə wilki nám-t

Who did you give it to?

... 2E ... give.s.-3

Nas mi wil ginamt?

(Fr. A qui l'avez-vous donné?)

or <u>Intermediary</u>: 'by whom?' with a Jussive verb (see end of 4.7.A.3.a.2.)

• **ná**: mə wil [k Win-cáp-T]-t ........ [...-make.s.-...]<sub>JUSS</sub>-3

Who did you get to make it? By whom did you have it done?

Nas mi wil gwin-jabit?

(Fr. A/Par qui l'avez-vous fait faire?)

# 5.6.A.2.a.3.b.1.b. ?akú 'what?' agu:

Focused Time Complement: 'When? on what occasion?' (often abbreviated to  $k\hat{\mathbf{u}}$  gu in this context)

 $P_{A}$ : [?a]kú wil wíl-t

What time did it happen?

... ... be-3

When was it?

(A)gu wil wilt?

or Focused Goal: 'What for?'

PA: akú wil hó:x-s-t

What is it used for?

Agu wil hookst?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.1.c. <u>ntá</u> 'which way?' *nda*: is Focused Location Complement: 'where?'

 $\mathbf{P}_{A}; \ \, \textbf{ntá wil } \dot{\mathbf{w}} \dot{\mathbf{i}} t k^{W} \text{-}t$ 

Where does s/he/it come from?

... ... come.from-3

Nda wil withwt?

 $\mathtt{P}_{\boldsymbol{E}\boldsymbol{A}}\colon \boldsymbol{n}\boldsymbol{t}\boldsymbol{\acute{a}}\; \mathtt{m}\boldsymbol{\vartheta}\; \boldsymbol{w}\boldsymbol{i}\boldsymbol{l}\; \boldsymbol{t}\boldsymbol{\vartheta}\text{-}\boldsymbol{\mathring{w}}\boldsymbol{i}\boldsymbol{t}\boldsymbol{k}^{\!W}\text{-}\boldsymbol{t}$ 

Where did you get it from?

... 2E ... ... DOMIN-come.from-3 Nda mi wil diwitkwt?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.2. With subordinator Qan gan: all pronouns are Focused Causal Complement:

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.2.a. **Ná**: 'who?' *aas*: 'because of whom?'

 $P_{A}$ :  $n\dot{a}$ : qan + intx-n

Who are you mad at?

... ... angry-2S

Nas gan hlintxin?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.2.b. ?akú'what?'agu:'why?' (precise cause)

PA: ?akú qan intx-n

Why are you mad?

... ... angry-2S

Agu gan hlintxin?

P<sub>FA</sub>: ?akú mə qan hó:x-t

Why did you use it?

... 2E ... use.s.-3

Agu ma gan hooxt?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.2.c. Itá 'which way?' *nda*: 'why? for whatever reason?': using Itá *nda* in this context seems to imply a vaguer cause than using ?akú *agu*.

PA: ntá: qan fintx-n

Why are you mad?

... ... angry-2S

Nda gan hlintxin?

P<sub>EA</sub>: **ntá** mə **qan** hó:x-t

Why did you use it?

... 2E ... use.s.-3

Nda ma gan hooxt?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.3. With subordinator Wila: wilaa: Note that a transitive verb after this subordinator usually takes the Definite Medial suffix (-T), even though it does not usually take it otherwise.

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.3.a. ?akú agu is Focused Goal Complement: 'what for?'

PA: ?akú wila: hó:x-s-t

What is it used for?

... ... use.s.-PASS-3

Agu vilas hookst?

PEA: ?akú mə wila: hó:x-T-t

What do/did you use it for?

... 2E ... use.s.-DEF-3

Agu mi wilas hooyit?

5.6.A.2.a.3.b.3.b. ntá nda is Focused Manner Complement: 'how?'

P<sub>A</sub>: **ntá wila**: hó:x-s-t ... use.s.-PASS-3

How is it used?

Nds vilse hookst?

P<sub>EA</sub>: **ntá** mə **wila**: hó:x-T-t ... 2E ... use.s.-DEF-3

How do/did you use it?

Nda mi wilsa hooyit?

## 5.6.A.2.b. Negative use:

The three interrogative pronouns can occur after some forms of the negative verb Ni: 'not to be' ni(i) (5.13.A.). With the form Ni:-ki: nigii especially, it sometimes seems that the combination results in a negative indefinite pronoun series, the negative counterpart of the indefinite series formed with liki: ligii (5.6.B.1.), but differences in use show that verb and indefinite pronoun remain syntactically independent even when phonologically combined (as in Ni:-ki: t Ná: 'nobody' nigitnaa'). In particular, the combination cannot be used in other than initial position.

5.6.A.2.b.1. As argument of the negative verb **ní**: *niíi)*: (said in response to a question):

Being non-determinate, ?akú'what' agu and ntá'which way' nda when used as arguments take a personal suffix after the negative verb; being determinate, ná: 'who' naa does not.

ni:-ti:?akú-t / ni:-ki:?akú-t Nothing.
 not-INTS what?-3 / not-INTS... Nidii agut/Nigii agut.

ni:-ti: t ná:/ ni:-ki: t ná: Nobody.
 not-INTS DM who? / not-INTS... Nidii t naa/Nigitnaa.

5.6.A.2.b.2. As pivotal focused constituent of a following clause: Usually the IRR particle CO ji/ja (6.1.B.1.b.1.) is used after the pronoun, instead of a connective, indicating the meaning 'not ... any ...'.

- ni:-ti: ?akú-{t}cə má:n-(ə)t
   not-INTS what-[3] IRR !eft-REL
- There isn't anything left.

  Nidii agu ji maanit.
- ni:-ti: ?akú-[t]cə naxñá-(y)ə-ỷ
   not-INTS what-[3] IRR hear.s.-CTL-1S
- I didn't hear anything.

  Nidii agu ji nazňaviý.
- ni:-ki: t ná: cə ká?-ə-ỷ
  not-INTS DM who? IRR see.s.-CTL-1S
- I didn't see anybody.

  Nigitnaa ji ga'ay.
- ni:-ki: t ná: co t?antitálq-ý There wasn't anybody to talk to me. not-INTS DM who? IRR 3E RELE talk.to.s.-1S Nigitnaa jit an didalgaý.
- ni:-ti: ntá-[t]cə wil-ti:t

  not-INTS which.way-[3] IRR be-3P

  Nothing happened to them, they didn't

  have anything (e.g. in an accident)

  Nidii nda ji wildiit.
- ni:-ki: ntá-[t]cə timqó?-ə-t S/he didn't have anywhere to go. not-INTS which way-[3] IRR FUT go.to.s.-CTL-3 Nigii nda ji dim go'ot.
- ni:-ti: ?akú-[t]cə qan wil-t not-INTS what-[3] what IRR reason be-3

There wasn't any reason for it.

(it was a meaningless act)

Nidii agu ja gan wilt.

## Without the IRR particle, the negative meaning is stronger:

- ni:-ki:tná:?an-t?as)?í:c-T-[t]=imàqsa:cáyn==əst
  - ... DM who-3E PL)iron.s.-DEF-(3)=NC bluejeans==AFF

[Come on,] nobody irons blue jeans!

Nigitnaa ant as'iijihl maksijaynis!

#### 5.6.B. Prefixed:

5.6.B.1. Three more properly indefinite pronouns result from the prefixation of

the modifier liki: 'for instance, about, somewhat' *ligii* (5.15.8.42.) to the interrogative pronouns (5.6.A.) ?akú'what' agu, ntá 'which way' nda and ná: 'who' naa. As the latter is determinate, the determinate marker t occurs between the two morphemes:

liki:-?akú	something, anything	ligii'agu
liķi:-ntá	somewhere, anywhere	ligiinda
liķi:-t-ná:	someone, anyone	ligitaaa

• ká?-ə-ỷ=4 liki:-?akú see.s.-CTL-1S=NC ...

I <u>see/saw</u> something. Ga'aÿhl ligii'agu.

• qús-ə-ỷ nə tim ká?-[t]=+ liki:-?akú can't-CTL-1S 1S.E.FUT see.s.-[3]=NC...

I can't/couldn't see anything. Gosiÿ ni dim ga'ahl ligii'agu.

qús- $\theta$ - $\mathring{y}$  n $\theta$  tim ká?-[t]= $\frac{1}{1}$  liki:-t-n $\mathring{a}$ : can't-CTL-1S 1S.E FUT see.s.-[3]=NC ...

I can't/couldn't see anybody.

Gosiÿ ni dim ga'ahl ligitnas.

• tim wa-(y)ə-m=+liki:-nta FUT find.s.-CTL-1P=NC...

We'll find some place.

Dim wayimhl ligiinds.

5.6.B.2. The indefinite meaning of these pronouns can be emphasized by the modifier lip, normally meaning 'self' (5.15.B.3.), which here adds the meaning 'just about ..., any ... whatever'; hence:

liki:-lip-?akú 'just about anything' *ligii-lip-agu* liki:-lip-ntá 'just about anywhere' *ligii-lip-nda* liki:-lip-[t]-ná: 'just about anyone' *ligii-lip-naa* 

The unstressed sequence /liki:/ may be contracted to /li:/ in this environment (Velar loss, 10.2.A.2.b.2.a.).

• liki:-lip-?akú=4 ti: kíp-ə-[t]=4 smàx Bears eat just about anything.
...=NC INTS eat.s.-CTL-[3]=NC bear

Ligii-lip-aguhl dii gibihl smax.

• liki:-lip-ntá wil cóq-ti.t ... SUB camp-3P

They camped just about anywhere.

Ligii-lip-ade wil jokdiit.

• liki:-lip-[t]-ná=+ silqawíl-ə-t
...=NC associate.with.s.-CTL-3

S/he associates with just anybody.

(derogatory sense)

Ligii-lip-nashl silgawilit.

# 5.7. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

### 5.7.A. Form and meaning:

The demonstrative pronouns are determinates and are always preceded by a determinate marker, except where the phonological rule of consonant-deletion (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.) deletes the singular DM t after /S/. The basic forms are:

kún 'this' gun kús[t] 'that' gus

There are also what appear to be more formal or perhaps just older alternates with suffix -a, used only in apposition to a noun:

kúna 'this ...' guna kústa 'that ...' gusda

Forms that are used in questions have the suffix -i instead of the usual Interrogative postclitic == a (6.3.A.1.a.):

kún==i 'this ...?' guni kúst==i 'that ...?' gusdi Although the singular DM t does not usually occur in absolute initial position in YFS speech, it always occurs before the demonstratives. For this reason some speakers feel that is is a part of the word itself, and use it even with the plural DM, thus tiptkún 'these' dip tgun, instead of tipkún dip gun. This is a case of hypercorrection.

#### 5.7.B. Syntactic use:

# 5.7.B.1. The demonstrative pronouns may occur by themselves as A-nominals:

• [t] ná: t kúst==i {DM] who DM that==Q

Who's that?

Naa tgusdi?

• ?akú=4 wà-[t]=s[t]kùn==i what=NC name-[3]=DC[DM]this==0

What is this [called]?

Aguhl was guai?

• .... t(a)-hi:-ta tipkùs[t]
3E-say"..."-PL DM.PL that

"..." they said (lit. said those).
"... "dihiida dip gus.

# 5.7.B.2. They often occur in apposition to a noun:

• nté:?=4 čák tkùs[t]
hand.me=NC plate DM that

Hand me that plate.

Ndee'ehl ts'ak' tgus.

nté:?=† ci)cak tipkùs[t]
hand.me=NC PL)plate DM.PL that

Hand me those plates.

Ndee'ehl jits'ak' dip gus.

Wilá:X-ə-n=+ hanáq t kùst==i
 know.s.-CTL-2S=NC woman DM that==Q

Do you know that woman/girl?

Wilaayinhl hanak' tgusdi?

• ... ?a=\frac{1}{2} ?a:ma: sá t \frac{1}{2} \text{ k \hat{U} na} PREP=NC well day DM this

... on this fine day ... [stereotyped formula] ... ah/amaa sa tgune ...

5.7.B.3. Demonstratives are often in focused position: (4.7.A.)

• tkún=4 hì-t
DM this=NC saying-3

S/he said [this]: "..."

Trunh! hit: "..."

• tip kús[t]?an t imó:m-y
DM.PL that REL.E 3E help.s.-1S

Those are the people who helped me.

Dip gus ant hlimoomiý.

5.7.B.4. Like nouns, the demonstratives can be preceded by modifiers:

• ?anó.q-ə-ỷ**+ku** tkún like.s.-CTL-1S little DM this

I like this little one.

Anoogay higu tgun.

5.7.B.5. The demonstrative pronouns can be understood in a locative sense if occurring with a verb of appropriate meaning:

• cəski-(y)ə-n?a=s[t]kùs[t]
IRR puts.-CTL-2S PREP=DC DM this

[You can] put it over there.

Ji sgiyin as gus.

• t kún tim wil tá:-n
DM this FUT where sit-2S

[You will] sit right here.

Trun dim wil t'aan.

5.7.C. Remark: Note the potential ambiguity of a sequence such as

?át tip kùn
net/fish.w.net DM.PL this

These are fishnets/these fishnets/these people fish(ed) with nets.

aat dip gun

This ambiguity is resolved by the context. In addition, the interpretation of  $?\acute{a}:t$  as a verb, and of  $tipk\acute{u}s[t]$  dip gus as referring to persons, would probably be indicated by the use of the modifier  $\ref{k}$  around, about  $\ref{k}$  in (5.15.B.44.), which in a non-negative clause is only used before verbs. There is no ambiguity in:

• kwit ?a:ttipkùn
about fish.w.net DM.PL this

These people fish/are/were fishing. **Kwihl** aat dip gun.

# 5.8. INDEPENDENT PERSONAL PRONOUNS (M1-pronouns).

The independent personal pronouns are used in certain syntactic contexts to refer to persons (or animals or objects considered as persons, as in some stories), never to inanimates.

5.8.A. Form and meaning: Morphologically speaking, the independent personal pronouns are built by suffixation of the personal pronominal endings (except the indefinite -ti: -dii 7.2.A.1.b.) to a base which can be identified with the topicalizer  $\vec{n}i$  'that's...'  $\vec{n}i$ . Morphophonemic irregularities in the vowels show that the differentiation of these pronouns must have a long history. The present vocalism cannot be accounted for by synchronic morphophonemic rules.

	SG	PL
1	<b>ñí:ỷ</b> <i>àiiỷ</i>	កំបៈ <u>កំ</u> <i>កំបបត់</i>
2	ที1:n <i>ล้มล</i>	កំទែរកំ <i>ង់ទេវត់</i> រ
3	nit <i>àit</i>	ňíti:t <i>áidiit</i>

The plural pronouns nisim you PL' aisim and nitit them aidit may be preceded by the plural determinate marker tip dip, when occurring initially

## or after a preposition:

?aːmaː dóːmadask W nìːý ?a=s tip nísim Best wishes to all of you.
 well wish me PREP=DC DM.PL you.PL Amaa k'oomakask w niiý as dip nisim.

5.8.B. Syntactic use: In general, the syntactic properties of independent personal pronouns are similar to those of determinate nouns and other determinate pronouns. An independent personal pronoun can occur as clause predicate or as adjunct, focused or not.

#### 5.8.B.1. As clause predicate:

• ni:n==a [t] Màry
you==Q[DM] M.

Niina, Mary?

• **n**it==a Is that so?/Isn't it? it==Q **Nida**?

•  $\mathring{\mathbf{n}}$ i  $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  thùn

This is me (e.g., in a picture).

me DM this

Nii  $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  tgun.

5.8.B.2. As Adjunct: as A of  $P_A$  or  $P_{EA}$  in predicate-focused clause: (the 3rd sg. pronoun  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}\hat{\mathbf{i}}\mathbf{t}$  is rarely used in this context, see below 5.8.C.1.)

• ná: nì:n==0st [And/so] who are you?

who you==AFF Naa niinis?

• kipé?esk<sup>W</sup> nì:ỷ I waited.
wait.AP me Gibe'eskw niiỷ.

• kipá-(y)ə-t**niti:t** S/he waited for them. wait.for.s.-CTL-3 them Gibayit **nidiit**.

### 5.8.B.3. As Focused constituent:

# 5.8.B.3.a. As Focused A of PA or PEA in relative clause:

• ní:y=+kipé?eskW-(a)t me=NC wait.AP-REL

I was the one who waited. Niight gibe esgwit.

• **nit**=\ kipá-(y)\(\text{a}-\text{[t]}\) M\(\text{ary}\) him/her=NC wait.for.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] M. S/he is the one Mary waited for.

Mary waited for him/her. Nithi gibayis Mary.

# 5.8.B.3.b. As Focused E of relative PEA clause:

ní:ý ?an-tkipá-[t]=s[t]Máry me REL.E-3E wait.for.s.-[3]=DC(DM) M.

I was the one who waited for Mary. Nily ant gibas Mary.

### 5.8.B.3.c. <u>As Focused 10</u>:

• **ní: y** wilksaxkináma?-[t]=s[t]Màrv me SUB give.presents-[3]=DC [DM] M.

> Mary gave me a present/...gave a present to me. Niiy wil ksaxginama as Mary.

• ní:y wil-tkinám-[t]=s[t]Màrv=1 nád me SUB-3E give.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.=NC dress

> Mary gave me a/the dress/...gave a/the dress to me. Niiy wilt ginams Maryhl nak'.

# 5.8.B.3.d. As Focused Possessor:

• **ñi:n=** pùkW-(a)t?a=s[t]kùni you=NC book-REL PREP=DC (DM) this.Q

Is this your book? Niinhl bugwit as guni? 5.8.B.4. After conjunctions and prepositions: the independent personal pronouns can occur suffixed to the conjunction Qan and gan (5.16.B.1.) and the preposition ?a'to/for/etc.'a (5.18.) with the determinate connective = S ...s.

• kSax ní: y qan=s ní:n 'only you and I'
only me and=DC you ksax nii y gans niin

• ni-[t]=4 ni[t]=4 4ip4án-y=4 kinám-tkW-(a)t ?a=snisim

that's-{3}=NC that's-{3}=NC body-1S=NC give.s.-PAS-REL PREP=NC you.PL

This is my body [that was] given for you.4

Nihl nihl hliphlaniyhl ginamtgwit as nisim.

### 5.8.C. Differences in use between 1/2 and 3 pronouns:

Although all independent personal pronouns can theoretically be used in clauses, a distinction must be made between the use of first and second person pronouns on the one hand, and that of third person pronouns.

#### 5.8.C.1. Third person pronouns:

Neither of the 3rd person independent pronouns is used with inanimates, and the 3S pronoun hit ait has even more restricted distribution than its plural counterpart. The obligatory use of hiti:t aidiit with persons seems to be a recent development. In Boas, this pronoun is not normally used in a declarative clause, even for humans, as in:

• hil)yáltkW ?a=łlipqalčipčáp-ti:t==ki: PL)return PREP=NC village.PL-3P==DIST

They went back to their own villages (194.3-4).

Hilyalth wahl lip galts ipts apdiit.

Although a Nisgha speaker, when asked to translate an English sentence, will often use nit as the equivalent of an English 3S pronoun (Subject or Object),

nit is rarely used in spontaneous speech except as predicate or in focused position (above 5.8.B.1, 5.8.B.2.).

Compare the following predicate-focused clauses:

qal málkaqsk<sup>W</sup> nì:n
 too heavy you

You are too heavy.

Gal malgakskw niin.

qal malkaqskw too heavy

S/he/it is too heavy.

Gal malgakskw.

qal mil)málkaqsk<sup>W</sup>nìsim too PL)heavy you.PL

You [people] are too heavy.

Gal milmalgakskw nisim.

qal mil)málkaqsk<sup>W</sup> niti:t too PL)heavy they

They [people] are too heavy.

<u>Gal milmalgakskw nidiit.</u>

qal mil)málkaqsk<sup>W</sup> too PL)heavy

They [objects] are too heavy.

<u>Gal milmalgakskw.</u>

• ntá mə tim wilá:kW-ə-t
which.way 2E FUT handle.s.-CTL-3

What are you going to do with it/him/her?

Nda mi dim wilaagwit?

timcám-ə-ỷ FUT boil.s.-CTL-1S

- I am going to boil it.

- Dim jamiy

timhináčax-ə-ỷ
FUT spank.s.-CTL-1S

- I am going to spank him/her.

- Dim hiaats'axaý.

timhax)hó:x-ə-n=4púc-n==a:
 FUT PL)wear.s.-CTL-2S=NC boots-2S==0

Are you going to wear your boots?

Dim haxhooyinhl bujina?

ní: - qal lim)lámk

- No, they are too warm.

no - too PL)warm.PL

- Nii, gal limlamk.

ní: - tim ťá4-T-ə-ỷ

- No, I'll put them away.

no - FUT put.away.s.PL-DEF-CTL-1S - Nii, dim t'ahldiy.

• tim ká?-ə-n tip <u>Márv</u>==a: FUT see.s.-CTL-2S DM.P M.==0

Are you going to see Mary 'and them'?

Dim ga'an dip Marya?

ní: -sáksk<sup>W</sup> niti:t PrinceRúpert - No, they've gone to Prince Rupert. no - leave.PL ... P.R. - Nii, sakskw nidiit Prince Rupert.

?e?-tim ciláy xW-ə-y **nìti:t** ta y ú win yes - FUT visit.s.-CTL-1S them tonight

- Yes, I am going to visit them tonight.
- Ec'e, dim ts'ilaywiy nidiit t'aayuwin.

#### 5.8.C.2. First and second person pronouns:

In a predicate-focused PA or PEA clause, a first or second person A is obligatorily represented by an independent personal pronoun which immediately follows the verb. If the verb is transitive (PFA), and ends in a 3 suffix pronoun indicating the E argument, there may be a coreferring Adjunct noun, placed after the independent pronoun.

The same structure occurs with possessed nominal predicates where a 3 suffix indicating the possessor can have an Adjunct placed after the independent pronoug.

#### 5.8.C.2.a. With predicate-focused transitive verbs:

5.8.C.2.a.1. Examples without Adjunct noun: the independent pronoun follows the suffixed verb.

• timčiláy x W - Ə - ỷ <b>ní: n</b> FUT visitsCTL-1S you	I am going to come and visit you.  Dim ts ilaywiy aiin.
cəciláy x <sup>W</sup> -ə-n <b>ñí:ỷ</b> IRR visit.sCTL-2S me	[You could/should] come and visit me!  Ji ts'ilaywin hiiy!
cəciláyx <sup>w</sup> -ə-n <b>nú:m</b> IRR visit.sCTL-2S us	[You could/should] come and visit us!  Ji ts'ilaywin huum!
číláyx <sup>W</sup> -ə−t <b>ňú:ṁ</b> visit.sCTL-3 us	S/he came to visit us.  Ts'ilaywit <b>huum</b> .
čiláyx <sup>W</sup> −ti:t <b>ňíti:t</b> visit.s3P them	They visited them.  Ts'ilayxwdiit <b>hidiit</b> .

5.8.C.2.a.2. Examples with Adjunct nouns: Even if the Adjunct noun or noun-phrase refers to a plurality, the 3 suffix on the verb is  $-\mathbf{t}$ , which is unmarked for number, never the 3P suffix  $-\mathbf{t}1$ :  $\mathbf{t}$  ...diit.

ciláy xW-ə-t ñú:m t Màry visit.s.-CTL-3 us DM M.
 timciláy xW-ə-t ñí:n t Pèter Peter is going to come and visit you.
 FUT visit.s.-CTL-1S you DM P.
 Dim ts'ilaywit ñiint Peter.

timciláy  $x^W$ - $\vartheta$ -t  $\mathbf{\hat{n}\hat{u}}$ : $\mathbf{\hat{m}}$  tip  $\underline{P\hat{e}ter}$  qan=s[t]  $\underline{Mary}$  FUT visit.s.-CTL-3 us DM.PL P. and=DC (DM) M.

Peter and Mary are coming to visit us.

Dim ts'ilaywit auum dip Peter gans Mary.

# 5.8.C.2.b. With possessed nominal predicate:

# 5.8.C.2.b.1. Example without Adjunct noun:

• kimxtí-t**ňì:ý**opp.sex.sibling-3 me

I am his sister/her brother. (Fr. Je suis sa sœur/son frère).

Gimxdit **niiÿ** .

 kimxtítk<sup>W</sup>-ỷ nìsim brothers.and.sisters-1S you.PL Beloved brethren ... (lit. you are my brothers and sisters )

Gimzditgwiý nisim.

### 5.8.C.2.b.1. Examples with Adjunct noun:

• kimxtí-t**ňì:ỷ** t <u>Pèter</u> opp.sex.sibling-3 me DM P.

I am Peter's sister.

(Fr. Je suis sa sœur, à Pierre)

Gimxdit **å i i ý** t Peter.

• siłkú łk Ws-t ní: y t Ròse adopted child-3 me DM R.

Rose adopted me.

(lit. I am Rose's adopted child) Sihlguuhlkwst niiv t Rose

# 5.9. INDIRECT PRONOUNS (lo:- pronouns).

The indirect pronouns are listed here even though they, unlike the other non-suffix pronouns, cannot be clause predicates.

### 5.9.A. Form and meaning:

The Indirect pronouns are all built by adding the definite personal suffix pronouns (7.2.A.1.a.) to the base 10:-100... which has no other use or meaning<sup>6</sup>. There are no morphophonemic alternations. These pronouns do not normally bear stress.

•	SG	PL
1	lo:- <b>ỷ</b> <i>looỷ</i>	lo:-m loom
2	lo:-n <i>loon</i>	lo:-simi <i>loosim</i> i
3	lo:-t <i>loot</i>	lo:-ti:t <i>loodiit</i>

5.9.B. Syntactic use: The Indirect pronouns have two major roles: within a clause, they can replace a sequence of the preposition 73 a... (5.18.) + nominal in all circumstances. In discourse containing at least two clauses, they can also occur in addition to, and co-referring with, a nominal in the second clause, reinforcing a contrast with one in the first clause.

# 5.9.B.1. Indirect role within the clause:

The Indirect pronouns have the same distribution as a sequence of the preposition 7a a... followed by a nominal, but they do not bear stress. Nor can they indicate focus on an Indirect Object.

# 5.9.B.1.a. Basic role: in clause with Indirect Object:

#### 5.9.B.1.a.1. In PEAI clause:

tim kiňám-a-ý=łliki:-?akú?a=s[t] Máry
 FUT give.s.-CTL-1S=NC something PREP=DC [DM] M.

I am going to give something to Mary.

Dim ginamiyhl ligii agu as Mary.

tim kinam-ə-y=1liki:-?akúlo:-t I am going to give something to her.

FUT give.s.-CTL-1S=NC something ...-3

Dim ginamiyhl ligii agu loet.

kín-ý ?a=1 ?aná:x
 give.food.to-1S PREP=NC bread

Give me some bread.

Giniÿ ahl anaar.

kín-ý lo:-t give.food.to-1S ...-3

Give me some.

Giniy loot.

### 5.9.B.1.a.2. In PAI clause:

wakátk<sup>W</sup> nì y ?a=s[t] <u>Máry</u>
 feei.lonesome me PREP =DC [DM] M.

I <u>miss</u> Mary/ feel ionesome for Mary.

Waagatkw niiÿ as Mary.

wa:kátk<sup>W</sup> nì:ý lo:-n feel.lonesome me ...-2S

I miss(ed) you.

Wasgatkw hilly loom.

timsə-kWilá ñì:ỷ ?a=s [t] <u>Péter</u>
 FUT make-blanket me PREP =DC [DM] P.

I am going to make a blanket for Peter.

Dim sigwila niiÿ as Peter.

timsə-k<sup>W</sup>ilá nì:y lo:-t FUT make-blanket me ...-3

I am going to make him a blanket.

Dim sigwila ńijý loot.

• na:m-kWa:s-tá:lalo:-m wanting-borrow-money ...-1P

S/he wants to borrow money from us.

Naam-gwaasdaala loom.

#### 5.9.B.1.a.3. Idiomatic expressions:

5.9.B.1.a.3.a. Statement of possession: with verb Sk1 'there is ...' sgi:

ni:=4 ski-{t}=4 halipisT ?a=s [t] <u>Máry</u>==a:
 not=NC there.is-{3}=NC sewing-machine PREP =DC [DM] M.==Q
 Does Mary have a sewing machine?
 Niihl sgihl halip'is as Marya?

ni = 1 ski - [t] = 1 halipisT lo: -n = aDo you have a sewing machine? not=NC there.is-[3]=NC sewing-machine ...-2S==Q Niihl sgihl halip is looma?

(lit. 'there is ... to me, etc.' Cf. the statement of possession in Russian or Latin)

# 5.9.B.1.a.3.b. Statement of comparison with modifier ka: 'most' kas:

 ka: wi:-ńák<sup>W</sup> t <u>Pèter</u> ?a=s [t] <u>Fréd</u> Peter is taller than Fred. most big-long DM P. PREP=DC [DM] F. K'as wiinakw t Peter as Fred

ka: wii-nákW lo:-n most big-long ...-2S

He is taller than you. K'as wiinakw loon.

(lit. most tall, [compared] to ...)

#### 5.9.B.1.b. Derived role:

# 5.9.B.1.b.1. As Adjunct with nominal predicate in regular clause:

### 5.9.B.1.b.1.a. After a subordinator:

wil kutác-ý?a=s[t]kùs[t] SUB coat-1S PREP=DC [DM] that

... as/because that's my coat.

... wil k'udats'iy as gus.

wil kutác-ý lo:-t SUB coat-1S ...-3

... as/because it's my coat. ... wil k'udats'iy loot.

 wil?ansí:pinsk<sup>W</sup>-y lo:-n SUB friend-1S ...-2S

... because you are my friend. ... wil ansiip'insgwiy loom.

### 5.9.B.1.b.1.b. After a negative verb:

• ni:-ti: t Lúcy ?a=s[t]kùs[t] not-INTS DM L. PREP=DC [DM] that

That isn't Lucy. Nidii t Lucy as gus. ni:-ti: t <u>Lúcý</u> lo:-t not-INTS DM L. ...-3

It isn't Lucy.

Nidii t Lucy loot.

• ni:-ti: kutáč-[t]=s[t] <u>Lúcy</u> ?a=s[t]kùn This isn't Lucy's coat.

not-INTS coat=DC [DM] L. PREP=DC [DM] this Nidii k'udats' Lucy as gun.

ni:-ti: kutác-[t]=s[t]<u>Lúcy</u> lo:-t not-INTS coat=DC[DM] L. ...-3

It isn't Lucy's coat.

Nidii k'udats' Lucy loot.

• ni:-ti?ansi:pinskW-y ?a=s[t] Mary is not my friend.
not-INTS friend-1S PREP=DC [DM] M. Nidii ansiip insgwiy as Mary.

ni:-ti?ansí:pinsk<sup>W</sup>-ý lo:-t

She is not my friend.

Nidii ansiip insgwiÿ loot.

#### 5.9.B.1.b.2. As Adjunct with relativized nominal predicate:

• ná:=† kutáč-(ə)t ?a=s[t]kùn==i who=NC coat-REL PREP=DC[DM] this==Q

Whose coat is this?

Naah! k'udats'it as guni?

ná:=1 kutác-(ə)t lo:-t who=NC coat-REL ...-3

Whose cost is it?

Nash! k'udats'it loot?

#### 5.9.B.2. Contrastive role in discourse:

Where two successive clauses or sentences have similar structure but contrasting content, referring to the differing activities, qualities, possessions, etc., of two different persons, an Indirect pronoun with appropriate ending may be used in the second clause immediately following the noun or pronoun (including suffix pronouns) it refers to, to emphasize the contrast between persons. The other contrasting element may be any major constituent.

### 5.9.B.2.a. Contrasting predicates:

# 5.9.B.2.a.1. PA:

- Wi:-nákW t niči:ć-ý ?i:4ku-tílpkW-[t]=s[t]nò:ý lo:-t
   big-long DM grandmother-1S and little-short-[3]=DC[DM] my.mother ...-3
   My grandmother is tall, but my mother is short.
   (Fr. Ma grand-mère est grande, mais ma mère, elle, est petite.)
   Wiińakw t nits'iits'iý ii hlgudilpkws nooý loot.
- timsiwilá:ýinsk<sup>W</sup> t <u>Màry</u> cə ła: wiltis-t
   FUT teach.AP DM M. IRR now grown.up-3
   tim?i: wa:cmá:n-[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter lo:-t</u>
   FUT and policeman-[3]=DC[DM] P. ...-3

Mary wants to be a teacher when she grows up, but <u>Peter</u>, he wants to be a policeman.

Dim siwilaayinskw t Mary ji hlaa wiit'ist, dim ii watsmaans Peter loot.

# **5.9.B.2.a.2.** <u>P</u>EA:

• x4iltin-[ə]-[t]=s[t] Mary=4 hó:n?i:-tqásqan-[t]=s[t] Lùcy lo:-t like.food-[CTL]-{3}=DC[DM] M.=NC fish and-3E dislike.food-[3]=DC[DM] L...-3

Mary loves fish; but Lucy, she hates it.

(Fr. Marie adore le poisson, mais Lucie, elle, elle déteste ça.)

Xliltins Maryhl hoon iit gask ans Lucy loet.

## 5.9.B.2.b. Contrasting possessions:

• Si: pó:t=4 hasáq-ỷ -- si: ká:=4 ti: hasáq-[t]=1 náks-ỷ lo:-t
new boat =NC desire-1S -- new car=NC CONTR desire-[3]=NC spouse-1S ...-3
I want a new boat; but my wife, she wants a new car (lit. my desire is ...).
(Fr. Je voudrais un nouveau bateau, mais ma femme, elle, elle veut une
nouvelle voiture).

Sii booth! hasagaÿ; sii kaah! dii hasagh! naksiÿ loot.

• ni:-ti:?akú-[t]cəxstá:-ỷ-- \$50=1 xstà:-[t]=s[t] Lúcy lo:-t
not-INT s.t.-[3] IRR winning-IS -- ...=NC winning-[3]=DC[DM] L. ...-3

I didn't win anything; but Lucy, she won \$50.

(Fr. Je n'ai rien gagné, mais Lucie, elle, elle a gagné 50 dollars).

Nidii agu ja zstaaý: \$50h1 xstaas Lucy loot.

### 5.9.B.2.c. Contrasting focused constituents:

- hó:n=+ ka: x+iltin-[a]-[t]=s[t] Màry

  fish=NC most like.food-[CTL]-[3]=DC [DM] M.

  ?i:qalmó:s=+ ka: x+iltin-[a]-[t]=s[t] Lúcy lo:-t

  and crab=NC most like.food-[CTL]-[3]=DC [DM] L. ...-3

  Mary likes fish best, but Lucy likes crab best.

  (Fr. Marie préfère le poisson, mais Lucie, elle, préfère le crabe.)

  Hoonh! k'as zliltins Mary ii k'almoosh! k'as zliltins Lucy loot.
- -?àlkax-mcapá:n=+ ti: hó:x-ə-ỷ -- I speak Japanese.

  talk-ATTR Japanese=NC INTS use s.-CTL-1S Algaram Japan hi dii hooyiy.

-?àlkax-m lú:sin=4 ti:hó:x-\(\theta\)-\(\dagge\) lo:-\(\dagge\) -- I speak Russian myself. talk-ATTR Russian=NC INTS use s.-CTL-1S ...-1S

Algaram Luusinhl dii hooyiy looy. (Fr. Je parle japonais. -- Et moi, je parle russe.)

### 5.9.B.2.d. Contrasting Specified Complements:

• [t] Máry=1 wà-[t]=s[t] nó:ỷ

DM M.=NC name-[3]=DC [DM] my.mother

-?i: t <u>Lúcy</u>=1 wà-[t]=s[t] nići:ċ-ỷ lo:-t

and DM L.=NC name-[3]=DC [DM] grandmother ...-3

My mother's name is Mary, but my <u>grandmother</u>'s name is Lucy.

(Fr. Ma mère s'appelle Marie, mais ma grand-mère, <u>elle</u>, s'appelle Lucie).

Maryhl was nooŷ ii t Lucyhl was nits'iits'iÿ loot.

• [t] <u>Kévin</u> tham-siwá-tT-[t]=s[t]<u>Màry</u>=ł łkú:kW-t [DM] K. 3E wanting-name.s.-DEF-[3]-CTL=DC [DM] M.=NC child-3 ?i: t <u>Péter</u> tham-siwá-tT-[t]=ł nàks-tlo:-t and DM P. 3E wanting-name.s.-DEF-[3]=NC spouse-3 ...-3

Mary wants to name her baby Kevin, but her <u>husband</u> wants to name him Peter. (Mary veut appeler son bébé Kevin, mais son mari, <u>lui</u>, il veut l'appeler Peter.)

Kevin t nam-siwadis Maryhl hlguuhlkwt ii t Peter t nam-siwadihl nakst loot.

## 5.10. AMBIENT PREDICATES (PO).

These are mostly words referring to the weather and similar natural phenomena such as

ha <b>y w</b> ís	'(to) rain'	haywis		
sint	'summer'	sint		
sq́é:xk <sup>W</sup>	'(it's) dark [a	'(it's) dark [at night]' <i>sk'eezkw</i>		
?a:m-a:-laxhá good-MODIF-sky	'(it's) good weather' <i>amaalazha</i>			
*k <sup>W</sup> iné:q-mks cold- <b>COMPAR</b>	'to be cooler, comparatively cool'			

These words can function as either predicates or non-predicates in a clause:

#### 5.10.A. As predicate:

• wil hay wis

... as/when/where it rains.

... wil hayvis.

yùk<sup>W</sup>=ł **haywis** 

It's raining.

Yukwhi haywis.

### 5.10.B. As non-predicate:

PROG=NC rain

 caxW=1 haywis considerable-NC...

It's raining hard.

Ts'azwh! haywis.

Sometimes other PA's can also be used without arguments, as PO's, as in

• ?á:tiksk<sup>W</sup> wil sáq arrive SUB sharp

It started to be very cold.

Aat'ikskw wil sak.

kaxkù wil lilkit
 when?=NC SUB (have.a.)feast

When was the feast?

Gazeu wil likeit?

• qalksə=ká?sW-n ?a=1 wil qalksə=nó2=əst through=look-2S PREP=NC SUB through=have.a.hole==AFF

Look through the hole!

Galksiga'asgwin ahl wil galksino'os.

#### **5.11. INTERJECTIVE PREDICATES.**

This is a curious class of words. It comprises interjections which are imperative in function and have both a singular and a plural form. In the plural, they take the 2P personal suffix, like  $P_A$ 's, but they take no suffix in the singular. They do not have a 1P form either. It is likely that this class includes words of diverse origins. The addition of the 2P suffix seems to be of recent origin, as it is not used in Boas.

Singular	Plural			
7á	?á-sim	Stop (this	noise)!	
			A!	Asim!
ķóm	kóm-sim	Go ahead	Do it	
			Gom!	Gomsim!
qál	qál-sim	Come! Co	me here!	
			<u> </u>	<u>Galsim</u> !
tí	tí-sim	Come on!	Let's go! I	.et's get going!
			Di!	Disi <b>m</b> !
tí <del>1</del>	tí <del>1</del> -sim	Hurry!		
			Tibl!	T'ihlsim!
?ató?8	?ató?-sim๋	Gol		
			Ado'o!	Ado'osim!

This group includes the negative verb kiló[?] 'don't! gilo /gilo'o (5.13.C.) which is also used in the singular in front of a dependent clause, to negate an imperative:

New members are in the process of being added to this class. Some YFS who use the 3S independent personal pronoun hit hit as an informal greeting (4.3.C.1.a.) also use a plural hit-Simto greet more than one person. Similarly the transitive imperative form haw-t stop it! Hawt is reinterpreted by many as a single morpheme hawit hawit, which is then given a plural

háwit-sim hawitsim instead of the regular transitive imperative (4.3.D.2.) simháw-t (2P.E stop.s.-3) Sim hawit/

#### 5.12. AUXILIARY VERBS.

Auxiliaries are a special type of intransitive verb. Some of them can also function as  $P_A$ 's like regular intransitive verbs, and their auxiliary role derives from their semantic meaning as full verbs. Auxiliaries share some of their properties with Negative verbs (5.13. below). Both types of verbs take a predicate phrase as their argument.

The auxiliary role is identifiable by the following criteria:

- a auxiliaries do not bear primary stress;
- b auxiliaries cannot occur alone, for instance in answer to a question;
- c auxiliaries never take personal suffixes; they occur followed by a verbal or ambient predicate phrase.

Exception: the progressive form  $hiy\acute{u}k^W$  of the auxiliary  $yuk^W$  can occur alone, without another predicate, as in:

The auxiliaries are:

y u k <sup>w</sup>	Progressive	yukw		
tisk W	Perfective	('it is finished')	(PERF)	hliskw
ňak <sup>W</sup>	Evidential	('it is obvious')	(EVID)	iakw

5.12.A. <u>yukw</u> Progressive yukw: (from yúkw 'to be in motion' yukw, normally used with proclitics of direction, 7.1.A.):

5.12.A.1. With Po:

It is snowing.

Yukwhi maadim.

$$yùk^{W}==a?=1$$
 mátim

... == ASST=NC snowfall

It is snowing! (believe it or not)

Yugwa'ahi maadim!

5.12.A.2. With PA:

5.12.A.2.a. In declarative clause:

I am eating.

...=NC eat-1S

Yukwhi yuuzgwiý.

I hear s/he is working. Yuk v-ga(t)hi hahlaİsit.

5.12.A.2.b. In question: the answer cannot consist of the auxiliary alone, but must include the main verb:

$$\label{eq:continuous_purk_w_n} y \hat{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{W}} = \boldsymbol{1} \ y \hat{\boldsymbol{u}} : \boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{W}} - \boldsymbol{n} = = \boldsymbol{a} : -- * y \hat{\boldsymbol{u}} \boldsymbol{k}^{\boldsymbol{W}} \quad \text{Are you eating? - [Yes].}$$

...=NC eat-2S==Q

Yukwhi yuungwina? - "Yukw. [wrong]

- Yes [ = I am eating].

...=NC eat-1S

-- Yukwhi yuuzgwiý.

5.12.A.2.c. In relative clause: the progressive form hivukw hivukw is used. and both it and the clause predicate take the REL suffix -(i)t -it/at/t (7.2.A.2.):

• ná=+ hi)yùkW-ət=+ yúxkW-ət Who is eating?

who=NC ASP)...-REL=NC eat-REL

Nash! hiyugwith! yuuzgwit?

5.12.A.3. With PEA:

#### 5.12.A.3.a. In main clause:

• yùkW nəkip-t

I am eating it.

Yukw ni gipt.

• yùkW -t kip-t ... 3.E eat.s.-3

S/he is eating it.

Yukwt gipt.

#### 5.12.A.3.b. In (headless) relative clause:

• ... yùkW-t ?an kip-t ...-3E REL.E eat.s.-3

... the one who is eating it.

...yukvtaa gipt.

5.12.A.4. Remark: The above represents modern usage. In Boas, it is mostly the reduplicated form that is used for the progressive meaning, as in:

• hi)yùkW-tkúxW-[t]=4 lákW ?a=4 lít qan=4 táq4
ASP)...-3 split.s.-[3]=ND wood PREP wedge and=NC hammer
He was splitting wood with wedges and hammer (90.7-8).

Hiyukwt k'uxwhl lakw ahl lit ganhl dakhl.

while the plain form often has the meaning 'just happened' (now expressed by the combination **qay** 118k kay hliskw..., see below 5.12.B.), as in:

• yùkW-tksə=?úx-ti:t nì:ỷ ?a=+kálq ...-3E out-throw.s.-3P me PREP=NC outside

They've just thrown me out of the house (124.1-2).

Yukwt ksi'uxdiit niiy ah! galk.

5.12.B. <u>fisk W Perfective blisk w</u> (from fisk W to be finished blisk w): in single declarative clauses, this auxiliary is usually preceded by the

subordinators 1a: 'by now...' hlas (5.16.B.2.) or qay 'still' (which means 'just now' in this context) k'sy (5.16.B.9.).

# 5.12.B.1. With PA:

ta: tisk W=t hatáisT-ý
 by.now ...=NC work-1S

I have finished working.

Hlas hliskwhl hahlalsiy.

†a: **†ìsk W**=† ha†áİsT-n==a: - \*†ìsk W by.now ...=NC work-2S==0 - ... Ha

Have you finished working? - [Yes].

Hlaa **hliskv**hl hahlaisina? - \*Hliskw.[wrong]

qay **tìsk W**=t hatáİsT-ý still ...=NC work-1S

I just finished working.

K'ay hlishwhl hahlalsiy.

ta: tisk W==əma?=t hatáİsT-t
by.now ...==DUB=NC work-3

S/he's probably finished working.

Hlas hlisg vima ahl hahlalsit.

lisk W=1 halálsT-n tim ?i: yú:xkW-n
 ...=NC work-2S FUT and eat-2S

Finish your work then you can eat.
You'll eat after you finish your work.

Hiskwhi hahlaisin dim ii yuuggwin.

# 5.12.B.2. With PEA:

• 4a: 4isk w mayó?oks-t==a: -- \*4isk w
by.now ... 2S.E wash.s.-3==0

Have you finished washing it? - [Yes].

Haa hlisk w mi yo'oksda?

- \*Hlisk w [wrong].

ta: tisk w tyó?oks-[t]=[s][t]Màry

Mary has finished washing it.

by.now ... 3E wash.s.-[3]=[DC][DM] M.

Hlas blisk w tyo oks Mary.

5.12.C. <u>nakW Evidential nakw</u> (not used in questions) (≠ nakW 'to be long' nakw)

The unstressed  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}a\mathbf{k}\mathbf{w}$  introduces a highly probable statement based on direct evidence. Although the sentence often corresponds to a (rhetorical) question in English, it does not take the Interrogative postclitic == a: (6.3.A.1.a.) as it is not a question in Nisgha.

## 5.12.C.1. With PA:

• ħàk<sup>W</sup>=4 mimst-n

...=NC crazy-2S

You must be crazy! /Are you crazy?

Nakwhi mimsdin!

• nakw=1 woq-[t]=s [t] pe:pi:

...=NC sleep-[3]=DC [DM] B.

Baby must be sleeping!

Nakwhi woks Beebii!

• nakw=+ qal caxw-[t]=+pa?anskw-t
...=NC too considerable-[3]=NC drive-3

S/he must have been driving too fast!

Nekwhi gai ts'axwhi ba'anskwt!

# 5.12.C.2. With PEA:

• nakw maqali-t

... 2E drop.s.-3

You must have dropped it!

Nakw magalit!

• nakw məxsinq-y [I see] you don't believe me!
... 2E disbelieve.s.-1S

Nakw ma zsingay!

• **nakw** məqúc-[t]=+?an?ún-n
... 2E cut.s.-[3]=NC hand-2S

You must have cut yourself!
(lit. ... cut your hand)

Naky ma k'otshi an'unin!

•  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  -t  $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{$ 

A louse must have got into your navel!
(since you giggle so much)

Nakwt bazkwhl ts'iskwhl t'ukw'in!

### 5.13. NEGATIVE VERBS.

Negative verbs have a quasi-auxiliary role and share some of their properties with Auxiliary verbs (5.12.). Like auxiliaries, Negative verbs can be followed by a predicate phrase. Unlike auxiliaries, they can be stressed and occur alone in answer to a question.

The negative verbs are:

ní: 'not [to be], No!' nii

hawin
kiló 'Don't!' gilo

?áq 'to be non-existent, impossible' ak

5.13.A. N1(:) '...not...' ni(i)

5.13.A.1. Form and meaning: The most common negative verb is a form of the predicate Ni: 'no!; not to be' nii. When in is quasi-auxiliary role it occurs under the forms Ni(:) ni(i), Niki(:) nigi(i), Nikiti: nigidii, Niti: nidii. The last two forms derive from the addition of the Intensive modifier ti: dii to Ni(:) ni(i) or Niki(:) nigi(i). The latter in turn includes the suffix-ki(:) -gii which may perhaps be identified historically with the Distal postclitic

(6.3.B.2.b.). These additional morphemes, which also occur with  $\hbar a \hat{\mathbf{w}} \hat{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{n}$  not yet  $\hbar a \hat{\mathbf{w}} \hat{\mathbf{n}}$ , prevent the insertion of the connective  $= \mathbf{1} - \hbar I$  in front of the main predicate.

In present day Nisgha both OFS and YFS use NI(:) ni(i) (NIki-nigi-before the 3E pronoun t) for negative questions; for negative statements OFS tend to distinguish between NIki: nigii for plain negation and NIkiti: nigiti for insistent negation (similarly, in the Boas tales, Nikiti: nigiti can be translated by 'not at all' while Niki: nigit is the ordinary negative). Ni(:) ni(i) alone can be used before the proclitic/modifier kWit kwihi 'about, around'. YFS tend to use Niti: nidii for all negative statements. Although ti: dii is normally pronounced and written together with the negative word, they may be separated by an Ergative clitic pronoun (and the Future particle tim dim).

#### 5.13.A.2. Contractions:

When Ni: aii and its variants combine with clitic pronouns and the FUT particle tim dim, contractions occur in informal speech, expecially among YFS.

## 5.13.A.2. With PA:

I am <u>not</u> going to eat.

OFS: ni:-ki: tim ti: yú:xk<sup>W</sup>-ỷ
not-INTS FUT INTS eat-1S
Nigidim dii yuuzgwiỳ:

YFS: nimti: yú:xkW-ỷ
not.FUT eat-1S
Nimdii yuuzgwiỳ.

5.13.A.2. With PEA:

• I did not eat it.

OFS: ni:-ki: nəkip-t
not-INTS IS E eat.s.-3
Nigii ni gipt.

YFS: ni:-nə-ti: kip-t not-1S.E-INTS eat.s.-3

Niodii gipt.

YFS: ni:-ti: nəkip-t not-INTS 18.E eat.s.-3

Nidii ni gipt.

I am not going to eat it.

OFS: ni:-ki: nə tim ti: kip-t not-INTS 1S.E.F.UT INTS eat.s.-3

Nigindim dii gipt.

YFS: nimti: nəkip-t not.FUT ISE eat.s.-3

Nimdii ni gipt.

Are you going to eat it?

OFS: ni:-ki: mə tim kip-t==a:
not-INTS 2E FUT eat.s.-3==0

Nigii mi dim gipda?

YFS: ni: matim kip-t==a: not 2E FUT eat.s.==0

Nii mi dim gipda?

•

Aren't you going to eat it?

OFS: ni:-ki: mə tim ti: kip-t==a:
not-INTS 2E FUT INTS eat.s.-3==0

Nigii mi dim dii gipda?

YFS: nimti: məkip-t==a: not.FUT 2E FUT eat.s.-t==0

Nimdii mi gipda?

The modifier huxw 'again' huxw can also intervene between ni(:) ni(i) and ti: dii

•

I won't eat it any more.

ofs: ni:-ki: nə  $timhux^W$  kip-t

not-INTS 1S.E.FUT again INTS eat.s.-3

Nigindim huxw gipt.

YFS: ni: hux W ti: no tim kip-t not again INTS 1S.E.FUT eat.s.-3

Nihuxwdii ni dim gipt.

YFS: nimuxWti: nəķíp-t

[not-FUT-again] INTS iS.E eat.s.-3

Nimuzwdii ni gipt.

5.13.A.3. Use in negative statements:

5.13.A.3.a. Negation of nominal predicate

5.13.A.3.a.1. Denying the identity of a nominal:

5.13.A.3.a.1.a. <u>Determinate nominal</u>: as a determinate nominal cannot take a suffix ending, its A-nominal is separated from it by the preposition ?a a (and suitable connective) when the nominal predicate follows a negative verb.

positive:

• [t] Máry t kùn (DM) M. DM this

This is Mary.

Mary tgun.

negative:

ni:-ti: t <u>Máry</u> ?a=s[t]kùn
 not-INTS DM M. PREP=DC [DM] this

This is not Mary.

Nidii t Mary as gun.

5.13.A.3.a.1.b. Non-determinate nominal:

5.13.A.3.a.1.b.1. <u>Unsuffixed noun</u>: the noun behaves like any  $P_A$  predicate and its argument is suffixed to it; often the modifier  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{t}}$  'about'  $\mathbf{k}\mathbf{w}'ihi$  (5.15.B.44.) is added to emphasize the unreality of the statement being denied; it also shows that the noun is a clause predicate, not a downshifted predicate:

positive:

póttkùs[t]

boat DM that

That's a boat.

Boot tgus.

negative:

• ni:-ti: kWil pó:t-t not-INTS about boat-3

It isn't a boat(!)

Nidii (kw'ihl) boott.

• ni:-ti: kWii pó:t-[t]=s[t]kùs[t] That's not a boat(!).
not-INTS about boat-[t]=DC [DM] that Nidii (kw'ihl) boots gus.

5.13.A.3.a.1.b.2. <u>Downshifted nominal predicate</u>: thenominal predicate is already suffixed; the A-nominal appears after the preposition ?a a, or replaced by an indirect pronoun (5.9.B.1.b.1.b.):

positive:

pót-t tkùs[t]

boat-3 DM that

That's his boat.

Boott tgus.

negative:

ni:-ti: pó:t-t ?a=s {t|kùs[t]
 no: INTS boat-3 PREP=DC (DM) that

That isn't his boat.

Nidii boott as gus.

 ni:-ti: pó:t-t lo:-t not-INTS boat-3 IND-3

It isn't his boat.

Nidii boott loot.

5.13.A.3.a.2. Denying possession of a nominal: after the negative verb, the (non-determinate) possessed nominal behaves like any other  $P_A$  and its argument is a suffix, with the Adjunct connected by a connective:

positive:

 tá:la ħì:n==a: money you==Q

You got some money?

Danie niina?

• lip wilp tip Frèd seif house DM.PLF.

Fred 'and them' have their own house.

Lip wilp dip Fred.

negative:

• ni:-ti: tá:la-ÿ
not-INTS money-1S

I don't have any money.

Nidii daalay.

 ni:-ti: lip wîlp-[t]=s tip Fred not-INTS self house-[3]=DC DM.PL F.

Fred 'and them' don't have their own house.

Nidii lip wilps dip Fred.

5.13.A.3.b. Negation of non-nominal predicates: The predicate phrase follows the negative verb. Negation of the predicate can be reinforced by the modifier  $\mathbf{k}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{1}$  'around, about'  $\mathbf{k}\mathbf{w}'ihl$ . The IRR particle CO  $\mathbf{j}i'/\mathbf{j}\mathbf{s}$  can be used before a following noun, in which case there is no connective.

5.13.A.3.b.1. With Po:

 ni:-ti: pá?askW not-INTS wind

There is/was no wind.

Nidii ba'askw.

ni:==qa[t]=†pá?askW

They said there was no wind.

Nii-ga(t)hl ba'askw.

5.13.A.3.b.2. With PA: (intransitives, adjectives, numerals)

 OFS: ni:-ki: yú:xkW-ỷ not-INTS eat-1S

I didn't eat.

Nigii yuuxgwiÿ.

ni:-ki:-ti: yú:xkW-ỷ
not-INTS-INTS eat-1S

I didn't eat at all.

Nigidii yuuxgwiy.

YFS: ni:-ti: yú:xkW-ŷ
not-INTS eat-1S

I didn't eat.

Nidii yuuzgwiy

• ni:-ti: kWił yú:xkW-[t]cə t Màry Mary wasn't eating!

not-INT around eat-[3] IRR DM M. Nidii kw'ihl yourkw ji t Mary!

• OFS: ni: kWil na:m=náks-ý not about wanting=married-1S

I don't want to get married!

(What an idea!)

Nii kw'ihl naam-naksiy/

YFS: ni:-ti: na:m=naks-y
not-INTS wanting=married-1S

I don't want to get married.

Nidii naam-naksiv

ní:==qa[t]=† na:m=náks-t I hear she doesn't/didn't want to get married.
not==REP=NC wanting=married-3 Nii-ga(t)hl naam-nakst

• ni:-ti: xskWiné qs-ỷ

I am/was not cold.

Nidii zsgwinecksiy.

## 5.13.A.3.b.3. With PEA:

 OFS: ni:-ki: nakip-t not-INTS 1SE eat.s.-3

I didn't eat it.

Nigin gipt.

ni: ki: nə ti: kip-t

I did <u>not</u> eat it.

Nigindii gipt.

ni: ki:-tkip-t not-INTS 3E eat.s.-3

S/he didn't eat it.

Nigit gipt.

ni:-ki:-ti:-tkip-t not-INTS-INTS 3E eat.s.-3

S/he did <u>not</u> eat it.

Nigidiit gipt.

YFS: ni:-nə-ti: kip-t not-1S.E-INTS eat.s.-3

I did not eat it.

Nindii gipt.

ni:-ti: nə kip-t not-INTS 1S.E eat.s.-3

I did not eat it.

Nidii ni gipt.

ni:-ti:-tkip-t not-3E-INTS eat.s.-3

S/he did not eat it.

Nidiit gipt.

## 5.13.A.4. Questions starting with the negative ni(ki): ai(i)(gii).

The Interrogative postclitic == a: (6.3.A.1.a.) conveys more a request for confirmation than a true question; asking a question simply by adding == a: to a statement then creates a presumption that the statement is correct and puts on the listener the possible onus of replying on the negative:

• si:pkW ni:n==a: sickyou==Q

You were sick? (I presume)
Siinkw hiina?

It is therefore polite to phrase a question in the negative: this is comparable to adding a tag such as 'by any chance':

5.13.A.4.a. With Po:

• ni:=4 hay wis==a:

Did it rain? Is it raining?

Niih! haywisa?

# 5.13.A.4.b. With PA:

...=NC money-2S==0

Do you have any money?

Niih! daalana?

(intr.) • 
$$\mathbf{n}i = \mathbf{1}$$
  $\mathbf{s}i \cdot \mathbf{p}k^{\mathbf{W}} - \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a}$ 

...=NC sick-2S==Q

Are/Were you sick?

Niihl siipgwina?

 $ni := 1 sipk^W - t == a$ 

...=NCsick-3==Q

Is/Was s/he sick?

Niihl siipkwda?

• ni:=4 ?á:m-t==a:

...=NCgood-3==Q

Is it all right?

Niih! aamda?

# 5.13.A.4.c. With PEA:

•  $ni: m \ni k\acute{a}? - [t] = \frac{1}{4}? ant \ni -t\acute{a}: la - \mathring{y} == a:$ 

... 2E see.s.-[3]=NC container-money-1S==Q

Have you (by any chance) seen

my purse/wallet?

Nii mi ga'ahl andidaalaya?

ni:=ki:=tká?=t==a:

-INTS-3Esee.s.-3==A

Did s/he (perhaps) see it?

Nigit ga'ada?

• ni: mətimxtáx-m==a:

... 2EFUT eat.with.s.o.-1P==Q

Would you (like to) eat with us?

Nii mi dim zdayima?

Nowadays these questions are not considered negative, but simply polite. The Intensive modifier ti: dii (5.15.B.2.a.) is added if a negative question is meant:

• ni:=1  $ti: si:pk^W-n==a:$ 

Aren't/Weren't you sick?

...=NC INTS sick-2S==Q

Niihl oli siipgwins?

• ni: mə ti: ká?-[t]=+?antə-ta:la-y==a: Haven't you seen my purse? ... 2E INTS see.s.-[3]=NC container-money-1S==Q Nii mi dii ga'ahl andidaalaya?

### 5.13.A.5. Negation inside a clause:

niki:/nikiti: nigii/nigidii (OFS) and niti: nidii (YFS) can both be used inside a dependent clause to negate the predicate in that clause:

# 5.13.A.5.a. With Po:

• wil ni:-ti: haywis ... as it doesn't/didn't rain. as ...-INTS rain ... wil nidii haywis.

## 5.13.A.5.b. With PA:

Nom: • Wil ni:-ti: tá:la-ỷ ... as I don't have any money. ... money-1S ... Wil nidii daalay. intr: • Wil ni:-ti: haláÍsT-ỷ ... as I don't/didn't work. ... work-1S ... wil nidii hahlalsiy.

# 5.13.A.5.c. With PEA:

• wil ni:-nə-ti: kip-t

... as I did not eat it. ... - iS.E-INTS eat.s.-3 ... Wil nindii gipt. wil ni:-ti:-tkip-t ... as s/he did not eat it. ...-INTS-3E eat.s.-3 ... wil nidiit gipt.

Here the particular event being talked about is simply negated, in contrast with a sentence using the modifier ?ax ar (5.15.A., 5.15.B.15.) which has a connotation of impossibility. This use of III:(ti:) as a modifier seems to be fairly recent.

5.13.B. hawin '... not yet' hawin: This verb usually occurs alone (in answer to a question) or before a clause.

As with Mi: aii, the Intensive modifier ti: dii may be separate, or added as a suffix, and older forms can also add the suffix -ki(:) -gi(i). The meaning of the expanded forms is ' ... never (yet)/not ... eyer'.

## 5.13.B.1. With Po:

• hawin=4 má.tim==a: --hawin ...=NC snowfall==Q- ...

Has it snowed yet? - Not yet. Havinh! maadima? - Havin

• hawin-timá:tim ... snowfall

It hasn't snowed yet, it isn't winter yet. Havindii muadim

# 5.13.B.2. With PA:

• hawin= tá:wii-t==a: --hawin Has s/he left yet? -- Not yet. ...=NC leave-3==Q

Haviahl daavihlda? -- Havia

hawin==əma?=+ tá:wi+-t. ...==DUB=NC leave-3

I wonder if s/he has left yet. I guess s/he hasn't left yet. Havinima ahl daawih IL

hawin==ema? ...==DUB

I wonder [if ... yet]. Havinimaa

• hawin=1ksiyimqkW-n==a: ...=NC shave-2S==0

Have you shaved yet? (to man) Havinhl ksiyimkawina?

hawin=1 ti: ksiyimqkW-n==a: ...=NC INTS shave-2S==0

Have you ever shaved? (to boy) Haviahl dii ksiyimkgwina?

## 5.13.B.3. With PEA:

 hawin mə ká?-[t]=+ laxmí+==a: ... 2E see.s.-[3]=NC lava==0

Have you seen the lava beds yet? Havio mi ga'ahl lazmihla?

hawln mə ti: ká?-[t]=+ laxmí+==a: Have you ever seen the lava beds? ... 2E INTS see.s.-[3]=NC lava==Q

Havin mi dii ga'ahl laxmihla?

hawinti:-tká?-[t]=+laxmí+ ... INTS-3E see.s.-[3]=NC lava

S/he has never seen the lava beds.

Hevindiit ga'ahl lazmihl.

hawinwith 1st person is often used for the expression of threats:

• **hawin** nəhinádax-n

... 1S.E spank.s.-2S

Wait till I spank you!

(lit. I have not spanked you yet)

Hevia ai biasts'sxea!

• hawinnə pis-[t]=1 max lo:-sim Wait till I break the light-ball on you! ... 1S.E tear.s.-[3]=NC light(?) IND-2P

(16.5)

Havin ni bishl maz loosim!

Hence 'not yet' with 1st person is expressed by hawin-ti: hawindii;

ors: hawin ne ti: ká?-t

... 1S.E INTS see.s.-3

I haven't seen it/them yet.

Hevin ni dii ga'at.

YFS: hawin-ti:nəká?-t.

Havindii ni ga'at.

...-INTS 1S.E ...

• hawin-ti:nəsim qal wilá:x-[t]=+sim?álkax

... -INTS1S.E really too know.s.=NC N.lang. I don't know Nisgha too well

yet. Havindii ni sim gal wilaaxhi sim'elgaz.

5.13.C. kiló[?]'don't...!' gilo: This verb can be uttered alone, or before a clause with a verbal predicate. kiló gilo is the more modern, colloquial form, kiló? gilo'o the older, more formal shape.

5.13.C.1. Alone, it functions as an interjective predicate (354-5) and has both a singular and a place! form:

kiló/kiló-sim

Don't! (sg./pl.) Gilo!/Gilosim!

• kiló - kiló - naxňá-(y)ə-t==kiỷ?a=†čim-wílp

... - ... - hear.s.-CTL-3==MIN PREP=NC in-house

Don't [cry]! Don't! They'll hear it in the house [so stop it] | (91.10-11)

Gilo! Gilo! Naxnayit-giy ahl ts'im wilp!

5.13.C.2. With clause: the resulting sentence is a negative imperative. Usually the IRR particle CO ji/ja occurs between kiló gilo and the main verb.

5.13.C.2.a. With PA (except nominal):

5.13.C.2.a.1. With the IRR particle CO ji/ja: kilò CO ...: 'Don't [start doing] ...'
Gilo ji/ja ...

• kilò cə páx-n ... IRR ...

Don't run| [Don't start running]

Gilo ji bazan!

5.13.C.2.a.2. Without the IRR particle CO ji/ja: the connective =1 -h/occurs between the negative and the main verbs:  $kil\acute{o}=1$  ...: 'Stop [what you are doing]' Giloh1....

• **kilò=1** páx-n ...=NC run-2S

Stop running!

Giloh! bazan!

**5.**13.C.2.b. With  $P_{EA}$ : the IRR particle CO *ji/ja* always occurs before the verb: Don't do ...'

• kilò mə cə tás-t Don't touch it!

... 2E IRR touch s.-3

Gilo mi ji dast!

Some YFS keep kilò Co ... Gilo ji ... together with PEA's as well as with PA's, thus:

• kilò cə mətás-t Don't touch it!

... 2E IRR touch s.-3 Gilo ji m' dast!

CO ji/ja can also be used before the A nominal Adjunct: compare:

• kilò mə cə tás-[t]cə ?asàỷ-a:+fóqs Do not touch a[ny] sunbeam!

... 2E IRR touch.s.-[3] IRR leg-LINK+sun (in case there is a sunbeam, don't touch it)

Gilo mi ji das ji asaýa hloks!

kilò mə cə tás-[t]=1 ?asày -a:+1óqs Don't touch the sunbeam!
...=NC ...

Gilo mi ji dashl asaya hloks!

5.13.D. ?áQ 'to be non-existent, impossible, not to exist, there is not .../there is no way ... (unfortunately)' ak

?áQ at can be used before both nominal and verbal predicates, as a quasi-auxiliary like the other negative verbs, but also as a subordinating verb.

#### 5.13.D.1. With possessed nominal predicate:

 $?\acute{a}q = 1 + possessed noun: 'not to have ... (or any way to get it)' (cf. <math>ni$ : (ti:) 5.13.A.)

• ?àq=1 tá:la-ỷ ...=NC money-1S

I don't have any money [at all]. (lit. my money does not exist)

Akhi daalay

• ?aq=4 wil-y ...=NC act-1S

There is nothing I can do/I can't do anything [about it]/I am in trouble/powerless/helpless.

Akhl wiliý.

dapáq==a?=+ wíl-n==əst
 absolutely==ASST=NC act-2S==AFF

You are <u>really</u> in trouble, aren't you! (said jokingly)

K'ap aga'ahl wilinis!

5.13.D.2. With verbal predicate, as a subordinating verb: In modern usage, the clause following ?àQ ak usually includes the FUT particle tim dim. Older usage (as in Boas 1902) does not usually include this particle.

### 5.13.D.2.a. With headless relative clause:

5.13.D.2.a.1. With headless Subject-relative clause: 'there is no one to ... (intr.)'

• 7àq=4 tim lim[x]-(ə)t ...=NC FUT sing-REL

There is/was no one who could sing.

Akh! dim limit.

5.13.D.2.a.2. With headless Object-relative clause: 'to have nothing to ...'

• ?àq=1 tim kip-ə-t ...=NCFUT eat.s.-CTL-3

S/he has/had nothing to eat.

Akhl dim gibit.

• ?àq=1 tim qó?-ə-t ...=NCFUT go.to.s.-CTL-3

S/he has/had nowhere to go.

Athl dim go'ot.

• ?àq=! tim hó:x-ə-ỷ ...=NC FUT use.s.-CTL-1S

I have nothing to wear/
There is nothing I can use.

Akh! dim hooviý.

• ní[t]=1 ki: aq=1 yóx-kW-ə-[t]=s[t]cak that's=NC and ...=NC follow.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] Ts.

[The trail ended at the foot of a cliff]

... so Ts'ak could not continue on his way (lit. ... had no route to follow)(126.7.)
... hihl k'ii akhl yozgwis Ts'ak.

5.13.D.2.a.3. With headless E-relative clause: 'there is no one who can ...[tr.]'

• **?áq** tim-t?an wilá:ÿin-tlo:-n ... FUT-3E REL.E iet.s.know.s.-3 IND-2S

There was no one who could have let you know.

Ak dimt an wilasyint loon.

5.13.D.2.a.4. With headless clause relativizing the Specified Complement: (this clause has the form of a regular clause):

• **7áq** tip wilá:kW-T-t ... 1P.E treat.s.-DEF-3

There is nothing we can do to them (no way we can kill them) (103.7)

At dip wileagwit.

• **?áq** nətimkin-t ...1S.E.FUT feed.s.s.-DEF-3

I cannot possibly feed h., I have nothing to feed h. Ak ni dim gint.

5.13.D.2.b. With regular clauses:

5.13.D.2.b.1. With  $P_A$ : 'to be unable to ... (in general), there is no way to...'

• ?áq=1 tim yé:-ỷ

I can't walk (e.g. I am crippled);

Akhl dim yeeý.

• 7áq=4 tim wóq-[t]=s[t]nò.ý
...=NC FUT sleep-[3]=DC [DM] my.mother

My mother can't sleep, has insomnia.

Akhl dim woks noov.

# 5.13.D.2.b.2. With PEA:

• **áq** tim tip **limóm-t**it ... FUT 1P.E help.s.-3P

There seems to be nothing we can do to help them/ no way we can help them.

Ak dim tip himoomdiit.

• áq t wila:ks==kú:[t]-[t]=+?i:ká?a=+cimá:q-t
... 3E how out=take.s.-[3]=NC halibut.hook PREP=NC mouth-3

[No matter how he tried] he just could not take the halibut hook out of his mouth (51.5-6).

\*\*Akt wilas ksiguuhl iiga ahl ts'imaakt.

5.13.D.2.c. The combination áQ wil Co ak wil ii ...: (with subordinator wil wil and IRR particle Co ji/ja) means wish there was a way to ..., if only there was a way to ...'

## PA:

7aq wil cə kipáy k<sup>W</sup>-ÿ
 ... SUB IRR fiy-1S

If only I could fly!

Ak wil ji gibaygwiy!

# $P_{EA}$

• ?aq wil cə nəkí:kW-t ... SUB IRR 1S.E buy.s.-3

If only I could buy it!
Wish there was a way I could buy it!

Ak wil ji ni giikwt!

#### 5.13.D.3. The negative modifier ?ax'not'ar:

The modifier ?ax as (5.15.B.15.) is related morphologically to ?aq as 'not to

exist, to be unavailable, impossible through the preconsonantal Velar-fricativization rule. Like other modifiers, it is used before a predicate.

#### 5.13.D.3.a. Unsuffixed:

### 5.13.D.3.a.1. With Po:

• tim sə-má:ỷ nù:m ta:lák W cəta: ?axhay wis
FUT make-berries us tomorrow if ... rain

If it does not rain, tomorrow we'll go berry-picking.

Dim simaaý ńuum t'aahlakw jidaa ar haywis.

## 5.13.D.3.a.2. With PA:

• ?akúqan?ax yú:xkW-n what cause ... eat-2S

Why don't/didn't you eat?

Agu gan az yuuzgwin?

## 5.13.D.3.a.3. With PEA:

 ?akúqan-t?ax kíp-t what cause-3E ... eat.s.-3

Why can't/didn't s/he eat it?

Agu gant ag gipt?

intá ma qan ?ax kí:kW-t
 which.way 2E cause: buy.s.-3

Is there a reason you didn't buy it?

Nda ma gan an giikwt?

fa: sim ňák<sup>W</sup> nə 7ax ká?-n
 now really longltime] ISE ... see.s.-2S

I haven't seen you for a long time.

Hlas sim ńakw ni az ga'an.

In present-day usage, ?ax ax contrasts with ni:-ti: nidii inside a clause, as ni:ti: nidii seems to be gaining ground in a quasi-modifier role: ?ax ax implies not just negation of a single event, like ni:-ti: nidii, but negation in general, impossibility. Compare:

• kWilal-[t]=4 4oqs=4 ni:-ti: ha4alsT-t three-[3]=NC month=NC not-INTS work-3

S/he hasn't worked for 3 months (has been unemployed/hasn't wanted to work, etc.).

Gwilaihi hlokshi nidii hahlais(i)t.

kWilàl-[t]=4 4óqs=4 ?ax ha4álsT-t three-[3]=NC month=NC ... work-3

S/he has been unable to work for 3 months (e.g. as a result of illness, injury, etc.).

Gwilaihi hlokshi az hahlais(i)t.

5.13.D.3.b. Suffixed with ti: dii: Like the negative verbs Ni: uii and hawin hawin, the modifier ?ax ax can be reinforced by the modifier ti: dii, hence ?ax-ti: 'never, never at all, under any circumstances' axdii (\* hawin-ti 'never yet' hawindii).

• ?ax-ti: cex nin

You can never get enough! (teasing)

satisted you

Azdii ts'eex niin!

• kip-\(\partical\)-t=\(\frac{1}{2}\) tim \(\begin{align\*}
7ax-ti:\(\text{kip-}\righta-t\) He at what he was not supposed to eat. eat.s.-CTL=NCFUT ... eat.s.-CTL-3

Gibith! dim ardii gibit.

?ax-ti: azdii can be used as a predicate before the complementizer Wil (it seems that this form is the verb ?áq ak with intensive modifier ti: dii, as with the other negative verbs Ni: aii and hawin):

#### 5.14. ADVERBS.

Adverbs cannot serve as clause predicates, only as complements. They can bear stress, be preceded by modifiers of suitable meaning, and be focused. However, they cannot be preceded by subordinators or by the FUT particle tim dim. They function only as complements, not as arguments, so they are not often preceded by a connective, except after the preposition ?a a. Nor can they be components of prefixed or incorporating verbs (7.1.B.2.a., 9.2.A.).

Locational adverbs can be preceded by modifiers (5.15.) of suitable meaning, such as qayim'near ...' k'ayim and Wa(qa)yt'far ...' wa(a)yt.

Adverbs of time indicating the future may be preceded by the IRR particle (6.1.B.1.) CO ji/ja. This is also true of the interrogative adverb  $kakk\acute{u}$  when?' gargu.

### Some examples are:

- non-focused Complement: the adverb occurs at the end of the clause:

• kisə=sáksk niti:t ké:č They w downstream=leave.PL them downriver river.

They went away [to a place] down the river.

Gisisakskw nidiit goots

• tim náks-ti: ta: ta: tak W

FUT get.married-IMPERS tomorrow

There is a wedding tomorrow.

Dim naksdii t'aahlakw

tqal=kó:=i mà:l-y tú:w
 against=moored=NC canoe-1S there

I have a canoe, over there. (106.2)

Tk'algyoohl maaliÿ duu ÷.

• kó:?a=4 qayim tú:w
moored PROP=NC near there

It is [moored] just over there. (106.5)

Gyoo ahl k'ayim duu v.

- focused: in initial position (see also 4.7.A.3.b.):

dayimtú: www. wil kó:-t
 near there SUB moored-3

It is moored just over there.

K'syim duu' wil gyoot.

• kičó:n wil kè:4-[t]=[4] 4ku-wílksi4kW The princess slept at the back at back SUB fie-[3]=NC little-prince of the house. (B. 152.12)

Gits'oon wil geehl higu wilksihikw.

• cə kaxkú=1 tim wil-t IRR when?=NC FUT act-3

When is it going to be?

Ji gazguhl dim wilt?

• cə kaxkú==(y)əma?=1 tim wil-t IRR when?==DUB=NC FUT act-3

I wonder when it is going to be?

Ji REERWYIMS shi dim wilt?

ta:4ákW tim wil náks-ti:
 tomorrow FUT SUB married-IMPS

The wedding is going to be tomorrow.

Tracklet will makedii.

#### 5.15. MODIFIERS.

5.15.A. Modifiers are optional members of the predicate phrase. A few modifiers have concrete meaning, e.g. Walqlayt 'far' walglayt/wayt (5.15.B.34), Si: 'new(ly)' sii (5.15.B.40), ku 'little' hlgu (5.15.B.36), but many have manner or modal meaning, e.g. kSax 'only' ksax (5.15.B.17), qap 'absolutely, must...' k'ap (5.15.B.10), etc., or organize discourse, e.g. ti: dii (5.15.B.2.) which often indicates a contrast with another segment of discourse. These categories tend to overlap, however.

Modifiers must be differentiated from adverbs (5.14) on the one hand, from proclitics (7.1.) on the other:

- An adverb is not a member of the predicate phrase, but has an optional

complement role in the clause. It usually has locative or temporal meaning and can be uttered in isolation. A modifier cannot be uttered in isolation, but always precedes all other pre-predicate morphemes. It is not included within the scope of reduplication (see 7.1. for more details).

Prefixation of modifiers is not usually a productive process, except with the negative modifier ?ax 'not' ax (5.15.B.15.) which is used extensively as a prefix, as in

?ax-qó:t

'irresponsible, foolish'

no-heart/mind

\*\*ROOT

Conversely, the proclitic kWit 'around, about' kWihl (5.15.B.44.) seems to be used as a modifier sometimes: its meaning is so vague and its use so general that it is sometimes difficult to tell the difference: it seems to be used as modifier in clauses beginning with a negative verb (5.13.), for instance:

• ni:-ti: kwił hó:n-t not-INTS around fish-3

It isn't a fish! Nidii kw'ih! hoon!

• nì kwit na:m=náks-ý I don't want to get married! not around want to=married-1S

Nii kw'ih! naam-naksiy!

5.15.B. <u>List of modifiers</u>. (This list is not given in any particular order).

5.15.B.1. ti 'suddenly, unexpectedly' di

Unlike the other modifiers, which can occur in any type of clause, ti di is always followed by a predicate-focused clause; even when it is preceded by an element which is normally followed by a regular clause, ti di seems to 'interrupt' the sentence and 'cancel' the regular type.

kaxkúti quc-a-n=iqis-n
 when? ... cut.s.-CTL-2S=NC hair-2S

When did you cut your hair?
(I did not expect you to cut it)

Gazgu di k'ojinhi gesin?

#### (compare:

kaxkúməwil quc-[t]=tqis-n When did you cut your hair?
when? 2E SUB cut.s.-[3]=NC hair-2S (I know you were going to cut it, I just want to know when)

Gazgu mi wil k'otshl gesin?)

• yukW=1 wil-t ti ...
PROG=NC act/do-3 ...

All of a sudden, ... [something happened]

Yukwhi will, di...

5.15.B.2. ti: dii can have Intensive or Contrastive meaning.

5.15.B.2.a. <u>Intensive meaning</u>: general rather than specific question or declaration:

• ?akú=\frac{1}{1}: kip-\text{\text{-[t]}=\frac{1}{1}}: \text{What does a bird eat?} \text{what=NC .... eat.s.-CTL-[3]=NC bird } Aguhl \text{dii gibihl ts'uuts'?}

(without ti: dii, the sentence would mean 'What did the bird eat?')

• ?akù=† ?álkax=† ti: hó:x-a-n What language do you speak? what=NC speak=NC .... use s.-CTL-2S Aguhl algazhl dii hooyin?

This modifier is also used as an Intensive suffix with negative verbs (5.13.A.4.c.).

5.15.B.2.b. <u>Contrastive meaning</u>: insistence on a new element within a context similar to a previous utterance: ti: dii contrasts one utterance with another of similar structure, whether actually present in discourse, or implied by the

#### context:

# 5.15.B.2.b.1. Contrasting focused constituents:

- ?aŷánswil wítkW-ŷ
   Aiyansh SUB come.from-1S
- I come from Aiyansh ...
- Ayans wil witgwiy ...
- (1) ... ntá wil ti: wítkW-n where? SUB come.from-2S
- (1) ... where do you come from?
  ... nda wil dii witgwin?
- (2) kitwinksíłk<sup>W</sup> Wil ti: Wítk<sup>W</sup>-ÿ (2) I come from Canyon City Canyon.City SUB ... come.from-1S Gitwinksihlkw wil dii witgwiy.
- kico:n wil kè:1-[t]=[1] 1ku-wilksi1kW...
  at.back SUB lie-[3]=NC little-prince
- ki: laxce:-[t]=1iakW wil ti: ke:1-[t]=[4] 1ku kWe:?-m 1ku-tki1kW and edge-[3]=NC fire SUB ... lie-[3]=NC little poor-ATTR little-child

The princess slept at the back of the house, ...

Gits'oon wil geehl higu wilksihikw...

- ... and the poor boy slept by the fire (152.12-13).
- ... k'ii lagts'eehl lakw wil dii geehl higu gwee'em higutk'ihikw.

### 5.15.B.2.b.2. Contrast implied:

kaxti: ñí:ỷ
 just.now ... me

Me too! My turn!

K'az dii hiiy!

• CƏ ti: kWińá-(y)ə-n=+haxWtákW qan=+ hawil IRR ... ask.for.s.-CTL-2S=NC bow and=NC arrow

You too should ask for a bow and arrows! [like the others] (142.6-7)

Ji dii gwinayinhl hazwdakw ganhl hawil!

• mit)mítkW=+ càk ?a=+ ti:simá:y-t PL)=NC dish PREP=NC ... pick.berries-3

The dishes were full of the berries she [not the other woman] had picked.(207.6)

Mitmitkwhl ts'ak' ahl dii simasyt.

5.15.B.3. lip '(doing s.t.) oneself; own (s.t.)' lip

This modifier may be used before a great variety of predicates, including  $\tilde{\Pi}$ -pronouns, in predicate or argument role. It usually insists on the identity of a person and is often translatable as an English reflexive pronoun in a reinforcing role.

### 5.15.B.3. a. WithIntransitive: referring to Subject:

•  $\mathring{n}i[t]=1$   $\mathring{k}i: lip$  ? $uk^Ws=y\acute{e}:-[t]=1$   $\mathring{+}ku=w\acute{i}lksi†k^W$  that's=NC and ... to water=walk-[3]=NC little=prince

Then the prince went down to the shore himself...  $\mathring{N}ihl\ k'ii\ lip\ ukwsyeehl\ hlguwilksihlkw...$  (175.13)

### 5.15.B.3.b. With Transitive: referring to Agent:

• filt]=4 ki:-t lip caqam=qe:q4-t
that's=NC and-3E ... to.shore=drag.s.-3
... and dragged it [the halibut] up the beach himself. (207.6)
... filt k'iit lip jagamk'eekhlt.

### 5.15.B.3.c. With Nominal predicate: referring to A noun:

• lip ksim lax-kipú: t Máry

... woman.of... on-wolf DM.S M.

[a member of the Wolf tribe]

Lip ksim Lazgibuu t Mary!

5.15.B.3.d. With Possessive phrase: referring to Possessor: in this case the

modifier is semantically equivalent to Engl. h 'own':

- lip nàks-[t]=† willkińskW the grizzly [woman]'s own husband' spouse-[3]=NC great grizzly (204.11-12) lip nakshl wii lik'ińskw
- ni:-ti:sip)si:pkW-[t]=+ wen-y wil ni:-ti: lip wen-y lo:-t
  not-INTS PL)hurt-[3]=NC teeth-18 SUB not-INTS ... teeth-18 IND-3

  My teeth don't hurt because they are not my own teeth.

  Nidii sipsiipkwhl weeniy wil nidii lip weeniy loot.
- hil)yáltk<sup>W</sup> ?a=4 lip qal-cip)cáp-ti:t==ki:
  PL)return PREP=NC ... site-PL)group-3P==DIST
  They returned to their own villages (194.3-4).
  Hilyaltkw ahl lip galts'ipts'apdiit-gi.

# 5.15.B.3.e. With Independent ni-pronoun:

In older texts, lip lip is used before a fil-pronoun only when the latter is in focused position:

- lip ní ý=1 qìnx I myself am the trail. (128.8-9)
  ... me=NC trail Lip niiýhl genz.
- lip níiỷ t?an lu:=kúxW-t I (am the one who) shot it in (20.6-7)
  ... me 3ERELE in=shoot.s.-3
  Lip niiỷ t an luuguzwt!
- lip ñí[t]=4 xhá?==ki:t ?an kíp-t It was the slave himself that ate it.
  ... him=NC slave==DIST 3E REL.E eat.s.-3 (40.8) Lip nihl xha'a-gi tan gipt.

Some younger speakers extend the use of this combination as an equivalent to the reflexive English morpheme ....self, especially if asked to translate an English sentence containing a reflexive pronoun, as for instance (Belvin 1984):

Mary saw herself in the mirror.

Ga'as Mary lip ait ts'im anksiwillaak'altkw.

ká?-ə-[t]=s[t]<u>Màry</u> lip nítčim?anksiwillá:qaltkW see.s.-CTL-(3)=DC [DM] M. ... her in mirror

but this is not a normal, spontaneous Nisgha reflexive construction (Reflexive frames, 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.1.), any more than

Mary looked at her own self in the mirror

is a normal English reflexive construction. 10

5.15.B.3.f. <u>In the combination lip?aná:</u> '(to be) the only one (to ...)' *lip-ansa* (from **ná**: 'who' *nas*)

• lip?a-na: hítkW nì y I was the only one standing. self spontaneous-who stand I

Lip-anea hitkw niiy.

5.15.B.4. Sa[q]ayt 'together' sagayt, saayt, sayt

sa[q]aytkil 'the same'
...- one [object] sa(a)yt kil

salqlay tkil-mqó:t 'unity' (lit. same heart)
...- one lobjectl-ATTR heart
saytk'ilim goot

• ki:-t sa(qa)yttóq-[t]=s[t]txé:msim=1ló?op and-3E ... take.s.PL-[3]=DC[DM]T.=NC stone

Then Treemsim gathered several stones. (54.13)

K'iit say't doks Treemsimh! lo'op.

5.15.8.5. masim 'separately' masim

masim wán niti t

They sat separately.

... sit.PL them

Masim wan nidiit

• masimlu=tax)tóx-ə-tčimsix)sáwinsk ...in=PL)place.s.PL-CTL-3 in PL)paper

S/he put them into separate paper bags.

Masim luudardorat ts'im sirsawinsk.

5.15.B.6. ko:lu:

'all alone, by oneself'

k'yooluu

ko:lu: tá:

'to sit all alone'

... sit

k'yooluu t'as

5.15.B.7. kwitu:

'alone in a boat, car, etc.'

kw'iduu

**k**₩itu: ?á:t

'to fish [with a net] alone [in a boat]'

... fish.w.net

kw'iduu sat

5.15.B.8. yalqlayt

'previously, already'

yagayt, yaayt, yayt

• yalqlaytcàm-tkW-mwiné:X 'prepared food, already cooked food'
... cook.s.-FASS-ATTR food 
yayt jamtgum wineer

• ki: ya[qlaytt kil-[t]=+ piláq==ki:?a=+ tim-t hóx-t and ... 3E pick.s.-[3]=NC moss==DISTAL PREP=NC FUT-3E use.s.-3

He had already/previously picked some moss to use (B.26.3-4).

...k'ii yagayt t gilhl bilak-qi ahl dimt hooxt.

5.15.B.9.  $\hat{y}a[q]ay$  'precisely, exactly, instead'

yagay, yaay, yay

5.15.B.9.a. (in non-contrastive utterance) 'precisely, exactly'

- tip ná:=1 tim **ỷ ay** náks-ət Who exactly is getting married?

  DM.PL who-NC FUT ... married-REL Dip naah! dim **ÿay** naksit?
- ?akú=4 tim **yay** ksaxkiñám-?-n What exactly are you going to give? what=NCFUT ... gift-2S (lit. ...is going to be your present)

  Aguhl dim yay ksazgiňama'an?

# 5.15.B.9.b. (in contrastive utterance): 'instead'

Nihl k'iit saaguudihl gathl hlguuhlkwt-gi...

... and tied on the wooden figure instead. (91.11-13)
... aihl k'iit yagay aiitk'aldakhlihl gadim gan

# 5.15.B.10. qap qap

- 5.15.B.10.a. With verb: 'must..., have to.., absolutely, simply, really, no getting out of it, no two ways about it, no choice about it'
- tim qap húksk<sup>W</sup> nìn You simply have to attend.

  FUT .... attend ABS-2S

  Dim L'ap hukskw niin.
- qap?àq==a?=\fwil-n==\text{==st}
   really non-existent==TRUE=NCact-2S==AFF

You are <u>really</u> in trouble, aren't you! [there is simply nothing you can do] **K'ap** aga ah! wilinis!

... eat=NC great-many-ATT bird

They called them [the birds] warriors, but they were nothing of the sort,... Gitwiltkw t siwatdiit-gi, ahl k'ii nigii wilt,...

...the multitude of birds were simply feeding.
...k'sp tzoozkwhl wiihildim ts'uuts' (115.2-3)

• tim **qap** k<sup>w</sup>ił tá: ńì:ỷ ?awá?-n FUT ... about sit I vicinity-2S

I simply must sit next to you. (45.9-10)

Dim k'ap kw'ihl t'aa hiiy awa'an.

• qap ni:-ki:tim ti:nuw-y
... not-INTS FUT INTS die-15

[Whatever happens]
I am not going to die (133.1)

Kap nigii dim dii huwiy

5.15.B.10.b. with noun: 'real, regular'

• daptxá=4?antitá:la-n==a ... leather=NC purse-2S==Q

Is your purse real leather?

\*\*Ep trah! andidaslana?

 ni:-ti: qap kát-t not-INTS ... man-3

He was not a real person [but a supernatural being].

Nidii k'ap gatt.

ni:-ti: qapnik Wó:t-ý lo:-t
 not-INTS ... father-1S IND-3

He is not my real father.

Nidii kap nigwoodiÿ loot.

5.15.B.11. 7als 'already, earlier than expected, before you know it...' als

• ta: ?alsk Wó:yim

It's Spring already!
Hias als gwooyim!

• fi.tim kim-cáwaqs nì ý ?i: ?als qó:ta-[t]=† tà:la-ý
COND buy-shoes me and ... all.gene-[3]=NC money-1S
I was going to buy some shoes, but [I discovered] my money was gone already.

Hli dim gim-ts'awaks niiý ii als goodahl daalay.

 7als y úk<sup>W</sup>satk<sup>W</sup> ñìti:t sud.real.evening-MED them

[Before they knew it] it was evening already [and too late to get nome].

Als yukwsatkw nidjit.

• 7als qaymás-[t]=+4kù:4kW-ỷ ... young-[3]=NC child-1S

il suddenly realized my child is already a teenager.

Als k'aymashl hlguuhlgwiy.

5.15.B.12. kWanim/kWalim

'continuing to..., keeping on '

gwanim/gwalim

yuk<sup>W</sup>=ł k<sup>W</sup>anim qalá:q-ti:t
 PROG=NC ... play-3P

They went on playing. (102.9-10)

Yukwhi gwanim galaak'diit.

• **kWanim** sqákW-ə-n tim tip kín-n ... wrn.down.s.-CTL-2S FUT 1P feed.s.-2S

Whatever food we offer you, you keep refusing.

Grania sgasgwin dim dip ginin.

5.15.B.13. ?atikWil 'always, all the time' adigwil

• ?atikWil minhiT nitit They argue(d) all the time.

... argue them

Adig vil minhit nidiit.

5.15.B.14. qam /only..., just...' (restrictive meaning)
(compare with ksax ksar 5.15.B.17.)

This modifier can have a discourse function as well as modify a predicate.

# 5.15.B.14.a. In single clause:

# 5.15.B.14.a.1. Modifies numbers or expressions of quantity:

- dam kól=4 4kù:4kW-y I have only one child.
  ... onelperson l=NC child-1S

  \*\*Em k'yoolh! hlguuhlgwiy.\*\*
- qam ipú:-[t]=i wàn ?an-t tə-?aqikW-[t]=i hú:t-ti:t
  ...few-[3]=NC deer REL.E-3E DOM-manage-[3]=NC escape.PL-3P
  Only a few deer were able to escape (85.1-2).

  E am hlibuuhl wan ant di akhlkwhi huutdiit.

The restrictive meaning of qam kam can be reinforced by tku 'little' hlgu (5.15.B.36.): this use is frequent in Boas:

ni:-ki łku dam kina:tá:-[t]=łkò:]-t
 not-INT little ... remain-[3]=NC one[person]-3

There wasn't even one person left (95.14).

Nigii bigu k'am ginaat'aahi k'yoolt.

- 5.15.B.14.a.1.b. qam k'am can be used in combination with the modifier liki: 'about, for instance' ligii (5.15.B.42.).
- 5.15.B.14.b. <u>Use in discourse</u>: qam kam in a clause can restrict the domain of another clause, said before or after the one in which it appears.
- 5.15.B.14.b.1. **Qam** k'am in first clause: temporal restriction: 'hardly, barely ..., as soon as...' (Fr. dès ...):
- qam hí:†ukW ki: lúkW--[t]=† cáp
   ... morning and move.PL-{3}=NC group
   As soon as it was morning, the whole village moved (to a new location) (37.10)
   (Fr. Dès le matin, ...)

• tim **qam**lə-cé:x-T nisim tim ki:tá:wil-sim FUT ...[..-satiated-...]p<sub>I</sub> you.PL FUT and leave-2P

As soon as you have eaten your fill, you will leave. (181.10)

Dim k'am lits'eext nisim, dim k'ii daawihlsim.

- 5.15.B.14.b.2. **qualifying** previous utterance: but, only, it's just that...'
- ni:=†?á:m-[t]=†tim máxkW-ỷlò:-sim==a
  not=NC good-[3]=NC FUT ride-1S IND-2P==Q
  --?a:m qam timlá:n tim wil tá:-n
  good ... stern FUT where sit-2S
  - Can I get a ride with you guys? OK, but you'll have to ride in the back.
  - Niihl samhl dim mazgwiy loosima? Aam, k'am t'imlaan dim wil t'aan.
- wilá:x-ə-n=+ hanáq t kùst-i
   know.s.-CTL-2S=NC female DC that-Q
   wilá:x-ə-ŷ qamni:-nə-ti: wilá:x-[t]=+ wá-t
   know.s.-CTL-1S-... not-1S-INTS know.s.-[3]=NC name-3

-Do you know that girl/woman? -Yes, but I don't know her name.

Wilaayinhl hana<u>k</u>' tgusdi? - Wilaayiÿ, <u>k</u>'am nindii wilaaxhl wat.

ni:-ki:-ti:-ttóq-ti:t=ł hadalá:x<sup>W</sup>...
 not-INTS-INTS-3E take.s.PL-3P=NC club...
 dam tóq-ti:t=ł cú:c ki:-t dam lu:=hał=tux<sup>W</sup>)táx<sup>W</sup>-ti:t

...take.s.PL-3P=NCand-3E ... in=parallel=PL)wring.s.-3P

They did not take the clubs [to kill the birds],...

Nigidiit dokdiith! hak'a!aaxw,...

... they just picked up the birds and wrung their necks.(115.3-5)

...k'am dokdiithl ts'uuts', k'iit k'am luuhahlt'uxwt'akwdiit.

5.15.B.15. 7ax 'not, impossibly' ar (see also 5.13.D.3.)

The negative modifier ?ax as can be used as modifier or prefix.

#### 5.15.B.15.a. Use as modifier:

- ?á:m cə ?axhay wís Hope it doesn't rain!
  good IRR ... rain Aam ji az haywis!
- ná: t?an?axwilá:x-n wi: kát Who doesn't know you, Giant! (38.7) who 3E REL.E... know-2S great man Naa t an ax wilaayin, Wii Gat!
- ki:-t ká?-[t]=+ winé:x=+ +ə ?axkip-ə-t==ki:
  and-3E see.s.-[3]=NC food the ... eat.s.-CTL-3S==DIST
  ... and he saw that food that he had not eaten/been able to eat. (41.3-4)
  ...k'iit ga'ahl wineexhl hli ax gibit-gi.
- min=46?-tT-a-[t]=s[t]txà:msim=4kWilá-t
   upward=shove.s.-DEF-CTL-[3]=DC[DM]T.=NDblanket-3
   ?a-tyáxW-[t]=4 wil ?ax xpá:ŵ-t==ki:
   PREP-3E hide.s.-[3]=NC SUB... jaw-3==DIST

Txeeemsim lifted his blanket up (to his face) to hide the fact that he did not have a jaw (52.7-8)

Minhlo otdis Txeemsimhl gwilat at yaxwhl wil ax xbaawt-gi.

In the following examples, ?ax as modifies a focused constituent:

•  $\mathring{n}i[t]=\mathring{k}i:sim?apaxpádask^W-ti:t?apaxpádask^W-ti:t?apaxpádask^W-$ 

that's=NC and very upset.PL-2P PREP=NC SUB ... rock first-ATT succeed-REL
They are upset because it was not the rock that made it [gave birth] first (72.7-8)
Nihl k'ii sim abazbak'askwdiit ahl wil az lo'op ji ksgoogam akhlgwit.

• ?àq=+ tá:la-m qan ?axkipáykWinskW=+ tim yóxkW---m non-existent=NC money-1P reason.why ... airplane=NCFUT go.by s.-CTL-1P We don't have any money, so we can't take the plane (lit. ... [that's] why it is not the plane that we will take).

Akhl daalam, gan an gibaykw'inskwhl dim yozgum.

5.15.B.15.b. Use as prefix: creating adjectives.

5.15.B.15.b.1. <u>Before adjective</u>: = 'non-..., un...'

?ax-max)mùkW-mmi:qó.qst 'the unripe salmonberrries' (50.5)
...-PL)ripe-ATT salmonberries \*\*maxmugum miik'ookst\*

5.15.B.15.b.2. Before noun: = 'without, ...less' (see also 7.1.B.3.a.1.)

7ax-qó:t 'irresponsible'

...-heart argoot

ax-?an?únsT 'sleeveless' ...-sleeve ax'aa'uns(t)

5.15.B.16. **ka**: 'most, excessively, extremely' *k'aa*The meaning is often reinforced by the modified SIM 'really' *sim* (5.15.B.26.).

# 5.15.B.16.a. Used with verb:

ñi[t]=† ki: páx-[t]=† má:l==ki: ?a=† lax-?áks
 that's=NC and run-[3]=NC canoe==DIST PREP=NC on-water
 sim ka?alu:-páx-t==ki:
 really ... visibly-run-3==DIST

Then the canoe flew [lit. ...ran] on the water, at tremendous speed (107.9-10).

Nihl k'ii baghl maal-gi ahl lag aks, sim k'aa aluubagt-gi.

• sim ka:wilá:x-ə-[t]=s[t]niči:ć-ỷ==ki:=ł?atá:waq really ... know.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] grandmother==DIST=NC story[teiling] My grandmother was a great storyteller (lit. ... really knew how to tell stories).

Sim k'as wilaayis nits'iits'iý-gihl adaawak.

# 5.15.B.16.b. Used with adjective:

5.15.B.16.b.1. <u>Intensive or superlative meaning</u>: the adjective may be a clause predicate, or attributive or more often relativized.

• Sim ka: Wiltaxkát S/he is very very old. really ... very.old Sim k'as Wilt'azgat.

• Wi: Sim ka: ?á:ma: má: lt kùst-ki: It was a magnificent canoe. (107.5) great really ... good canoe DM that-DIST Wii sim k'aa amaa maal tgust-gi.

• ka: ?à:m-ət=†háykW 'the Holy Spirit' (lit. the spirit that is most good ...)

\*\*The Holy Spirit' (lit. the spirit that is most good ...)

\*\*The Holy Spirit' (lit. the spirit that is most good ...)

•  $\hat{\Pi}$ i[t]=4  $\hat{K}$ i:-t silúk W-ti:t ?a=4  $\hat{K}$ a:  $\hat{W}$ i:-hílt-( $\Theta$ )t=4 ?ílx that's=NC and-3E load.s.-3P PREP ... great-many-REL=NC seal

Then they loaded it [the canoe] with a huge quantity of seals. (107.5-6)

Nihl k'iit silukwdiit ahl k'aa wiihildithl ilx.

The intensive meaning of ka: kaa may be contrasted stylistically with the restrictive meaning of dam kam (5.15.B.14.), as in the following:

• Sim ka: wi:=hilt - ni:-ki: hux w qam ipu:-t
really ... great=many - not-INTS again just few-3
There were huge numbers of them, no longer just a few. (178.10-11)

Sim k'az wiihilt, nigii huxw k'az hlibuut.

# 5.15.B.16.b.2. In expressions of comparison, with Indirect Object:

• ka: wii=nákw nì:n lò:-y You are tailer than me.

... great-long you IND-1S

\*\*Rea wiinakw niin looy:

5.15.B.17. kSax 'only..., just...' (as opposed to others) ksax (compare with qam ksax 5.15.B.14. and max max 5.15.B.18.)

5.15.B.17.a. Used as modifier: usually occurs before focused constituents.

#### 5.15.B.17.a.1. Before nominal:

• kSaxcip There was just the skuil (214.12).
... bone Ksax tsip.

• KSaxni[t]=\frac{1}{2} hasaq-n=\text{n=0} Is that all you want?

... that's=\text{NC desire-2S=QS}

Ksax nihl hasagana?

• ksaxtə qap-t=t ma:n-ət There is only half of it left.

... the part/half-3=NC left-REL

\*\*There is only half of it left.

\*\*There is only half of it left.

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\*\*There is only ha

# 5.15.B.17.a.2. Before verb:

• ksax kípisk<sup>W</sup>-t=t ti: cáp-ə-t
... eat.berries.while.picking-3=NC INTS do.s.-CTL-3

S/he does nothing but eat berries (instead of putting them in the pail).

Ksax gip'iskwthl dii jabit.

• ksaxsə-mà:ý-[t]=4 ksim?alu:-kikát, ñi[t]=4 ñi[t]=4 kip-ti:t only make-berries-[3]=NC woman plain-people that's=NC that's=NC eat.s-3P They only ate the berries picked by the real woman [not those picked by the grizzly woman].(207.11-12) 

\*\*Essex simasýh! ksim alvugigat, ñih! ñih! gipdiit.

#### 5.15.B.17.a.3. Before subordinate clause:

• ksax wil licxk W-y no wil hax)hó:x-t I only wear them for reading... SUB read-18 18 E SUB PL)use.s.-3

Ksax wil litszgwiy ni wil haxhooxt

5.15.B.17.b. <u>Used as prefix</u>: (see 7.1.B.3.a.10.):

ksax-kinam

'to give s. [as a present]'

... - give.s.

ksarginam

ksax-kWińé?eskW

'to beg'

... - ask.for.s.AP

ksangwine eskw

5.15.B.18.  $\mathbf{\hat{m}ax}$  'only, exclusively, all ..., nothing but ...'  $\mathbf{\hat{m}ax}$  (cf. **kSax**  $\mathbf{ksax}$  5.15.B.17.; the meaning of  $\mathbf{\hat{m}ax}$  is extensive whereas that of **kSax**  $\mathbf{ksax}$  is restrictive)

max max occurs mostly before nouns, or as a prefix in a frame (7.3.A.1.a.1.c.).

5.15.B.18.a. <u>Before nouns</u>:

max?ì:?uxWt=1 4ki-ti:t
 ... men/boys=NC children-3P

They only have sons (lit. their children are nothing but men/boys).

Max ii'uxwth! hlgidiit.

5.15.B.18.b. <u>Used as a prefix</u>: it occurs in the frame max - T (very ..., too ..., all over ...' max...(t). (See examples in (7.3.A.1.a.1.c.)).

5.15.B.19. kWac 'thoroughly, carefully, very well' gwats'

• CƏ kWac yó:?ks-ə-n=1wé:n-n IRR ... wash.s.PL-CTL-2S=NC teeth-2S

[You should] brush your teeth carefully.

Ji gvets' yoo'oksinhi weenin.

- tim kWać lu:=sáksa?n-ə-n=†?im† Wash the pail thoroughly.

  FUT ...in=clean.s.-CTL-2S=NC pail

  Dim gwats' luusaksa aninhl imhl.
- kWać thank you Thank you very much!

  Gwats' Thank you!

In Boas 1902, this modifier occurs under the variant kW aciks gwats iks:

• †a: kWačiks ?ánkWs-t ... now he [Ts'ak] was thoroughly cooked.
now ... cooked-3 (132.12-13)
... hlaa gwats iks ankwst.

5.15.B.20. qayks/qaks 'finally, at long last, only now/then... (after waiting)' gayks, gaks (= ?als als, 5.15.B.11.)

• †a: qaksk Wó:yim It's spring at last!
now .... spring=AFF Hlas gsks gwooyim!

• ní: no qakská?-t

I have never seen it/h.! (it's a surprise,
not 1S.E.... see.s.-3

I have not been waiting to see it/h.)

Nii na gaks ga'at!

• tim ?as)?í:c-T-ə-n tim ?i: mə qaks t́á-T-t
FUT PL)iron.s.-DEF-CTL-2S FUT and 2E ... put.s.away-DEF-3

Iron them, and then you can put them away.

Dim as iitsdin, dim ii ma gaks t'ahlit.

Qayks/Qaks gayks, gaks is sometimes used with a free-standing regular clause (4.3.c.2.).

5.15.B.21. hi: 'at the beginning, starting' hii ( $\neq$  prefix  $\{hi:-\}$  hii-, 7.1.B.2.a.1.a.1.)

# 5.15.B.21.a. Used as modifier:

• fa: hi: kWó:yim?i: ...
now beginning spring

...at the beginning of spring, ....

... blea hii gwooyim ii...

• day hi: lituxWT-tit still ... shoot PL-3P

As soon as they started to shoot, ... (20.4) (lit. they were still starting to ...)

K'ay hii liduxwdiit, ...

# 5.15.B.21.b. Used as prefix:

hi:-qó:q-t ...-front-3

Before that ...

... hiigookt ...

5.15.B.22. qamqayt | 'actually, as a matter of fact, it so happens...' k'amgayt

This modifier introduces a fact known to the speaker (or the participant in the story) and previously unmentioned but now found to be relevant to the matter under discussion.

- damqaytká?-ə-[t]=s[t]txè:msim=1?áks
- ... see-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] T.=NC water

As it happens, Treemsim had seen a creek. (17.12)

Kangeyt ga'as Treemsimhl aks.

• ... ní:ỷ t?an mukW-[t]=1?an-hí-t

I 3E REL.E catch.s.-[3]=NC cause of-saying-3

 $\mathbf{\dot{q}amqayt}$ ni:-ki:-ti: $\mathbf{\dot{m}}$ úk $\mathbf{\dot{w}}$ -[t]= $\mathbf{\dot{t}}$ sim? $\mathbf{\dot{o}}$ :kit t kùn

... not-INTS-INTS catch-[3]=NC chief DM-this

I am the one who caught them [the fish he is talking about].

Niiý tan mukwhl anhit,

... actually this chief did not catch anything at all. (44.8-9).

... k'amgayt nigidii mukwhl sim'oogit tgun .

- damqay tdamdin=toq-a-t=1 wil ?ax-ti max)múk W-[t]=1 midoqst ... secretly take.s.PL-CTL-3=NC SUB not-INTS PL)ripe-[3]=NC salmonberries Actually, he had secretly taken some totally unripe salmonberries. (49.15-50.1)

  \*\*Embly t k'amts' indogath! wil axdii maxmukwh! miik' ookst.
- ki: Wil ki: damqaytni:-ki: Wóq-t ?a=4 yú:xkW-t and right.away ... not-INTS sleep-3 PREP=NC eat-3
   And actually he did not sleep at all, he ate [all night] (37.1)
   Kii wil kii k'amgayt nigii wokt ahl yuuxkwt.

5.15.B.23. ta: 'by now' hlas

ta: hlaa is used both as a modifier and as a subordinator (5.16.B.2.). Examples in this section are of modifier use.

• 1a: Wilá:x-ə-ỷ ní:n t?an his)yác-t Now I know that it was you that know-CTL-1S you 3E RELE PL)kill.s.-3 killed them (B.157.6-7).

Hisa wilaayiy niin t an hisyatst.

(compare use as SUB: 4a: No Wila:X... 'now that I know ...' hlaa ni wilaex...)

- ntá=† †a: wa-(y)=n How far have you got to?
  which.way=NC ... reach.s.-CTL-2S How far are you (in your project)?

  Ndahl hlas wayin?
- ntá=+ +a:qa-màlkaqskW-ə]-[t]=s[t]<u>Báby</u> which.way=NC ... [weight]-{3]=DC[DM]B.

How much does Baby weigh now? What's Baby's weight now? Ndah! hies gamalgaksgwis Baby?

Here †a: hlas is used within a clause before the abstract noun qa-malkaqs \*M-0 weight samalgaksgwi... which is the A-nominal of the

predicate ntá which way nda

5.15.B.24. huxw huxw

5.15.B.24.a. 'again' (often with haksim hak'sim 5.15.B.25.)

• tim hux\ ká?-ə-ỷ nì:n

FUT ... see-CTL-1\$ you

Good-byel/ See you!
(lit. I'll see you again)

Dim huxv ga'ay niin.

• kiló cə huxW wíl-n don't IRR ... do-2S

Don't do it again!

Gilo ji huxw wilin!

ła: hux\( \text{nit} == a?=s[t]t\( \text{xe:msim} \)
 now ... him==ASST=DC[DM]T.

So that was Txeemsim [the master of disguise] again! (52.11-12)

Hlas huxw nida'as Txeemsim!

- 5.15.B.24.b. 'for no reason, without warning, on a whim, up and...' (cf. Bella Coola su, Saunders & Davis 1977)
- huxW kińám-ə-t=†?ítiskW-t lò:-ŷ She gave me her necklace
  ... just-give.s.-CTL-3=NC necklace-3S IND-1S (just like that, on impulse).

  Huxw giñamith i t'iskwt looy.

5.15.B.25. haksim 'again' hak'sim

This shortened form of hačikSim again hats iksim, which is found by itself in Boas, is now usually found only before huxw huxw (5.15.B.24.):

• haksimhuxW hí-n Say it again!

... again say-2S Hak'sim huw hin!

• ki: haciksimlu:yáltkW-{t}=+ wi:qanà:w and ... return-[3]=NC big frog

... and the huge frog came back again. (147.8.)
... k'ii hats'iksim luuyaltkwhl wii ganaaw.

•  $\mathring{n}[t]=1$   $\mathring{k}i$ : haksimhuxW-tlu:=máqsa?n-[t]=1 $\mathring{i}$ t that's=NC and ... again-3E in -stand.s.PL-[3]=NC wedge

Then he put the wedges in [the crack] again. (150.6-7)

Nihl k'ii hak'sim huxwt luumaksa'anhl lit.

5.15.B.26. Sim 'real(iy), true/truly, very' sim

Sim sim can be used before most predicates and also reinforces the meaning of other intensive modifiers such as ka: 'most, extremely' kaa (5.15.B.16), lukwii (5.15.B.28.), qal gal (5.15.B.29.) It usually modifies a single predicate, but can also be used in contrasting clauses. It also prefixes some nouns and verbs.

#### 5.15.B.26.a. Used as modifier:

# 5.15.B.26.a.1. In single clause:

- Sim ?á:m wila:-cáp-T-[t]=† qìs-n

  ... good how-make-DEF-[3]=NC hair-2S

  Your hair looks very nice.

  Sim aam wilaa jabihl gesin.
- hi[t]=1 ki: sim ?apáqask -ti:t Then they were very excited (195.13-14).

  that's=NC and ... excited-3P Nihl k'ii sim abak'ask wdiit.

# 5.15.B.26.a.2. Beginning two adjacent clauses: (1) as soon as ... (2) then ...

• sim wá-(y)ə-[t]=1-1ku=tk14kW wil hi)hitkW-[t]=1 wi:lik1nskW...
... find-CTL-[3]=NC little=child SUB ASP)stand-[3]=NC great grizzly

simcilim=páx-t?a=† wi:?amí-t ... into=run-3 PREP=NC great voice-3

As soon as the little girl found the grizzly bear standing there,...

Sim wayihi higutk'ihikw wil hihitkwhi wii lik'inskw,...

... she ran into the house screaming (B. 204.8-9).

... sim ts'ilimbaxt ahl wii amit.

5.15.B.26.b. <u>Used as noun prefix</u>: 'real, genuine, best ...'

Sim-qán 'cedar' ...-tree simgan

sim-ki)kát 'chiefs (noblemen)'

...-PL)person simgigat

sim-tá:la 'silver'
...- money (< dollar) simdaele

sim-ha<sup>4</sup>ó? 'cotton cloth' .... - cloth simbablo'o

Sim-?álkax 'the Nisgha language; hence 'to speak ...-speak Nisgha' sim'algar

5.15.B.27. Simkit'firmly' (=Sim + kit'firmly' (proclitic, 7.1.A.1.c.4.) simgit

• Simkit?álkax S/he spoke very firmly.
... speak Simgit algaz.

• CƏ Simkittám-t-ə-n=†timlánx-y Hold on tight to my neck! (74.2)
IRR ... hug.s.-DEF-CTL-2S=NC neck-1S Ji simgit damdinhl t'imlaniy!

5.15 B.28. lukwil very lukwil

This modifier is often reinforced with a preceding SIM sim (5.15.B.26.).

• lukwil ?á:m Very well! Very good!

... good Lukw'il aam!

• sim {ukWil ní: Certainly not! really ... no Sim lukW'il nii/

5.15.B.29. Qal 'too...(much, etc.)' gal (≠ the homonymous interjective predicate, 5.11. and prefix, 7.1.B.1.b.5.e.).

• qal tál==0st Too loud! [and you should know it]
... loud==AFF Gal dalis!

When preceded by Sim sim (5.15.B.26.), the meaning is 'truly, absolutely'.

• Sim qalmimst [You are/S/he is] absolutely crazy! really ... crazy Sim gal mimst!

• sim qal lusa:ná:tkW-a-[t]=t qalcàp=t wil-t==ki:
really ... marvel.at.s.-CTL-[3]=NCvillage=NCact-3==DISTAL

The people were absolutely amazed at what she did. (205.3)

Sim gal luusaanaahlgwihl galts'aphl wilt-gi.

With a negation, the meaning is 'not too well':

• ni: n[a] ti: sim qal wilá:x-t I don't know it/h. too well.
not 1S.E INTS ... ... know.s.-2 Nindii sim gal wilaszt.

5.15.B.30. Sa: 'suddenly, unexpectedly, without prior warning or notice' sas; homophonous with proclitic Sa:= sas... 'off' (7.1.A.1.b.34.)

ki: sa:qísxkW-[t]=s[t]txé:msim
 and ... stop.crying-[3]=DC[DM] ...

a=4 fa:-t naxná-[t]=4 hì-[t]=4 witis-(ə)t

PREP=NC now-3E near.s.-[3]=NC saying-[3]=NC old-REL

... and Txeemsim suddenly stopped crying when he heard what the old man said (22.5-6). ....k'ii saa geszkws Txeemsim ahl hlaat naznahl hihl wiit'isit.

Sa: saa is often used in a declarative sentence with tim FUT dim to express a warning:

• tim sa: sa:=tikWántkW nin (Be careful) You might fall off!

FUT ... off=fall you Dim saa saat igwantkw niin!

5.15.B.31. kax 'just (...this once, ... for a moment)' k'ar (≠ lam lam 5.15.B.32.)

kax kar signals an aside, a temporary and unimportant interruption of the normal course of events. It is often used with requests, or to announce one's immediate intentions.

• kax hawin

Just a minute/second! / Just wait!

"not.yet

Kar hawin!

• kax ti: ní:ý My turn!
... CONTR me Kax dii niiý!

• CƏ Kax imó:m-ə-n nì:ỷ Help me a minute, will you.

IRR ... help.s.-CTL-2S me Just give me a hand.

Ji Kax hlimoomin niiỷ.

• tim kax sk<sup>W</sup>á:ýtk<sup>W</sup> nì:ý I'll just rest for a minute.

FUT ... rest me Dim k'az sgwaaýtkw nijý.

• tim kax qó?-ə-y=1 tim x-kó.fi:-y I'il just get myself some coffee.

FUT ... go.get.s.-CTL-1S=NC FUT eat-coffee-1S Dim k'ax go'oyhl dim xkoofiiy.

- 5.15.B.32. lam for a short while lam (cf. kax kax 5.15.B.31.; lam lam has a more temporal meaning than kax kax (5.15.B.17.)):
- tim kax lam sk Wá ý tk W nì ý

  FUT just ... rest me

  Dim k'az lam sgwaaýtk w niiý

5.15.B.33. ?anu: 'in the direction of [a place]' anuu

Used before locational adverb or noun(-phrase):

?anu:matix-yúwin on the left-hand side'
... left-\*hand?

anu mat'ixyuwin

?anu: kiké:nix 'towards the source of the river,

... [place] upriver towards the North,

anuu gigeenix

?anu: hí:łukW'toward morning'... morninganuu hiihlukw

or subordinate clause:

?anu: Wil ksə-k Wántk W-[t]= 1 10qs 'towards the East' (lit. ... where ... SUB out-?-[3]=NC sun the sun comes out)

anu wil ksigwantk whi hloks

5.15.B.34. Waqayt, Wa:yt, Wayt (a)way... wagayt, waayt, wayt (the three forms given are from old-fashioned formal to modern colloquial) (= qayim kayim 5.15.B.35.).

# 5.15.B.34.a. Before locational advert or noun:

waqayttú:w 'way over there'
... over there

waytlaxhá 'way up in the sky'
... sky

waytlaxha

5.15.B.34.b. <u>Before verb</u>: usually the verb is preceded by a proclitic of location or motion. The modifier can occur in the same clause in front of a locational adverb or noun.

• qal wayt tip=tákW-ə-n==əst too ... dewnward=twist.s.-CTL-2S==AFF

You turned it down way too low! [the heat, sound, etc.]

Gal wayt t'ipt'agwinis!

- †a: waqayt?ukWs=?úlkskW-t?a=†waqaytkí:ks now ... outward=drift-3 PREP=NC ... at.shore It [the hollow log] had now drifted away far from the shore (102.12-103.1). Hlas vagayt ukws'ulkskwt ahl wagayt giiks.
- day waqay tə)caqam=yúk W-ti:t?a=1 kí:ks still far ASP)to.shore=move-3P PREP=NC at.shore As they were approaching the shore, but were still at a great distance from it ... (160.10-11) K'ay wagayt jijagamyukwdiit ahl giiks ...

5.15.B.34.c. In combination with subordinator WII : = 'until...'

• wayt wil hathutáqtkW-t ... until it boiled.
... SUB boil-3 ... wayt wil hahlhutl'akhlkwt.

• wayttim wil hathuxaqtkW-t ... until it boils.

... FUT SUB boil-3 ... vayt dim vil hablhutl'akhlkwt.

5.15.B.35. **qayim** 'close to..., next to..., right near...' **k'ayim** (≠ wa[q]ay t wa(ga)yt 5.15.B.34.)

# 5.15.B.35.a. Before adverb or noun with locational meaning:

qayim tú: W 'just over there' (a short distance away)
... over there

L'ayim duuw

• sim kitwinq=1 lù:lad - dayimcim-cal-t really whistle=NC ghost ... in-face-3

A ghost whistled right into his face (27.6-7).

Sim gitwinkhl luulak', k'zvim ts'im ts'alt.

# 5.15.B.35.b. Before adjective or intransitive verb:

**dayim**tílpkW 'to be close by'
... short **k'ayim** dilpkw

- qayimta:=1?anse:lip-t?a=1?awa?-[t]=1?amha:c
  ... sit=NC firepit-3 PREP=NC vicinity-[3]=NC uprooted tree

  His firepit was right next to [the roots of] an uprooted tree (55.4-5).

  \*Exim t'anh anseelipt ahl awa'ahl amhaats'.
- qayimna:=páx=4 wi:?aks?a=4 qap-[t]=4 cap
  ... from.woods=run=NC big water PREP=NC end-[3]=NC village
  There was a large stream running down from the woods near the end of the village (146.9).

  \*\*Exim nasbaxh! wii aks ah! k'aph! ts'ap.

# 5.15.B.35.b. Both uses occur in this example:

•  $\mathring{n}[t]=\frac{1}{2}\mathring{k}i:-thux^{W}$   $\overset{\text{d}}{n}$   $\overset{\text{d}}$ 

that's=NC and-3E again hear.s.-[3]=NC SUB ... PL)arrive-3 PREP=NC ... behind-3

Then again he hear them approaching right behind him.(93.1-2)

Nihl k'iit huxw naxnahl wil k'zyim at-aat'ikskwt ahl k'zyim galaant.

5.15.B.36. 1ku 'little' hlgu

# 5.15.B.36.a. Used as modifier:

5.15.B.36.a.1. <u>Used as nominal modifier</u>: this is the most frequent use in current speech, as the singular equivalent of pre-nominal kupa: k'uba (5.15.B.37.):

• 1ku čú:č 'little bird'
... bird higu ts'uuts'

• 1ku hanád 'little girl' ... woman higu hanak'

• tku wátuk<sup>W</sup> 'slave girl' ... slave.woman higu wat'ukw

• †ku t Sálly 'Little Sally' ... DM ... higu t Sally

5.15.B.36.a.2. <u>Used as a predicate modifier</u>: this use is very common in Boas before intransitive verb or adjective:

• ła: łku wiżis-t - ła: łkutaxkát-t now... grown-3 - now ... strong-3

By now he [the baby giant] was quite big, quite strong (175.9).

Hlaa higu wit'ist, hlaa higu daxgatt.

5.15.B.36.a.3. Reinforces the restrictive meaning of qam kum (5.15.B.14.).

# 5.15.B.36.b. <u>Used as singular prefix</u> (7.1.B.3.a.4.)

#### 5.15.B.36.b.1. With nouns:

(Boas 1902 has a few examples of use of tkitk "child" think without the prefix).

# 5.15.B.36.b.2. With verbs or adjectives: 11

<b>łķu</b> −qísk <sup>W</sup>	'narrow [object], skinny'
hairlike	hlgugeskw
<b>tku</b> -tkú l	'narrow (space)'
narrow	<b>hieu</b> hleuui

5.15.B.36.c. Remark: 1ku higu seems to have become a prefix recently: compare this example from Boas:

• †ku day ci)cú:5k-[t]=† †ku tkì†kW The child was still small. (182.12)
... still ASP)small-[3]=NC little child Higu k'ay jits'uuskhi higutk'ihikw.

where **†ku** hlgu is placed before the subordinator **qay** 'still' k'ey (which triggers partial reduplication, 5.16.B.9.b.), with its modern equivalent which includes **†ku** hlgu within the scope of reduplication:

qay i)iku -cú:sk-[t]=i iku tkìikW The child is/was still small.

still ASP)little-small-[t]=NC little=child K'ay hlihlguts'uuskhl hlgutk'ihlkw.

5.15.B.37. kupa: 'a little' k'uba

5.15.B.37.a. <u>Used as nominal modifier or prefix, as plural of 1ku hleu</u> (5.15.B.36.):

kupa: ?í:?uxWT 'little boys'
... men kupa: -tkíłkW 'children'

5.15.B.37.a. <u>Used as predicate modifier</u>: the use of this modifier seems to give the utterance an informal, affectionate, 'homey' feeling ( $\neq$  the slightly derogatory meaning of  $\hat{\mathbf{W}}\hat{\mathbf{l}}$  'big, large'  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}ii$ , 5.15.B.38.).

• kupa: witkW==a?nì:n [I see it's true] you're back!
... come.from==ASST you

\*\*Tuba witgwa'a niin!

• ta: kupa: timháw-y Time [for me] to go home!
now ... FUT go.home-1S Hlas k'uba dim hawiy/

• CƏ kupa: ?ama:ká?-tT-Ə-sim Take good care of her! (191.15-192.1)
IRR ... look.after.s.-DEF-CTL-2P Ji k'uba amaaga'atdisim!

5.15.B.38. Wi: 'big, large, greatly' wii (# 1ku higu 5.15.B.36.)

The plural form (used before a noun, or when prefixed) is Wi:tax wiit ax.

5.15.B.38.a. <u>Used as modifier</u>: **W**1: **w**ii does not always refer to an objective quality, but often adds a derogatory emphasis (cf. French *gros*). The word big is used with this meaning also in local English.

#### 5.15.B.38.a.1. Before noun:

**w**i:likíńsk<sup>W</sup>

'a big grizzly bear'

... grizzly bear

vii lik'iáskw

ni:-nə-ti:?anó:q-[t]=ł wi:hanádtkùs[t]
 not-1S.E.-INTS like.s.-[3]=NC ... woman DM that

I don't like that woman ('that big woman').

(Fr. Je n'aime pas cette bonne femme).

Nindii anookhi vii hanak' tgus.

In the following sentence, the modifier occurs before an E-relative clause which is the Adjunct to the Subject of the verb:

• kWiná:ti:=4 kápin-[t]=4 wi:t?an lu:=lí4k-[t]=4 cim-táx==ki:

surprise!=NC emerge-3 - ... 3E RELE in=guard.s.-[3]=NC in-lake==DISTAL

Surprise! there emerged the big monster that lived in the lake and was its

guardian. (14-15) Gwinasdiihl gabinhl vii t an luulihlkhl ts'im t'ag-gi.

# 5.15.B.38.b. Used as modifier: Before verb or adjective:

- ni[t]=4 ki:-t wi: sə-mi4-[t]=[4]]ákW
  that's=NC and-3E ... make-burn-[3]=NC] firewood
  Then he lit a big fire. (89.8)
  ....Nihl k'iit wii simihl lakw.
- n'i[t]=4 ki: wi: ksə-páx-t?a=4 wi: fintx-t
   that's=NC and ... out-run-3 PREP=NC ... angry-3
   She [the big grizzly woman] rushed out in anger (209.9.)
   Nihl k'ii vii ksibazt ahl vii hlintxt.

• hux<sup>W</sup>ti: **w̃i**:náks also ... married

And he's married too! [apart from other reasons why you shouldn't associate with him]

Hurwdii vii naks!

# 5.15.B.38.b. <u>Used as prefix</u>:

5.15.B.38.b.1. Prefixed to adjectives of suitable meaning: the plural form is often prefixed with Witax wiitar:

• wi:-tís

... -full

'big (person, animai),

grown-up, old (person)'

viit'is

pl. wi:tax-tis)tis

viit'art'ist'is

w i:-láý

...-large

'big (container, house, etc.)'

**V**iilay

wi:-ńák<sup>₩</sup>

...~long

'long (object), tall'

**V**iióakw

5.15.B.38.b.2. Before circumstantial subordinator (in a compound):

wi-wil-hilltl-kat

'multitude'

...-as/where-many-people

**vii** vilhilgit

5.15.B.39. **Watin** 'former ancient old' *wahlin* (≠ Si: sii 5.15.B.40.)

5.15.B.39.a. Before noun:

wałin ki)kát

'the old people' (Indian ancestors)

... PL)people

vehlingigat

watin náks-t

'her former husband/his former wife'

... spouse-3

vahlin nakst

• wain wilp wil ti: cóq-ti:t

They live in an old house.

... house SUB INTS live-3P

Vahlin wilp wil dii jokdiit.

haciksimhuxW húkax-ə-t=+ +ə wain wi:qasqó:-t
 again again look.like.s.-CTL-3-NC the former great size-3
 He [the giant] was back to his former size [after taking the form of a baby]
 (23.4). Hats'iksim huxw hugagath! hli wahlin wii gasgoot.

# 5.15.B.39.b. Before circumstantial subordinator:

• watin wila: sə-tilx

'the old method of rendering

... how make-grease

oolichan grease [title of a brochure]

wahlia wilaa sit'ila

5.15.B.40. SI:

'new(ly), present' sii (# Walin wahlin 5.15.B.39...

Qam gam 5.15.B.41.)

#### 5.15.B.40.a. Used as modifier:

## 5.15.B.40.a.1. Before noun:

si: ki)kát

'the people of today'

... PL)people

Siigigat

si: kutác-ý

'my new coat'

... coat-1S

sii k'udats'iÿ

including a relativized predicate used as noun:

si: náks-(ə)t 'newlyweds' ... married-REL sii naksit

5.15.B.40.a.2. Before adverb:

Sī: kú: ń 'right now'
... now sii guuń

5.15.B.40.a.3. Before stative (passive) used attributively: cf. English fresh. freshly:

• Si: ?ànkWs-m?aná:x 'fresh-baked bread'
... cooked-ATT bread sii ankwsim anaax

• Si: mukW-s-m hó:n fresh-caught fish catch fish -PAS-ATT fish sii mukwsim hoon

5.15.B.40.a. Before predicate: 'once again'

...?a=4 wil si: ni[t]=4 4ku kWè:?-m 4ku-tki4kW
PREP=NC SUB ... that's=NC little poor-ATT little-\*child
t ?an sa:=?úx-T-[t]=4?ú:q
3E REL E off=throw.s.-DEF-{3}=NC copper

[the chief was upset] ...because once again it was that wretched boy, who had knocked the copper off [the tree, and who had now triumphed again]! (145.2-3)
... ah! wil sii nih! h!gu gwee'em h!gutk'ih!w t an saa'uyih! uuk ...

5.15.B.40.b. Used as prefix before intransitive verb:

Si:-Wil 'to be new'
...-be siiwil

5.15.B.41. Qam 'old, worn, unfit for use' gam (≠ Si: sii 5.15.B.40.)

5.15.B.41.a. Used as modifier: before noun:

5.15.B.41.a. <u>Used as prefix</u>: creates nouns from verbs: 'refuse from ...' (7.1.B.3.a.4.)

liki: ligii, of indefinite meaning, can be used by itself as a modifier, but is often associated with other pre-predicate morphemes.

5.15.B.42.a. Used as modifier:

5.15.B.42.a.1. With predicates:

5.15.B.42.a.1.a. <u>With verb</u>: the modifier can also be repeated before a noun(-phrase).

ni:-ki: liki:aqam=tílpkW-ti:t ?a=4 liki:laxĉè:-[t]=4 ?áks
 not-INTS ... to.shore=close-3P PREP=NC ... edge-[3]=NC water

# They weren't anywhere close to a shore (104.8). Nigii ligii jagamdilpkwdiit ahl ligii lasts'eehl aks

liki: *ligii* is often used when the predicate (or auxiliary) is in the phrasal frame Wit ... -i: ... 'looks like ......[sthg happening] wit ... -i: ... (7.3.B.2.b.)

• wit liki: yùkW-i:=4 wóq-t
... ... PROG-...=NC sleep-3

S/he looks like s/he is sleeping.

Wit ligit yugwith! wokt.

# 5.15.B.42.a.1.b. With numeral: 'approximately...'

†a: liki: txálpx-[t]=† sà=† wíl-t
 now ... four=NC day-[3]=NC act-3

S/he has/had been doing it about four days...

Hlas ligit traipshi sahi wilt ...

• fa: liki: kWilál-t==(a)ma?=ffòqs now ... three-3==DUB=NC moon

I guess it had been about three months ... (170.13)

Hisa ligit gwilaidima ahl hloks ...

#### 5.15.B.42.a.1.c. With pronoun:

• liķi: tná:tim-t?anlu:=ķúxW-t
... DM who FUT-3E REL.E in=shoot.s.-3
ñít=† tim xstá:-(ə)t - liķi: t ñí:ŷ - liķi: t ñí:n
him=NC FUT win-REL - ... DM me ... DM you
Whoever hits the target, will win; could be me, could be you (19.2-3).
Ligii t naa dimt an luuguxwt, ñithl dim zsdaat, ligii t ñiiŷ, ligii t ñiin.

In many cases, liki: *ligii* is so closely associated with an indefinite pronoun that it functions as a prefix (see below 5.15.B.42.b and also 5.6.B.)

- 5.15.B.42.a.2. With other pre-predicate morphemes:
- 5.15.B.42.a.2.a. After modifier **dam** (5.15.B.14.).
- ni:-ti:?akú-[t]cəqam liki:kWi+ hi-t S/he hardiy ever says a word.
   no-INTS what-[3] IRR ... about say-3 Nidii agu ja k'am ligii kw'ihi hit.
- 5.15.B.42.a.2.b. After subordinator **Qay** k'ay (5.16.B.9.): 'hardly..., barely..., as soons as ...'
- day liki:qísxkW-[t]=4 4ku-tkì4kW
   still ... stop.crying-[3]=NC little-\*child
   ki:-thuxW kWin-qí4qan-[t]=4 sim?ò:kit=4 lákW
   and-3E again JUSS-poke.s.-[3]=NC chief=NC firewood
   As soon as the child [tied above the fire] stopped crying,...

K'ay ligii gesykwhl hlgutk'ihlkw, ...

...the chief would give orders to poke the fire again (91.5-6).
...k'iit huxw gwin-gehlganhl sim'oogithl lakw.

- 5.15.B.42.a.2.c. In an alternative question with subordinator CO 'whether' *ji/ja* after coordinator ?O: 'or...' oo (5.17.B.): the modifier is used in the second clause, to insist on the fact that the alternative proposed may not be the only one:
- †ku kát==a ?0: Cə liki: †ku hanáq-t Is it a boy or [perhaps] a girl? little man==Q or whether... little woman-3 Higu gada oo ji ligii higu hanak't?

(If the alternative is only between two nouns or pronouns, the modifier may be used alone, cf. 5.15.B.42.a.1.c.).

5.155.B.42.b. Used as prefix:

liki:-wil ... - be

'goods (esp. kitchenware, towels, etc.) distributed at a settlement feast'

ligiivil

It adds extra indefinite meaning to indefinite pronouns (see 5.6.B.):

liki:-?akú ...-what

'something, whatever'

ligii'agu

5.15.B.43. lu:payt 'irresponsibly, foolishly' luubayt

This modifier is composed of the two proclitics lu:= in luu... and palq laytin the middle bagayt, basyt, basyt, but the combination functions as an independent modifier.

- kilò mə cə lu:payttát-T-[t]=t winé:x Don't throw away food don't! 2E IRR ... put.away.s.-DEF-[3]=NC food [irresponsibly]!

  Gilo mi ji luubayt t'ahlihl wineex!
- lu:paytlu:=tku=páx=4 qó:t-ý kú:n I can't think! (lit. my mind is ... in=around=run=NC heart-1S now going around in circles)

  Sim luubayt luutk'ubaxhl goodiy guun!
- sim lu:pay tni:-nə-ti: wilá:x-[t] wila: kWil hí-n==>st really ... not-1SE-INTS know.s.-{3} how about say-2S==AFF

  [You know,] I have no idea what you are taiking about!

  Sim luubayt nindii wilaar wilaa kw'ihi hinis/

# 5.15.B.44. kWit 'about, around' kwihl

This morpheme, one of the most common in the language, has a very vague, general meaning; locally it is usually translated by 'around', used much more freely than in Standard English. Some of its uses clearly mark it as a modifier,

others as a proclitic (7.1.A.1.c.1.), but in many cases it is difficult to know what category it is best assigned to.

Its use as a reinforcement to the generality of a negative statement is that of a modifier, as in

This use is general in a negative statement about an ordinary (non-determinate, non-possessed, non-deverbative) noun, as in

5.15.B.45. ?alu: 'plainly, visibly, in plain sight, obviously' aluu...

# 5.15.B.45.a. Used as modifier:

?alu: páx

run	aluu bax
• ?alu: hi)hitk <sup>W</sup> =4 wilp =ASP)stand	The house stood in plain sight (44.15).  Alou hihitkwhl wilp.

'to run/go really fast'

## 5.15.B.45.b. <u>Used as prefix</u>:

<b>?alu</b> :-ķi)kát	'Indians', prob. orig. 'unconcealed,
PL)people	undisguised people' (as opposed to
	animals or supernatural beings in
	human form) <sup>12</sup> aluugigat

?alu. ťá:

'to show, to be visible'

... exist

aluut aa

5.15.B.46. ?iks 'formerly, ...used to ...' iks

This modifier is used before verbal predicates, unlike Watin wablin (5.15.B.39.) which is used before nouns.

• t kún wil **?iks**hítkW-[t]=+ pca:n==ki: DM this where ... stand-[3]=NC totem pole==DIST

This is where the totem pole used to be.

Tgua wil iks hitkwhi pis'aan-gi.

5.15.B.47. ki: 'ahead [of others]' kii (homophonous with the subordinator ki: 'and ...' \*#, 5.16.B.5.).

• ki:yú xk<sup>W</sup>-n

Eat first [before the others do]

... eat-2S

K'ii yuuzgwin!

• ki:qúl=ł kupa:-tkiłkW ... run.PL=NC little.PL-\*child

The children ran ahead.

L'ii golh! k'ubatk'ih!kw.

This modifier is also used after the subordinator 1a: 'by now...' hlaa. The combination ta: ki: hlas k'ii may be contracted to ta: ?i: hlas ii. Its meaning is 'by then..., ... [had happened] earlier.'

• ta: ki: núw-[t]=tnicí:c-ti:t==ki: by.now ... dead-[3]=ND grandmother-3P==DISTAL

Their grandmother was dead by then/...had died earlier. (162.14)

Hlas k'ii auwhl nits'iits'diit-gi.

5.15.B.48. \$\frac{1}{4}\$ 'would ...' hii (homophonous with the most common form of the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla (6.1.B.2.)

This modifier is used in conditional clauses.

5.15.B.48.a. Before FUT particle **tim** dim, before verb: the combination **tim** hii dim presents an event that could happen or could have happened but did not.

5.15.B.48.a.1. <u>In predicate-focused clause</u>: the event was very likely to happen but was prevented: '... was going to...,...would have ...'.

• li timhúksk<sup>W</sup> niːỷ I was going to go/attend.

... FUT attend me I would have gone.

Hli dim hukskw niiỷ.

• 1.  $t \cdot m \cdot k \cdot k \cdot W - \partial - \dot{y}$  I was going to buy it. -FUT buy.s.-CTL-1S I would have bought it. HII dim giigwiÿ.

5.15.B.48.a.2. In regular clause: after clause beginning with CO 11 ji hii (5.15.B.48.b.): depending on the context, can refer to present or past impossibility:

• CƏ fi ta:la-ŷ ...

IRR ... money-1S

If I had (had) the money, ...

Ji hii daalaŷ, ...

I would buy it./ have bought it.

... FUT and 1SE buy.s.-3

... hii diæ ii ni giikwt.

I would go/have gone to Mexico.

... FUT go.to-M.-1S

... hii diæ ii hii-Mexicoŷ.

5.15.B.48.b. In combination with the subordinator CO ji: see examples of CO 11 ji hli in 5.15.B.48.a. above and also in 5.16.B.4.

5.15.B.49. ČƏ 'in spite of ... although .... even though ....' B'I...

Like ti (5.15.B.1.), this modifier is always followed by a predicate-focused clause. It is often reinforced by the modifier likil 'about, any..., for instance' *ligii* (5.15.B.48.).

- capaqitk matim wila: wa-tT-t Even though you may find it hard ...
  ... difficult 2E FUT how find s.-DEF-3

  Ts'i gagetk mi dim wilaa wadit ...
- Co liki: qásqan-o-n me tim?i: qap kíp-t ... about dislike.food-CTL-2S 2E FUT and must eat-3

Even though you may dislike it, you have to eat it.

Ts'i ligii dim gask'anin mi dim ii k'ap gipt.

It often occurs before the 3rd person independent pronoun (acting as topicalizer)  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ i[t]

• **c**ð nít! **c**ð nít! ... that's it

Even so! Even so! (Even if all the dangers you describe befall us..., [we'll make it])(11.5.)

To init! To init!

The clause after ni[t] is also a predicate focused clause:

• Coni[t]=4 qásqan-o-n=4 fáqask W ?i: mo qap kip-t
... that's=NC dislike.food-CTL-2S=NC seaweed and 2E must eat.s.-3

Even though you dislike seaweed, you have to eat it.

(lit. even though seaweed is what you dislike...)

Ts'i aihl gask'aninhl hlak'askw ii mi k'ap gipt.

5.15.B.50. **kW**1:X 'always.... good at ... [doing something], liking to .... keen to ... [do something] 'gwiix- (cf. the meaning of German gern)

Nowadays this modifier seems to be used mostly as a prefix (7.1.B.1.b.3.b.), but

#### examples in Boas show modifier usage:

- má4-[t]=[4] cə n[ə] kWi:xkip-[t]=4?anwin-[t]=s[t]kùst
  tells.s.-[3]=[NC| IRR IS.E... eat.s.-[3]=NC what.s.o.has-[3]=DC [DM] that
  Tell [him] that I am always very keen to eat what he's got. (40.5-6)

  Mahl jin gwiiz giphl anwins gust.
- ní:==qat ki:-di:-t kWi:x kíp-[t]=† sim?ò:kit t kun?anwin-n
  not==REP INTS-INTS-3E ... eat.s.-[3]=NC chief DM this what.s.o.has-2S
  I hear that this chief never eats what you've got. (40.6-7)
  Nii-gat gidiit gwiiz giph! sim'oogit tgun(h!) anwinin.

## 5.15.B.51. Downshifted PAs used as modifiers:

Adjectives suffixed with the Attributive suffix -III are often used as predicate modifiers, for instance:

• ni:y=t tim ksqo:q-mlaqs-(\(\theta\))t I am taking my bath first.

me=NC FUT first-ATT bathe-REL

Niivhl dim ksgoogam laksit.

• †a: Simù-mnáks-ti:t They are married legally now. now correct-ATT married-3P Hlas simum naksdiit.

It seems that the same process is involved with Sita:ma?-m'starting to ...' sit'aama'am, from Sita:ma?'to start' sit'aama'a, and with na:m (older na?am) 'wanting to..., feeling the urge/need to...' naam / na'am, of unknown origin, which are used very frequently:

- hawin=fsita:ma?-myé:-t==a Has s/he started walking yet?
  not-yet=NC...walk-3==0 Hawinhl sit 'aama'am-yeeda?
- das)dúc-ə-t=+smáx?i: ñí[t] wil-t sità:ma?ankíp-t
   PL)cut.s.-CTL-3=NC meat and that's SUB 3E ...=eat.s.-3

S/he cut the meat into little pieces and then started to eat it.

K'ask'ojith! smax ii ni wil sit'aama'am-gipt.

• na:mhi:-wilpksi46? nì:y

I need to go to the bathroom.

Nam-hii-wilpksihlo'o niiy.

• ni:=4 na:mx-ko:fi:-n==a
not=NC ... eat-coffee-2S==0

Do you want some coffee?

Niihl manm-xkoofiina?

• ?akú=4 ña:m kíp-ə-n==əst what=NC ... eat.s.-CTL-2S==AFF

[Well,] what do you want to eat?

Aguhl man-gibinis?

#### **5.16. SUBORDINATORS.**

5.16.A. Subordinators are always followed by a regular clause (4.3.). They generally occur in front of the predicate phrase, although some morphemes, especially Ergative pronouns and the FUT particle tim dim, can precede a subordinator, so that the latter is integrated phonologically if not syntactically into the predicate phrase. Several of the subordinators also act as modifiers, and one is homophonous with the Irrealis particle. This makes it sometimes difficult to sort out which role should be attributed to which morpheme, so that the following classification and analysis should still be considered tentative.

Subordinators indicate...

- chronological or logical link:

kl: 'and (then)...' kii (colloquial 71: ii)

- factual background (including time and location):

```
Wil 'as, because, that, where, when...' wil
- factual consequence: Qan'[reason] why...' gan-manner: Wila: 'how' wilaa
-time: non-future: ta: 'when...'
                   ta: †a: (ti†a:) 'when, once, after' (in general)
                                                   daa hlaa/dihlaa
                   ti ta: '[since] the time when;' hlidaa
                   tis wil 'at the moment when' dis wil + predicate
      future: ca ta:/ca ta: twhen (in the future)...' ji hlas/jidas hlas
              co ta: 'if ...(sthg happens)' jidaa
- aspect: qay '... still happening, just happened' k'ay
         ta: 'by now, from now on, when, after...'
          ?a 'while as...'
- goal: ?a...[tim] 'in order to/that..' a... (dim)
- hypothesis/conditionality:
   Co whether ... ji/ja
   CO 11 'if ...(sthg were/had been true)' ji hli
   co?an 'if ...(sthg were true)/then ... (sthg else would be true)' ji an
- alternative: ?a=1 kl: 'yet..., but instead..., but meanwhile...' ahl k'ii
Two expressions function as subordinators in present-day Nisgha but seem to be
originally made up of a verbal predicate followed by the IRR particle CO:
Pup Co 'in case... (something undesirable happens), for fear..., lest...' upji/upja
MO: CO 'aimost [happened]' mooji/mooja
```

5.16.B. List of subordinators: (not in a particular order)

5.16.B.1. Qan 'the reason why' gan

5.16.B.1.a. Use as a subordinator: Qan gan (usually translated in local English as 'why', used differently from Standard English) introduces as consequence, not a cause; the cause is stated in what precedes Qan gan: a focused constituent, for instance a question word, or an entire clause.

 ?akúqan?axhúkskW-t sick = ... not attend-3

Why is s/he not here? Why didn't s/he come?

Agu gan as hukskwi?

sí:pkW - qan?axhúkskW-t
 sick = ... not attend-3

S/he is sick, that's why s/he's not here. (local: ..., why s/he's...).

S/he didn't come because s/he is/was sick.

Siipkw, gan ax hukskwt.

• ?akù məqamáks-y==əst what 2E ... insult.s.-1S==AFF

Hey, why do you call me names? (118.2)

Agu ma gan haksiýis?

• hí[t]=+ qantis)tú:ckW-[t]=+ qa)qà:x-[t]=+ qíwin that's=NC ... PL)black-[3]=NC PL)wing-[3]=NC seaguli

That's why seaguils' wings are black. (35.5)

Nihl gan t'ist'uuts'kwhl gak'aaxhl gewin.

If the predicate indicating the consequence is already known, it is not usually repeated following Qan; the predicate Wil 'be/do/act' wil is used instead:

• ?akùqan kwid mimq-n what ... about smile-2S

Why are you smiling?

Agu gan kwihl mink an?

lu:=?á:m=4 qò:t-ỷ qan wil-t - [It's] because I am happy.
in=good=NC heart-1S ... be-3 (lit. I am happy, [that's] why it is).
- Luu'aamhl goodiÿ, gan will.

• Wittis=4 wil kitkW-t=ki:-?a-t wil páq-[t]=4 wintó? qan wil-t great=NC SUB swell-3==DIST - PREP-3E SUB feel.s.-[3]=NC windo'o... be/do-3
He swelled up enormously; that was because he had tasted the windo'o la mind-altering substance which was formerly chewed]. (90.12-13)
Wittish! wil gitkwt-gi; at wil bakh! windo'o, gan wilt.

5.16.B.1.b. This subordinator can also be used as a prefix: see (7.1.B.3.b.1.).

5.16.B.2. †a: 'by now..., when..., after...' hlas

This very common subordinator is also sometimes used as a modifier (5.15.23).

5.16.B.2.a. <u>In single clause</u>: 'now, by now, from now on'; often translatable by English present perfect:

P<sub>0</sub>: • †a: má:tim It's winter [now].
... snowfall/winter Hisa maadim.

P<sub>A</sub>:• †a: pláksk<sup>W</sup>-ý I am tired [after doing s.t.].
... tired-1S Hier plakskwiý.

• ta: xWtáx-ỷ I am hungry [now].
... hungry-1S

Hlas xwdayiỷ

• ta: hanáq-t She is a woman now.
... woman-3 Hisa hanak't.

• ta: tisk W-n==a ... finished-2S==QU

Have you finished? Hise hisewine?

• **ła**: cawags-[t]W-n=a ... shoes-MED-2S==Q

Do you have your shoes on (yet)? Have you put on your shoes? Hise ts'swaksgwina?

 $P_{EA}$ : •1a: mə4isa?n-t==a 2E finish.s.-3==0

Have you finished it? Hisa mi hlisa anda?

With the FUT particle, it announces an imminent occurrence:

 ła: tim má:tim. ... FUT snowfall

It is going to snow. Hisa dim masdim.

• ła: tim háw-ỷ ... FUT go.home-1S

I am going home now. Hiss dim hawiy.

• la: tim nuw-[t]=4 lkú:lkW-n Your child is about to die. (89.1) ... FUT die-[3]=NC child-2S

Hiss dim nucht higeuhlgwin.

5.16.B.2.b. In clause linked to another: 'now that..., when ..., after ...'

5.16.B.2.b.1. Singly or with FUT particle:

• ča:kúk<sup>W</sup>sk<sup>W</sup> ňì:ỷ **†a**: nəká?-n I was startled to see you startled I ... 1E see.s.-2S (lit. ...when I saw you)

Ts'aagyukwskw niiy hlas ni ga'an.

•  $\mathbf{4a}$ : y'txè:msim

... downhill=walk-[3]=1 spouse-[3]=NC cormorant==DIST and speak-[3]=DC {DM]T.

When the cormorant's wife had come down to the beach, Treemsim spoke.

(44.3-4) His yagayeehi nakshi haawts-gi, k'ii algazs Treemsim.

• lu:=?á:m=4 qò:t=4 hanáq The woman was happy ...
in=good=NC heart=NC woman

Luu'aamhl goothl hanak'...

ta:-tká?-[t]=thuxWtá:kin-t .... when she saw her grandchild. ...-3E see s.=NC grandchild-3 .... hleat ga'ahl huxwdaak'int.

ta: tim-tká?-[t]=thuxWtá:kin-t ...FUT-3E see.s.=NC grandchild-3

... now that she was going to see her grandchild.
... hlas dimt ga'ahl huxwdaak'int.

5.16.B.2.b.2. Preceded by the IRR particle CO ji/je: CO ta: 'when... (at a definite point in the future)' jihlas.

This combination differs in meaning from the individual meanings of the subordinator CO whether ji/ja and the modifier 1a: 'by now' hlas (5.15.B.23). Compare also CO ta: 1a: jidaahlas (5.16.B.3.b.2.).

• timhat)hátiks numer de la sínt This summer we'll go swimming.

FUT PL)swim us IRR ... summer Dim hathadiks num jihlas sint.

5.16.B.2.c. For use with modifier \$1: / ?1: k'ii/ii see 5.15.B.47.

5.16.B.3. ta: 'when ..., whenever ...' das

Nowadays this word is used mostly in combination with other morphemes.

5.16.B.3.a. Not preceded by the IRR particle CO ji/ja:

5.16.B.3.a.1. ta: das is found by itself with OFS and in Boas (often after the

## preposition ?a a, 5.18.):

- kilò=4 six)sámaq-sim==əst?a=4 ta:hisqa?á:qs-sim==əst
  don't=NC PL)shut.up-2P==AFF PREP=NC ... laugh.PL-2P==AFF
  Come on, don't keep your mouths shut like that when you laugh! (84.5-6)

  Giloh! sixsamaksimis, ah! dan hisga'aaksimis!
- ni:-ki:-t sa:=tá4-T-t ?a=4 ta: ki)ké:4-t
  not-INTS-3E off-put.s.PL-DEF-3 PREP=NC ... ASP)lie-3
  She did not remove them when she went to bed. (96.14)
  Nigit saat'ahlit ahl dae gigeehlt.

5.16.B.3.a.2. ta: ta: 'when ...(in general), once ...(something happens) das hlas this expression is in general use with YFS, often reduced to tita: dihlas. Here ta: hlas is probably the modifier (5.15.B.23), since the subordinator is ta: dias.

• ta: ta: sint?i:sə-má:ŷ-m In the summer, we pick berries.
when now summer and make-berries-IP

Dea hlee sint ii simaaŷim.

5.16.B.3.a.3. 10 ta: '(at) the exact time when..., since the time...' hlidaa: This expression is a combination of the restrictive particle 10 hli/hla and the subordinator ta: daa (5.16.B.3.a.). It does not normally occur initially, but after another clause or focused constituent.

- †a: txàlpx-wil-kàp-[t]=† kú:† †a ta: skát-ỷ
  now four-SUB-ten-[3]=NC year ... ... be.born-1S
   I was born forty years ago.
   (lit. It is now forty years since I was born)
   Hlaa txalpx-wil-k'aphl k'uuhl hlidaa sgadiÿ.
- ta: txàlpx-wil-kèp-[t]=t kút to ta:-tnáksa?an-ti:tnìiỷ now four-SUB-ten-[3]=NC year ... ...-3E marry.s.o.off-3P me

# They married me off forty years ago. Hlaa tzalpz-wil-k'aphl k'uuhl hlidaat naksa'andiit niiy.

ni: mə ?amqó:[t]={ +a ta: hi:-kitxatín-m==a
 not 2E remember.s.=NC ... ... go.to-Greenville-1P==Q
 Do you remember the time we went to Greenville?
 Nii mi amgooh! hlidas hii-Gitzat'inima?

5.16.B.3.b. Preceded by the IRR particle CO ji/ja: The IRR particle can precede ta: das or ta: ta: das hlas in the same way as it can precede complements referring to future time (6.1.B.1.b.2.). With older speakers, CO ta: 'if (and when) ...' jidas is often preceded by the preposition ?a which introduces most circumstantial complements.

5.16.B.3.b.1. CO ta: 'if (and when) ...' jidaa

This combination introduces a hypothetical condition that may still be realized. A clause beginning with CO to: jidaa can occur sentence-initially or finally.

P<sub>0</sub>: • tim ?á:t ňì:ỷ ťa: łák W

FUT fish.w.net me tomorrow
(?a) cə ta: ?axpá?ask W

(PREP)... not wind

• ?akù=1 tim wíl-n
what=NCFUT do-2S
(?a) cə ta:pá?askW
(PREP) ... wind

PA: • Co ta: ta:la-ý
... ... money-1S
tim ?i: no ki:kW-t
FUT and 1S.E buy.s.-3

I'll go fishing tomorrow ...

Dim ast ńiiż t'ashlakw ...

... if there is no wind.

... (a) jidas as ba'askw.

What will you do...

Aguhl dim wilin ...
... if it's windy?
... (a) jidaa ba'askw?

If I have the money, ...

Jidaa dsalay ...

... I will buy it.

... dim ii ni giikwt.

• cə ta: ?áks-n ... ... drink-2S kilócəyu hatáx-n don't IRR drive-2S

If you drink,...

Jidaa aksin,...

... don't drive.

... gilo ji yuuhadaayin.

P<sub>EA</sub>: • cə ta: məká?-[t]=4smáx ... ... 2E see.s.-[3]=NC bear kilòcəpáx-n don't IRR run-2S

If you see a bear, ...

Jidea mi ga'ahl smax, ...

... don't run.

... gilo ji bagan.

cə ta: nəki:kW-t
 ... ... 1S.E buy.s.-3
 tim?i:qo:ta-[t]=i ta:la-ŷ
 FUT and ail.gone-[3]=NC money-1S

If I buy it, ...

Jidas ni giikwt, ...
... all my money will be gone.
... dim ii goodahl daalay.

• CƏ ta:-tsqa=yóxkW-[t]=4 kát ñi[t]=4 ki:-t kip-t
.....-3E barring=follow.s.-[3]=NC man that's=NC and-3E eat.s.-3

If anyone went in front of it the monster canoel, it ate him. (107-1-2)

Iidaat sgayoxkwhl gat, ñihl k'iit gipt.

In Boas, CO ji and ta: des may be separated by the E clitic, as in:

ni:- ki: tim mukW-n co n(a) ta: tukWs=máq-T-tcimáks
not-INTS FUT catch-2S IRR 1S.E when overboard=place.s.-DEF-3 in water
You won't catch anything if I throw it into the water. (43.11-12)
Nigii dim mugwin ji n daz t'ukwsmagat ts'im aks.

## (modern usage would be:

cita: nətuk Ws=máq-T-t ... ... if I throw it into the water.
if ISE overboard=put.s.-DEF-3 ... jidaa ni t'ukwsmagat ...)

## 5.16.B.3.b.2. Co ta: ta: 'when ...(at some point in the future)' jidaahlaa

tim stílims ňim cə ta: ta: náks-ý
 FUT attendant you ... ... married-2S

You'll be a bridesmaid when I get married.

Dim sdilims àiin jidaah laa naksiy.

• cə ta: ta: káckW-n ?a=t čitqá:t 13 cə ki:kWit yé:-n ... ... land-2S PREP-NC Chilkat IRR and around walk-2S

When you land in Chilkat, walk around (195.8-9).

Jidaah laa k'atsgwin ahl Ts'ihlgaat, ji k'ii kw'ihl yeen.

5.16.B.4. CO 'if (by chance)..., whether ...(or not)' ji/ja: this subordinator should not be confused with the homophonous Irrealis particle (6.1.B.1.b.) which often occurs in the same clauses before a nominal, as well as before other subordinators.

#### 5.16.B.4.a. Singly after predicate:

#### 5.16.B.4.a.1. With non-alternative clauses:

•	?á:m cəáx hay wis good not rain	Hope it doesn't rain!  Aam ji az haywis!
	?á:m <b>cə</b> xstá:−n	Hope you win!
	good win-2S	Ann ja zsteno!
•	kaxkítax-[t]=s[t] <u>Márv</u>	Just ask Mary
	just ask.s.o[3]=DC [DM] M.	K'ar gidars Mary
	ni:-nə-ti:wilá:x-[t]	I don't know
	not-1S F-INTS knows -[3]	Nindii wilser

The Irrealis particle CO ji/ja can be used before the next constituent instead of the connective, if that constituent is also hypothetical (see 6.1.B.1.b.1.).

... whether I had been to Kincolith.

... ji ni ga'ahl Gingolx.

... cə nə ká?-[t]=+ kinqúlx

... 1S.E see.s.-[3]=NC K.

5.16.B.4.a.2. With alternative clauses: the first clause is preceded by CO ji/ja; the second clause, introduced by the coordinator 70: 'or' oo (5.17.B.) before CO ji/ja, is followed by the modifier liki: 'about, maybe, any...' ligii (5.15.B.42.) and by the relevant alternative:

5.16.B.4 a.2.a. If the <u>predicate</u> of the first clause is being questioned, the second clause is a complete clause, but without nominal adjuncts:

kítax-ə-t nì ý t Màry ask s.o.-CTL-3 me DM M.

Mary asked me...

Gidagat niiý t Mary ...

• cə 4ku kát-[t]=4 hux Wtá:kin-ỷ ... little man-[3]=NC grandchild-1S

... whether my grandchild was a boy...
... ji hlgu gathl huxwdaak'iniý...

?o: cə liki: tkuhanád-t or ... maybe little woman-3

... or a girl.

• cə nəcáp-[t]=+kutàc-ý

... oo ji ligii hlgu hanak't.

... 1S.E make-[3]=NC coat-1S

...whether I had made my coat ...
... ji ni japhi k'udats'iÿ ...

70: cə liki: nə kí:kW-t or ... maybe 1S.E buy.s.-3

... or bought it.
... oo ji ligii ni giikwt.

5.16.B.4.b.2. If the part of the clause which is relevant to the alternative is not the predicate, but <u>another constituent</u>, that constituent is in focused position in the first clause and repeated in its alternative form in the second clause:

kítax-ti:t $\hat{n}$ i: $\hat{y}$  ... ask.s.o.-3P me

They asked me ...

Gidardiit niiy ...

cəkitxatin wil witkW-y
... Greenville SUB come from-1S

... whether I was coming from Greenville...
... ji Gitzat'in wil witzwiy...

70: CƏ liki: kinqúlx or ... maybe Kincolith

... or from Kincolith.
... oo ji ligii Gingolx.

Remark: This seems to be a modern development with 70: Co liki: oo ji ligii taken as a unit meaning 'or.' Older speakers would use only liki: ligii in this case, since the alternative does not contain a clause predicate:

• cəkitxatı́n wil wı́tkW-ý ... Greenville SUB come.from-1S

... whether I was coming from Greenville... ... ji Gitzat'in wil witgwiy...

liki: kingúlx maybe Kincolith

... or from Kincolith. ... ligii Gingolx.

## 5.16.B.4.b. In combination with other morphemes:

# 5.16.B.4.b.1. CO 11 'if... [sthg were true]' ji hli

The combination of the subordinator CO ji/ja and the modifier 11 'if' hli (5.15.B.48.) presents a hypothesis that is known not to be true; the hypothetical consequence is stated before or after, with 11 tim ... hii dim... ( (5.15.B.48.a.). With YFS, that hypothesis can refer to the present or the past; with OFS, it tends to refer to the past (see 5.16.B.4.b.2. for the present):

• cə li tala-y ... ... ... money-1S ... i tim ?i: nə ki:kW-t REST FUT and 1S.E buy.s.-3

If I had (had) the money, ...

Ji hli daalay, ...

... I would buy/have bought it.

... hli dim ii ni giikwt.

• cə ti hi:-<u>México</u>-y ... ... ... go.to.-M.-1S

If I went/had gone to Mexico ... Ji hli hii-Mexicoy ...

• cə i ?axsi:pkW-[t]=s[t]Pèter If Peter had not been sick ... ... ... not sick-[3]=DC [DM] P.

Ji hli ar siipkws Peter ...

• cə tə nə?axki:kW-t ... ... 1S.E not buy.s.-3

If I had not bought it ...

Ji bli ni az giikwt ...

• ni:-ki: 4i.tim ti: wil-t ?a cə 4i ksqò:q-m?áq4kW-[t]=4 lò?op not-INTS CONDITIONAL INTS act-3 PREP ... ... first-ATT succeed-[3]=NC stone It wouldn't have happened if the rock had been the first to give birth (72.5-6).

Nigii hli dim dii wilt a ji hli ksgoogam akhlkwhl lo'op.

5.16.B.4.b.2. CƏ ?an 'if...(sthg were true)' ji an/ja an : this combination introduces a hypothesis that is not presently realized and can depend either on a present or past condition (?an an does not seem to occur alone with this meaning and cannot be identified with the homophonous prefix and clitic); with OFS, that other condition is also introduced by CƏ ?an ji an/ja an:

```
• (OFS) CƏ ?an táda-ỷ ...

... ... money-1S

CƏ ?an nə kí:kW-t

... ... 1S.E buy.s.-3

If I had/had had the money, ...

Ji an daalaỷ ...

... I would buy/have bought it.

... ji an ni giikwt.
```

• CƏ ʔan nə wilá:x-t ...

... ... ISE know.s.-3

CƏ ʔan nə má-T-t lò:-n

... ISE tell.s.-DEF-3 IND-2S

If I knew/had known [it],...

Ji an ni wilaaxt,...

I would tell/have told you.

... ji an ni mahlit loon.

With YFS there is some confusion between CO?AN ji an and CO 11 ji hli and the two tend to be interchangeable for presenting a hypothesis, but there seems to be much individual variation. OFS are the only ones who use CO?AN ji an in both clauses.

5.16.B.5. ki: / ?i: 'and [then...]' k'ii/ii:

ki: kii is older, more formal, ?i: ii more modern and colloquial.

This subordinator, which much more frequent than the English equivalent, does not begin discourse, but links clauses in the chronological (sometimes logical) order of the events described. It also occurs in combination with other morphemes.

5.16.B.5. Single use: ki: k'' can be preceded by the particles tim FUT dim or CO IRR ji/ja.

P<sub>A</sub>: •ta: ⁴a: sínt ?i: sə-má:ỷ-ṁ when now summer ... pick-berries-1P Das hlas sint ii simasyim.

We pick berries in the summer.

- ťa: ták w tim ?i: sə-má: ý-m tomorrow FUT ...
- We'll go berry-picking tomorrow. T'aahlakw dim ii simaayim.
- †a: tim wó:waq-ti:t tim ki:min=yé.-n by.now FUT sleep.PL-3P FUT ... upward-go-2S

Once they are asleep, go up [to the roof] (91.2-3) Hlaa dim woowakdiit, dim k'ii minyeen.

• qap lip cap-[t]=4 cimílx cimáks absolutely self domain-[3]=NC beaver in water ki:spaqaytsqanı́stti:cap-[t]=+?áxWt ... among mountain CONTR domain-[3]=NC porcupine

The water is truly the beaver's domain, but the porcupine's is the mountains. (74.11-12) K'ap lip ts'aphl ts'imilz ts'im aks, k'ii sbagayt sganist dii ts'aphl azwt.

 $P_{EA}$ : (The order of E pronoun and modal particle may vary).

• Łisk w ma yó:?oks-t ca ?i: mak wadimlímk-t PERF 2E wash.s.PL-3 IRR ... 2E carefully wipe.s.PL-3 You should wipe them carefully after you wash them. Hlisky mi yoo'okst ji ii mi gwats' limlimkt.

In narrative there may be a string of clauses beginning with ki: kii, for instance:

• ... ki: hačiksimhuxW yé:-t ... ... and he wandered again ... ... again again walk-3 ... k'ii hats'iksim huxw yeet ...

In some of the Boas stories, there are sometimes also long passages where almost every clause begins with the phrase  $\hat{\Pi}[L]=\hat{I}_{i}\hat{I}$ : '(this happened) and then ...' ith where  $\hat{\Pi}[L]$  that's ...' it... refers to the preceding sentence. The frequency of this phrase in the collection seems to be due to the slow dictation method, clause by clause; some of the storytellers use it much more than others; stories that I have heard, recorded on tape, use it only sparingly if at all.

Here, kl: k'ii' is preceded by the preposition 7d a which precedes many circumstantial emplements. The NC connective =1 ...h/ links the preposition to the following clause introduced by kl: k'ii'.

This combination does not occur sentence-initially. It may be followed by a full clause or only the relevant constituent (contrasting with that in the main clause, which would normally be focused). In conversation, the clause following often ends in the Assertive postclitic == a? ...a'z (6.3.A.2.a.).

#### Contrast with focused constituent:

with Foc. Subject (A)

• hani:qó:t-ý t@scar=1 ha)hé:-(a)t I thought it was Oscar speaking, ... thought-1S DM 0.=NC ASP)say-REL Haniigoodiý t Oscarh! haheet....

**?a=1 ki**: t Húbert==a? ... ... DM H. ==ASST

...but it was actually Hubert! ... shi k'ii t Huberta'a!

with Foc. Agent (E):

• haniqó:t-ý t<u>Oscar</u>t?ancáp-t thought=1S DM 0. 3E RELE make.s.-3 ?a=1 ki: t Dánny==a? ... ... DM D,==ASST

I thought Oscar had made it... Haniigoodiy t Oscar t an japt, ... ... but it was actually Danny. ... chi k'ii t Dannya'a.

ki: kii is also used in the combination Wil ki: (5.16.B.7.b.) wilkii. In ta: ki: (5.15.B.47.) the morpheme  $\mathbf{k}\mathbf{l}:kH$  is most probably the homophonous modifier (5.15.B.48.).

5.16.B.6. ?a a: This morpheme is primarily a preposition (5.18.). As such it introduces circumstantial complements and in this role it often precedes other subordinators, especially in OFS speech. But it is also used as a subordinator in its own right, before a clause.

5.16.B.6.a. Without the FUT particle: 'as, while...' The meaning is often quite vague, but the information in the clause introduced by ?a a is related to the one in the first clause.

 simwiyitk<sup>W</sup> real cry

She cried hard ... Sim wivithw ...

 $P_A$ : ?a=4 lìpilskW-m + ?á:t-t ...as she was mending the nets. ...=NC mend-ATTR+net-3

... ahl lip'ilsgum-aatt.

 $P_{EA}$ :  $a = t \le \hat{p} = 1$   $\hat{p} = 1$   $\hat{c} = 1$   $\hat{$ ...-3E mend.s.-[3]=NC net-[3]=NC spouse-3 ... at lip'ilh! aath! nakst.

Her whole ... body was covered with scabs, as the prince's friends could see.
(189.15-190.2)

Tzanóitkwshl ... hliphlant wil tk'alwanhl amalkw at ga'ahl ansipsiip'inskwhl hlguwilksihlkw.

5.16.B.6.b. With the FUT particle: ?a a expresses a goal.

- $\mathring{n}i[t]=4\mathring{k}i:-t$  wisin=his)yác-t==ki:?a=4 timsə-lít-t==ki:
  that's=NCand-3lengthwise=PL)chop.s.=3==DIST ...=NCFUT make-wedge-3==DIST
  Then he chopped it lengthwise to make wedges (148.4.).

  Nihl k'iit wisinhisyatst-gi ahl dim silitt-gi.
- †a:lu:=tip=hítkW-[t]=† wi: qàn
   by.now in=downward=stand-[3]=NC big tree
   ?a=† tim-t †óqkW-[t]=†?antkulì]pikskW
   ...=NC FUT-3E swallow.s.-[3]=NC whirlpool

By now the huge log was upended [in the water], about to be swallowed by a whirlpool (lit. ... so that a whirlpool was about to swallow it). (104.11-12)

Hiss luut iphitkwhi wii gan shi dimt hlog kwhi antk'ulibikskw.

• ni[t]=1 ki: háw-[t]=1 sim?ò:kit?a=1 tim-t siki4-cákW-T-[t]=scák that's=NC and stop-[3]=NC chief ...=NC FUT-3E try-kill.s.-DEF-[3]=DC Ts'ak

Then the chief stopped trying to kill Ts'ak. (135.12)

Nibl k'ii hawhl sim'oogit ahl dimt sik'ihl-jagwis Ts'ak.

5.16.B.6.c. In Boas, 78 a can also express a goal, even without the FUT particle tim dim:

Then the prince set off on a trip to another village. (194.8)

Nihl k'ii sigyootkwhl hlguwilksihlkw at go'ohl k'ilhl galts'ap.

•  $ki:ks=\pm6?-[t]=\pm4$  day màqs- $\pm2$ a- $\pm4$ anhí-[t]=s[t]  $\pm4$ anhí-[t]=s[t]  $\pm4$ and out=go.PL-[3]=NC young.PL-REL ...-3E see.s.-3P=NC saying-[3]=DC (DM) big-man

And the young men went out to see what Giant was talking about (33.7-8).

K'ii ksihlo'ohl k'aymaksit at ga'adiithl anhis Wiigat.

5.16.B.7. Wil wil introduces a statement of fact, without modal connotations. It is used for a variety of circumstantial complements.

Although this subordinator must often be translated by English 'where' or 'when' 15, it is not a question word. If used in a question, it always follows the question word (other morphemes may intervene).

5.16.B.7.a. Single use:

## 5.16.B.7.a.1. General meaning with other clause:

• likskát ňìn wil cal-m+tkWá-tkW-n You look different with your different you ... eye-ATT-glass-MED-2S glasses on (as/when you have glasses on).

Liksgat áiin wil ts'alimtgwatgwin.

# 5.16.B.7.a.2. After verb of knowledge or perception:

• ni: mə naxna-[t]=\frac{1}{2} wil na: tistisa?-ti:?a=\frac{1}{2} ptó?==a:
not 2E hear.s.-[3]=NC ... knock-IMPS PREP-NC door==0

Did you hear a knock at the door?

Nii mi nagnah! wil naat ist isa adii ah! pdo'a?

- 4a:-t páq-[t]=4 tim wil ?alískW-t ... when he feit that he was getting now-3E feel.s.-[3]=NC FUT ... weak-3 weak ... (100.8).

  ... hlast bakhl dim wil aliskwt ...

#### 5.16.B.7.a.3. After Focused complement:

#### 5.16.B.7.a.3.a. Time:

• kaxkúwil wíl-t When was it/did it happen? when? ... be/do-3 Gazgu wil wilt?

• ta:yúwintimwil wilt
tonight FIT ... be/do-3

It's going to be tonight.

Tasyuwin dim wil wilt.

When referring to time, Wil wil can be preceded by the modifier 1a: 'now' hlas (5.15.B.2.): 'now that...'

lu:=?á:m=†q\):t-ỷ I am happy ...
in=good=NC heart-1S

Luu'aamh! goodiỳ ...

• ... ta: wil sint ... now that it's summer ... as summer ... hlas vil sint.

• ... †3: Wil fisk W-y ... now that I have finished.
... as finished-18 ... hlas wil hlisgwiy.

... ła: tim wil łísk W-v

... FUT as finished-1S

 ... †a: nə wil ká?-n ... 1E as see.s.-2S

> ... ta: nə tim wil ká?-n ... 1E FUT as see.s.-2S

... now that I am going to be finished.

... hlas dim wil hlisgwig.

... now that I see you.

... hiss ni vil ga'an.

... now that I am going to see you.

... hisa ni dim wil ga'an.

### 5.16.B.7.a.3.b. Location:

• ntà wil witkW-n where ... come.from-2S

• kitxatı́n**w**il wı́tk<sup>W</sup>-v Greenville ... come.from-1S

• ntà mə wil ti-witkW-t where 2E ... DOMIN-come.from-3 Where do you come from? Nda wil witgwin?

I come from Greenville. Gitxat'in wil witgwiy.

Where did you get it from? Nda mi wil diwitkwt?

• laxcè:-[t]=+?alát wil ni:=tá:-T-ti:t edge-[3]=NC smokehole 3E ... on=sit-DEF-3P

> They put him on the edge of the smokehole (87.12). Laxts'eehl ala t wil niit'aatdiit.

## 5.16.B.7.a.3.c. Goal/Beneficiary:

 ?akù wil hó:x-s-t. what ... use.s.-PAS-3

> ?akù mə **wil** hó:x-t. what 2E ... use.s.-3

What is it used for? Agu wil hookst?

What did you use it for? Agu mi wil hooxt?

 nà: wil ksaxkináma?-n who ... give.present-2S

Who did you give presents to?

Naa wil ksagginama an?

nà mə wil ksaxkinam-t who 2 ... give s.as.present-3

Who did you give it to [as a present]?

Naa mi vil ksazginamt?

## 5.16.B.7.a.3.d. Actual Agent of Jussive: (7.2.C.1.a.1.b.4.(b))

nà: mi wil k<sup>W</sup>in-cáp-T-t
 who 2 ... JUSS-make.s.-DEF-3

Who did you have it done by?
Who did you get to do it?
Naa mi wil gwin-jabit?

5.16.B.7.a.4. <u>Introduces Object clause with Adjective as predicate</u>: the clause including wil is a descriptive clause equivalent to an English noun-phrase with an adjective:

- damqaytdamdin=tóq-o-t=\wil?ax-ti:mix)múkW-[t]=\mi:do:qst
  actually secretly=take.s.PL-CTL ... not-INTS PL)ripe-[3]=NC salmonberries
  Actually he had secretly taken some totally unripe salmonberries. (49.15-50.1)

  K'amgayt k'amts' indogath! will agdii mixmukwh! miik'ookst.
- kSax wil?ax-qa-yans-T-[t]=\fsqan-ma:y=\fax\angle -\frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \f

The Restrictive particle 10 hli/hls is used if the noun is not mentioned:

• ksax to wil?ax-qa-yans-T-t=tka?~o-yonly the \_\_not-DISTR-leaf-DEF-3=NC see.s.-CTL-1S

I only see/saw (the) leafless ones.

Ksax hli wil axgayansithi ga'ay.

5.16.B.7.a.5. Some other subordinate clauses introduced by Wil wil are also treated as noun phrases, taking the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla and the Distributive prefix Q2- ga.: see 10 hli/hla (6.1.B.2.b.3.).

5.16.B.7.a.5. Wil wil is sometimes used as prefix: see 7.1.B.3.b.2..

5.16.B.7.b. Wil ki: (older, more formal) / Wil ?i: / Wi?i: (modern, colloquial) '... right away...' wil kii / wil ii / wiii. It is difficult to tell whether the ki: kii element is the subordinator (5.16.B.5.) or the modifier meaning 'first, ahead of others' (5.15.B.47).

This combination is never found in a first clause. It often occurs after the subordinator  $\hat{k}\hat{l}$ : k''l' in narrative style.

dam ká?-ə-[t]=ł kipù: wil ni:-ki: qa-wé:n-[t]=ł wàn==ki:
just see.s.-CTL-[3]=NC wolf SUB not-INTS DISTR-teeth-[3]=NC deer==DIST
ki: wil ki:-tháp-ti:t
and ...-3E jump.on.s.-3P

As soon as the wolves saw that the deer did not have any teeth, right away they jumped on them. (84.14-15)

K'am ga'ahl gibuu wil nigii gaweenhl wan-gi, k'ii wil k'iit hapdiit.

5.16.B.8. Wila: 'how' wilaa

This subordinator introduces manner complements. A transitive verb after Wild: wiles often takes the DEF suffix -T = (7.2.C.1.a.1.b.4.(a)) even though it does not normally take this suffix otherwise.

5.16.B.8.a. Introducing complement of predicate:

5.16.B.8.a.1. After PA (non-nominal): This construction is very frequent after adjectives, corresponding to an adverbial complement in English.

 sílk<sup>W</sup> wila:pá?ask<sup>W</sup> awful ... wind

It's/it was blowing something awful. Silkw wilaa ha'askw

 sílk<sup>W</sup> wila:ká?ask<sup>W</sup>-t. awful ... look-3

The look on h, face could kill. (the way s/he looked [at people] was awful) Silkw wilse ga'askwt.

 ?á:m wila: wíl-n==a.  $good \dots be/do-2S==0$ 

How are you? (lit. are you well?) Aam wiles wiling?

?á:m wila: wíl-ỷ good ... be/do-1S

- Fine. (lit. I am well) - Asm wiles wiliy.

• t kún mə tim wila: tóx-[t]=4?an?ún-n DM this 2E FUT ... put.s.PL-[3]=NC hand-2S

> Place your hands this way. Tgun mi dim wilas dokhl an'unin.

• sim ?á:m wila: məcáp-T-t really good ... 2E make.s.-3

You made it really well. Sim aam wilaa mi jabit.

• dəsimqaqitk w mə wila: wá-tT-t though very hard 2E ... find.s.-DEF-3

> Even though you might find it very hard, ... Ts'i sim gagetkw mi wilaz wadit, ...

### 5.16.B.8.a.2. After transitive verb:

• tim[kWin-ká?-tT]-ə-ÿlo:-n I'll show you ... FUT [...-see.s.-...] TUS-CTL-1S IND-2S

Dim gwinga atdiy loon ...

... wila: hó:x-s-t. ... use.s.-PASS-3

... how it's used.

... Vilas hookst

... wila: nəhó:x-T-t. ... 1E use s - DEF-3

... how I use it.

... Vilas ni hooyit.

5.16.B.8.a.3. After Qani: 'continuing indefinitely, no end in sight, can't seem to stop' ganii (this word seems to be a kind of PA but it is most often used in combination with Wila: wilas, so that some speakers treat qani: Wila: ganii wilaa as a single subordinator).

PA: • qani: wila: wóx-[t]=+ wi:?ùs-ti.t Their dog barks continually/has ... ... bark=NC big dog-3P

been barking continually/can't

seem to stop barking.

Ganii wiles wozhl wii usdiit.

PFA: qani: wila: nəhó:x-t ... ... 1S.E use.s.-3

I continue to use it/I have been using it all this time (and have no intention of stopping).

Ganii wilas ni hooxt.

qani:-t wila: káłk<sup>W</sup>-[t.]=ł kàt==ki: ... -3E ... spear.s.-[3]=NC man ==DIST

The man continued to spear them... (105.4)

Ganii t vilas gahlkwhl gat-gi.

5.16.B.8.b. In combination with question word: (see Indefinite pronouns, 5.6.A.2.a.3.b.3.)

5.16.B.8.b.1. **Inta Wila:** how...?' nda wilaa 2

P<sub>A</sub>: • ntà=+ wila: wíl-n

How are you?16

which.way=NC how be/do-2\$ Ndshl wiles wilin?

ntà wila: hó:ks-t.

How is it used?

used-3

Nda wilaa hookst?

P<sub>FA</sub>: • ntà mə wila: hó:x-T-t ... 2S.E ... use.s.-DEF-3

How do/did you use it? Nde mi vilas hoovit?

- ntà wila:-tcip)cáp-[t]=4 wa4in-ki)kát=4qa-hu)wílp-tit ... ... -3e PL)make.s.-[3]=NC former-PL)person=NC DIST-PL)house-3PL How did the old people (= ancestors) build their houses? Nda wilest jipjaphl wahlingigathl gahuwilpdiit?
- 5.16.B.8.c. Part of morphosyntactic frames: see Frames 7.3.B.2.a.
- 5.16.B.8.d. <u>Used as prefix</u>: see 7.1.B.3.b.4.
- 5.16.B.9. qay 'still happening, just happened' k'ay
- 5.16.B.9.a. With non-reduplicated predicate stem: 'just now, just happened (cf. Fr. veair de (+ verb)).
- day witkW-t?a=4 kingúlx ... be.back-3S PREP=NC Kincolith

S/he just came back from Kincolith.

K'sy withwat at l Gingolx.

• day tisk W-m ... finish-1P

We've just finished.

K'sy hlisgum.

 nak<sup>W</sup>=1 day kúk<sup>W</sup>sk<sup>W</sup>-n EVID=NC ... wake.up-2S

I bet you just woke up! Nakwhi k'ay gyukwsgwin!

This is also the meaning of qay kay when used with the auxiliary fisk W 'finished' hliskw (5.12.B.)

• day tisk w=t yò?oks+nó?ot-y I have just about finished the dishes. ... finished=NC wash+dishes-3

K'ay hlisk whi yo'oksno'ohliy.

• qay tisk w nəyó?oks-t
...... IS E wash.s.-3

I have just about finished washing it. **E'ay hlishw** ni yo'okst.

5.16.B.9.b. <u>Usually with partially reduplicated stem</u>: 'still' (continuing action which is expected to end; surprise that it hasn't ended yet)( = qani: wila: 5.16.B.8.a.3.)

Partial reduplication may affect the main predicate (if a PA), or an auxiliary or other initial predicate:

## 5.16.B.9.b.1. With main predicate (PA):

• qay ki)ké 4-t ... ASP)lie-3

S/he is still in bed.

L'ay gigeehit.

• qay hu)wóq-t
... ASP)sleep-3

S/he is still asleep.

K'ay huwokt.

• **qay pi)**pé:pi:-t ... ASP)baby-3

S/he is still a baby.

K'ay bibecbiit.

• qay di)dku=tkidkW-t
... ASP)little=child-3

S/he is still a child.

Kay hliblgutk'ihlkwt.

• qay ku)kWiné:qamkski:huxWkáckW-ý

... ASP)cool and again land-1S

I come back [from fishing] when it is still cool. (59.1)

L'ay gugwineegamks, kii huxw k'atsgwiy.

but  $\hat{\mathbf{q}}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{y}\,\mathbf{k}'\mathbf{a}\mathbf{y}$  is also found without reduplication with this meaning:

day fintx-[t]=s[t] Màry tis-wil-[t] witkW-[t]=f nàks-t
 mad-[3]=DC[DM] M. when-as come.back-[t]=NC spouse-3

Mary was still mad when her husband came home. K'ay hlintas Mary diswil withwhl nakst.

5.16.B.9.b.2. With auxiliary YUKW 'progressive' yukw: used with intransitive and transitive verbs:

PA: • qay hi)yùkW=4 ha4álsT-t S/he is still working. still ASP) AUX=NC work-3

K'ay hiyukwhi hahlalsit.

P<sub>FA</sub>: • day hi)yùkW-tyó?oks-t ... ASP)AUX-3 wash.s.-3

S/he is still washing it. K'sy hiyukwt yo'okst.

day hi)yùkW nəyó?oks-t ... ASP)AUX 1S.E wash.s.-3

I am still washing it. K'ay hiyukw ni vo'okst.

5.16.B.9.c. Used as prefix: see 7.1.B.3.b.3.

5.16.B.10. tis wil-... 'at the time when ..., at the same time as ...' (simultaneous but unrelated events) dis wil...

This expression functions as a subordinator; the meaning and status of tis dis (which is sometimes used by itseld) are unclear and wil Wil here is the predicate meaning 'be,do,act', not the subordinator (cf. Qan wil- gan wilt... 5.16.B.1.). It is usually linked by connective to the following clause, as is normal of predicate complementation, and followed by a 3 suffix pronoun at the end of a clause, but some speakers treat it as a subordinator and simply use tis Wil diswil without connective before a clause.

• dam xp(l=1 qap):-[t]=1 xku:1kW-[t]=s[t]Maryjust ten=NC amount-[t]=NC age-[3]=DC [DM] M tis wil-[t]=+ táxW-[t]=+?ankikátkW-t .......[3]=NC die.PL-[3]=NC parent.PL-3

# Mary was only ten years old when her parents died. K'am xbilhl gabiihl xk'uuhlkws Mary dis wilhl daxwhl angigatkwt.

qayhi)yùk W=4 wiyîtk W-[t]=s[t] Màry still ASP)PROG=NC cry-[3]=DC lDMl M.
 tis wil-[t]=4 wîtk W-[t]=4 nàks-t
... ...-[3]=NC come.back=NC spouse-3

Mary was still crying when her husband came home.

K'ay hiyukwhl wivitkws Mary dis with! withwh! nakst.

5.16.B.11. Predicate + CO ji/ja used as subordinator: The two expressions upji/upja and mooji/mooja are used as subordinators but seem to consist of a predicate (otherwise unused) followed by the subordinator CO ji/ja (5.16.B.4.).

Compare these two sentences said by the same character before and after facing danger:

• ?ùp cə núw-ỷ

Oh no. I am going to die! (74.4)
May I live through this!
Upji śwwiy!

• qam mo: cənúw - ÿ
iust ... ... die-1S

I just barely escaped death! (76.13-14)

K'am mooji ńuwiý!

with other instances of predicate complementation, as in

• ?á:m cə mukW-y good ... catch-1S

Hope I catch something (while fishing)!

Ass ji mugwiy!

5.16.B.11.a. Pup Co 'anticipating that... just in case..... lest .... God forbid that... (something bad should happen)' upji/upja.

$$P_A$$
: ?up cə xháy  $k^W$ -[t]=1 pò:t ... ... capsize-[3]=NC boat

... in case a big wave made the boat capsize.

... upjit zhaykw'inhl wii goophl boot

#### 5.16.B.11.b. MO: Co 'almost (happened but didn't)' mooji/mooja

• 
$$\mathbf{m}\dot{\mathbf{o}}$$
:  $\mathbf{c}\mathbf{e}$ xháyk $^{\mathbf{W}}$ -[t]= $^{\mathbf{1}}$ pó.t- $^{\mathbf{M}}$ 

Our boat almost capsized.

... ... capsize-[3]=NC boat-1P

Mooji zhaykwhl boodim.

PEA: • mò: cə nə ták - [t]= + ha qáqa ? - ỷ
... ... 1S.E forget.s. - [3]=NC key-1S

I almost forgot my key.

• mò: cə nə ?ax wilá:x-n

Moeji ni t'akhl hak'ak'ay.

... ... capsize-[3]=NC boat-1P

I almost didn't recognize you.

Mooji ni az wilasyin.

#### 5.17. COORDINATORS

The inclusive coordinator Qan 'and, including' gan is used almost exclusively to coordinate nominals, rarely clauses; the exclusive coordinator ?O: 'or' oo can coordinate both nominals and clauses, in combination with other morphemes.

When a coordinated phrase is focused, only the first element is anteposed; the coordinator and the rest of the phrase are placed after the rest of the predicate

phrase. (This however is changing under the influence of English).

#### 5.17.A. Inclusive Qan and including gan:

Coordination applies almost exclusively to nominal phrases. Linking two clauses or sentences usually requires subordination (with k1: k11, 5.16.B.5.). Adjectives cannot be coordinated: 17 they are predicates and require separate clauses (5.3.).

5.17.A.1. After plural: the noun after Qan gan introduces precisions about the exact composition of the group the most significant member of which indicated by a previous plural noun or pronoun (independent or suffixed):

tip Peter qan=s[t] Joe

DM.PL P. ...=DC (DM J.

Peter, which includes Joe)

dip Peter gans Joe

tip nik Wôt-ỷ qan=s[t] nótỷ 'my parents, my father and mother' dip nigwoodiy gans nooy

nữ m qan=s nik Wốt-ỷ 'my father and I' (lit. we, including my father)

i uum gans nigwoodiy

•ni[t]=4 ki:sim qal lu=?am)?á:m-[t]=4 qa-qó:t-t 18 qan=4 4ku nići ć-t that's-[3]=NC and really in-PL)good-[3]=NC DISTR-heart-3 ...=NC little granny-3

Then he and his grandmother were overjoyed. (119.13-14)

Nihl k'ii sim gal luu'am'aamhl gagoott<sup>18</sup> ganhi hlgu nits'iits't.

# 5.17.A.2. with singular noun-phrase: here Qan gan means simply and:

ksax ni y **qan=**s[t] ni:n only me ...=DC[DM] you

'only you and I'

ksax hijy gans hijn

• ci ti k Wiñá-(y) - n=+ hax W ták W qan=+ hawíl
IRR too ask.for.s.-CTL-2S=NC bow ...=NC arrow
You should ask for a bow and arrows too! (like the others) (142.6-7)
Ji dii gwinayinh! hawdak w ganh! hawi!!

In an enumeration, Qan gan can be repeated before each item (here the repetition seems to emphasize the superabundance of food):

mítk<sup>W</sup>=ł qalcàp ?a=ł hón qan=ł yá? qan=ł txúx qan=ł ?ílx
 qan=ł cíx w qan=ł típin qan=ł łpín

full=NC village PREP=NC fish ...=NC spring.salmon ...=NC halibut ...=NC seal ...=NC porpoise ...=NC sealion ...=NC whale

The village was full of salmon, and spring salmon, and halibut, and seals, and porpoises, and sealions, and whales. (180.14-181.2)

Mitkwhi galts'ap ahi hoon ganhi ya'a ganhi txox ganhi ilx ganhi jiixw ganhi t'ibin ganhi hibin.

However it is more usual to have only one Qan gan in enumerations of this type.

## 5.17.A.3. Focused constituent includes Qan gan:

Only the first element of the coordinated is in focused position; the rest, with Qan gan, comes after the predicate phrase. (Under the influence of English, many YFS place the entire coordinated phrase in focused position).

#### Focused S coordinated with other nominal:

• haxWtákW=ł hò:x-s-(ə)t qan=ł hawil bow=NC use.s.-PASS-REL ...=NC arrow

Bows and arrows were used (lit. a <u>bow</u> was used, and arrows).

Hazwdakwhi hooksit, ganhi hawii.

#### Focused Object:

• ksaxhax wták = ti: cáp-ə-t qan=t hawil only bow=NC INTS make.s.-CTL-3 ...=NC arrow

He did nothing but make bows and arrows. (169.3-4)

Ksar harwdakwhl dii jabit, ganhl hawil.

#### Focused E:

ksax †ku ničí č t ?an kíp-t, qan=† †ku k<sup>W</sup>è:?-m †ku-tkí†k<sup>W</sup>
 only little grandmother 3E REL E eat.s.-3 ...=NC little poor-ATTR little-\*child
 Only the grandmother and the poor boy ate it. (152.10-11)
 (lit. it was only the grandmother that ate it, and the poor boy)
 Ksaz hlgu nits'iits' t an gipt, ganhl hlgu gwee'em hlgutk'ihlkw.

5.17.B. Alternative 70: 'or' oo: This morpheme seems to be a preposition on a par with gan, however it is not indispensable in the statement of an alternative.

5.17.B.1. Coordinating noun-phrases: 70: 00 is always followed by the modifier liki: 'about, maybe, for instance' ligit (5.15.B.42.), preventing the use of a connective. A phrase coordinated with 70: 00 is usually focused; only the first element is anteposed, and 70: 00 and the second element come after the predicate phrase.

qán=† hó:ks-(ə)t ?o: liki: číp
 wood or bone was used.
 wood=NC used-REL ... ... bone
 Ganhí hooksit, oo ligii ts'ip.

qán=1 hó:x-ti:t ?o: liki: cíp
 wood=NC use.s.-3P ... ... bone

They used wood or bone.

Ganhi hooxdiit, oo ligii ts'ip.

However, under the influence of English, YFS tend to place the entire coordinated phrase in focused position. As well, because of the frequent association of the subordinator CO 'whether' ji/ja with 70: 00 (5.17.B.2. below), some YFS treat 70: CO liki: 00 ji ligii as a single unit which they use in all alternative statements (cf. 5.16.B.4.).

#### 5.17.B.2. Coordinating alternative clauses:

The first clause is a complete interrogative clause including the interrogative postclitic == a (==i after demonstrative) (6.3.A.1.a.), with the relevant word(s) in initial position. This means that words other than the clause predicate are in focused position.

The second clause includes only the alternative portion introduced by 70: 'or' oo; this complete clause is introduced by the subordinator CO 'whether' ji/ja (5.16.B.4.), and the modifier liki: 'for instance, perhaps, maybe ....' ligit (5.15.B.42.) which leaves open the possibility of other alternatives yet. The following examples are of sentences with alternative clause predicates.

#### 5.17.B.2.a. Alternative PA:

†ku kát=† †ku pè:pi:==(y)a
 little man=NC little <u>baby</u>==Q

?o: cə liki: †kuhanáq-t

tim ?á:t nì:n==a
 FUT fish.w.net you==Q
 ?o: cə tim liki:si:línskW-n
 ... ... FUT hunt-2S

Is the baby a boy or a girl?
(lit. is the baby a boy...

Higu gathi higu beebiiya...
... or whether it is a girl)
... oo ji ligii higu hanak't?

Are you going fishing...

Dim ast niins...
... or hunting?
... oo ji dim ligii siilinsgwin?

#### 5.17.B.2.b. Alternative PEA:

• ni:məcáp-[t]==4swéta-n==a
not 2E make.s.-[3]=NC <u>sweater</u>-2S==Q
To: cə liki: məki:kW-t
... ... 2E buy.s.-3

Did you make your sweater...

Nii mi japh! swetana ...
... or buy it?
... oo ji ligii mi giikwt?

5.17.B.2.c. The same morphemes are also used to coordinate alternative indirect questions (see CO'whether' ji/ja 5.16.B.4.).

#### 5.18. PREPOSITION.

There is only one preposition in Nisgha. This preposition, ?a a has a very general meaning. It precedes clausal and sentential complements: it occurs both before nominals and adverbs and before clauses. Except before Indirect Objects, ?a a seems to be used much less by YFS than OFS: probably under the influence of English, locational prefixes (7.1.B.2.b.4.) tend to be perceived as prepositions.

?a a also occurs as a subordinator (5.16.B.4.), a role which seems derived from its prepositional role.

- 5.18.A. Used before nominal: in a variety of clausal complement roles:
- 5.18.A.1. Indirect Object: (see also Indirect pronouns, 5.9. above)
- 5.18.A.1.a. Basic role:
- ni[t]=4 ki: 7álkax-[t]=4 kò:l-[t]=4 kàt 7a=5[t]cák

  that's=NC and speak-[3]=NC one[person]-[3]=NC man ...=DC[DM]Ts'ak

  Then a man spoke to Ts'ak. (120.5-6)

  Nihl k'ii algaghl k'yoolhi gat as Ts'ak.

 kilò mə cə [k Win-ká?-tT]-t?a=†wák-n don't 2E IRR show.s.-3 ...=NC M's.brother-2S

Don't show it to your brother! (195.8)

Gilo mi ji gwin-ga'adit ahl wagin!

- tim sə-swéta nì ỷ ?a=s[t] Máry I am going to make a sweater for Mary.

  FUT make-sweater me ...=DC[DM] M. Dim sisweta niiỷ as Mary.
- tim k Wa:s+tá:la nì y ?a=s[t] Máry
   FUT borrow+money me ...=DC [DM] M.

I am going to borrow money from Mary.

Dim gwaasdaala ńiiŷ as Mary.

#### 5.18.A.1.b. Derived role:

- original Specified Complement, appears clause-finally after the preposition when another constituent is focused: (see 4.7.B.2.)

• ná = 1 wá - (a)t ?a = s [t] <u>Péter</u> who = NC name - REL ... = DC [DM] P

Who is called Peter?

Nash! wat as Peter?

• ní[t]=4 siwá-tT-ə-m ?a=4 tíkit that's=NC name.s.-DEF-CTL ...=NC smoked.oolichans

That's what we call digit smoked colichans.

Nihl siwatdim ahl "digit."

- original transitive Object, appears as Indirect Object of Antipassive:
- Simňák W=+kipè?esk W-ỷ ?a=s [t] <u>Máry</u>?i:ni:-ti:?á:tiksk W-t really long=NC wait(AP.I)-1S ...=DC [DM] M. and not-INTS arrive-3

  I waited around a long time for Mary and she didn't come.

  Sim ňak whl gibe 'esgwiý as Mary ii nidii aat 'iksk wt.

### 5.18.A.2. Circumstantial complements:

- means, instrument:
- ni:=yác-ə-t=tlax-?áks?a=t tə wáqt-t
  on=strike.s.-CTL-3=NC on-water ...=NC the beavertail-3
  He [the beaver] struck the surface of the water with his tail. (75.15-76.1)

  Niiyajith! lax'aks ah! hli wakh!t.
- location: the nominal or adverb following ? a gives the site of the action indicated by the verb; the manner, motion, etc. of this action may be precised by a proclitic:
- CƏ Kax ta: nin 7a=4 kililx [You should] sit somewhere above IRR for a while sit you ...-NC on hill the village (91.1-2)

  Ji k'az t'aa niin zhl gililz.
- $\mathring{n}i[t]=\frac{1}{2}\mathring{k}i:-t simi^{\frac{1}{2}}=\frac{1}{2}\mathring{a}x^{W}-t$ that's=NC and-3E light.s.=[NC] firewood ...=NC underside-3

  Then he lit a fire underneath. (89.10)  $\mathring{N}ihl\ k'iit\ simihl\ lakw\ ahl\ blarwt.$
- ni[t]=4 ki: lámcax-t<sup>19</sup> ?a=4wîlp-t Then they went into his house. (Boas) that's=NC and enter.PL ...=NC house-3 Nihl k'ii lamjaxt ahl wilpt.
- WitkW-t?a=4 lax-sqanist ni[t]=4 ki: na:=pax-t?a=4 qalcap come.from-3 ...=NC on-mountain that's=NC and from.woods=run-3 ...=NC village Once he was back from the mountain, he ran down to the village. (93.13-14)

  Witkwt ahl laz sganist, nihl k'ii naabazt ahl galts'ap.
- ni = y áq=1 ? ù q ?a=1 lax-qán
  on=hang=NC copper ...=NC on-tree

  (139.1-2)

  Nii yakhl uuk ahi lax gan.
- ki:hak Win=yé:-[t]=+ kàt ?a=+ ?awá?-t
   and towards=walk-[3]=NC man ...=NC proximity-3

... and a man came towards him(138.14-15).
... k'ii hagwinyeehl gat ahl awa'at.

- Time:

- klint na:=wilq-T-[t]=+ +0 smáx-t ?a=+ will sá
  and-3E from.woods=transport.s.-DEF-[3]=NC the meat-3 ...=NC big day
  ... and he spent all day transporting the meat [of the grizzly he had killed] back
  to the village (119.9)
  ... k'iit nawilgah! bli smaxt ah! wii sa.
- 7a co tadák W ... tomorrow [OFS].
  ... IRR tomorrow ... a ji t'aahlak w
- 5.18.B. <u>Used before clauses</u>:
- 5.18.B.2. <u>As subordinator</u>: see 5.16.B.6.
- 5.18.B.1. Preceding other subordinators: Since 7d a usually introduces a circumstantial complement, it can often be found in front of clauses beginning with other subordinators (see examples in 5.16.B.6.).

#### NOTES ON CHAPTER 5

1 The word cak to kill s.' jak refers to a method other than shooting, involving direct contact between killer and killed, (e.g. stabbing, beating to death, etc.). In this case, Ts'ak (Boas 1902) killed the grizzly by being snuffed in by him and lighting a fire in its belly.

 $^2$  From the Nisgha translation of the Lord's Prayer, by the Rev. Hubert McMillan and other Nisgha elders.

<sup>3</sup> See Tarpent 1983:a for an attempt at isolating number morphemes and reconstructing the original meanings of some of the number words.

4 example taken from Liligidim Amadalk'askw.

<sup>5</sup> These phenomena have been linked (Jelinek 1986) to an 'argument hierarchy' of 1/2 over 3; however, they are also explainable by the pronominal argument structure of the predicate phrase (4.3.), since pronouns, take precedence over nouns, which are only Adjuncts.

6 As the Gitksan equivalent is **?alo:**— aloo..., it is possible that these pronouns are related to the noun **?ali**— ali... 'towards, around...'

<sup>7</sup> See remark below, 5.12.A.4.

 $^8$  Some people also use <code>?at6?-n</code> <code>Ado'on!</code> for the singular, showing analogical  $P_A$  patterning.

<sup>9</sup> The auxiliary **nak nak** which never bears primary stress should not be confused with its homonym, the adjective **nak** (time) to be long nakw. Compare:

•**nàk<sup>W</sup>=†** sí:pk<sup>W</sup>-n EVID=NC sick-2S

You must be sick!

Nakwhi siipgwin!

•nák<sup>W</sup>=1 sì:pk<sup>W</sup>-n long.time=NC sick-2S

You were sick a long time.
Nakwhi siingwin.

Only the adjective **nakw** can be used with the Interrogative postclitic ==a: ...a:

•nák<sup>W</sup>=4 sì pk W-n==a Were you sick a long time? long time=NCsick-2S==Q Nakwhl siipgwina?

10 Belvin also gives lip que-d-t lip nit as a translation of English "He cut himself" (1984): this sentence is about as natural as "He himself cut his own self, he cut his own self by himself." A Nisgha speaker would give a more precise description, such as

•  $\dot{q}\dot{u}c$ - $\partial$ -t= $\frac{1}{2}$ an? $\dot{u}n$ -t S/he cut his/her hand. cut.s.-CTL-3=NC hand-3

Kojithl an'unt.

- 11 In most cases the corresponding plural forms have the characteristically plural reduplicated shape (8.) and do not include a prefixed modifier: e.g. qas)qisk gasgeskw pl. of tku-qisk hlgugeskw 'narrow, skinny.'
- 12 The missionary McCullagh interpreted this as 'public people' (quoted in Raunet) but it is more likely that it means 'undisguised people'; in one Boas story a man has two wives, a grizzly woman (ksim likińskw ksim likińskw), who has some grizzly and some human attributes, and a real woman (ksim ?alu:kikát ksim aluugigat).
- 13 The transcription of this place-name, found in Boas, is approximate as I was not able to elicit an actual pronunciation.
- 14 In this example, the subordinator is: hlas is part of the clause that is subordinated with co ji/ja.
- 15 cf. Fr. on [in relative, not interrogative use] has both locative and temporal meaning after a noun: au moment où 'at the moment when' / la fois où 'the time when '(quand 'when' is ungrammatical after a noun) /a l'endroit où at the place where.
- 16 A person asking this question expects a fairly detailed answer. The formalized Nisgha greeting corresponding to English 'How are you?' is ?4:m wila: wii-n==a 'Are you well?' Aam wilaa wilina? (5.16.B.8.a.1.).
- 17 e.g. & 23d and white house: this type of expression is foreign to Nisgha although it may be found in translations from English. Descriptions are usually more precise in Nisgha: e.g. an eagle is black with white head and tail:

- tuck<sup>W</sup>=4 wilkat-[t]=4 xskák An eagle is black black=NC color-[3]=NC eagle Tuuts'kwhi wilgathi zsgaak
- ?iisa:=máksk<sup>W</sup>-[t]=† timqìs-t and its head is white [set off from the body] and off=white-[3]=NC heat-3 ii saamaakskwhl t'imgest
- ?ii hux W ti: wil-[t]=+ qa+yè:n-t and its tail is too.
  and also be/do-[3]=NC bird.tail-3 ii huxwdii wilhl k'ahlyeent.
- 18 Modern usage would be: \_\_ qa-q6:t-ti:t ... gagootdiit ..., with 3P ending (cf. 7.2.A.1.a.2.).
- 19 Modern usage would be limcax-ti:t ... lamjaxdiit, with 3P ending (cf. 7.2.A.1.a.2.).

#### CHAPTER 6: CLITICS

Clitics are semi-free morphemes, more flexible in their use than affixes: they do not become part of the word morphologically or syntactically but are bound to it phonologically. <sup>1</sup>

### 6.1. Clitics preceding the predicate:

### 6.1.A. Ergative pronouns:

### 6.1.A.1. Ergative personal pronouns:

#### 6.1.A.1.a. Shapes:

		SG	PL
1	nə	ni/na	tip <i>dip</i>
2	mә	mi/ma	məsim mi sim
3	t	t	t (-ti:t)  t (diit)

### 6.1.A.1.b. Remarks:

#### 6.1.A.1.b.1. <u>1E pronouns</u>:

(a) The ISE pronoun No ni/na is identical in shape with the frozen prefix present on senior kinship terms (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.2.), but this is most probably a coincidence as the frozen prefix is productive in Coast Tsimshian with the meaning 'alienated possession.'

- (b) The 1P.E pronoun tip tip is identical in shape with the plural determinate marker (6.2.A.): there may be a historical relationship, as both designate groups, but this is only conjectural as there is no parallel relationship with other morphemes.
- 6.1.A.1.b.2. <u>2E pronouns</u>: The 2E pronoun is MƏ mi/ma for both singular and plural; the morpheme SIM sim occurs only in the plural, after the ergative MƏ mi/ma from which it can be separated by FUT and IRR particles, as in.
- Ni: mə tim simstil-y==a Are you (pl.) going to come with me?

  not ... FUT ... accompany.s.-1S==QU Nii mi dim sim sdiliya?
- kilò mə cə simy òxk W ÿ Don't follow me! (to two or more)
  Don't! ... FUT ...follow.s.-1S Gilo mi ji sim yozgwiÿ!

The morpheme SIM sim occurs with the verb in imperative constructions (4.3.D.1.b.), thus differentiating singular from plural Agent:

- Simyòxk W-y Follow mel (to two or more)
  ...follow.s.-1S Sim yozgwiy/
- yòxk<sup>W</sup>-ÿ Follow me! (to one) follow.s.-1S Yoxgwiÿ!

This morpheme adds precision to the 2E pronoun and has no other function (it is homophonous with a modifier meaning really, very', 5.15.B.26... but it is unlikely that this is more than a coincidence). It if is also a pronoun, it is strange to have two E pronouns in the same clause: however, RELE 7an an (6.1.A.2.) is used only in conjunction with 3E t, and the 3P pronoun—ti:t ...diit complements 3E t to indicate a plural Agent. There are then other occurrences of two pronouns together, so perhaps SIM can be considered a pronoun as well (these extra pronouns might be described as 'secondary pronouns').

6.1.A.1.b.3. <u>3E pronoun</u>: For the 3rd person, the E pronoun is t; with a plural Agent, the 3P personal suffix -ti:t ...diit (7.2.A.1.a.2.b.) is added to the verb only if there is no noun coreferring with the E pronoun; compare:

ni.-ti.-tká?-ti:t
 not-INTS-3E see.s.-3P

They didn't see it/him/her/them.

Nidiit ga'adiit.

ni-ti-tká?-ti:t=1 ha:nád not-INTS-3E see.s.-3P=NC women

They didn't see the women.

Nidiit ga'adiith! haanak'.

ni-ti-tká?-[t]=+ha:nàq not-INTS-3E see s.-[3]=NC women

The women didn't see it/him/her/them.

Nidiit ga'ahl haanak'.

(note the difference in stress on the noun, depending on whether it is Object or Agent).

6.1.A.1.b.4. Unlike the suffix pronoun series (7.2.A.1.), the ergative clitic pronoun series does not include an Impersonal member. The way to indicate an impersonal (unspecified) Agent is to use either a nominalization (if the sentence structure allows, 4.5.A.3.b.), or a Passive.

6.1.A.1.c. Occurrence of clitic pronouns with other pre-predicate morphemes: All ergative pronouns occur before the predicate, and may be separated from it by other morphemes, such as FUT and IRR particles (6.1.B.1.), modifiers (515.), and subordinators (5.16.).

With FUT tim dim and IRR CO ji/ja, as with the subordinators pronouns consisting of a resonant + unspecified vowel occur before the particle, those of other shapes occur after the particle (However, some YFS do not make his distinction and always place the E pronoun after the particle).

• Ni mə tim ti:qó?-y==a: Won't you (sg.) come and get me? not 2E FUT INTS go.get.s.-1S==Q Nii mi dim dii go'oyu? • ?akúmə qan ?axqó?-ỷ what? 2E why not go.get.s.-1\$

Why didn't you (sg.)come and get me?

Agu ma gan ag go'oŷ?

ntá mo tim qan ?axqó?-ỷ
 what? 2E FUT why not go.get.s.-1S

Why won't you (sg.)come and get me?

Nda mi dim gan az go'oŷ?

- ntá mə tim sim qan ?ax qó?-ÿ Why won't you (pi.)come and get me? what? 2E FUT 2E.PL shy not go. got.s.-1S Nda mi dim sim gan ax go'oÿ?
- ła: yùk<sup>w</sup> nə tim qó?-n now PROG 1S.E FUT go.get.s.-2S

I am about to come and get you.

Hlaa yukw ni dim go'on.

• fa: yùk W tim tip qó?-n now PROG FUT 1P.E go.get.s.-2S

We are about to come and get you.

Hlaa yukw dim dip go on.

ta yùk<sup>W</sup> tim-t qó?-n t <u>Pèter</u>
now PROG FUT-3E go.get.s.-2S DM P.
PTCL ... tr.vb.

Peter is about to come and get you.

Hlaa yukw dimt go'on t Peter.

• qús-ə-ỷ nə tim qó?-n can't-CTL-1S 1S.E FUT go.get.s.-2S

I couldn't come and get you.

Gosiy ni dim go'on.

• ní[t]nəqan?ax qó?-n that's 1S.E why not go.get.s.-2S

That's why I didn't come and get you.

Ni na gan ax go'on.

níltlqan nə tim qó?-n
 that's why 1SE FUT go.get.s.-2S

That's why I will come and get you.

Ni gan ni dim go'on.

# 6.1.A.2. Ergative relative pronoun ?an an:

The RELE pronoun 7an an always occurs together with the 3E pronoun t, whether before or after it. When 3E t is placed after the RELE pronoun, it is often deleted in rapid speech, especially before another /t/ or an affricate.

this does not impede understanding since the presence of ?an an is enough to indicate relativization, so the consciousness of 3E t seems to be on the wane with some YFS.

The RELE pronoun may occur following its antecedent noun, as in:

- ná ==(y)\text{\text{\text{an qo?-y}}} I wonder who [is the one who] will who?==\text{\text{DUB FUT-3E REL.E go.get.s.-1S}} come and get me!

  \*\*Naayima'a dimt an go'oy!
- <u>Péter tim-t ?an qó?-n</u> Peter (is the one who) will come and get you. P. FUT-3E REL E go.get.s.-2S Peter dimt an go on.
- ná. t?an qó?-n Who came to get you? who? 3E REL.E go.get.s.-2S Naa t an go'on?
- pilist t ?an kú[t]-[t]=4 4kú4kW-n star 3E REL.E take.s.-[3]=NC child-2S

It was a star that took your child (87.12) Bilist t an guuhl higuuhlgwin.

Or the antecedent may be unmentioned (Headless Agent-relative clause):

• wilá x-ə-n t ?an kú:[t]-[t]=+ +kú:+kW-n==a know.s.-CTL-2S 3E REL.E take.s.-[3]=NC child-2S==QU

You know who took your child? (87.11)
Wilaayin t an guuhl higuuhigwina?

(see 6.1.B.2.b.2. for use with the Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla).

- 6.1.B. Clitic particles:
- 6.1.B.1. The Modal particles FUT tim dim and IRR CO ji/ja:

Both of these particles could be described as belonging to a single category of potentiality, tim dim indicating strong or definite potentiality of an event that is certain or at least intended to happen (hence the future). Co ji/ja indicating indefinite potentiality, possibility, hypothesis. Both are used frequently in sentences with imperative function: tim dim is used to give orders, or very definite directions, Co ji/ja to make friendly or polite suggestions.

The two particles have some syntactic properties in common, but are not in complementary distribution since has a wider range of occurrence. The use of CO ji/ja as a particle should not be confused with its use as a subordinator (5.16.8.6.), although it is sometimes difficult to determine its exact function.

# 6.1.B.1.a. Properties common to FUT tim dim and IRR CO ji/ja:

## 6.1.B.1.a.1. Can occur in both regular and predicate-focused clauses:

### Regular clauses:

- tisk W=t tim xko:fi:-n

  PERF=NC FUT have.coffee-2S

  Hlisk wh! dim xkoofiin,...

  tim?i:məlu:=yó?oks-[t]=t kóp-n

  FUT and 2E in=wash.s.-[3]=NC cup-2S

  After you drink your coffee !now!....

  Hlisk wh! dim xkoofiin,...

  [I want you to! wash your cup.

  FUT and 2E in=wash.s.-[3]=NC cup-2S

  .... dim ii mi luuyo'oksh! kobin.
- †ìsk W Cə xkó fi n After you drink your coffee [whenever]....

  PERF IRR have coffee-2S Hlisk w je xkoofiin,...

  Cə ?i mə lu = yó?oks-[t]=† kóp-n please wash your cup

  IRR and 2E in=wash.s.-[3]=NC cur-?S ... ji ii mi luuyo'okshl kobin.

#### Predicate-focused clause:

• tim ta: nin ?a=s[t] kús[t] Sit down over there! (lit. you are going FUT sit you PREP=DC (DM that to sit down: order) Dim t'as niin as gus.

cə tá nìn ?a=s[t]kús[t] IRR sit you PREP=DC IDM that

[You could] sit down over there! (if you like: suggestion) Ji t'aa hiin as gus.

• timkax limóm-ə-n nì v FUT just.now help.s.-CTL-2S me

[I want you to] help me a minute (order) Dim k'ax hlimoomin niiy.

cə kax timó:m-ə-n nì:v IRR just.now help.s.-CTL-2S me

[You could/Please] help me a minute. How about giving me a hand. (polite request)

Ji k'ax hlimoomin niiy.

• cə ti. k Wina-(y)ə-n=+ hax Wták W qan=+ hawil IRR too ask for s.-CTL-2S=NC bow and=NC arrow

[You should] ask for a bow and arrow too [like the others] (142.6-7)

Ji dii gwinayinhl hazwdakw ganhl hawil.

6.1.B.1.a.2. Used before both main and downshifted predicates: (see predicate downshifting, 4.5.A.1.d.; this section does not apply to determinates): Note that the connective - 1 ...h/ is not used before CO ji/ja:

•  $tim kik^W - \theta - \dot{y} = \dot{t}$  ... FUT buy.s.-CTL-1S=NC ...

I am going to buy ... Dim giigwiyhl ...

... timhaxmiyén-y

... myself a pipe.

... FUT pipe-1S

...dim hazmiýceniý.

... timhaxmiýé:n-[t]=s[t]nik Wó.t-ý ... my father a pipe.

... FUT pipe-[3]=DC[DM] father-1S

... dim haxmiyeens nigwoodiy.

• cə kí:k<sup>W</sup>-ə-n ...

[You could] buy ...

IRR buy.s.-CTL-2S ...

Ji riirvia ...

... cə haxmiyen-n

... IRR pipe-2S

... yourself a pipe!

... ji hazniyeenin!

... cə haxmiyen-[t]=s[t]nik Wot-n ... your father a pipe!

... IRR pipe-[3]=DC [DM] father-2S

... ji haxmiyeens nigwoodin!

• tim lip wá-(y)ə-m=+ tim náx-m FUT self obtain.s.-CTL-1P=NC FUT bait-1P

We'll get our own bait (56.5-6). Dim lip wayimhl dim naam.

cəlip wá-(y)ə-sim cə náx-sim IRR self obtain.s.-CTL-2P IRR bait-2P

[You could] get our own bait! Ji lip wayisim ji haxsim!

6.1.B.1.a.3. Complementary distribution of the two particles: with many verbs that take a clausal Object, tim dim is used in the Object clause:

• ťák-ə-ỷ nə timsqa=ťák W-[t]=+ pťó? forget.s.-CTL-1S 1S.E. FUT barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

I forgot to lock the door.

Tagiý ni dim sgaťakwhí pdo'o.

móce ne ták-[t] ne timsqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó? almost 1S.E forget.s.-[3] 1S.E. FUT barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

I almost forgot to lock the door.

Mooji ni t'ak ni dim sgat'akwhl pdo'o.

But Co ji/ja is used after certain verbs, for instance the negative verb kiló 'Don'tl' Gilo/ (5.13.C.), as in:

kilò mə cə ták-[t] mə cə sqa=tákW-[t]=+ ptó?

Don't 2E IRR forget.s.-[3] 2E. IRR barring=twist.s.-[3]=NC door

Don't forget to lock the door! Gilo mi ji t'ak mi ji sgat'akwhl pdo'o!

### 6.1.B.1.b. Specific properties of CO IRR ii/ia:

6.1.B.1.b.1. Replaces or 'cancels' a connective: the presence of CO ji/ja seems to 'cancel' the connective normally used in a sentence without the particle.

6.1.B.1.b.1.a. <u>Before non-determinates</u>: (see also examples in 6.1.B.1.a.2.). In the following examples with negatively focused constituents, the particle emphasizes the unreality of the denied statement:

• ni-ki: t ná. CətilimxkW-(a)t There wasn't anyone who answered.

not-INTS DM who IRR answer-REL Nigitnaa ji dilimzgwit.

(compare with a sentence without the particle, but with connective:

ni-ki t ná=† tìlimxkW-(ə)t Nobody answered.

not-INTS DM who=NC answer-REL Nigitnash 1 dilimzgwit.)

- ni-ti: ní:ỷ cəcal-m+tk<sup>W</sup>á-(ə)t lò:-t They are not my glasses!
  not-INTS me IRR eye-ATTR+glass-REL IND-3 Nidii niiỷ ji ts'alim tgwat loot!
- ni:-ti: ni:n cə?asáy-(ə)t cə hifáqT-ət It isn't <u>your</u> leg that's broken!
  not-INTS you IRR leg-REL IRR broken-REL (It isn't <u>you</u> whose leg is broken)
  Nidii niin ji asayt ji hihlagati
- ni:-ti: kWi+ tá:-[t] cəti: kimxtí-ý
  not-INTS around exist-[3] IRR INTS opp.sex.sibling-1S

I don't have a brother (W)/sister (M).

(lit. my ... doesn't exist)

Nidii kw'ihi t'aa ji dii gimxdiÿ.

In the following sentence, the two particles occur together: CO ji/ja reinforces the negative verb with is the higher predicate, while tim dim is part of the predicate phrase in the following headless Object-relative clause:

• ni:-ki: Ski-t co tim kip-o-[t]=+ +kù:+kW-[t]=+sim?ókit
not-INTS there is-3 IRR FUT eat.s.-CTL-{3}=NC child-{3}=NC chief
There was nothing for the chief's daughter to eat. (146.2.)
Nigii sgit ji dim gibihi hlguuhikwhi sim'oogit.

6.1.B.1.b.1.b. <u>Before determinates</u>: unlike tim FUT dim, CO IRR ji/ja can occur before determinates. Therefore it is followed by the Determinate Marker t before a singular determinate word in all cases, including those which would otherwise require the Determinate Connective =S, after which the DM t would disappear through consonant-deletion (Connectives 6.2.B., Determinate Markers 6.2.A.).

In predicate-focused clause, t normally appears on the surface: compare:

• timčiláyx<sup>W</sup>-ə-n t <u>Máry</u> II want you to] go visit Mary.
IRR visit.s.-CTL-2S IRR DM M.

Dim ts'ilaywin t Mary.

• CĐCiláy XW-Ə-N CƏ t Máry

IRR visit.s.-CTL-2S IRR DM M.

[You could/might] go visit, say, Mary!

Ji ts'ilaywin ji t Mary!

6.1.B.1.b.2. Occurs before Complements: A few examples:

### Focused locative complement:

• cəsilàys-m xpí:s cə wil lu:-skí-y IRR enlarged-ATTR box IRR where in=lie-1S

How about making my grave-box larger! (7.10)
(iit. suppose it were an enlarged box where I might lie)

Ji silaysim abiis ji wil lungiyi

<u>Time adverbials indicating future time</u>: (the particle is optional it the word already has future meaning):

cə ķú:ň

'in just a minute, in a moment'

... now

ji guun

cəkaxkú ...

When [in the future] ...?

... when?

Ji gazgu ...

(ca) ta ták W

'tomorrow'

 $\dots$  tomorrow

(ji) t'aahlakw.

cəqató:?-t

'the day after tomorrow (lit. on the

...beyond-3

other side of it)' ja gadoo'ot

# 6.1.B.2. The Restrictive particle 10 hli/hla:

6.1.b.2.a. <u>In noun-phrase</u>: placed before a possessed noun (3.2.A.2.), the particle 10 hli/hla seems to indicate that this noun is viewed as a part separate from the whole; it also conveys the emotional detachment of the speaker: 'the ... lof/the ...].<sup>2</sup>

## 6.1.B.2.a.1. Non-generic possession:

ta màs-[t]=tskusit

'the peel of a potato, potato peelings'

... peel-[3]=NC potato

hli maashl sguusiit

tə más-t

'the peel'

... peel-3

hli maast

tə tkì-[t]=t smáx

'the young of a bear; bear cubs'

... children-[3]=NC bear

hli higihi smax

ła łkí-t

'the young, the cubs'

... children-3

bli hlgit

tə tkilk<sup>W</sup>-ÿ

'my sweat' (lit, the sweat of me)

... sweating-1S

hli hlgilgwiy

6.1.B.2.a.2. Generic possession: the noun is suffixed with the Definite Medial suffix (7.2.C.1.b.)

+a qàn-(t)T-[t]=+ qán

'the trunk of a/the tree'

... tree=DEF-[3]=NC tree

hia gandihi gan

to me:q-T-[t]=tskinisT
... cone=DEF-[3]=NC pine

'the cones of a/the pine'

his meegahi sginist

6.1.B.2.a.3. Nominalization of a P<sub>EA</sub>: see 4.5.A.3.b., 7.2.C.1.a.1.c.

6.1.B.2.b. <u>In relative clauses</u>: (cf. 4.7.A.) In some environments the use of the particle is obligatory, in others it adds restrictive meaning.

- 6.1.B.2.b.1. <u>Before verb. in Object-relative clause</u>: If the relativized noun is not mentioned, it is obligatorily replaced by the particle in the relative clause:
- †a:-t hux W wa-[t]=† †ə wa-(y)ə-[t]=† wak-t now-3E again reach.s.-[3]=NC ... reach.s.-CTL-[3]=NC M's brother-3 When again he reached the [place that] his brother had reached ... (202.4-5) Hlaat huxw wahl hli wayihl wakt ...

Such a clause may be in apposition to the antecedent noun:

• caqam=qó?-ə-t=†?áx<sup>W</sup>t - †ə wo?-ə-t==ki:
shoreward=go.get.s.-CTL-3=NC porcupine - ... invite.s.-NC-3==DISTAL

He [the beaver] brought the porcupine, his guest, [back] to shore (73.9)

(... the porcupine, that he had invited ...)

[agamgo'othl axwt, hli wo'ot-gi.

- 6.1.B.2.b.2. <u>Before Ergative relative clause</u>: the 3E pronoun t occurs after the particle, before the RELE pronoun 7an an (6.1.A.2.). Use of the particle is not obligatory, but adds a restrictive meaning: compare:
- wilá:x-ə-n t ?an kú:[t]-[t]=+ +kú:+kW-n==a
   know.s.-CTL-2S 3E REL E take.s.-[3]=NC child-2S==Q

You know who took your child? (87.10)
Wilaayin t an guuhl hlguuhlgwina?

wilá:x-ə-n +a t ?an kú:[t]-[t]=+ +kú:+kW-n==a
 know.s.-CTL-2S 3E ... REL.E take.s.-[3]=NC child-2S==Q

You know the one who took your child? Wilaayin hiit an guuhl higuuhlgwina:

- 6.1.B.2.b.3. Before circumstantial relative clause: the use of the particle is especially common before the subordinator Wil wil (5.16.B.7.) in its locative meaning, and before the subordinator ta: das. The combination 10 ta: hlidas functions like a subordinator in its own right (5.16.B.3.a.3.). The combination 10 wil hli wil used with an adjective as predicate also has a specific meaning.
- 6.1.B.2.b.3.a. Before the subordinator Wil wil (5.16.B.7.):
- 6.1.B.2.b.3.a.1. In locational complement: the particle adds restrictive meaning:
- huxW wat-ti:t=+ + + wil wil[t]=+ wak-t==ki:
   again reach.s.-3P=NC ... ... be/act-[3]=NC M's brother-3==DISTAL
   Again they reached the [place] where his brother had been (202.5-6).
   Huxw wadiith! hii wil wilh! wakt-gi.
- 6.1.B.2.b.3.a.2. With adjective: the particle is obligatory if there is no noun, and the meaning is "the/a ... one.' (5.16.B.7.a.4.)

- ksax to wil nniilukW-t=t tóx-(o)t lò:-m We only have the long ones.
  only ... ... long.PL-3=NC be.PL-REL IND-1P Ksax hli wil nniilukwthi doxat loom.
- 6.1.B.2.b.3.b. With subordinator ta: das: the combination to ta: hlidas means the time when ..., since the time when ....
- †a: Xpíl-[t]=† kù:† †a ta: núw-t S/he has been dead ten years.

  now ten-[3]=NC year ... ... dead-3 (It is ten years since s/he died).

  Hlaa xbilhl k'uuhl hliden nuwt.

### 6.2. Particles preceding nominals:

### 6.2.A. Determinate markers:

The determinate markers t for the singular and tip dip for the plural are particles used before all determinates (3.2.A.1.), but under certain phonological conditions singular t does not occur on the surface. Where it does occur, it attaches phonologically to the preceding word, except with demonstratives, where it is felt by speakers to be part of the following word.

Both t and tip dip are used before a singular noun or pronoun referring to a person: t marks a single individual, tip dip a group ow which the person mentioned is the salient representative: his or her family, associates, or whoever he or she happens to be with at the moment referre to. Such a phrase is difficult into Standard English, as it is much more general and vague that phrases such as 'X and h. spouse/family,' X and his partner,', X and h. sister,' etc. The very useful Nisgha phrase dip X is translated in local English speech either

by *Them I*, or, especially amoung young people, by *X and them*, a phrase which also occurs in some nonstandard English dialects.<sup>3</sup> Accordingly the tag *manu them* is used here to translates examples with tip *dip*.

# 6.2.A.1. Occurrence of both t and tip dip: in all environments except:

- for all speakers: after connective =5, where surface occurrence is prevented by a phonological rule (see 6.2.A.2.b.);

- for YFS: in initial position before determinates other than demonstratives (6.2.A.2.a.).

• límx t <u>Màry</u> Mary <u>sang</u>.
sing DM M. Limx t Mary.

límx tip Màry Mary 'and them' sang. sing DM.PL M.

Limx dip Mary.

• limx thùs[t] That person sang. sing DM that Limx t gus.

límx tipkùs[t]

Those persons sang.

sing DM.PL that

Limx dip gus.

• lip wilp t Mary has her own house. self house DM M.

Lip wilp t Mary.

lip wilp tip Màry

Mary 'and them' have their own house.

self house DM.PL M.

Lip wilp dip Mary.

• ksaxt <u>Máry</u>lìm[x]-(\(\theta\))t Only Mary sang.
only DM M. sing-REL Ksax t Maryhl limit.

ksaxtip <u>Máry</u>lim[x]-(ə)t only DM.PL M. sing-REL

Only Mary 'and them' sang.

Ksaz dip Maryhl limit.

ni:-ti: t <u>Máry</u> cə lìm[x]-(ə)t
 not INTS DM M IRR sing-REL

It wasn't Mary who sang.
Nidii & Mary ji limit.

ni:-ti: tip Máry cə lìm[x]-(ə)t
not INTS DM.PL M. IRR sing-REL

It wasn't Mary 'and them' who sang.

Nidii dip Mary ji limit.

ni:-ti: t <u>Máry</u> cə wìlp-(ə)t lò:-t
 not INTS DM M. IRR house-REL IND-3

It isn't Mary's house.

Nidii t Mary ii wilbit loot.

ni:-ti: tip Máry cə wilp-(ə)t lò:-t It isn't Mary 'and them''s house.

not INTS DM.PL M. IRR house-REL IND-3 Nidii dip Mary ji wilbit loot.

naxňá-(y)a-nt <u>Máry</u>==a:
 hears-CTL-2S DM M ==0

You heard Mary?

Naznayin t Marya?

naxná-(y)-ntip <u>Máry</u>==a: hear.s.-CTL-2S DM.PL M.==Q

You heard Mary 'and them'?

Naxhayin dip Marya?

ni:-nə-ti: wilá:x-[t] cə t Máry=ł hu)wìl-(ə)t
 not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-{3} whether DM M.=NC ASP)be-REL

I don't know whether it is/was Mary.

Nindii wilaax ji t Maryhl huwilit.

ni:-nə-ti: wilá:x-[t] cə tip <u>Máry</u>=† hu)wìl-(ə)t
not-1S.E-INTS know.s.-[3] whether DM.PL M.=NC ASP)be-REL
I don't know whether it is/was Mary 'and them'.

Nindii wilaaz ji dip Maryhl huwilit.

• ná:tim-t?annákskW-[t]=4 4kú:4kW-ý tsqawó who FUT-3E REL.E marry.s.-[3]=NC child-1S DM S.

Who is going to marry my daughter Sgawo? (222)

Naa dimt an nakskwhl hlguuhlgwiy t Sgawo?

# 6.2.A.2. Non-occurrence of in some environments:

6.2.A.2.a. Initially: Pre-consonantal t tends to drop in initial position. As a result, the complementary distribution between and *dip* is obscured in this position, where only *dip* occurs on the surface. In absolute initial position before a name <sup>4</sup> or the indefinite pronoun Ná: 'who?' naa, the singular DM is still used by OFS, but not by YFS.

(t) ná:=† hu)wìl-(ə)t
 (DM) who?=NC ASP)be-REL

Who was it?/ Who did it?
(T) nash! huwilit?

tip ná:=1 hu)wìl-(e)t
DM.PL who?:=NC ASP)be-REL

Who [what group] was it?/ ... did it?

Dip naah! huwilit?

• (t) <u>Máry</u>=† hu)wìl-(ə)t (DM) M.=NC ASP)be-REL

It is/was Mary/Mary did it.

(T) Maryh! huwilit.

tip <u>Máry</u>=1 hu)wìl-(ə)t DM.PL M.=NC ASP)be-REL

It is/was Mary 'and them'/... did it.

Die Maryhl huwilit.

(t) ná:=† wìlp-(ə)t lò:t
 (DM) who?=NC house-REL IND-3

Whose house is it?.

(T) naah! wilbit loot?

tip ná:=4 wìlp-(ə)t lò:t

DM.PL who?=NC house-REL IND-3

Whose [what group's] house is it?.

Dip naah! wilbit loot?

• (t) Máry=1 wìlp-(a)t lòt (DM) M.=NC house-REL IND-3

It is <u>Mary</u>'s house.

(T) Maryh! wilbit loot.

tip <u>Máry=†</u> wìlp-(a)t lòt It is <u>Mary 'and them'</u> 's house. DM.PL M.=NC house-REL IND-3 Dip Maryhl wilbit loot.

The singular DM is kept before the demonstratives **kún** this gun and **kús[t]** that gus, and many speakers feel it to be part of the demonstrative:

• (t) kús[t]=\frac{1}{2} hu)wil-(\text{a)}t It is/was that one/That one did it.

(DM) that=NC ASP)be-REL Tgush! huwilit.

tip kús[t] = hu)wil-(a)t It is/was those people/Those people did it.

DM.PL that=NC ASP)be-REL Dip gush! huwilit.

6.2.A.2.b. Ater connective =S: When it is preceded by the determinate connective (6.2.B.1.), the singular DM t is between two consonants, and therefore subject to a cluster-simplification rule (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.) which deletes it. That it must be assumed to be present in underlying form is shown by the occurrence of the plural DM under the same conditions:<sup>5</sup>

• ni-ti:limx-[t]=s[t] Màry

not-INTS sing-[3]=DC[DM] M. Nidii limxs Mary.

ni:-ti:limx-[t]=Stip Màry Mary 'and them' didn't sing.
not-INTS sing-[3]=DC DM.PL M. Nidii limzs dip Mary.

• ni:-ti: lip wilp-[t]=s[t] Màry Mary doesn't have her own house.

not-INTS self house-[3]=DC[DM] M. Nidii lip wilps Mary.

ni:-ti: lip wilp-[t]=s tip Màry Mary 'and them' don't have their not-INTS self house-[3]=DC DM.PL M. own house.

Nidii lip wilps dip Mary.

• ni:mənaxna-[t]=s[t] Màry==a: Did you hear Mary?

not 2E hear.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M.==Q

Nii mi naxnas Marya?

ni:mənaxna-[t]=stip <u>Màry</u>==a: not 2E hear.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M.==OU

Did you hear Mary 'and them'? Nii mi naznas dip Marya?

• cəkińám-ə-n?a=s[t]Màry
IRR give.s.-CTL-2S PREP =DC[DM] M.

Please give it to Mary!

Ji giñamin as Mary!

cəkinam-ə-n?a=stip <u>Màry</u> IRR give.s.-CTL-2S PREP =DC DM.PL M.

Please give it to Mary 'and them'!

Ji ginamin as dip Mary!

This is also shown by its occurrence when the noun is preceded by a modifier (the connective is no longer the DC=S since the word following the predicate is a modifier, which is not a determinate):

• ni:-ti: limx-[t]=+ +ku t Màry
not-INTS sing-[3]=NC little DM M.

Little Mary didn't sing.

Nidii limxhl hlgu t Mary.

6.2.A.3. Occurrence of the plural DM tip dip before plural -pronouns: The plural DM dip can also be used before the independent plural pronouns you PL' nísim aisim and nídit they them aidit (5.8.C.1.), especially after preposition. This seems particularly common in the speech of YFS and is probably a recent development, an extension of the use of the plural marker before demonstratives (cf. Tarpent 1982b). There seem to be no examples of this use in Boas.

• tim ki:nam-ə-y ?a=s(tip) nisim I'll give them to you (pl.).

FUT give.s.PL-CTL-2S PREP=DC (DM.PL) you.PL Dim giinamiy as (dip) nisim.

#### 6.2.B. Connectives:

- 6.2.B.1. Occurrence of both connectives: the Non-determinate connective = 1 ...h/ occurs in front of non-determinates, in all environments where the determinate connective = S can occur in front of determinates. It the word that the connective is normally attached to ends in a postclitic (6.3.), the connective comes after the postclitic.
- 6.2.B.1.a. Between a predicate (main or downshifted) followed by the 3 suffix -t and an immediately following determinate noun: (note that the 3 suffix does not usually occur on the surface because of the consonant-deletion rule, 10.2.A.2.b.1.c.).
- 6.2.B.1 a.1. In a predicate-focused transitive clause: before the noun or demonstrative pronoun (preceded by a determinate marker) which is the Adjunct to the 3 suffix which is the Eargument:

timó:m-a-[t]=s tip Màry=t hanád Mary and them helped the woman.
help.s.-ETL-[3]=NC DM.PL M.=NC woman Hlimoomis dip Maryhl hanak.

• fimó:m-a-[t]= hanád t Màry
help.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman DM M.

The woman helped Mary.

Hlimoomih 1 hanak t Mary.

5.2.B.1.a.2. <u>In a regular clause or downshifted construction</u>: between a predicate and an immediately following determinate noun, regardless of the function of that noun:

# a. Between possessed noun and possessor Adjunct:

wìlp-[t]=s[t]Máry 'Mary's house' house-[3]=DC[DM]M. wilps Mary wìlp-[t⊧s tip <u>Máry</u> "Mary and them"'s house house-[3]=DC DM.PL M. wilps dip Mary wìlp-[t]stipkún 'these people's house' house-[3]=DC DM.PL this wilps dip gun wilp-[t]- hanád 'the woman's house' house-[3]=NC woman wilph! hanak'

# b. Between an intransitive verb and an Adjunct noun:

willimx-[t]=s[t] Màry

SUB sing-[3]=DC [DM] M.

willimxs Mary.

willimxs Mary.

as Mary sang.

willimxs Mary.

as Mary 'and them' sang.

SUB sing-[3]=DC DM.PL M.

willimxs dip Mary.

willimxs dip Mary.

willimxs dip Mary.

sub sing-[3]=DC [DM] M.

willimxh1 hanak'.

• Wil-t imó:m-[t]=s[t] Màry ... as Mary helped him/her. SUB-3E help.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M. ... wilt hlimooms Mary.

wil-t imóm-[t]=s tip <u>Màry</u> ... as Mary 'and them' helped him/her. SUB-3E help.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M. ... wilt hlimooms dip Mary. wil-t imó:m-[t]= hanád ... as the woman helped him/her. SUB-3E help.s.-[3]=NC woman ... wilt hlimoomhi hanak'. • wiltip imóm-[t]=s[t] Máry ... as we helped Mary. SUB-1P.E help.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M. ... wil dip hlimooms Mary. wil tip imóm-[t]=s tip Máry ... as we helped Mary 'and them'. SUB-1P.E help.s.-[3]=DC DM.PL M. ... wil dip hlimooms dip Mary. wiltip imó:m-[t]= hanád ... as we helped the woman.

6.2.B.1.b. Both connectives also occur after the preposition ?a a (5.18.) and the coordinator Qan 'and' gan (5.17.A.), which can occur before a noun, demonstrative or independent pronoun:

... wil dip hlimoomh! hanak'.

• ?a=s[t] Màry .... to/for/from Mary.

PREP=DC [DM] M. ... as Mary.

?a=s tip Màry .... to/for/from Mary 'and them'.

PREP=DC DM.PL M. ... as dip Mary.

?a=t hanáq .... to/for/from the woman.

PREP=NC woman .... ahl hanak'.

• ?a=s[t]kún/?a=s[t]kús[t] 'here/there'

PREP=DC [DM] this/ PREP=DC [DM] this as gun/as gus

SUB-1P.E help.s.-[3]=NC woman

?a=s tip kún / ?a=s[t]kús[t] PREP=DC DM.PL this

... to/for/from these people
as dip gun

• ?a=s[t] ní n / ?a=s(tip) nísim
PREP=DC[DM] this/ PREP=DC[DM] this

... to/for/from you (sg./pl.)
as àiia / as dio àisim

tip <u>Máry</u>qan=s[t] <u>Lúcy</u>
 DM.PL M. and=DC[DM] L.

'Mary and Lucy'

dip Mary gans Lucy

tip <u>Máry</u>qan=s[t]nóx-t
DM.PL M. and=DC [DM] mother-3

'Mary and her mother'

dip Mary gans noxt

tip <u>Máry</u> qan=1 náks-t DM.PL M. and=NC spouse-3

'Mary and her husband'

# 6.2.B.2. Further occurrences of the nondeterminate connective suffix = 1 ...h/:

6.2.B.2.a. Acts as a non-determinate marker: The non-determinate connective =1 ...h1 also occurs before non-determinates in the same environments where the determinate markers t and tip dip occur with determinates (6.2.A.), except initially and after modifiers. In the following section, parallel examples of determinate marker and connective use are given, and the connective is written separately from the preceding word, in order to emphasize this parallelism.

# 6.2.B.2.a.1. In predicate-focused clause, between the predicate and the A noun:

ntá t <u>Màry</u>
 which way DM M.

Where is Mary? What is Mary up to?

Nda t Mary?

ntá † hanàq which.way DM M.

Where is the woman?

Ndahl hanak'?

• límx t Màry sing DM M.

Mary sang.

Limx t Mary.

límx + hanàq sing NC woman

The woman sang.

Limxh! hanak!

timó:m-ə-[t]=t hanàq t Màry
 help.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman DM M.

The woman helped Mary.

Hlimoomihl hanak't Mary.

4imó:m-ə-[t]=4 hanàd 4 kimxtí-t help.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman NC opp.sib.

The woman helped her brother.

Hlimoomin! hanak h! gimxdit.

• timó:m-ə-t ní:ỷ t Màry help.s.-CTL-3 me DM M.

Mary <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomit hiiý t Mary.

dimó:m-ə-t ní:ỷ d hanàq help.s.-CTL-3 me NC woman

The woman <u>helped</u> me.

Hlimoomit hilly hl hanak'.

6.2.B.2.a.2. <u>In regular clause</u>: before a noun that does not immediately follow the verb:

• Wil-t imó:m-[t]=s[t] Màry t Lúcy SUB-3E help.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M. DM L.

... as Mary helped Lucy.
... wilt himooms Mary t Lucy.

wil-t imó:m-[t]=s[t] Màry i hanád SUB-3E help.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M. NC woman

... as Mary helped the woman.
... wilt hlimooms Mary hl hanak'.

• wil-t imó:m-y t Màry
SUB-3E help.s.-1S DM M.

... as Mary helped me.

wil-t imó:m-y i hanàq
 SUB-3E help.s.-1S NC woman

... wilt hlimoomiÿ t Mary.

... as the woman helped me.
... wilt hlimoomiyhi hanak'.

## 6.2.B.2.b. Other privileges of occurrence of = \ ...h/:

6.2.B.2.b.1. Between a higher predicate and an intransitive predicate: Higher predicates in this case include auxiliary and negative verbs.

• ?ám:=1 tim limx-[t]=s[t]Màry good=NC FUT sing-[3]=DC[DM] M.

Mary should sing.

Aamhi dim limxs Mary.

yùk<sup>W</sup>=ł limx-[t]=s[t]<u>Màry</u>
 PROG=NC sing-[3]=DC [DM] M.

Mary is singing.

Yukwhi limas Mary.

ni:=1 limx-[t]=s[t]<u>Màry</u>==a.
 not=NC sing-[3]=DC[DM]M.==Q

Did Mary sing?

Niihl limxs Marya?

kiló=1 lím[x]-n
 Don't=NC sing-2S

Stop singing!

Giloh I limin!

But the connective does not occur if a modifier (5.15.) or the IRR particle CO ji/ja (6.1.B.1.b.) intervenes:

ni:-ti: limx-[t]=s[i]Màry
 not-INTS sing-[3]=DC[DM] M.

Mary did not sing.

Nidii limxs Mary.

(here the INTS morpheme is originally the modifier t1: dii, see 5.13.A.)

kiló cə lím[x]-n
 Don't IRR sing-2S

Don't sing! (=don't start singing!)

Gilo ji limin!

6.2.B.2.b.2. <u>Between a transitive verb and an intransitive clause which is its A adjunct</u>: The transitive verb may be followed by the Adjunct to its E argument:

• tak-\(\partial -\text{2} - \text{1} - \text{2} - \tex

But the connective is not use if the IRR particle Co ji/ja intervenes:

• ni:-ti:-tták-[t]=s[t] Màry cə tim limx-t Mary didn't forget to sing! not-INTS-3E forget.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.=NC FUT sing-3 Nidit t'aks Mary ji dim limxt!

**6.2.B.2.b.3.** Between an anteposed constituent and the rest of the clause: (unless an Ergative pronoun or a subordinator intervenes):

- a. Between a Specified Complement and a non-transitive predicate:
- [t] <u>Màry=1</u> wà-t Her name is <u>Mary</u>.

  [DM] M.=NC name-3 (T) Maryhl wat.
- WiciX=1 siwatkWs-t It's called a <u>caribou</u>.

  caribou=NC named-3 Wijixhl siwatkwst.
  - b. Between Focused Subject and downshifted intransitive verb:
- [t] <u>Màry</u>=<del>1</del> lìm[x]-(ə)t It was Mary who sang. [DM] M.=NC sing-REL (T) Mary h I limit.
  - c. Between Focused possessor and possessed noun:
- [t] Màry=1 wìlp-(ə)t lò:-t It's Mary's house.

  [DM] M.=NC house-REL IND-3 (T) Maryhi wilbit loot.
  - d. Between Focused Object and transitive predicate:
- [t] Màry=4 4imò:m-ə-[t]=s[t] Lùcy It was Mary that Lucy helped.

  [DM] M.=NC help.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] L. (1) Maryhl hlimoomis Lucy.

d. Between a predicate and a leadless Object-relative clause:

• ?ám:=1 cáp-ə-n good=NC make.s.-CTL-2S

What you did is/was good.

You did well.

Aamhl jabin.

• ?áq=1 tim cáp-ə-ỷ
non-existent=NC FUT make.s.-CTL-1S

I have nothing to do.

Akhl dim jabiy.

e. Between the numeral and the noun in a numeral noun-phrase:

kò:l=1 hanáq one[person]=NCwoman

one/a /the woman

k'yool**hi** hana<u>k</u>'

f. Between a downshifted relativized adjective or numeral and a noun in a noun-phrase:

paqatìl-(ə)t= ha:náq

'the two women'

 $two[\,persons]-REL=NCwoman.PL$ 

bagadilit**h!** haana<u>k</u>'

ka:à:m(ə)t=¶ háyk<sup>W</sup>

'theHoly Spirit'

most good-REL=NC spirit

K'aa Aamit**hi** Haykw

# 6.2.B.3. Non-occurrence of the connectives:

- a. Before or after an Ergative clitic pronoun: hence not before a  $P_{\hbox{\scriptsize EA}}$  in regular clause:
- ám mətim imóm-[t]=s[t] Máry
  good 2E FUT help.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M.

  Aam mi dim hlimooms Mary.
- b. Before or after the IRR particle CO ji/ja (note that since there is no connective, the singular determinate marker t occurs phonologically; there is

### no marker before a non-determinate noun):

 ni:-ti: k<sup>W</sup>id limx-[t] co t Màry not-INTS around sing-[3] IRR DM M.

Mary didn't <u>sing</u>|
Nidii kw'ihl limx ji t Mary/

ni:-ti: kWi4 limx-[t] cə hanàq not-INTS around sing-[3] IRR woman

The woman didn't sing!

Nidii kw'ihl limx ji hanak!

### (compare without the particle:

ni-ti:limx-[t]=s [t] Màry
not-INTS sing.-[3] =DC [DM]]M.

Mary didn't sing.

Nidii limas Mary.

ni:-ti:límx-[t]=1 hanàq not-INTS sing.-[3] =NC woman

The woman didn't sing.

Nidii limxh! hanak')

• cə ki:kW-ə-n cə si: kutác-n IRR buy.s.-CTL-2S IRR new coat-2S

[You might] buy yourself a new coat!

If giigwin ji sii k'udats'in!

# (compare without the particle:

timkí:kW-ə-n=1 timsi: kutác-n IRR buy.s.-CTL-2S IRR new coat-2S

I You are going to/I want you to]
buy yourself a new coat.

Dim giigwinhI dim sii k'udats'in.

- c. After modal particles (6.1.B.1., modifiers (5.15.) and subordinators (5.16.): for instance, the presence of the modifier liki: 'about, may be, for instance' ligit explains that there is never a connective after the coordinator ?0: 'or' oo (5.17.B.) as there is after the coordinator Qan 'and' gan (5.17.A.):
- qán qan=1 cíp
   wood and=NC bone

'wood and bone'
gan ganh! ts'ip

qán ?o: liki: cíp wood or maybe bone

'wood or bone'
gan oo ligii ts'ip

• tip <u>Máry</u> qan=s[t] <u>Lúcy</u> DM.PL M. and=DC(DM) L.

'Mary and Lucy'

dip Mary gans Lucy

(t) Máry ?O: liki: t <u>Lúcy</u> DM.PL M. or maybe DM L.

'Mary or Lucy'
(t) Mary, oo ligii t Lucy

#### 6.3. POSTCLITICS.

These morphemes are suffixes which can be added to some of the constituents (varying with the actual postclitics) of the predicate phrase and do not affect its structure. However, sometimes their occurrence changes the phonological context and makes apparent the 3 suffix which is otherwise deleted in many contexts (4.3.B.). With postclitics befinning with vowels, the same morphophonemic rules apply as with other vowel-initial suffixes.

Most of the postclitics function as parts of groups and pairs, each of which has a particular pragmatic function, One group of postclitics has to do with the truth value of the information conveyed, another with its verifiability, another with its distance from the speaker, another deals with undesirable information. Within these categories, members of pairs have opposite meanings. Usually, only one postclitic is used in a clause, but occasionally there can be more than one, to express subtle shades of meaning and attitude.

The pragmatic function of the postclitics has to do with the context of the speech event as well as with the actual events it refers to. These are not purely formal grammatical matters, and the description of the meaning of the postclitics would be incomplete it if did not also take into account the relation between speaker and listener: sentences are not uttered in a void, but are addressed to at least one person (even if that person is oneself), and the feelings

and background knowledge of that person must be considered.

These morphemes then are indispensable to the fluent and idiomatic use of Nisgha, enabling the speaker to emphasize his role as conversational partner, narrator or relator, and to make clear to others in what manner his words are to be taken. On the other hand, they can be very difficult for the analyst to elicit and to translate: translation of English sentences into Nisgha often leaves them out altogether, while translation from Nisgha of sentences containing some of the postclitics is often very awkward and inadequate, since the same attitudes are expressed in English by a variety of means ranging from tone of voice to elaborate circumlocutions.

6.3.A. <u>Truth value of the information</u>: Two pairs of postclitics, Interrogative/ Affirmative and Dubitative/Assertive, have to do with the truth value of the information. The relation between speaker's and listener's knowledge of this information is shown in the following chart:

Speaker	knows	doesn't know
Listener	r. 1	
should know	==əs[t] Affirmative	== <b>a</b> : INTERROGATIVE
Should know	(y)is	(y)a
doesn't know	== <b>a?</b> Assertive	==[ə]ma? DUBITATIVE
33322 7 2230 W	(y)a'a	(y)ima'a

# 6.3.A.1. The pair == a: INTERROGATIVE \_(y)a / == as[t] AFFIRMATIVE \_(y)is:

These postclitics normally occur at the end of the sentence, and may be followed only by a term of address. With this pair, the speaker seeks to establish a shared frame of reference with the listened, who is expected to know the truth about a statement. The INTERROGATIVE postclitic == $a_{...}(y)a$  indicates the attitude: "I don't know the truth about ..., but I expect you do," while the AFFIRMATIVE postclitic == $a_{...}(y)a$  indicates: 'This is true, and we should both agree on it.' As much as with the truth value of the information conveyed, then, these two postclitics have to do with the interaction between speaker and listener.

6.3.A.1.a. The INTERROGATIVE == a: \_\_(y)a: (\_\_ya after vowel, alternant \_\_i after demonstrative):

A yes/no question ends in the Interrogative postclitic ==a: ...(y)a. Such a question may be in the form of a predicate-focused clause:

• [t] ná: t kùn==i Who's that? (lit. is that Somebody?)
[DM] who DM this==Q (T) naa tguni?

• nin=a: Màry Is that you, Mary?

you=QM. Nins, Mary?

• Sî:pkW n̂i:n==a: You were sick? sick you==Q Siipkw niina?

• lu:=má:n=4 kò:fi:==(y)a: Any coffee left? (lit. ... in [the pot])
in=remain=NC coffee==0 Luumaanhl koofiiya?

- timpax=máq-T-\(\pa\)-\(\gamma\) n' n==a: You want a ride up?

  FUT uphill=put.s.-DEF-CTL-1S you==Q Dim baxmakdi\(\gamma\) niin=?
- ?akú=4ki)kíp-\(\pi\)-qalmó:S==a: What are you eating? [is it] crab? what=NC ASP)eat.s.-CTL-2S- crab==Q Aguhl gigibin? k'almoosa?

But it is more polite to frame a yes/no question negatively (5.13.A.4.):

• ni=f si:pkW-n==a: Were you sick?

not=NC sick-2S==Q You were not sick, by any chance?

Niihl siipgwin=?

• ni mə wa-(t]=+?antita:la-y==a: Did you find my wallet/purse?

find.s.-CTL-2S=NC purse-1S==Q

You haven't found my wallet, by

any chance?

Nii mi wahl andidaalaya?

ni=4?á:m-[t]=4tim pax=máxkW-ỷ lò:-n==a:
 not=NC good-{3} =NC FUT uphill=ride-1S IND-2S==Q
 Can you give me a ride up?
 Can I ride up with you?

In either/or questions, the postclitic occurs only at the end of the first clause:

Niihl aamhl dim baxmaxgwiy loona?

• †ku kát=† †ku pè:pi:==(y)a: Is the baby a boy...

fittle man=NC little baby==Q

?O: CƏ liki: †ku hanáq-t

or IRR maybe little woman-3

... or [is it] a girl? (lit. or maybe it is a girl)

... oo ji ligii hlgu hanak't?

6.3.A.1.b. The AFFIRMATIVE postclitic == OS[t]...(v)is: (final/t/ is old or very formal; ...(y)is after vowel, ...as after uvular, ...s after glottal stop plus copy vowel):

This postclitic is often used in declarative sentences as well as questions beginning with a question word. It seems to have a pragmatic function similar to that of English why, so, sure, of course, Come on! or French eh bien (or, more colloquially, ben), donc, alors, voyons, although the normal English equivalent would rather be a different intonation. In declarative sentences it states a fact presumably already known to the listener. In questions, it seems to express the surprise or at least the interest (friendly or otherwise) of the speaker: such questions without the postclitic sound definitely more neutral, colder. In both cases it seems to affirm the existence of a common ground between speaker and listener.

#### 1. In questions:

- ?akú=1ci)cáp-\text{\text{\$\text{\$\delta}\$}} \text{\$\text{\$\delta}\$} = \text{\$\delta\$} \tex
- ?akú=1 tim ti: kí:kW-a-n==3st (So) what do you want to buy?
  what=NC FUT INTS buy.s.-CTL-2S==... (195.15-196.1)

  Aguhl dim dii giigwinist?

  (Fr. Alors, qu'est-ce que tu veux acheter?)
- ?akúməqanháks-ў==əs[t] (Hey) why do you call me names? (118.2) what 2E why instuls s.-1S==...

  Agu ma gan haksiýis?

  (Fr. Mais pourquoi donc m'insultes-tu?)
- 2. <u>In answers and comments</u>: (y) is is used when the speaker expects that the listener is (or will very shortly be) in a position to know the truth ('Come on, I shouldn't have to tell you this, we both know it), so that the statement is not intended to present new information but to reaffirm known information.
- [t] ná: t kùst==i [t] <u>Máry</u>==(y)əs[t] Who's that? Why, it's Mary!
  [DM] who DM that==Q [DM] M.==... Naa tgusdi? Maryis!

• ?akú=łki)kip-ə-n==əs[t] what=NC ASP)eat.s.-CTL-2S==...

(Hey/Well/So) what are you <u>eating</u>?

Aguhl gigibinis?

(Fr. Ben, qu'est-ce que tu manges?)

- dalmó:s==**es[t]** 

- Why, crab of course! (can't you tell?)

- K'almoosis!

(Fr. Ben, du crabe!)

• qaltál==əs[t]
too loud==...

(Hey) too loud! (and you should know it)

Gal dalis!

cáx<sup>W</sup> ñìn==os[t]
 considerable you==...

(Well,) you are really something! Ts'arw hilnis!

(Fr. Toi alors! tu exagères!)

†a: xstá:-n=əst wàk-y wi: kát
 now win-2S==... M's brother-1S big man

(Well/So) you've won, brother Giant! (20.13)

Hlaa <u>r</u>sdaan ist, wagiý Wii Gat! (Fr. Tu as donc gagné, ...)

- 3. Requests: the postclitic is often used to indicate that the listener should have thought of doing the suggested action:
- cəmal-ə-n=tkutac-n==əs[t] (Come on,) button your coat!

  IRR button.s.-CTL-2S=NC coat-2S==... Ji malinhi k'udats'inis!

  (Fr. Boutonne donc ton manteau!)
- sim simit-[t]=[t] lák W==0s[t] (Come on.) [all of you], light the fire!

  2E.PL light.s.-[3]=[NC] firewood==... (130.8-9) Sim simihl lagwist!

  (Fr. Allumez donc le feu!)
- simcaqam=máq-T-[t]= $\frac{1}{2}$ kè:kW-T-[t]= $\frac{1}{2}$ nwin-sim== $\frac{1}{2}$ s[t]|ò:-y 9 2E.PL shoreward=put.s.-DEF-[3]=NC one[fish]-DEF-[3]=NC what.o's.got==... IND-1S

(Hey), throw one [of your fish] ashore for me! (16.3-4)

Sim jagammagahl k'eegwihl anwinsimist looy!

(Fr. Jetez-en donc un sur la berge, pour moi!)

• kiló=\*six)sámaq-sim==əst?a=+ta:hisqa?á:qs-sim==əst
Don't=NC PL)keep.mouth.shut-2P==... PREP=NC when laugh.PL-2P==...

(Come on.) don't keep your mouths shut when you laugh! (84.5-6)

Gilohl sixsamaksimist, ahl dan hisga aaksisimist!

(Fr. Mais ne gardez donc pas la bouche fermée quand vous riez, voyons!)

# 6.3.A.2. The pair == a? ASSERTIVE y a a == a DUBITATIVE y image:

These two postclitics are suffixed to the first contentive word or phrase of the sentence, which may be the predicate, an auxiliary or negative verb, or a covused element such as a question word.

With this pair, the speaker is conveying information of his own, but does not assume any relevant knowledge on the part of the listener: the ASSERTIVE postclitic ==a?...(y)aa indicates the attitude: I know for a fact that this is true, while the DUBITATIVE postclitic ==[a]ma?(y)imaa indicates: "This is probably true, I wonder whether it is really true.

## 6.3.A.2.a. The ASSERTIVE postclitic == a? ...(y)a'a:

The postclitic == a?...(y)a'a indicates that the speaker can vouch for the truth of the utterance, even against his own or others' expectations. It is used for making startling, unexpected announcements:

• [t]qan=no?==q?=† pto?-n

ajar=hole==...=NCdoor-2S

Your door is unlocked!

(I bet you didn't know)

Kanno a ahl pdo on!

• fa: tùk Wsk W-m+lák W-m==a? We're out of firewood!

now run out-ATTR+firewood==... Hlaa dukwsgum-laguma'a!

•  $\mathring{\text{Cax}}^{W} == \mathbf{a?}$  Totally a we some! (late 1980's considerable==... expression) Ts'as we'z!

• †a: hux W nit==a?=† hu)Wil-(a)t So that was him again! (in disguise, now again him==...=NC ASP)be-REL but there is no doubt about it] (27.4)

\*\*Hiaa huxw nida\*\* ah! huwilit!

This postelitic can be used with any predicate, including auxiliary and negative verbs:

• yùk<sup>W</sup>==a?=† má:tim

PROG==...=NC snowing

It's snowing! (believe it or not!)

Yugwa'sh! maadim!

(Fr. Mais il neige!)

• ni :== (y)a? = 1 tim ti nuw - n == 0s[t] Of course you are <u>not</u> going to die! not == ... = NCFUT INTS dead-2S == AFF Niiy = in 1 dim dii nuwinis!

(Fr. Mais je t'assure que tu ne vas pas mourir!)

In Boas, the Assertive postclitic is sometimes followed by the Affirmative postclitic:

• sim(h)ú-t==a?==ast

correct-3==...=AFF

He is telling the truth! (29.13)

Simuda ast!

(Fr. En effet, il dit bien la vérité!)

• ksə=tə-páx-ə-[t]=s[t]txè:msim=dmáx==a?==əst

out=DOMIN-run-CTL=DC[DM]T.=NClight?==...==AFF

[Believe it or not.] Txeemsim has taken off with the light! (23.3)

\*\*Ksidibaayis Txeemsimhl maxx ast/\*

(Fr. Ça alors, Txeemsim est parti en emportant la lumière!)

6.3.A.2.b. The DUBITATIVE postclitic == [ə]ma? (v)ima'a: (present-day usually ...ima'a/...ama'a after consonant, ...yima'a after vowel; Boas usually has just ...ma'a).

The use of this postclitic in a declarative sentence means that the speaker thinks that what he says could be true on the basis of what he knows or can infer, but does not want to commit himself as he could be proved wrong. Conditions of occurrence parallel that of the Assertive postclitic ==a? ...(y)a'a (6.3.A.2.a.).

yùk<sup>W</sup>==əma2=4 hay wis kinqùlx
 PROG==...=NC raining Kincolith

It's probably raining/I wonder if it's raining ... in Kincolith.

Yugwima'ahl haywis Gingolx.

• ní:==(y)əma2-1 tim hay wis
PROG==...=NC FUT raining

It's probably not going to rain.

Niiyias ahl dim haywis.

kinqúlx==ma?wil pákW-ti.t
 Kincolith==...= where come.from-3P

I wonder if they are from Kincolith.

Gingolxima's wil bakwdiit.

wilá:x-ə-t==oma?=s [t] ničí:ĉ-ỷ
 know.s.-CTL-3==... =DC [DM grandmother-1S]

I wonder if my grandmother knows it/him/her.

My grandmother probably knows it/him/her.

Wilasyidima'as nits'iits'iv.

• hílt==əma?=1 nàx-[t]=s tip kùst ?a nə tim kíp-t many==...=NC bait-[3]=DC DM.PL that PREP 1S.E FUT eat.s.-3

Those people probably have lots of bait, so I can eat it. (50.14)

Hildima ahl hars dip gust an (i) dim gipt.

It is polite to use this postclitic when asking a question, since in doing so the speaker is only talking about himself and does not imply that he requires an

answer: Nisgha people usually use 'I wonder' as the English equivalent of this postclitic in a question.

• ?akú==(y)əma?=† tim cáp-ə-ỷ I am wondering what to do. what==...=NCFUT make.s.-CTL-1S Aguyima\*ah1 dim jabiy?

ná:==(y)əma?tip kùst==i
who==...DM.PLthat==QU
 Who are those people, I wonder?
 Who can they be?
 Naayima'a dip gusdi?

The addressee may be wondering the same thing, and reply:

• 7akú==(y)əma? I wonder [what you could do].
what==...

Aguyima'a.

• ná:==(y)əma? I wonder [who they are].

what==...

Naayima's.

For the same reason, this postclitic is used in very polite requests:

• ni=4 ?á:m-t==**əma?**=4 timcaqa=máxk W-ỷ lò:-sim==a
not=NC good-3==...=NCFUT across=ride-1S IND-2P==QU
Would it be all right for me to go across with you [in your boat]?

Niihl aamdima ahl dim jagamaxgwiy loosima?

- 6.3.B. <u>Unverifiable information</u>: the pair == <u>Qat -gat / ==kin -gin</u>: These two postclitics indicate that the information cannot be verified. With == <u>Qat -gat</u> the speaker states that it comes from others; with == <u>kin ...-gin</u>, that the evidence used to be available and no longer is.
- 6.3.B.1. The REPORTIVE postclitic == Qat-gat: (the final /t/ is deleted obligatorily before connective =5, less consistently before connective =1).

This postclitic occurs under the same syntactic conditions as the pair == a? ...(y)a'a / == [a]ma?...(y)ima'a (6.3.A.2.)

By using == qat ...-gat the speaker disclaims responsibility for the truth of the utterance, because he is only reporting information originating with others.

- Si:pkW==qat t Mary

  Sick==... DM M.

  I hear Mary is sick.

  Siipkw-gat t Mary.
- lílkit==qa[t]=† kipù: It seems the wolves held a feast (83.1).

  feast==...=NC wolf

  Lilgit-gahl gibuu.
- tim <u>bingo</u>-ti:==qat cəta:yúwin
   FUT <u>bingo</u>-IMPS==... IRR tonight

I hear there's going to be bingo tonight.

Dim bingodii-gat t'asyuwin.

- nakw==qa[t]= si:pkw-[t]=s[t] <u>Mary</u>
  sick==...=NC sick-[3]=DC[DM] M. I hear Mary was sick a long time.

  Nakw-ga(t)hl siipkws Mary.
- SilkW==qa[t]= wila: pá?askWkinqùlxkàxkW

  awful==...=NC how wind Kincolith last.night

  I hear there was a terrible storm in Vincolith

I hear there was a terrible storm in Kincolith last night.

Silkw-ga(t)hl wilaa ba'askw Gingola gagkw.

Using ==qat ...-gat in questions means that the speaker is only asking about a report, not about the truth of an event. The reply may also include the postclitic (cf. with ==[a]ma?...(y)ima'a above):

• ?akút(ə)-yá==qat t Màry What's Mary supposed to have said? what 3E-say==... DM M. Agu diya-gat t Mary?

Order and instructions emanating from legitimate authority are reported using this postclitic:

• cəkaxkú==qa[t]=4 tim qa-txó:?-m When did they say we'get paid?

IRR when==...=NC FUT PL-paid-1P Ji gazgu-ga(t)hl dim gatzoo'om?

-qanútkWtkùn==qat - They said this week.

week DM this==...

Ganuutkw tgun-gat.

In the Boas stories, the postclitic is characteristic of the speech of underlings, who only report (or sometimes pretend to report) their masters' words:

• cəlúk W==qat nisim cəta. tak W IRR move==... you.PL IRR tomorrow

I am supposed to tell you [the whole village] to please move tomorrow (37.9-10).

Ji lukw-gat áisim ji t'aahlakw.

- ni==qat-ki:-ti-tkWi:xkip-[t]=4sim?ò:kittkùn=4?anwin-n
  not==...-INTS-INTS-3E always.like.to eat.s.-[3]=NC chief DM this=NC what.o's.got-2S
  I am told this chief is not at all keen to eat that stuff. (40.6-7).

  Nii-gat-gidiit gwiix giph! sim'oogit tgunh! anwinin.
- 6.3.B.2. The postclitic ==kin -gin: It is more difficult to give a label to this postclitic, which is also less commonly used, so that information is fragmentary. It seems to indicate that the information used to be available to the speaker and should still be but is not.
- nísim t?an tóq-[t]=4 txúx==kin==a:
   you.PL 3E REL.E take.s.PL-[3]=NC halibut==...==Q
   Was it you who took the halibut [that were here a moment ago]? (113.8.)

Nisim t an dokhl tzox-gina?

 ?akù=! wá-t==kin what=NC name-3==...

Now what was that word? [I forget]

Aguhl wat-gin?

This postclitic may be losing ground to ==ki: DISTAL -gi (6.3.C.2.).

6.3.C. Physical distance: the pair == Sa PROXIMAL -sa / == ki: DISTAL -gi:

The two postclitics ==Sa -sa and ==ki: -gi refer to the speaker's physical distance (in time or space) to what he is talking about, but physical distance can also imply emotional distance. These postclitics are usually attached to a nominal in the clause, most often the last one. If there is no nominal (e.g. if there is no A-adjunect), they are attached to the predicate. In at least one case the Distal postclitic ==ki: -gi has become part of a noun-phrase:

sim?ò:kitlaxhá==ki: 'God' (lit. the chief in the sky) chief sky==...' Sim'oogit laxhagi.

- **6.3.C.1.** The PROXIMAL postclitic ==Sa -sa: This postclitic indicates that the topic of conversation is physically close to the speaker, and often emotionally close as well:
- ?akú=† wà-[t]=s[t]kún==sa What is this le.g. that I hold in my hand]?
  what=NC name-[3]=DC[DM] this==... Aguh1 was gun-sa?
- c lipcáp-ə-y==sa [Look at this] I made it myself. self make.s.-CTL-1S==... Lip jabiy-sa.
- †a:sim kámk-[t]=†laxhà==sa This weather is really nice and warm.
  now really hot-[3]=NC sky==... Hlaa sim gamkhl laxha-sa.
- ká?-[t]=4 ?anhè:-[t]=4 qá:q ?a=4 ké:w==sa see.s.-[3]=NC saying-[3]=NC raven PREP=NC on beach==...

Go see what the raven is cawing about on the beach! (151.13-14)

Ga'ahl anheehl gaak ahl geew-sa/

- wirtxúx==sa big halibut==...

- It's a big halibut! (175.11)

Wii trox-se!

ni=4 cin-[t]=s[t] ka:4=hè:tkW-m+qisimq?a=4 cim-wilp==a:
 not=NC enter-[3]=DC [DM] sideways=heading-ATTR+labret PREP=NC in-house==Q
 Did Labret-sticking-out-on-one-side come into the house, by any chance?
 (191.12-13) Niihl ts'ins K'aahlheetgum-K'esimk ahl ts'im wilba?

- Yes, she did, and she is right here!

(191.14)

Ts'in-se! Ts'in-se!

**6.3.C.2.** The DISTAL postclitic ==ki: -gi: This postclitic indicates that the topic of conversation is remote from the speaker in place or time or both:

• kaxkú=**ki**:

When was it?

when?==...

Gazgu-mi?

• lipcáp-ə-y==ki: when?==...

I [had] made it myself [but I don't have

it any more

Lip jabiý-gi.

wi:sim?ó:kittnipìp-t==ki:
 big chief DM maternal.uncle-3==...

H. uncle was a great chief (in a story)/
H. uncle used to be a great chief (but is

dead now] /H. uncle [who lives far

away) is a great chief.

Wii sim'oogit t nibipt-gi.

Ado'o, sim ga'ahl hlguuhlgwiy-gi.

This postclitic is used liberally in tales, which refer to the past. This is a typical story beginning from the Boas tales:

•  $k\acute{O}: l=1$   $ku-t\acute{k}i+k^{W}==ki$ : There was a boy ...

one[person]=NC little-child==... K'yoolh! hlgutk'ihlkw-gi...

 cák=† wà-t==ki:
 ... named Ts'ak ...

 Ts'ak=NC name-3==...
 ... Ts'akhl wat-ai...

qan=4 4ku ničí:č-t .... and his grandmother...
and=NC grandmother-3 .... ganhl hlgu nits'iits't...

 $\hat{n}i[t]=\frac{1}{2}\hat{k}i:\hat{n}itk^{W}-[t]=\frac{1}{2}\hat{k}u$  wilp-tit== $\hat{k}i:$  that's=NC and stand-[3]=NC little house-3P==

... and they had a little house ... (117.1-2)

... åihl k'ii hitkwhl hlgu wilpdiit-gi...

This proclitic is very common and may be encroaching on the domain of ==kin -gin (6.3.B.2.), as in:

• ntà=qqapa:lú:-y==ki: Where is my gun? [It is not where it which.way=NC gun-1S==... should be]

Ndahl k'ap'aluuy-gi?

### 6.3.D. Dealing with unwelcome information:

# 6.3.D.1. Disclaiming responsibility for undesired event: the pair ==kiỷ MINATORY -giý and ==kΨa: COMMISERATIVE -gwaa:

With these two postclitics, the speaker presents undesirable events and disclaims responsibility for their occurrence:  $==ki\vec{y}-gi\vec{y}$  warns of something that will most likely happen if steps are not taken (especially by the listener) bo prevent it: 'It won't be my fault it this happens,' while  $==k^{\mathbf{W}}a$ : -gwaa bemoans

something that has already happened: 'It was nobody's fault, it could not be prevented.'

6.3.D.1.a. The MINATORY postclitic == $\mathbf{k} i \hat{\mathbf{y}} - \mathbf{gir}$ : The meaning of this postclitic is 'Careful, or ...; I/you/we wouldn't want this to happen, but I won't be responsible if it does.' The postclitic is usually affised to a focused predicate. Even though the event talked about hasn't happened yet, the future particle (which would suggest that it will definitely happen) is never used. 10

- tikWántkW==kiỷ nìn Careful, or you'll fall!/You're going to fall!

  fall==... you

  Tigwantkw-giỷ niin/
- kúk<sup>W</sup>Sk<sup>W</sup>==**kiỷ** t pè:pi: [Ssh!] Baby is going to wake up! wake.up==... DM <u>Baby</u> Gyukwskw-**giỷ** t Beebii!
- ni:hitkW-a-y==kiy=4?asáy-n Careful, or I'll step on your foot! step.on.s.-CTL-1S==...=NC foot-2S Niihitgwiy-giyhl asayin!
- kiló-kiló-naxňá-(y)-t==kiỷ?a=† čim-wilp

  Don't-Don't-hear.s.-CTL-3==... PREP=NC in-house

  Don't [cry]! Don't! They'll hear it in the house! (91.10-11)

  Gilo! Gilo! Nazňayit-giỹ ahl ts'im wilp!
- yác-\(\phi\)-\(\bar{y}\) = ki\(\bar{y}\) n\(\hat{i}\):\(\hat{n}\) | Careful, or I could strike you! |

  strike.s.-CTL-1S==... you | [so get out of my way!] (Barbeau)\(^{11}\)

  Yaji\(\bar{y}\)-\(\bar{z}\)\(\bar{y}\)\(\hat{n}\)iin!
- ?ató?-yáltk<sup>W</sup>-n-cák<sup>W</sup>-T-ə-y==kiy ñì:n

  Go!-return-2S-kill.s.-DEF-CTL-1S==...you

  Go back, or I'll kill you! [as I am going berserk!] (210.1)

  Ado'o, yaltgwin, jakwdiý-giy ńiin!

• pík<sup>W</sup>-n - xhà? - hux<sup>W</sup> sitó.q-ə-n=**k i ỷ** nì ỷ lie-2S - slave - again deceive.s-CTL-2S==... me

You're lying, you slave! You're not going to fool me! [you might if I was not careful] (210.1)

Biikw'in, xha'a! Huxw sidoogan-giy niiy!

**6.3.D.1.b.** The COMMISERATIVE postclitic ==kWa: -gwaa: This postclitic indicates that in the speaker's opinion the event could not have been prevented by any amount of effort, so that the victim (who may be the speaker) is worthy of commiseration.

- ?ayawá:={ wìl-n==kWa: Alas! There was nothing you could do! alas!=NC act-2S==... Ayawaah! wilin-gwaz!
- ?ayawá:=†qa†à:n-y==kWa: Alas! My poor brother-in-law [who died alas!=NC brother.in.law-1S==... Alas! My poor brother-in-law [who died in an 'accident']! (64.2.)

  Ayawaahl k'ahlaaniy-gwaa!
- nitit t ?an wilak W-T-y==k Wa:

  them 3E REL E treat.s.-DEF-1S==...

  I am blameless)

  Nidiit an wilaak wdiy-gwas!

# 6.3.D.2. Lack of personal interest in the information: the pair ==SIN -sin and ==SIH -sih1:

This pair contrasts in meaning with the pair ==3s[t]-(y)is/==a-(y)a (6.3.A.) but its use does not seem to be as widespread. The two postclitics ==sin - sin and ==sin - sin seem to convey the attitude: This is a matter that doesn't really concern me, I would rather not deal with this, but it is my duty to do so. With the postclitic ==sin - sin, the speaker expressed his own reaction; with the postclitic ==sin - sin, the speaker takes it upon himself to inform the listener, for the latter's sake.

In older texts, these two postclitics are often followed by a suffix -a -a which it

is not always possible to analyze as the INTERROGATIVE postclitic ==a: -(y)a, but which is reminiscent of the suffix on the more formal alternants of demonstratives (5.7.).

6.3.D.2.a. The postclitic ==SIN -sin: This postclitic seems to be used mostly with questions. The attitude it expresses seems to be: 'This is something that I am not interested in, that I would rather not hear about, but it looks like I have to deal with it.' This attitude can be real, or feigned. In most cases the speaker is responding to information received with a question of his own: implied is 'What is it to me? Why should I be concerned?'

- ?akú=† wìl-t==sin
  what=NCact-3==...
  So what's s/he done? [something disgraceful no doubt]

  Aguhl wilt-sin?
- ?akú=4hì-t==sin 4a hux W ñí[t]=4 wi: [t] txè:msim what=NC say-3==... now again that's=NC big [DM]T.

So what did he say [this time]? That's big Treemsim [the notorious liar] all over again! (23.9-10)

Aguhl hit-sin? Hlas huxw hihl wii t Treemsim!

The question is often a rhetorical one which relieves the speaker's feelings of annoyance and worry:

- ?akùnə-yánì:ý==sin Oh no, what have I said! what IS E-say me==... Agu niya niiy-sin?
- ?akùqantá:wii-t==sin Why did s/he have to go? (e.g. Is s/he what why leave-3==... Why did s/he have to go? (e.g. Is s/he up to no good? Why did s/he die? etc.)

  Agu gan daawihlt-sin?

In a well-known story (SQAWÓ Sgawo, 222), a marriageable girl is being advertised; one after the other, potential suitors offer themselves, all pronouncing the same formula. Their use of the postclitic conveys a lack of

interest which is feigned rather than real:

• ni=4 ni:y tim-t?an nakskW-[t]=4 4kù4kW-[t]=4 he-(a)t==sin==a not=NC me FUT-3E REL.E marry.s.-[3]=NC child-[3]=NC say-REL==...==Q

I wouldn't be the one called upon to marry the daughter of the one who speaks, by any chance [not that it matters to me]? (222)

Niihl niiy dimt an nakskwhl hlguuhlkwhl heet-sina?

6.3.D.2.b. The postclitic ==Sit -sihl: This postclitic is used to inform the listener that he is in an embarrassing situation. The meaning is: 'Sorry, excuse me, but ...; this is none of my business, but it is something you should know and I am only mentioning it for your sake,' or, to use Victorian phraseology: 'with all due respect, it is my painful duty to inform you that ....' The few examples where it is found in Boas show it in contrast with ==Sin -sin. Both postclitics seem to have their alternate forms ending in -a -a.

A trick has been played on an unsuspecting chief while he slept; the trickster wakes him up with:

• sim?ó:kit-yùk<sup>W</sup> 12==a?=4si:ppán-n==si4a chief - PROG==ASST=NC bellyache-2S==... Chief, I am sorry, but you just had a bellyache [and soiled your bed] (25.9) Sim'oogit, yugwa'ahl siipbaninsihla!

The chief's response to this unwelcome bit of information is a question ending in ==Sin -sin:

• ?0: - ntá wil wil-[t]=4 ?anhé:-n==Sina Oh no, how could this happen? Oh - which way SUB be/act-[3]-NC saying-2S==... (25.10-11)

Oo. nda wil wilh! anheen-sina?

and the trickster's confirming statement again includes ==Si4 -sih/:

• yùk<sup>W 12</sup>==a?=t si:ppán-n ?a=t hu)wóq-n==sita PROG==ASST=NC bellyache-2S PREP=NC ASP)sleep-2S==...

I am very sorry, but you did have a bellyache in your sleep [and soiled your bed]

(25.11)

Yugwa'ahl siipbanin ahl huwogan-sihla/

#### NOTES TO CHAPTER 6

- 1 Following recent usage among Tsimshianists, the term *proclitic* used by Boas (1911:298) for all pre-predicate morphemes has been retained in this study for a kind of circumstantial prefix with definable characteristics. Those morphemes, not being true clitics, are not described in this section but in 7.1.A. (cf. note 6).
- <sup>2</sup> For more details, see Tarpent 1986.
- <sup>3</sup> Rigsby p.c.
- <sup>4</sup> The use of **t** before proper names has become somewhat redundant since the adoption of Christian names, which have no meaning and are clearly differentiated from ordinary words. The old native names had concrete meanings and it was important to differentiate the naming use from the common use. For instance, McCullagh tells an anecdote (quoted in Moeran and Raunet) about a man named *t'Gak*, probably **t qá**:**q** 'Raven' *t Gaak*. Other names he mentions do not have the marker.
- With a limited corpus of examples, the non-occurrence of t after =s and initially may give the superficial impression that t is a connective in complementary distribution with =s (e.g. in the first version of Tarpent 1981a). Consideration of a wider range of examples leaves no doubt that t and tip dip are Determinate Markers, morphemes of a different kind.
- <sup>6</sup> Boas 1911 used this term for a wider range of morphemes, including the Attributive suffix -m. Modern Tsimshianists (e.g. Rigsby, Dunn) use it only for the pre-nominal particles described here.
- 7 cf. explaining the use of Canadian eh, or of words such as Well! and So! in colloquial English, or Eh bien (or ben) and done in colloquial French.
- <sup>8</sup> Because the postclitic is often used when the speaker refers to concrete evidence that is equally available to the listener (or is assumed to be so), the meaning can be misinterpreted as demonstrative by a superficial observer, cf. the gloss given by Boas (1911:349): 'presence and nearness.'
- <sup>9</sup> In this example from Boas, the postclitic is added to the last stressed word of the sentence. In modern usage it would be more likely to be added to the very last word.
- 10 Compare with the use of the modifier sa: saa (5.15.B.30.) which also presents

an undesirable potential event, but without suggesting responsibility for preventing it.

<sup>11</sup> Barbeau translates 'I strike thee' which ignores the meaning of the postclitic.

<sup>12</sup> Here the auxiliary yukw has the Perfective meaning 'just happened' which it sometimes has in Boas, rather than its modern Progressive meaning 'be ...ing' (see 5.12.A., 5.12.A.4.).

#### CHAPTER 7: AFFIXES

Affixes can be divided into those preceding the stem (proclitics and prefixes), those following the stem (suffixes), and fixed combinations of the two, here called *frames*.

#### 7.1. Affixes preceding the stem:

Two kinds of affixes can precede the stem: prefixes and 'proclitics'. The latter are a kind of lexical prefix rather than a clitic; however, the term *proclitic* used by Boas (1911:398ff.) has been retained here (although Boas' term covers a wider range of morphemes). Prefixes determine the class membership of a word, or are affixed to words having a given class membership, as opposed to proclitics, which have much greater freedom of occurrence. Removing a prefix from a word in context would often result in an ungrammatical utterance as well as in semantic incongruity; in most cases, removing the proclitic alone would only alter the semantics.

Both prefixes and proclitics are affected phonologically by their proximity to the predicate head. The rules which affect reduplicated syllables (Vowel insertion and/or specification, Velar fricativization or vocalization, Affricate simplification and deglottalization) all occur: this is shown positively in some cases where a prefix or proclitic is relatable to a free morpheme, and also negatively since neither prefixes nor proclitics end in Velar stops, in affricates or in glottalized segments.

#### 7.1.A. Proclitics:

A Proclitic is a kind of prefix with circumstantial meaning, which does not affect the grammatical status of the word it is attached to. The latter is usually a verb, and it is not uncommon to have two or even three of these morphemes before a verb, but proclitics also occur before nouns. They are not true clitics, but the term provides a convenient way of distinguishing them from the other

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types of prefixes (see Prefixes, 7.1.B.). Like prefixes, proclitics are varied in their phonological structure: none of them ends in an affricate, a glottalized consonant or a Velar stop, which suggests that they obey widespread phonological rules of the language. Like the lexical prefixes, they are sometimes similar to existing lexical items in shape and meaning.

Nisgha proclitics are similar in meaning to English in, out, up, down, away, etc., although the semantic range seems to be wider. In English, most of these morphemes are only loosely bonded to the verb, and have a certain freedom of movement, as in

She put on her coat / She put her coat on.

They usually appear after the verb:

to run out, he ran out

but they can also be completely separate:

Out he ran. (but not: \*On she put her coat.)

A few can also be prefixed to the verb, to which they impart a different meaning and grammatical category; in this case the morpheme in question has absolutely no freedom of movement: the following examples have different meanings:

She outran him . She ran him out.

Similarly, in Nisgha there are degrees of bonding of the proclitic with the verb. Since proclitics always occur before the verb, never afterwards, proclitic movement is not an available device as it is in English. Instead, close bonding is achieved by a parasyntactic construction called here <u>framing</u>—using a suffix together with the proclitic (see Frames, 7.3.). Only loosely bonded proclitics are

considered in this section

Proclitics can be so loosely bonded that it is sometimes difficult to determine whether a given morpheme is a proclitic or a modifier (5.15.), but in general the following criteria apply:

- a. A modifier always precedes a proclitic;
- b. A proclitic is usually within the scope of aspectual reduplication (8.1.A.), a modifier never is, as in this example which contains both (reduplication occurs after the subordinator  $\mathbf{\hat{q}ay}$  'still'  $\mathbf{\underline{k}'ay}$ , 5.16.B.9.):
- day waqaytci)caqam=yúk -ti:t?a=4 kí:ks still far ASP)to.shore=move-3P PREP=NC place.facing.water SUB MODIF RED)PROC=...

[While] they were approaching the shore, but were still far at sea...(160.10-11).

K'ay wagayt jijagamyukwdiit ahl giiks...

Reduplication of the proclitic is not always obligatory; sometimes the stem is reduplicated instead, usually with a meaning difference: compare: proclitic included:

and: proclitic not included:

```
... Wil lu:=qa)qác-[t]=4 ?àks ... in which the water is/was SUB in=ASP)be[liquid]-[3]=NC water (e.g. in a lake, hole, etc.).
... wil luugagatshl aks.
```

However, plural reduplication does not usually include the proclitic:

lu:=**čix**)čák

'(lights) to be/go out'

in=PL)extinguished

luuts'ixts'ak

k<sup>W</sup>łi:=**hax**)háks

to bawl s.o. (pl.) out

all.over=PL)insult.s.

kwhliihaxhaks

except for some modern plurals, expecially of nouns, where the proclitic is semantically more closely bound to the lexical item:

six)sqa=piłé?

'curtains'

PL)barring=spread

sixsgabihlee'e

c. An ergative clitic pronoun always occurs before a proclitic (which is part of the predicate) but may occur either before or after a modifier, which is not. In the following examples, proclitic and modifier are homophonous:

ex. with proclitic Sa := 'off' saa ...;

• ?i:-t sa:=kú:t-ti:t

... and they took it off.

and-3E off-take.s.-3P

... iit saaguutdiit.

versus modifier Sa: 'suddenly' saa:

• ni[t]=4 ki: sa:-t kú:t-ti:t

Then suddenly they caught him (10.5).

that's...=NC and suddenly-3E take.s.-3P

Nihl k'ii sant guutdiit.

d. A verb beginning with a proclitic may be prefixed with a noun-forming prefix:

?an-**k<sup>w</sup>i+=**yé:

'[one's] territory, grounds'

place.of-around=walk

ankw'ihlyee

Semantic categories represented by proclitics include location, motion and manner.

7.1.A.1. <u>Location and Motion proclitics</u>: It seems arbitrary to separate location and motion as many proclitics are used for both, especially when in combination. Many of these proclitics occur in pairs.

7.1.A.1.a. <u>Use of location and motion proclitics</u>: The locational complement which normally comes at the end of the clause (after the nominal Adjuncts to the pronominal arguments, 4.2.) gives a definite site for the location or motion indicated by the proclitic, which is part of the predicate.

## 7.1.A.1.a.1. With PA's:

### 7.1.A.1.a.1.a. With intransitives:

Some proclitics are often associated with a specific locational prefix in the complement:

ńi:=yé: lax-míł on=walk on-burn	'to walk on the lava'  niiyee lax mihl
ñi:=ťá: lax-qán on=sit on-log	'to sit on a log' <i>hiit'aa la<u>r</u> gan</i>
lu:=ťá: čim-wílp in=sit in-house	'to stay in the house'

others with adverbs with specific meaning:

$$\text{?ak}^{\pmb{W}}i\text{:=}\overset{?}{t}\text{\'a}\text{:}\text{ ...}\text{ k\'alq}$$

'to sit ... outside'

outside=sit ... outside

agviit'aa ... galk

$$[t]\dot{q}ali\text{=}\text{m\'a}\text{xk}^{W} \dots \textbf{kik\'e}\text{:}\text{nix}$$

'to ride ... upriver'

up.a.river=ride ... upriver

k'aliimaxkw ... gigeenix

or with certain nouns with locational meaning:

'to run all around ... the table'

k'utk'ubax ... daaxhl haniitxooxkw

'to be under ... the house'

under=lie ... underside-[3]=house

lagaldipsgi ... hlazvhl wilp

These proclitics can also be used in the absence of locational complements, in fact this use is very frequent; it is practically unknown for such complements to be used without a proclitic occurring on the verb.

#### 7.1.A.1.a.1.b. In noun-phrases and compounds:

lu = sýèn-[t]-4 čim-ťáx in=bottom-[3]=NC in-lake

'the bottom of the lake'

lu:=qakàmkə-[t]=<del>1</del>cim-wilp

'the heat in the house'

in=heat-[3]=NC in-house

luugagamgihl tsim wilp

tku=tà:x-[t]=4?antú:yin around=perimeter-[3]=NC garden

'[around] the perimeter of the garden'

\*\*Lat'udaaxh1 anduuyin\*\*

including nominal compounds:

lu:=wil-m+cim-?áks 'water creature (amphibian, sea

in=be-ATTR+in-water mammal, etc.)

luuwilim ts'im aks

The prefixation of a motion proclitic to a noun can give the latter adverbial meaning:

[t]qali=lisims 'Igoing] up the Nass river'

up.a.river=Nass.river **L'alii**Lisims

qalksə=ptó? 'in the doorway'

through=door raiksipdo'o

tip=qané:qs 'on/down the steps'

downward=ladder, stairs tipganeeks

# 7.1.A.1.a.2. With PEA's:

There is usually no locational prefix on the object noun.

cilim=ká?...= wílp 'to look inside ... the house'

into=see.s. ...=NC house ts'ilimga'a ...h! wilp

lu:=ká?...=4 càl-[t]=4 likitná: 'to look into ... s.o.'s eyes' in=see.s. ...=NC eyes-[3]=NC somebody lunga'a ...h1 ts'alh1 ligitnaa

caqa=kilá: ...= kát 'to watch ... a man go across'

across=watch.s.in.motion ...=NC man [the motion here is that of the eyes,

which follow that of the Object of the

verb] jagagilaai...hl gat

7.1.A.1.b. <u>List of location and motion proclitics</u>: The following list does not claim to be complete, as there is enormous variation in the frequency of occurrence

of individual proclitics, and a few seem to be obsolete. No attempt has been made to follow a particular order, except that opposite members of pairs are usually given next to each other.

7.1.A.1.b.1. lu:= 'in, inside' (usually location, more rarely motion) /uu...; probably the commonest proclitic.

lu:=tá: '(animate) to be in s.t., esp. to be in a house:

...=sit, stay at home, or in jail' *lout'aa* 

lu:=Skí '(object) to be in s.t.; (person) to be in

...=lie.motionless hospital' luusgi

lu:=qóta (container) to be empty; (contents) to be

...=all.gone gone' luugooda

lu:=tá.wit 'to disappear in s.t.; esp. (sun) to set'

...=leave, disappear loudaawih!

lu:=?á:cax 'to fit in\_s.t.'

...=reach,fit.s. *Iuu'aaja*<u>x</u>

This proclitic is often found in expressions referring to the heart as the seat of thoughts and emotions, as in:

lu:=?á:m=\qo:t-\quad I am happy.

...=good=NC heart-1S Luu'aamh1 goodiÿ.

It is also often found with other proclitics, e.g.

lu:=tip=hitkW 'to stand upright in a hole'

 lu:=kiti:=hítkW

'(mechanism) to stop'

...=stop.motion=stand

luugidiihitkw

lu:=caqa=tku+páx

'to run around the house (= be very busy)'

...=from.end.to.end=around=run

luujagatk'ubax

See 7.1.A.1.c.9. for lu:=pa[qa]yt /uubayt.

7.1.A.1.b.2. ?akWi:= 'outside, at the side' (location) agwii...

(a) concrete meaning:

?ak₩i:=kó:

'to be parked/moored outside'

...=moored, parked

ag viigyoo

?akWi:=kálq

'just outside'

...=outside

agwiigalk

(b) figurative meaning:

?ak₩i:=nipíp

'great-uncle (mother's maternal uncle)'

...=maternal.uncle

ag wiinibip

7.1.A.1.b.3. kSƏ= 'out of s.t. [usually from the side]' ksi.../ksa...; usually motion (= homophonous prefixes, 7.1.B.2.b.3.d., 7.1.B.2.a.2.a.)(= Cilim= 'into' ts'ilim... 7.1.A.1.b.4.; cf. also tukWS='out of s.t.' t'ukws...7.1.A.1.b.8.):

ksə=ká?ask<sup>₩</sup>

'to look out (of a window, etc.)'

...=look

ksiga'askw

**ksə**=hítk<sup>₩</sup>

'to stick out'

...=stand

ksihitkw

ksa=tís

to push s.t. out

...=push.s.

ksit'is

**ksə**=q́úc

'to cut s.t. out'

...=look

ksak'ots

7.1.A.1.b.4. **Cilim**= 'into s.t. [house, etc., from the side: ]' *ts'ilim...*; motion (\* **k50**= 'out' *ksi.../ksa...* 7.1.A.1.b.3.) (cf. also laqam= 'into s.t.' *lagam...* 7.1.A.1.b.7.):

**čilim**=ká?ask<sup>₩</sup>

'to look in'

...=look

ts'ilimga'askw

**čilim**=q̇́ó?

'to fetch s.t. inside'

...=go.to.s.

ts'ilimgo'o

cilim=?anó:lT

'to allow s.o. inside'

...=allow.s.

ts'ilim'anool-di

- 7.1.A.1.b.5. qalksa...; motion:
  - (a) concrete meaning:

qalksa=ká?askW

'to look through s.t. [e.g. with binoculars]'

...=look

galksiga askw

qalksə=nó?

'(object) to have a hole through it'

...=hole

galksino'o

qalksə=kW4ák

'(garment, etc.) to be inside out'

...=messed.up?

Ralksikwhlak

(b) figurative meaning:

qalksə=?álkax

'to speak through s.t. [a phone, C.B., etc.]'

...=talk

galksi'algax

qalksa=?áq4kW

to make it through [an illness, a course of

...=succeed study, etc.]; to graduate'

galksi'akhlkw

7.1.A.1.b.6. [t]qan= 'opening, ajar' (t)k'an...

[t]qan=nó?

'(door, etc.) to be ajar, not locked'

...=hole

(t)k'anno'o

[t]qan=tá:-tkW

(sky) to clear

...=stay-MED

(t)k'ant'aatkw

- 7.1.A.1.b.7. laqam='into s.t. (at the top)' lagam... (\* tuk\subseteq S= 'out of s.t. [from the top] t'uk\subseteq s..., 7.1.A.1.b.8.). (cf. also cilim='into' ts'ilim... 7.1.A.1.b.4.)
  - (a) 'into s.t., from the top', esp. into a movable object (container, boat); hence also 'into a vehicle':

**laqam**=páx

'to go aboard, get into a car, etc.'

...=run

legembax

laqam=úx

'to throw s.t. aboard, or into a container'

...=throw.s.

lagam'ux

(b) into the water

laqam=tá:

'to sit in the water'

...=sit

lagamt'aa

laqam=halháltin
...=make.s.spin

'to send <u>s.</u> spinning into the water'

7.1.A.1.b.8. **tuk** S= 'out of s.t. [from the top], overboard' tuk ws... (= laqam='into s.t. [at the top]' lagam..., 7.1.A.1.b.7.). (cf. also kS='out of s.t.' ksi.../ksa... 7.1.A.1.b.3.):

 $tuk^W s = tik^W antk^W$ 

'to fall overboard'

...-fall

t'ukwst'igwantkw

tukWs=kú:[t]

'to take s.t. out [of a container, boat, etc.]

...=take.s.

t'uk vsguu(t)

 $tuk^Ws=?úx$ 

'to throw s. overboard'

...=throw.s.

t'uk ws'ux

7.1.A.1.b.9.  $\vec{n}i$ := 'on s.t. horizontal'  $\vec{n}ii$ ...; us. location, also figurative meaning; (\*laqaltip='under s.t.' lagaldip...7.1.A.1.b.10.):

ńi:=ťá:

to sit on s.t.'

...=sit

niit'aa

ni:=yóxk<sup>W</sup> ...=follow.a.route

'to go over <u>s.t.</u> (both concrete and figurative meanings)' *niiyoxkw* 

ni≔wá

'to come upon <u>s.t.</u>'

...=reach\_find.s.

**n**iiwa

7.1.A.1.b.10. laqaltip='under s.t. horizontal [but without contact] lagaldip...; location; ( $\times$   $\vec{\Pi}$  i= 'on s.t. horizontal'  $\vec{n}ii$ ... 7.1.A.1.b.9., cf.  $luk^{W}$   $\vec{1}\partial = lukwhli$ ... 7.1.A.11.b.66):

laqaltip-ta to sit/be under s.t.

...=sit lagaldipt'aa

7.1.A.1.b.11. kiltip= 'under the bottom of s.t. [round]' gildip...; us. motion:

kiltip=?úx 'to upset s.t.'

...=hit,throw.s. gildip-vx

kiltip=tálpikskW to hold on to the underside of s.t.' (e.g.

...=crouch person in the water, holding on to a canoe

while hiding from its occupants)(Boas)

gildipdalbikskw

kiltip=yá4kW 'round-bottomed cauldron'

...=smooth gildipyahlkw

7.1.A.1.b.12. **min**= 'upward [vertically]" *min*...; motion: (\* tip= 'downward' *tip...* 7.1.A.1.b.13.);

min=yé: to go/walk up, esp. upstairs'

...=go, walk

min=ká?askW 'to look up (to the sky)'

...=look **#inga**'askw

min=nákW (tree, building, mountain) to be tall'

...=long **±in**óakw

min=tə-tá:wif 'to take s. away into the sky'

...=DOMIN-go away **±in** didaa wihl

7.1.A.1.b.13. tip= 'downward' t'ip...; motion; (= min= 'upward' min..., 7.1.A.1.b.12.);

tip=yé:

...=go, walk

tip=tikWántkW

...=fall

tipt'igwantkw

tip=ki)kil

...=ASP)one

to go/walk down, esp. downstairs'

tipyee

tipyee

to fall down

tipt'igwantkw

(leaves, snowflakes, etc.) to fall down one
by one

tipgik'il

...=ladder t'ipganeeks

1 A 1 b 14 Da X= 'unbill' (esp. up the riverbank on beach up to the mit

7.1.A.1.b.14. Pax= 'uphill' (esp. up the riverbank or beach up to the village, or up into the wooded mountains behind the village) bax...; motion; (= yaqa='downhill' yaqa..., 7.1.A.1.b.15.);

pax=yé: 'to go/walk uphill, hike up' ...=go, walk baxvee pax-mádan 'to give s.o. a ride up' ...=give.ride.to.s. baxmak'an pa**x**=yúk<sup>W</sup> to move uphill; (esp. water level, river ...=move tide) to rise' bazyukw wil-pax=ha+=hitkW 'slope, rollercoaster' where-...=along=stand wilbaxhahlhitkw

7.1.A.1.b.15. \$\forall aqa= 'downhill' \( \forall aga...\) (esp. from the village down the riverbank or beach, or down from the mountains back to the village ); motion; (\*\inp a \forall = 'uphill' \( bax...\) 7.1.A.1.b.14.);

**ỷaqa**=yé:

'to go/walk downhill'

...=go, walk

**ÿaga**yee

**ỷaqa**=yúk<sup>W</sup>

'to move downhill; (esp. water level, river

...=move

tide) to fall, go down yagayukw

yaqa=lílpin

'to roll s.t. downhill'

...=roll.s.

yagalilo'in

7.1.A.1.b.16. [t]qali= 'up a river, upstream' (t)k'alii...; motion; (\*kisə= 'downstream' gisi.../gisa..., 7.1.A.1.b.17.);

[t]dali=yé:

'to go/walk upriver; January'

...=go, walk

k'aliiyee

ti)tqali≍wá:x

'to be paddling up the river'

...=paddle

ditk'eliiwaax

[t]qali=máxkW

'to ride in a boat up the river'

...=ride

k'aliimaxkw

**ďal**i≔?áks

'river'

...=water

k'alii'aks

7.1.A.1.b.17. kisə= 'downstream' gisi.../gisa...; motion; (\*[t]qali= 'up a river, upstream' (t)k'alii..., 7.1.A.1.b.16.);

kisə=yé:

'to go/walk down the river'

...=go, walk

Risiyee

kisa=?úlkskW

'to drift down the river'

Risi'ulkskw

...=drift

kisæ-qal)qúl

'(water, stream) to run down'

...=PL)|water|run

gisagalgol

7.1.A.1.b.18. Caqa='from one end or side to the other', hence 'across/
crossing (esp. a river), affording passage' jaga...; motion or location; (cf.
Sqa='across, barring passage' sga..., 7.1.A.1.b.19., la:X='at both ends'
laax..., 7.1.A.1.b.20.);

caqa=yé:

'to go/walk across'

... = go, walk

izzzyee

caqa=hé:tkW

'(person, animal) to head across s.t.;'

...=extend

(object) to be [stretched, etc.], to extend,

across s.t.'

jagaheetkw

caqa=yóxk<sup>W</sup>

'to cross on s.t., to follow s. across'

...=follow.s.

jagayoxkw

caqa=qané:qs

'bridge'

...=ladder

jagaganeeks

7.1.A.1.b.19. SQa= 'across, in the way, barring passage' sga...; motion or location; (\*Caqa= 'across, affording passage' jaga..., 7.1.A.1.b.18.);

sqa=hitkW

'to stand in the way'

...=stand

SEShitkw

**sqa**=pé:q

to stretch out one's arms to prevent s.

...=stretch.out.?

from going through' sgabeek'

sqa=yáda?

'theatre curtain'

...=hanging

sgayak a a

 kilò mə cə sqa=sáx-[t]=ł ptó? cəta: mə sqa=łákW-t don't 2ERG IRR ...=pull.s.-[3]=NC door if 2ERG ...=twist.s.-3

Don't pull the door shut if you lock it.

Gilo mi ji sgasaxhl pdo'o jidaa mi sgat'akwt.

7.1.A.1.b.20. la:X=/le:X= 'equally at both ends: (a) location: on both sides, in both hands; (b) motion: back and forth' laax...; (cf. Caqa= 'from one end or side to the other, across' jaga..., 7.1.A.1.b.18., Stax='on one side only' sdax... 7.1.A.1.b.64.):

(a) location:

la:x=tax)tóq-T

...=PL)take.s.pl.-DEF

'to take things in each hand'

laaxdaxdok-di

la:x=?álkax

...=talk

'to interpret (= talk on each side)'

laar algar

(b) motion:

la:x=yé:

...=go, walk

'to go/walk back and forth'

laaryee

la:x=kWácikskW

...=rocking

'to rock back and forth'

laa<u>x</u>kw'ajikskw

la:x=wìlqa?-m+kát

...=transport-ATTR+man

'to ferry people back and forth; ferry'

laarwilk'a'am-gat

la:x=caqa=qó?

...=crossing=go.to.s.

'to cross back and forth to get s.'

las jagago'o

7.A.1.b.21. ka: 1= 'pulling to one side, lopsided' kaahl...

This proclitic begins with the element  $/\hat{k}$  which recurs in most words with the meaning 'one' (7.1.B.2.c.1.). It may be reduced to  $\hat{k}\hat{l} = k'ihl...$  or gihl...

 $ka:1=qisa?-tk^{W}$  'to kneel down'

> k'ihlk'esa'atkw gihlk'esa'atkw

ka:1=hé:tkW 'to extend/pull to one side (more than the other)' kahlheetkw

ka:1=hè:tkW-mqisimq Labret-sticking-out-on-one-side (heroine of a Boas story)

Kahlheetgum-Kesimk

- 7.1.A.1.b.22. na:= 'conspicuously against a background' (location or motion)

  naa...: hence:
  - (a) 'in one or more spots'

 $\mathbf{\hat{n}a} = \hat{t}\hat{u}\hat{c}k^{\mathbf{W}}$  to have a black spot

...=black neat'uuts'kw

na=tis)tú:ćkW 'to have black spots'

...=PL)black nast ist uuts kw

na =qákW 'to be bald'

(b) 'emerging from the woods' (\* qaltix= 'into the woods (not visible)' \* 'aldix... 7.1.A.1.b.23., pax='uphill,' hence 'into the woods (above the village)' \* bax... 7.1.A.1.b.14.)

**ňa**≍yé:

'to go/come back from the woods'

...=walk, go

issyee

**ňa**≒hítk<sup>W</sup>

'to stand at the edge of the woods'

...=stand

nachitkw

7.1.A.1.b.23. qaltix= 'deep in the woods, not visible from the village' (motion) k'aldix... (seems obsolete now; pax= bax...7.1.A.1.b.14. used instead): (= na:= 'emerging from the woods' nas...7.1.A.1.b.22.(b)):

qaltix=yé:

'to go into the woods'

...=walk, go

k'aldixyee

**daltix**=qó:ta

'(group) to have all gone into the woods'

k'aldixgooda

7.1.A.1.b.24. **yaws** 'from a confined or hidden place into the open (e.g. from the bushes into the road, from within a cupboard, behind a curtain, etc.)' (motion) yaws... (\* kiči†= 'into a confined space' gits'ihl... 7.1.A.1.b.25.):

**ỷaws**=yé:

'to appear (e.g. out of the bushes)'

...=walk, go

ýswsyee

**ỷaws**=tə-yé:

'to bring s. out into the open'

...=DOM-walk, go

yawsdiyee

7.1.A.1.b.25. kičit= 'into a confined or hidden place (e.g. into an inner room, a cupboard, backstage, etc.)' (motion) gits ihl... (\* yaws... 7.1.A.1.b.24.):

kicił=qóta

'to all be holed up [somewhere]' (Boas)

...=all.gone

Rits'ihlgooda

**kiči**1=ksqó:q ...=first

'to be the first to go in[to a hole, etc.]'

Rits'ihlksgook

7.1.A.1.b.26. haf= 'along, parallel to, a line, esp. the shoreline' (location or motion) hahl...

hat=yé:

'to walk along s.t., esp. the shore'

...=walk, go

hahlyee

hat=skí

'[inanimate] to be/lie along s.t., along the '

...=be [motionless]

shore'

hahlsgi

7.1.A.1.b.27. kila:=/kila:/hita: 'past[a reference point in space or time] '(location or motion) gilaa.../kilaa.../hilaa...

**kila**≔qó:ta

'to have all gone past'

...=ali.gone

gilaagooda

kila=tá:wił

'to go past and disappear (e.g. past a point,'

...=go.away

lighthouse, etc.); (time period) to be over'

gilaadaawihl

7.1.A.1.b.28. hakWin= 'closer' (motion) hagwin... (= Wətin= 'further away' wadin.../widin... 7.1.A.1.b.29.):

hakWin=yé:

'to get/come closer'

...=walk, go

hagvinyee

hakWin=tá:

'to sit closer [to s.]'

...=sit

hagvint'as

7.1.A.1.b.29. Wətin= 'further away' (motion) wadin.../widin... (= hakWin= 'closer' hagwin...7.1.A.1.b.28.):

wətin=yé:

'to get/go further away'

...=walk, go

**vadin**yee

ha-wətin=ká?ask<sup>W</sup>

'binoculars'

INST-...=look

hawadinga'askw

7.1.A.1.b.30. Caqam= 'towards the point of reference' (motion) jagam...; hence: (a) (concrete meaning) 'moving from water towards shore' (=?ukWs...7.1.A.1.b.31.) and (b) (fig.) 'reaching one's end or goal:

**caqam**±ílpk<sup>W</sup>

'to be [in the water] close to shore'

...=short, close.by

jagamdilpkw

**caqam**=páx

(a) 'to run ahore (e.g. from a boat)'

...=run

(b) (period of time) 'to come to an end'

jegambaş

caqam=?áq4kW

(a) 'to manage to get ashore'

...=succeed, manage

(b) 'to reach one's goal, reach the end of a period in life (e.g. to graduate, get married,

etc.)

jagam akhikw

7.1.A.1.b.31. ?ukWS= 'outward, away from the point of reference', esp. 'moving from the shore towards the water' (motion) or 'facing the water' (location) ukws...; (\*Caqam= jagam...7.1.A.1.b.30.):

?ukWs=tá:

to sit (on the beach, on a rock, etc.) facing

...=sit

the water

uk vst'aa

?uk\s=wí]

to get away from the village'

...=be. act

ukwewi/

ukWs=hétkW

'to head out to sea'

...=extend

ut wsheetkw

This proclitic also occurs together with  $[t]k\partial = (t)ki.../(t)kia...7.1.A.1.b.32$ . The meaning of the combination is 'on a high point, on a cliff':

?ukWs=[t.]ka=tá:

'to to sit on a high point, at the edge of a

...=...=sit

cliff

ukwsk'it'aa

[?ukWs=[t]kə=qùs]-m-s-[wán]-tkW 'to jump off like a deer'  $[[...\text{=}...\text{=}jump]\text{-}...\text{-}...[deer]\text{-}MED]_{act.like}$ 

(= to act impulsively)

ukwsk agosimswantkw

7.1.A.1.b.32. [t]k = dropping down to a lower level' (motion or location) (t)k'i /(t)k'a :

[t]kə=yé:

'[level] to have gone down'

...=walk, go

(t)k'iyee

[t.]ka=tá:wi+

'[boat, person] to sink'

...=leave, disappear

(t)k'idaawih!

**[t.lka**=mál

to button s.t. crooked (one side lower than

...=extend

the other)

(t)k'imal

Often occurs in combination with ?UkWS= ukws... 7.1.A.b.31.

7.1.A.1.b.33. [t]qal= (t)kal... (a) (concrete) 'flat/flush against s.t.' (motion or location, \* Sa:= saa... 7.1.A.1.b.34.); (b) (fig.) 'increasing' (\* Sa:= saa... 7.1.A.1.b.34. tim= tim... 7.1.A.1.b.44.):

(a) concrete meaning: usually location:

[t]dal=kó: '(boat) to be moored, tied to s.t.' ...=moored (t)k'algyoo **[t]qal=**wá-tT to meet so. ...=find.reach.s.-DEF (t)k'alwa-(t)di [t]qal=tá:wi+ '(color, clothing) to match' ...=leave, disappear (t)k aldaawih! (b) figurative meaning: 'accruing, increasing': [t]dal=yé: 'to increase' ...=go (t)k'alvee ti)tqal=yé:/qa)qal=yé: 'to be increasing' ASP)...=go ditk'alyee, gak'alyee [t]qal=húksa?an to add s.t. to s.t. ...=put.s. (t)k alhuksa an 7.1.A.1.b.34. Sa:= 'off, away from s.t.' (motion or location,  $= [t]\dot{q}al=$ (t)k'al... 7.1.A.1.b.33.) (also \* homophonous modifier Sa: saa 5.15.B.30.): (a) concrete meaning: sa:=yé: '(person) to go off, away' ...=go/walk **SEE**Yee sa:=tikWántkW 'to fall off (e.g. off a tree, a bike, etc.)' ...=fall sast'igwantkw sa:=qúc 'to cut s.t. off' ...=cut.s. seek ots

(b) figurative meaning: 'decreasing, coming to an end'

sa:=páx

'(story, world) to end'

...=run

saabax

sa:=yé:

'to decrease'

...=cut.s.

saayee

7.1.A.1.b.35. kWilkS= 'back' (motion) gwilks...

kWilks=yé

'to walk back'

...=go/walk

gvilksyee

k<sup>₩</sup>ilks=qó?

'to go get s, back'

...=go.get.s.

gwilksgo'o

k<sup>W</sup>ilks=k<sup>W</sup>iṅ́á

'to ask for s.t. back'

...=ask.for.s.

gwilksgwina

This proclitic is also found in the frame kWilks=...-[t]kW/-5 'Reflexive' gwilks... $tk^{W}/...s$  (7.3.A.1.a.2.a.1.a.).

7.1.A.1.b.36. Sp= 'horizontally off s.t.' sbi.../sba... (\* homophonous prefix, 7.1.B.2.b.4.e.):

**spə**=qús

'to hop/jump off (a boat at the dock or

...=jump

beach, a car)

sbagos

spə±ú[t]

'to take s.t. off s.t. else (e.g. a pot off the

...=take.s.

stove)

sbiguu

**spə**≼ó:

'(canoe, boat) to land on the beach'

...=moored

sbigyoo

7.1.A.1.b.37. xlip = 'at one end, at the tip' xlip...

**xlip**=tú ck<sup>W</sup>

'to be black at the tip, to have a black tip,

...=black

to be tipped with black' rlipt'uuts'kw

xlip=qanqínks

'to chew on the tip of s.t.'

...=chew.on.s.

xlipgangenks

**xlip=**ďáp

'endpiece tip'

...=piece

Alipk'ap

7.1 A.1.b.38. XĈĐ= 'crosswise, perpendicularly, across the grain, across the middle' ats'i.../ats'a... (= WISIN= wisin... 7.1 A.1.b.39.):

**xċə=**qúc

to cut s.t. across the grain, to make a

...=cut.s.

perpendicular cut in s.t.' rts'af'ots

**xċə**=yác

'to strike s.t. across the middle'

...=strike.s.

xts'iyats

**xċə**⊨his)yác

to chop s.t. across the grain (e.g. a log into

...=PL)strike.s.

lengths of wood) rts inisyats

7.1.A.1.b.39. WISIN='lengthwise, along the grain' wisin... (= XĈƏ= zts'i.../ zts'a... 7.1.A.1.b.38.):

wisin=his)yác

to strike s.t. several times along the grain,

...=PL)strike.s.

e.g. while making kindling from wood

(148.4)

**Visin**hisyats

wisin=hétkW

'(in a canoe) to rush (at s.o. who is at the

...=extend/rush

other end! (57.2) visinheetkw

7.1.A.1.b.40. txas= 'along the whole length of s.t.'; hence also 'throughout a period of time' txas...(\* XPO= xbi.../xba... 7.1.A.1.b.41.):

txas=yé:

'to walk the whole length of s.t. (e.g. of a

...=walk, go

fallen log) '

*txasyee* 

txas=nakW

'(time period) to have run through, to be

...=long (time)

just about over' trasnakw

txas=má:tim

'all winter long'

...=winter

txasmaadim

7.1.A.1.b.41. XPO= 'at the halfway point (in distance or time)' xbi.../xba... (= txas= txas... 7.1.A.1.b.40.):

**xpə**±(ú:[t]

'to catch s.t. in mid-air'

...=take.s.

**xbig**uu

**xpə**±íp

'(bird, etc.) to catch s.t. in mid-air and eat it'

...=eat.s.

**z**tigip

**xpə**=nák<sup>W</sup>

'(time period) to be half over'

...=long (time)

zbińskw

7.1.A.1.b.42. Skwin= 'at the end of a line or row' (location) skwin...

skWin=hitkW

'to stand at the end of a row'

...=stand

sky inhitky

7.1.A.1.b.43. kimi:= 'to the rear' (motion) gimii...

kimi:=yé: ...=go/walk

(older) 'to come/go towards the rear of the building'; (modern) 'to "come forward" [us. towards the rear of the building] when called by the M.C. to speak during a public event'

7.1.A.1.b.44. tim= 'away from s.t.' tim..., hence (a) concrete) 'away from the wall, towards the middle of the house' (obsolete), and (b) (figurative) 'diminishing' (both meanings \* [t]qal= (t)k'al... 7.1.A.1.b.33.):

tim=yé:

(a) 'to come to the middle of the house (Boas); (b) (supplies, etc.) 'to diminish'

t'imyee

7.1.A.1.b.45. kina:= 'left behind (location)' (probably from earlier ka:na:=) ginaa.../ganaa...

kina:=hítk<sup>W</sup>

'(person) to be late'

...=stand

ginaahitkw

**k**ina:⊨k<sup>W</sup>álk<sup>W</sup>

'(boat, etc.) to be left high and dry'

...=dry

ginaagwalkw

kina:=titílsT

'to survive (while others have died)'

...=live

**xinaa**didils(t)

7.1.A.1.b.46. loqali:= 'behind, at the end (location or motion)' lok'alii...

loqali:=hítkW

'to stand behind s.'

...=stand

lok aliihitky

loqali:=yé:

to walk behind s.

...=walk, go

lok'aliiyee

loqali:=hin)yántkW ...=tickle

'to have a chill run down one's spine' lok aliihinyantkw

7.1.A.1.b.47. [t]qa:= tottering, losing one's balance' (t)k'aa...

[t]qa:=167

'(structure, building) to collapse'

...=shove/collapse

(t)k'sehlo'o

[t]qa:=k³WácikskW

'(person) to sway and collapse'

...=totter. rock

(t)k'aakw'aiikskw

7.1.A.1.b.48. 11m= 'in front, towards s.o., expecting s.o. (Fr. d la rencontre de...) hlim...

lim=páx-[t]kW

'to run to meet s.o.'

...=run-MED

hlimbazkw

11m=mágsk₩

'(group) to stand waiting for s.o.'

...=stand.PI.

**hlim**makskw

7.1.A.1.b.49. u = spa[qa]yt = in between lossbayt... (< u = in' los...7.1.A.1.b.1. + prefix Spa[qa]yt'among' sba(a)yt... 7.1.B.2.b.4.f.)

lu:=spa[qa]ythítkW

'to stand between others'

...=...=stand

luusbaythitkw

lu:=spa[qa]ythanáq to be the only male among females'

...=...=Woman

luusbaythanak'

7.1.A.1.b.50. [t]ku= 'around in a circle (us. motion)' (l)k'u... (cf. x1im= 'around s., encircling s.' zlim... 7.1.A.1.b.65. )

[t]ku=yáltkW 'to turn around'

[t]ku=páx to be round

[t]ku=tá:x 'perimeter'

...=perimeter tk'udaax

7.1.A.1.b.51. [t]kutku='all around s.t.' (t)k'utk'u... (orig. reduplicated form of [t]ku=(t)k'u... 7.1.A.1.b.50.)

[t]kutkupáx 'to run all around s.'

...=run k'utk'ubaş

[t]kutku-wan (persons) to sit in a circle, e.g. around a

...=sit.PL room' k'utk'uwan

[t]kutku∓áq 'skirt'

...=dress **k'utk'u**nak'

7.1.A.1.b.52. haspa:= 'concave side up', hence also '(animal, person) reclining on one's back' hasbaa... (= polysim= balzsim.../bilzsim...
7.1.A.1.b.53.)

haspa:≼ó: (canoe, boat) to be on land; (person), to

...=moored recline' hasbangyoo

haspa:=pintkW '(person, animal) to lie on one's back,
...=stick.out.belly showing one's belly' hasbaabintkw

haspa:=skitin 'to place a concave object (dish, glass, etc.)

...=place.s. hollow side up' hasbassgit in

7.1.A.1.b.53. polxsim='concave side down', hence also '(animal) with back up, (person) lying face down' balzsim.../bilzsim... (\* haspa:= hasbaa... 7.1.A.1.b.52.)

**pəlxsim**±ó:

'(canoe, boat) to be upside down (on land)'

...=moored

balksim gyoo

**pəlxsim**=skítin

'to place a concave object (dish, glass, etc.)

...=place.s.

upside down'

balzsi asgit'in

7.1.A.1.b.54. kinxt=/kanxt 'upside down (vertically), head down'
k'inxth...

kinx<del>1</del>=hétk<sup>W</sup>

'to be head down'

...=extend

k'inxhlheetkw

7.1.A.1.b.55. haltim='up from the ground, from a lying position' haldim...
(motion)

**haltim**=ta:

'to sit up'

...=sit

haldimt'aa

**haltim** ⇒páx

'to get up from sitting (in order to do s.t.);'

...=run

(fig.) to volunteer (to do s.t.)'

**haldim**bax

haltim=kú[t]

'to pick s.o. up from a lying position (e.g. a

...=take.s.

baby), from the ground; (fig.) to help s.o.

to recover from a disgrace' haldinguu(t)

7.1.A.1.b.56. [t]qayks= 'close to the ground (location)' (t)k'ayks..., gayks...

[t]qaykské + (person, animal) to lie on the ground or

...=lie floor' ik'ayksgeeh!

[t]qayks#ilpkW '(structure, building) to be low' ...=close/short tk ayksdilokw

7.1.A.1.b.57. kiti:= 'stopping a motion' gidi'

kiti:=hít.k<sup>W</sup> '(person, animal) to stop'

...=stand **zidii**hitkw

lu:=**kiti**:=hítk<sup>W</sup> '(engine, watch, etc.) to stop'

in=...=stand luugidiihitkw

kiti:=kú[t] 'to hold  $\underline{s}$  back (e.g. a dog), to stop  $\underline{s}$  from

...=take.s. advancing' gidiiguu(t)

7.1.A.1.b.58. pa[qa]yt= bagayt..., baayt..., bayt...( = hatix= hatix... 7.1.A.1.b.59.)

(a) (location): 'in the middle'

pa[qa]ytski '(object) to be in the middle' ...=(object) be, lie

(b) (motion): 'in half crosswise'

pa[qa]yt#nátkW '(soft object) to fall apart [into two pieces]'

baytsgi

...=fall.apart bayt matkw

pa[qa]ytpis 'to tear s.t. in half'

...=tear.s. baythis 7.1.A.1.b.59. hatix='in half lengthwise (motion)' hatix... (\*pa[qa]yt=bagayt..., baayt..., bayt... 7.1.A.1.b.58.)

hatix=quc to cut s.t. [long] (e.g. a fish) in half ...=cut.s. (55.3.) hat ink ots

7.1.A.1.b.60. kis= 'changing from one place to another' gis...

kis=lúkW-S 'to move away [to live s.w. else]'
...=PL.move-MED gislukws

kis=kó tin 'to move <u>a boat</u> to another moorage, a car ...=moor/park.s. to another parking place'

\*\*Risgyoot'in

kis=lu=qác-T 'to pour <u>s.t.</u> [liquid] into another container'
...=in=pour.s.-DEF

gisluugats-di

7.1.A.1.b.61. kwii:= 'all over = randomly, in many parts of the same object, messily' kwhii... (often used with plural stem) (cf. kilqal=/kilqal=kilk'al..., gilk'al..., gilk'al...7.1.A.1.b.62.)

kWit:= man 'to smear s.t. (a face, etc.) all over (messily)'
...=smear, anoint.s.

kW i := tix)tákiltkW (garment, etc.) to be all wrinkled up'
...=PL)folded kwhliit ixt ak iltkw

 $k^{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{f}\mathbf{i} := \mathbf{f}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{x})\mathbf{f}\hat{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{k}$ 

'to be all scratched up'

...=PL)scratched

kwhliihlixhlaak

7.1 A.1.b.62.  $kil\dot{q}al=/kil\dot{q}al=k'il\underline{k}'al..., gil\underline{k}'al...'all over = completely covering an object' (cf. <math>k^{\mathbf{W}}\dot{1}:=kwhlii...7.1.A.1.b.61.$ )

**kilďal**=mán

'to apply s.t. all over s.t. (e.g. cream or

...=smear, anoint.s.

powder on one's face) gilk alman

kildal=séksT

to splash water all over s

...=water.s.

gilk'alseeks-di

**kılqal**⊨láx

'(animal) to be covered with fur'

...=fur

gilk'allax

kildal=i nú

'to be completely bald'

...=turnip

gilk'al'iinuu

7.1.A.1.b.63. Stax=/sta:='on one side only, at one end' sdax.../sdaa...
(\*la:X='on both sides, at both ends' laax... 7.1.A.1.b.20.)

stax=yúk<sup>W</sup>

'to hold s.t. in one hand, under one arm'

...=hold.s.

sda**x**yukw

**stax**=?asáỷ

...=leg/foot

to have only one leg [having lost the other

one]

sday asay

stax=kítk<sup>W</sup>

'(one of a pair of body parts, one side of the

...=swell

body) to be swollen' sdaggitkw

7.1.A.1.b.64. Sax='gathering things together' sax... (perhaps originally related to the modifier Sa[qa]yt sagayt/sayt, 5.15.B.4.):

sa**x**=dóx

'to gather s.t.pl, together'

...=take.s.pl.

SEXdox

7.1.A.1.b.65. **X1im**= 'going around s.t.' *x1im...* 

xim=tix)táki

'to tie s.t.pl. into a bundle'

...=PL)bind.s.

zlimdixdakh!

**x+im**=tám-tT

'to throw one's arms around s.o.'

xlimdam-di

...=press.s.-DEF

7.1.A.1.b.66. luk<sup>W</sup>tə= 'right under sthg. (and in close contact)' lukwhli...
/lukwhls... (\* maqtə= makhli.../makhls..., 7.1.A.1.b.67.; cf. loqaltip=
logaldip..., 7.1.A.1.b.10.):

lukWła-hitkW

'to stand right under s.t.'

...-stand

lukwhlihitkw

luk<sup>W</sup>ła-mágs

'underpants, undershorts'

...-pants

lukwhlimaks

luk<sup>w</sup>tə-kslawisk<sup>w</sup>

'undershirt'

...-shirt

lukwhlikslawiskw

7.1.A.1.b.67. maq10='right over sthg' makhli.../makhla... (= lukwhli...7.1.A.1.b.66.):

**maq la**-qús

'to skip rope'

...-jump

makhlagos

**maq+ə**-máq

'to place s.t. over s.t. else (e.g. a leg over a

...-jump

log while walking in the bush)'

**makh limak** 

## 7.1.A.1.c. List of manner proclitics:

It is sometimes difficult to know whether the following morphemes should be considered as manner proclitics or as modifiers, as some of their uses are borderline between the two. The following list is therefore tentative, and some morphemes are listed in both categories.

7.1.A.1.c.1. kWit= 'around, about' kwibl...

This proclitic, of very vague meaning, is used much more freely than the closest Standard English translations suggest.

kWit=wil

...=be, act, do

kWit=yé:

...=walk

'to be around'

to walk around'

kWitheyé:

to walk around'

- †a: kWi+=yé:-[t]=++ku-tkì+kW==a: Is the child walking yet?

  now ... walk-[3]=NC little-child==Q Hlas kw'ihlyeehl hlgutk'ihlgwa?
- '?akù qan kwit=his?á:qs-n==əst Why are you laughing?
  what CAUSE ...=laugh-2S==AFF (local: ... laughing around?)

  Agu gan kwith his aaksinis?

In some of its uses  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{k}\mathbf{w}'ihl$  behaves as modifier (5.15.B.44.), but it should be considered primarity a proclitic as it can participate in aspectual reduplication:

• kax ká?-[t]=4 wil ku)kwi4= yé:-[t]=s[t]Bàby

just.now see.s.-[3]=NC SUB ASP)...=walk-[3]=DC [DM] B.

Just look at Baby walking around!

K'az ga'ahl wil gukw'ihlyees Baby!

7.1.A.1.c.2. Saqap='without specific goal or purpose' sag'ap...

sacap∌é:

'to be out for a walk'

...=walk, go

sak apyee

sadap±is ...=push.s.

to push s.t. while on a walk (e.g. ... a baby

carriage)

sak aptis

7.1.A.1.c.3. tax=/tix='firmly, with strength' dax.../dix...

 $tax=y \hat{u}k^W-T/tix=y \hat{u}k^W-T$  to hold <u>s.t.</u> in both hands'

...=hold.s.-DEF

daxyukw-di, dixyukw-di

**tax**=kát

'to be strong'

...=person (?)

dasest

7.1.A.1.c.4. kit='firmly, unyieldingly' git...

lu:=kit=hitkW

'(movable object) to be stuck'

in=\_=stand

luumithitkw

7.1.A.1.c.5. kiwil=/kuwil='even more, even further, beyond normal reach or expectation' gyuwil... (Boas: kilwil= gilwil...)

kiwil=yé:

'(quality, state) to increase even more'

...-go

gyuvilyee

kiwil=tá:wił

'to become even less, to decrease further'

...=go.away

gyuvildaavih!

7.1.A.1.c.6. qamcin='secretly, without attracting attention' k'amts'in...

**damčin**=čin

'to come in secretly'

...=enter

k'amts'ints'in

• ni[t]=4 ki huxW qamcin=ké:4-t that's-NC and again ...=lie.down-3

Then he went back to bed without anyone knowing (153.9).

Nihl k'ii huxw k'amts'ingeehlt.

• hi)yùkW-1 qa)qamcin=wiyitkW-t S/he is crying in secret.

ASP)PROG=NCASP)...=cry-3

Hiyukwhl gak ants in wiyitkwt.

7.1.A.1.c.7. qaltim='for s.o. else, in sympathy with s.o. else' k'alt'im...

**ďalťim**=yàc+lák<sup>W</sup>

'to chop wood for s.o. else'

...=strike.s.+firewood

k'alt'imyatslakw

 $\textbf{\^{q}al\^{t}im} \texttt{=} \texttt{t\'{a}msk}^W$ 

'(lit.) to lift for s.o.'; hence (fig.) 'to feel

...=lift

[sorrow, etc.] in sympathy with s.o.

k'alt'imdamskw

7.1.A.1.c.8. la:='badly, unpleasantly, boringly, unluckily' laa...

 $la:=hitk^W$ 

'to be tired of, fed up with [doing s.t.]'

...=stand

lashitkw

la:=laxhá

'bad weather' (old word)

...=sky/weather

lasiaxha

la:=sá-tkW

'to have bad luck (esp. in hunting)'

...=day-MED

laasatkw

la:=ťá ...=† qò t...

'to be disappointed'

...=sit, stay...=NC heart ...

last'as...hl goot...

7.1.A.1.c.9. lu:pa(:)yt='idly, inappropriately, foolishly, irresponsibly, without due reflection or proper dignity (Fr. n'importe comment, à tort et a travers).

lu:payt±itílsT

'to lead a disorderly life'

...=live

luubaytdidils(t)

lu:payt=álkax

to yak away, to say any nonsense that

...=speak

comes into one's head'

luubayt-algax

lu:payt=tá+-T

'to waste s.t. throw s.t. away

...=put.away.s.pl.

irresponsibly' luubsytt'ahl-di

### 7.1.B. Prefixes:

Prefixes can be divided into grammatical and lexical prefixes. Grammatical prefixes determine the grammatical category of the word to which they are affixed. Lexical prefixes comprise a wide variety of morphemes, some of which are related to existing verbs: many have a function similar to that of the head in an unmediated compound noun or verb (9.)

7.1.B.1. Grammatical prefixes: These prefixes determine the grammatical category of the word resulting from their affixation to a stem or another word.

# 7.1.B.1.a. Prefixes indicating a grammatical category:

### 7.1.B.1.a.1. Plural prefixes:

7.1.B.1.a.1.a. The frozen plural prefix (10-): This prefix occurs in a number of plural intransitive verb forms (3.2.C.2.a.1.c.), either alone or in combination with the suffix  $\{-T\}$  (7.3.A.1.a.1.a.). The oldest forms show stress on the prefix:

sk <b>á</b> t	'to be born' <i>sgat</i>	<b>lí</b> skit	to be born (pl.)  lisgit
kúk <sup>W</sup> sk <sup>W</sup>	'to wake up'	<b>lúk</b> uk <sup>W</sup> sk <sup>W</sup>	to wake up (pl.)

With singular stems beginning with a Velar, that Velar is weakened and deleted in the intervocalic position created by the prefix, hence alternations such as:

qínx	'(tree) to fall'	línx	(trees) to fall
	gen <u>x</u>		lio <u>x</u>

Several such plurals in  $10-1i_m/la_m$  are no longer used by thenselves, but have become the bases for fully reduplicated forms (8.2.), as in

kímk	'to wipe <u>s.t.</u> '	*límk > lim)límk	to wipe <u>s.t.pl.</u> '
?a-s-ká:pax	to chatter constantly asgaaba <u>r</u>	?a-s-lip)*lá:pax	'to chatter (pl.) 'constantly' asliplaabar

In more recent forms, stress is on the base or stem:

mó:tk <sup>W</sup>	'to be cured,' saved, rescued' mootkw	lə-mó:tk <sup>₩</sup>	'to be cured, saved, rescued (pl.) limootkw
*ťé:-tkW	'to walk fast'	la-té:-T	'to walk fast (pl.)' <i>lit'eet</i>
?a-yé:	'to go fast' <i>ayee</i>	?a- <b>lə</b> -yé:-T	'to go fast (pl.)'  aliyeet

7.1.B.1.a.1.b. The Distributive plural prefix [Qa-]: This prefix is most often used in possessive phrases, before a possessed object, to indicate possession of the same type of object in equal measure by several possessors (3.2.A.2.a.), as in:

qó:t	'heart' <i>goot</i>	<b>qa-</b> qó:t-m	'our hearts'
?asisá <b>ỷ</b>	feet/legs'	<b>qa-</b> ?asisáỷ-ti:t	'their feet/legs'

It is also used productively in the modern period as a plural for intransitives and adjectives, especially those which do not have a plural formed by any other method, as in the following, which all refer to actions and qualities of several individuals:

wóx	'to bark' <i>wog</i>	<b>qa-</b> wóx	'to bark (pl.)'
xcá <b>ỷ</b>	'to be thick' <i>Ats'ay</i>	<b>qa</b> -xċáỷ	'to be thick (pl.)' <u>gaz</u> ts'aÿ

That this prefix is becoming a strictly plural prefix is shown by its used with the the following noun, relatively recently borrowed (from the Chinook Jargon, ultimately from Fr. le prêtre):

liplé:t	'priest'	<b>qa</b> -liplé:t	'priests'
	lipleet		<b>za</b> lipleet

7.1.B.1.a.2. Prefixes forming transitive verbs of dominance: The two prefixes  $\{t\partial_{-}\}$  di-/da- and  $\{kWin-\}$  gwin- can be affixed to any suitable verb to form another, transitive verb. Both have a meaning of 'dominance over the actor': physical dominance for the Dominative prefix  $\{t\partial_{-}\}$  di-/da-, mental dominance for the Jussive  $\{kWin-\}$  gwin-.

7.1.B.1.a.2.a. The DOMINATIVE prefix (to-) di-/da-: 'to take s. along while ...ing, to ... while ... ing.'

This prefix is usually attached to an intransitive verb, sometimes to a transitive verb. The verb stem is singular for a singular Object, plural for a plural Object. Semantically, the Agent of the new Dominative transitive verb performs the action described by the intransitive verb stem, with total physical dominance over the other participant, which is only passively experiencing this action.

tə-yé:	'to take <u>s.</u> for a walk, to while walking'
walk	<i>diyee</i>
tə-lə-mó:tk <sup>W</sup>	'to save, cure, rescue <u>s.o.(pl.)'</u>
PL-saved	<b>di</b> limootkw
tə-tálq talk.to.s.	'to talk with <u>s.o.</u> (have a coversation)' <i>didal<u>k</u></i>
tqal=tə-tak+	'to have/keep <u>s.o.</u> tied up, a prisoner'
against=bind.s.	<i>t<u>k</u>'al<b>d</b>idakh!</i>

Verbs formed with this prefix can have either a nominal Object, as in:

- tə-yé:-(y)ə-t=[4] 4kú:4kW-t S/he took h. child along [while walking]
  ...-walk-CTL-3=NCchild-3

  Diveryith! hlguuh!kwt.
- tə-sú:qskW-ə-[t]=+ cimilx=+ ?áxWt
  ...-dive-CTL-[3]=NC beaver=NC percupine

The beaver took the porcupine diving.

Disuuksgwihl ts'imilxhl axwt.

 min=tə-tá:wif-ə-[t]=f pilisT=f fku-tkífkW upwards=...-go.away-CTL-[3]=NC star=NC little-child The star took the child away, up into the sky.

Mindidaawihlihl bilisthi higutk ihikw.

• ksə=tə-páx-ə-[t]=s[t]txè:msim=imáx==a?==əst out=...-run-CTL-[3]=DC[DM]T.=NC\*light==ASST==AFF

Treemsim ran out with the light! (23.3.)

Ksidibaayis Treemsimh! maxa'ast!

or a clausal Object, as in:

- tə-lim[x]-ə-t=+?i:ca?-t S/he sang while ironing.
  ...-sing-CTL-3=NCironing-3

  Dilimith1 iits'='at.
- tim kax tə-ta:-(y)ə-y=+sə-ta:+i:sk-y

  FUT just.now ...-sit-CTL-1S=NC make-socks-1S

  I'll just sit down with my knitting.

  Dim k'az dit'aayiyhl sidaah liisgiy.
- ni:-ti:-t tə-?áq4kW-t tim-t tə-yé:-[t]=4x-skán-t
  not-INT-3E ...-succeed-3 FUT-3E ...-walk-[3]=NC eat-gum-3
  He can't walk and chew gum at the same time.
  Nidiit di'akhlkwt dimt diyeehl zsgant.

Most of the time, the predicate head in the Object clause (highlighted in the following examples) is an intransitive verb, as in the examples above, but in some cases it can be either intransitive or transitive, as in:

- intransitive: (note that here the verb stem is the numeral ko:l 'one [person]' k'yool):
- lip tə-kó:l-ə-t=+ sáksa?ansk -t self ...-onelperson)-CTL-3=NC clean.up-3

S/he did all the cleaning h.self.

Lip dik'yoolith! saksa'ansk vt.

• tə-?áq4kW-ə-[t]=4 cimilx t xc=kip-[t]=4 qán
...-succeed-CTL-[3]=NC beaver 3E crosswise=eat.s.-[3]=NC tree

A beaver can eat through a tree.

Di'akhlgwihl ts'imila t ats'igiphl gan.

7.1.B.1.a.2.b. The JUSSIVE prefix (kWin-) gwin- 'to tell/order s.o. to do <u>s.t.</u> to have s.o. do <u>s.t.</u> to have <u>s.t.</u> done' (Fr. <u>faire faire</u>):

Semantically, the Jussive construction implies that the Agent of the transitive verb has the right to expect that the action will be performed.

7.1.B.1.a.2.b.1. With intransitive verb: the result is a transitive verb whose Object would be the Subject of the intransitive verb to which the prefix is attached.

kWin-cín 'to tell s.o. to come in, to have s.o. come in'
...-come.in 
gvin-ts'in

kWin-kiñitkW 'to tell s.o. to get up'
...-get.up

?akù məqan?ax kWin-cin-[t]=s[t]Máry
 what 2E reason.why not ...-come.in-[3]=DC[DM] M.

Why didn't/don't you tell Mary to come in? ... have Mary come in?

Agu ma gan az gwin-ts'ins Mary?

7.1..B.1.a.2.b.2. With transitive verb: 'to have/order <u>s.t.</u> done': (If the agent actually performing the action is mentioned, the DEF suffix (-T) must be added, resulting in a frame, 7.3.A.2.a.):

kWin-quc 'to have <u>s.t.</u> cut'
...-cut.s.

- tim k in-que-0-y=1 qis-y

  FUT ...-cut.s.-CTL-1S=NC hair-1S

  (Fr. Je vais me faire couper les cheveux.)

  Dim k'ax g vin-k'ojiýhl gesiý.
- kWin-sə-mit-ə-[t]=t sim?òkit=t lákW
  ...-make-burn-CTL-[3]=NC chief=NC firewood

The chief ordered the fire lit.

(Fr. Le chef fit allumer le feu.)

Gwin-simihlihl sim'oogithl lakw.

## 7.1.B.i.b. Prefixes creating words of a particular class:

## 7.1.B.1.b.1. Prefixes forming nouns:

- 7.1.B.1.b.1.a. <u>Productive noun-forming prefixes</u>: there are only a few of these, but they are highly productive.
- 7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1. (?an-) an-: this very widely used prefix has the general meaning: 'specific source or cause of ...,' hence the resulting nouns may have concrete or abstract meanings, someitmes both (for use in forming adverbs, see 7.1.B.4.a.).
- 7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.a. With intransitive verbs: this is the most common use.
  - (1) concrete meanings:
    - (a) 'a place for doing ...'

?an-silíńskW 'hunting grounds' ...-hunting sounds'

?an-sə-má ý 'berry-picking grounds' ...-pick-berries ##SIMBBY ?an-?is 'toilet' ...-urinate an'iis (b) 'something used for ...' (compare (ha-), instrumental (7.1.B.1.a.2.); (7an-) has a more general meaning): ?an-wó:t 'merchandise for sale' ...-trading BA WOOL' ?an-lípilsk<sup>₩</sup> 'thread' ...-mending anlip'ilskw ?an-wána? 'seed' ...-planting AR WANA'A Some words which have this prefix are otherwise unidentifiable, e.g. 7an-tú:yin 'garden' ..-?? anduuyin (2) abstract meaning: deverbative: 's.t. or s.o. that causes or induces ..., instance or object of ...': ?an-xpəcáxW 's. one is afraid of ...-afraid an abits'arw ?an-sí:pinskW 'friend, lover' ...-loving ansiip'inskw

's.t. one can't afford'

an'ax'akh!

$$\mathbf{7an}$$
-[ $\mathbf{xs}$ -nə $\mathbf{k}$  $\mathbf{W}$  $\mathbf{o}$ : $\mathbf{t}$ -[ $\mathbf{t}$ ] $\mathbf{k}$  $\mathbf{W}$ ]

'adoptive father'

anxsnigwootkw

(3) Note that ambiguity may result from these various meanings, as in

'(1) drinking-place, waterhole

(2) alcohol'

an'aks

where the second meaning is obviously more modern than the first, and in

'[type of] job; place of work'

...-working

an hahlaİs

(4) Of special interest because of their frequency are three very common words:

what s.o. wants/has to say; person

...-saying

addressed' anhi

?an-hé:

'what s.o. means'

...-speaking

anhee

'who/what s.o. has got hold of'

...- ??

an win

The last word in this list is an all-purpose word, almost comparable to Fr. 'truc' or 'machin,' useful when the speaker doesn't know or doesn't bother to use the proper word. The stem \*WIN win may be a variant of WIl 'be, do, act' wil (Rigsby, p.c.), or it could also be related to Wán'to sit/exist (pl.), to set, plant s.t.'

Some sentence examples are:

• wilá:x-ə-n=+ ?anhé-y==a: know.s.-CTL-2S=NC what.o.means-1S==Q

You know what I mean? Wilasyinhl sahooya?

• ?akú=\ ?anwin-n==\text{\text{ost}} what=NCwhat.o.holds-2S==AFF

What have you got there? Aguhl an Vininis?

• ?akú=**! ?anhí**-t what=NC what.o.says What did/does s/he have to say? What is s/he talking about? Aguhl anhit?

7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.b. With locational nouns: especially with those nouns built by framing locational adverbs:

(7an-) an- can be prefixed to the frame (qa-...-a) ga...i/a... 7.3.B.1.a.) when encasing a locational adverb, to create noun-phrases with locational meaning:

on the far side of ...[a place] an Raduuw...

...-[...-on.waterfront-...]ABST

?an-[qa-ki:ks-ə]-... 'on the waterfront side of ...[a place]' angagiiksi...

 $\operatorname{an-[qa-*ki:\mathring{y}-[a]]-[t]=} \operatorname{diwinq}$  'on this side of the point [at seal' ...-[...-over.here-...] $_{ABST}$ -[3]=NC point angagiiýhl ts'iwinkhl

7.1.B.1.b.1.a.2. (ha-) ha-

(a) currently productive meaning: 's.t. used for ...' with intransitive verb. The currently productive meaning of this prefix is more concrete and instrumental than that of (7an-) an- (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.). The semantic range shows considerable extension in the post-contact pdriod, but there are many

### older instances as well.

#### (1) older words:

ha-móq	'[shaman's] sucking-tube, edible stem
suck.thru.tube	of cow-parsnip' <b>ha</b> moo <u>k</u>
ha-wil	'(Boas 1902) instrument, weapon,
act (?)	(esp. and modern) arrow' hawil
ha-táq	'grease scoop/skimmer'
skim,scoop	<b>ha</b> da <u>k</u>
ha-náks [get].married	'present given by boy's parents when asking for girl in marriage' hanaks
ha- <del>1</del> ó?	'sail'
push, shove	<b>ha</b> hlo'o

(2) more recent words: many of these are formed on detransitive (7.2.C.2.a.) or compound intransitive (9.2.A.2.) verbs:

ha-7í.ca? ironing	'[an] iron (for i	roning clothes)' <b>ha</b> 'iits'a'a
ha-x-smáx eat-meat	'fork'	ha <u>x</u> smax
ha-yò?oks+wé:n-tk wash.s.+teeth-REFL	'toothbrush'	<b>he</b> yo'oksweentkw
ha-yàla?-m+4kimát turn-ATTR+egg	'eggbeater'	<b>ha</b> yala'am-higimat

ha-min=tàmqansW-m+qatélip
...-upward=puli-ATT+anchor

'capstan, anchor winch'

hamindamk'ansgum-gadeelip

This prefix is often found with a verb starting with the proclitic  $\{\hat{\mathbf{n}}i:-\}$  -'on'  $\hat{n}ii$ ... (7.1.A.1.b.9.), so much so that the combination  $\{\hat{\mathbf{n}}\hat{\mathbf{n}}i:-\}$  had acquired the status of a prefix in its own right, with specialized meanings (7.1.B.2.b.3.c.).

## (b) frozen meanings:

(1) concrete meaning: 'having...' (with noun):

ha-kó?

'back'

...-fish.backbone

hak'yo'o

ha-táx

'steering wheel'

...-perimeter, surround

h adaax

ha-náq

'woman'

...-dress, aproa

hanak'

(2) abstract meaning: 'cause, instance of ...' (similar to one meaning of {?an-} an- (7.1.3.1.3.1.a.1.a.):

ha-có:q

's.t. one is ashamed of

...-askamed

haiook

**ha**-lúx<sup>W</sup>-s>halúk<sup>W</sup>s

's.t. one doesn't want to let others have'

...-refuse, deny-MED

halukws

ha-sáq

's.t. one needs or wants'

...-?? (cf. SáXkW 'to agree'?)

hesek

(3) unknown meanings: the prefix is also recognizable in more opaque words, such as

7.1.B.1.b.1.b. Non-productive noun-forming prefixes:

This prefix is only used with two terms of address. It may be related to  $\frac{1}{k}u/\frac{1}{k}$  W  $\frac{1}{6}$  'little'  $\frac{h}{g}v$  (5.15.B.36.), or to  $\frac{k}{4}$  'poor, miserable (unable to provide for h.self)'  $\frac{1}{g}vee'e$ .

It is possible that historically the same prefix may be involved in **kWiná** to ask for <u>s.t.</u> gwina, but **kWiné**: XkW '[s.t.] to be cold gwineexkw is probably from a different derivation.

This prefix warrants special mention because of the semantic importance of the words it is attached to. It is found only in five of the six senior kinship terms (referring to an ascendant generation\_), but its origin is probably grammatical rather than lexical, as shown by a comparison with Coast Tsimshian where it indicates alienated possession.

For four of these words, the related term of address does not include the prefix:

REFE	RENCE	ADDR	ESS
nə-yé?	'grandfather' <b>n</b> iye'e	yé?	Ye'e!
<b>nə</b> -čí∙ċ	'grandmother' nits'iits'	cíc	Jiits!
<b>nə</b> -píp	'maternal uncle' <b>ni</b> bip	pí p	Biip!
nə-xtá:	'aunt (esp. paternal)' <b>n</b> ixdaa	ta:tá	Daada!

The fifth term also includes the prefix, although the corresponding term of address is different:

	nigwoot	Pu.pu Raahai
nə-k <sup>w</sup> ó:t	'father'	pa:pá

The remaining senior kinship term:

хòи	'mother'	ná:?
<b>no</b> <u>x</u>		Naa'a!

also begins with initial /n/, which here is part of the root (as shown by the term of address and by the plural 'mothers' noonar, 8.2., Type 1--archaic-reduplication). Perhaps this phonological coincidence helped retain the /n/-initial prefix on the other members of this noun set (for other interesting properties of this set, see 3.2.A.1.).

7.1.B.1.b.1.b.3. (qa-) ga- This prefix, homophonous with the Distributive prefix (7.1.B.1.a.1.b.), forms a small number of nouns with locational meaning, which are used in phrases headed by other nouns. In several cases, the unprefixed base is not used in isolation, although it may be found in other derivatives:

qa-\*lá:n '[at the] rear of ..., past ...' ...-rear, stern **#2**/88.0 ... qa-ksilkW '[at the] miu-point of ...' ...-middle geksihlkw... qa-\*tó? '[at] a point beyond ...(??)' ...-\*place.beyond?? gadoo'o... e.g. qalán-ý 'after me, after I leave' rear.of.s.-1S galaaniÿ qató:?-[t]=4 kó:c 'the day before yesterday' place, beyond.s.??--[3]=NC yesterday gadoo'ohi k'yoots

## 7.1.B.1.b.2. Prefixes used with numerals (see 5.4.):

## 7.1.B.1.b.2.a. Forming nouns from numerals meaning 'one':

7.1.B.1.b.2.a.1. (məfə-) 'each, every ...' mahli-/mihlaThis prefix is attached to pumerals massing 'englished to a

This prefix is attached to numerals meaning 'one', and the meaning of the resulting word is 'each one ..., every one of ...'. These words are used like numerals in noun-phrases (5.4.B.1.).

mətə-kó:l 'each/every [person]'
...-one[person]

mahlik'yool...

• mə4ə-kì]-[t]=4 sá ?i: ...
...-one(thing)-[3]=NC day and ...

Every day, ...

Mahlik'ilhl sa ii ...

• ?álkax=† mə+ə-kò:|-[t]=†kát Every man spoke.

speak=NC ...-one(person)-[3]=NC man

Algazhi mahlik'yoolhi gat.

7.1.B.1.b.2.a.2. (Stə-) sdi-/sda- forms nouns from numerals meaning one in the 'human' and 'animal' categories. These nouns designate companions, and the prefix is probably related to the verb Stil 'to accompany s.o.' sdil.

sta-kó:l 'companion, playmate [of an older child ...-one[person] or an adult]' sdik'yool

sta-ké:kW 'companion, playmate [of a young child ...-one[animal] sdik'eekw

(Note the use of the 'animal' number for a child presumably below the 'ago of reason').

7.1.B.1.b.2.b. With other numerals: (CU:-) 'the ...eth' ts'uu- forms ordinals (which are not adjectives):

 ču:-kWilán

'third [animal]'

...-three [animals]

ts'uugwilan

Boas 1985 also gives a form built on 'one', which seems now obsolete:

An - kil

'first [object]'

...-one [object]

ts'uuk'il

•  $m \acute{a} s k^W = 1$  wilkat-[t]=1  $\acute{k} \grave{e} k^W - T$ -[t]=1 ?ús brown=NC color-[3]=NC one [animal]-DEF=NC dog ?i: $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ a:= $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ is) $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ ú: $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ k W-[t]= $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$   $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ u:- $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ ip $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ a:t-ət and in.spots=PL)black-[3]=ND ...-two[animals]-REL

> One dog is brown, and the other one has black spots. Maskwhl wilgathl k'eegwihl us ii naat'ist'uuts'kwhl ts'uut'ipxaadit.

#### 7.1.B.1.b.3. Prefixes forming adjectives:

7.1.B.1.b.3.a. (kS-) '[to be] most ...' ks- is generally prefixed to a word with locational meaning:

(1) with adverb: (5.14.):

ks-ké:w

'(to be) at the lowest point in the village'

...-close.to.water

hence fig. 'to be humble' kseew

ks-kiké:nix

'to be furthest upriver'

...-upriver (loc.)

ksgigeenix

(2) with noun: (locational meaning):

ks-qalá:n

'Ito be last'

...-[at] rear

ksgalaan

 $ks-f\acute{a}x^W > ksl\acute{a}x^W$  '[to be] undermost' kslaxw  $ks-s\acute{l}k^W > ks\acute{l}k^W$  '[to be] in the middle' ksilkw

### 7.1.B.1.b.4. Adverb-forming prefixes:

7.1.B.1.b.4.a. (?an-) an-This prefix forms mostly nouns (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.), many of which mean 'place of ...,' but it can also be prefixed to some adverbs of place, resulting in new adverbs. It is not clear at this point what the meaning difference is between plain and prefixed adverbs.

?an-tú:₩ over.there	'over there, (at a place over there?)'
<b>?an</b> -kálq	'outside, (at a place outside?)'
over.there	<b>en</b> duu iv
<b>?an</b> -tó:sta?	on the opposite side [of a dividing
on.other.side	obstacle, whether concrete or abstract)]
	an doosda'a
<b>?an</b> - <b>*</b> tó:? s.beyond?	'next door, in the other room/house'
J.Doyottu;	An doo'o

7.1.B.1.b.4.b.  $(k\partial -)$  gi-/ga- forms a number of adverbs of place or time, including an interrogative adverb. This prefix is also recognizable in several cases where the rest of the word is not. (Where the stem word begins with a glottal stop, the latter is deleted, by a rule which is no longer productive, 10.2.A.2.b.2.a.(4)).

#### (1) adverbs of place:

kə-*lá:n	'in the stern'	
stern/rear		gilaan
<b>kə</b> -có: <del>1</del>	in the confined	space behind s.t. (e.g.
space.behind	between door an	d wall, between village
	and woods	gits'ooh!
<b>k∂</b> -*álq	'outside'	
??		gal <u>k</u>

The adverb kililx 'further up the/a hill, on the/a mountain' gililx appears superficially to include the same prefix, but the CT cognate gyilhawli'id.' shows that here the prefix is \* (kil-) (which could be an alternate form of (kin-) gin-7.1.B.2.b.3.c.).

### (2) adverbs of time: usually 'last ... [time period]'

kə-má:tim winter	'last winter'	gimaadim
k∂-*?áxk <sup>W</sup> night	'last night'	gazkw
kə-kú:t year	'many years ago'	gik'uuhl
<b>kə</b> -txítk <sup>W</sup> ??	'last year'	gitzetkw

This series also includes the interrogative (see 5.6.A.1.b.):

<b>kə</b> -?áx-kú>kaxkú	'When?'
not-s.t., what	<b>g</b> a <u>xg</u> u

7.1.B.1.5. <u>Prefixes forming multiple categories</u>: The semantic range of these prefixes recalls that of modifiers (5.15.), which can be associated with the major word-classes, and they may well be former modifiers (cf. modifiers used as prefixes, 7.1.B.3.a.).

7.1.B.1.5.a. (7a-) a- (not productive except in frame).

This prefix is often associated with the modifier lip 'self' lip (5.15.B.3.) which reinforces the meaning, especially in the frame lip-7a...-[t]kW/-S (7.3. A.1.a.2.a.1.b.) lip-a...(t)kw/...s which is productive.

(1) from nouns or intransitive verbs, forms intransitive verbs and adjectives: the meaning seems to be generally 'naturally, spontaneously, early, precociously, without outside impulse or help,' but it may be obscured.

<b>?a-</b> ỷáns leaf	Aiyansh = 'leafing early, early leaves' <i>Ayans</i>
?a-*lá:n stern, rear	'slow' (spontaneously in the rear?'
<b>7a</b> -más grow	to grow faster than usual, to have a growth spurt, (plant) to grow wild
?a-skí lie, be [object]	ಷಾಲಿವರ 'abnormal, ಅಳ್ಳು, comical' <b>asgi</b>

The same prefix seems to be recognizable at the beginning of the transitive verbs ?anó: q'to like, approve of, s.' anook and ?anó: l'to allow, condone s.' anool, which seem to be derived from a common (intransitive) stem, but the rest of the words is not identifiable.

### (2) forms nouns or pronouns:

?a-kú 'what?, something, anything' ...-something?

(The stem kú gu recurs in various words, see 5.6.A.1.b.1. and 7.1.B.1.b.4.b.(2)). The same prefix seems to be recognizablee at the beginning of nouns such as ?anísT 'branch' anis(t), ?aná:X 'flour, bread' anaax, ?aná:S 'skin' anaas, but the rest of the words cannot be identified. The word ?anú¹ 'drum' anuhl' is originally probably from ?an-\*hú¹ \*an-huhl, as shown by the CT cognate nahool.

(3) <u>forms modifier</u>: (cf. **5**.15.B.3.f.)

lip-?a-ná: '... as the only one who ...'
self-...-someone lip-anaa

7.1.B.1.b.5.b. (liks-) 'different, not normal or proper' liks...

(1) with noun: forms noun:

liks-ýáns 'weeds'

...-leaf, blade of grass liksyans

liks-cáp 'a village not one's own'
...-organized group, tribe, village

liksts'ap

(2) with verb:

a. forms noun:

liks-tá: 'island'

...-stay, exist, sit likst'aa

b. forms adjective:

7.1.B.1.b.5.c. (MO-) mi/ma (non-productive): Some of the few words containing this prefix suggest that its meaning is 'like, resembling...', but the stem is not always identifiable.

#### (1) forms adjective:

ma-hanád 'effeminate' ...-woman mihanak'/mahanak' ma-wácx 'naughty, crazy' ...-otter mi watsz (2) forms nouns: ma-lit. 'steelhead' ...-? (here, not 'wedge') milit mə-\*ýé:n 'smoke' ...-sthg.unpleasant? (cf. CT yaan 'excrement') **mi**ÿeen ma-?ó:qay 'slime dripping from oolichans' mi'ook'av

7.1.B.1.b.5.d. (sil-) sil...

(1) forms noun from other noun: 'fellow ..., companion of the same kind'

sil-kát 'fellowman, neighbour' (Biblical sense) ...-man/person silgat sil-hanád "fellow woman" (woman companion of ...-Woman another woman)(Boas 1902)' silhanak' sil-ló?op 'whetstone' (formerly used to sharpen ...-stone stone axe, etc.) sillo'op (2) forms transitive verb from intransitive: 'to ... together with s.o.' sil-qalá:q to play with so. ...-play silgalaak' sometimes with the Distributive prefix (qa-) ga...: sil-qa-wíl 'to associate, keep company with, s.o. ...-play to be together with s.o. while doing s.t. silgawil This prefix or combination of prefixes is productive when in a frame, 7.3.A.2.b. 1.(a). 7.1.B.1.b.5.e. (qal-) gal... original meaning perhaps invisibly, without visible goal or result' (1) forms nouns: a. 'empty ...' qal-7inq 'traditional storage box' ...-trad.storage.box ral'ink

lax-qal-hu)wilp site.of-...-PL)house

qal-\*yin

...-enter?

'empty house sites' (from which most of the timbers were removed when the village was moved) (147.4)

to go into a house secretly (esp. for

**zal**yin

nefarious or immoral purposes)'

laxgalhuwilp

b. 's.t. empty of ...: site of ..., empty place normally used for ...'

qal-?amí 'th roat' ...-voice gal'ami qal-cáp 'village' ...-organized group, tribe, etc. galts'ap qal-cip 'skinny person' ...-bone galts'ip qal-\*tó? 'in the wild, in the forest' (= where ...-s. beyond? people live) galdoo'o (2) forms verbs: 'without showing anything (?)' qal-witkW to come back empty-handed from ...-be.back hunting' **ESIWILKW** 

7.1.B.2. <u>Lexical prefixes</u>: Although most of these prefixes determine the grammatical category of the resulting word, they have a very precise lexical meaning, unlike the more general prefixes listed in 7.1.B.1. Many of them are probably former compounding elements ("cranberry-type" morphemes). The following list does not claim to be complete.

### 7.1.B.2.a. Prefixes forming verbs:

7.1.B.2.a.1. Prefixes forming intransitive verbs, mostly from nouns: These prefixes are only used in composition. The meaning of the resulting verb is comparable to that of an unmediated compound (9.2.A., 9.2.A.1.). In a few cases, the prefix is identical to the stem or base of an existing verb, but there are reasons for treating the resulting verb as a prefixed form rather than a compound (see 7.1.B.2.a.1.b.).

## 7.1.B.2.a.1.a. Prefixes presently unrelated to existing verbs:

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.1. (hi:-) 'to go to ... [a place]' hii-...: can be prefixed to any noun with suitable meaning.

hi:-kinqúlx
...-Kincelith

hii-Gingolx

hi:-qaltimwół
...-store

hii-galdimwoot'

'to go to the store'
...-store

hii-galdimwoot'

'to go to the hospital' (e.g. to visit a patient)

hii-wilpsiipkw

This prefix cannot be attached to an adverb, e.g. one cannot say \*hi:-ké:c for 'to go downriver' (\* hii-geets' is wrong).

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.2. (SƏ-) si.../sa... This extremely productive prefix has the general meaning 'to bring [noun] into use.' It applies mostly to two semantic domains: supplies (esp. of food) and artifacts. (for transitive use, see 7.1.B.2.a.2.).

(a) 'to pick/harvest/catch and/or process ...'

sə-hó:n fish (saimon)	'to catch and process salmon' <i>sihoon</i>
SƏ-Sá:k	'to catch and process oolichans'
oolichans	<i>sisaak</i>
SƏ-cáq	'to dig for clams'
clam	<i>sits'a<u>k</u>'</i>
sə-má:ỷ	'to pick berries'
berries	<i>simaay</i>
SƏ-tilx oolichan.grease	'to render oolichan grease' sit'ilx
<b>SƏ-<u>k</u>ó<u>f</u>i:</b> coffee	'to make coffee' <i>sikoofii</i>

This prefix can also be used with a transitive suffix, in a frame, 7.3.A.2.a.6.

(b) 'to make [and complete] ... (baskets, garments, etc.)':

sə-?á:t	'to make a fishnet'
fishnet	<i>si aat</i>
SƏ-k <sup>W</sup> ilá	'to make a blanket'
blanket	sigwila
sə-pčá:n totem.pole	'to make and erect a totem pole'  sipts'aan
sə-ta:4í:sk	'to knit'
socks	<b>sidaah</b> liisk

SO-SWÉTA to make a sweater sisweta

These words refer to the total work of making the object, from start to finish. For work in progress, or for more ambitious, lengthier undertakings, such as building a house, a suffix is used, resulting in a frame, 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.3.

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.3. (Sin-) sia... 'to chase ..., to go after ..., to try to catch ...': can be used with the name of any suitable prey.

sin-típin 'to hunt sealions'
...-sealion sint ibin

sin-hó:n 'to go after fish'
...-fish (salmon) sinhoon

sin-hanád 'to chase women'
...-woman sinhanak'

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.4. (tu:-) duu... 'to get/fetch ... [s.t. ready]' (without the effort implied in (SO-) se.../sa..., 7.1.B.2.a.1.a.3.): can be affixed to any suitable noun.

tu:-hó:n 'to get fish' (e.g. buy it from s.o.)

...-fish (salmon)

tu:-lákW 'to get firewood' (e.g. cut by s.o. else,
...-firewood from the shed, etc.) duulakw

tu:-tá:la 'to get money' (e.g. withdraw it at the
...-money bank) duudaala

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.5. (til-) til... 'to be in charge of ... (especially of assigning a team of people their proper roles or shares).' Can be attached to any noun of suitable meaning.

til-sák

to oversee the colichan fishery and

...-money

processing' t'ilsaak

til-lú lad

...-corpse

to be in charge of funeral

arrangements' E'illuulag'

The following example with an intransitive verb as stem seems modern and probably influenced by English:

til-mí:luk $^{W}$ 

to be in charge of a dance'

...-dancing

t'ilmiilukw

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.6. (X-)  $\underline{x}$ ... An extremely productive suffix in its current meaning, but with older extant meanings as well.

(a) currently productive meaning: 'to eat/drink/consume ...'

**x**-hó:n

'to eat fish (salmon)'

...-fish (salmon)

**Z**hoon

x-kó:fi:

'to drink coffee'

...-coffee

**x**koofii

**x**-miýén

'to smoke (tobacco)'

...-smoke/cigarette

xmiýsen

(b) older meaning: 'to receive/take one's rightful share of ..., to exercise one's rightful claim to ..., to lay claim to ...' (this is probably the original meaning from which (a) derives):

x-kWilá

to receive a blanket (as a witness to a

...-blanket

public ceremony)' Agwila

**x**-tá:la to receive money (as a participant in a ...-money (< dollar) public ceremony) zdaala x-sqanisT to climb mountains, to hunt in the ...-fish (salmon) mountains': prob. orig. 'to exercise one's rightful claim to a mountain territory' Asgan ist **x**-liks-náks 'to commit adultery' ...-different-spouse xliksnaks **x**-hó?oks 'Iskin] to have a rash, i.e. to require an ...-balsam fir application of balsam fir resin' Tho'oks

Some stems occur only with this prefix, e.g.

X-kayt 'traditional reward/payment for certain services' xkayh!

7.1.B.2.a.1.a.7. (yu:-) yuu... 'to wield ..., to manipulate ... skillfully': this prefix is attached to words designating objects the proper use of which requires specific skill.

yu:-hatá:x 'to steer a boat, drive a car'
...-sterring.wheel yuuhadaar

yu:-?anút 'to play the drum(s)'
...-drum yuu'anuh!

yu:-halímx 'to play the piano or organ'
...-musical instr. (not wind) yuuhalimx

This prefix is also found with a suffix, in a frame, 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.4.

7.1.B.2.a.1.b. <u>Prefixes related to verbs</u>: These are identical in snape to existing verb stems. Formally, they are like the first component of verbal compounds (9.2.A.).

7.1.B.2.a.1.b.1. <u>Prefixed verbs with the structure of unmediated compounds</u>: (see 9.2.A.1.): A transitive verb found in a compound has the same meaning within the compound as it has in isolation. If not, the shape is treated here as a prefix.

7.1.B.2.a.1.b.1.a. (?is-) is... 'to smell of ...': can be added to any noun of suitable meaning.

715-hó.n	'to smell of fish'
fish (salmon)	<i>i<b>s</b>hoon</i>
<b>?is-</b> lá:m	'to smell of alcohol'
aicohol (< <u>rum</u> )	<i>islaam</i>
lu:= <b>?is</b> -?ús in=dog	'(house) to smell of dog'  luu'ās'us
ni:-ti: is-kú-t not-INTSs.t3	It doesn't have a smell (lit. it doesn't smell of anything). <i>Nidii isgut</i> .

This prefix is identical to the stem of the intransitive verb ?ISkW 'to stink' iskw. It is likely that it is a former transitive verb, but it is not presently used as such.

7.1.B.2.a.1.b.1.b. (kWa:S-) gwass... 'to borrow ...': can be added to any noun of suitable meaning.

'to borrow money'

K VEESdaala

$${f k}^{f W}{f a}:{f s}$$
-haxbé:qsk $^{f W}$ 

'to borrow a saw'

..-saw

#washaxbeekskw

• na:mkWa:s-haxbé:qskW nì y lòn I would like to borrow your saw.

wanting ...-saw me Naam-gwaashaxbeekskw niiy loon.

There is a transitive verb  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{a}:\mathbf{S}-\mathbf{T}$  gwaas-di with the meaning to give <u>s.o.</u> a loan', where the Direct Object is the beneficiary of the loan, and the thing loaned an optional Prepositional phrase:

• tim **k W a:s-**T-ə-ỷ rìin ?a=+ haxbé:qsk W-ỷ FUT lend.to.s.-DEF-CTL-1S you PREP=NC saw-1S

I will lend you my saw.

Dim gwassdiý niin ahl hazbeeksgwiý.

The original meaning of **kWa:**S gwaas is probably 'to be indebted for ...', hence with transitivizing suffix 'to cause <u>s.o.</u> to be indebted for ...'.

7.1.B.2.a.1.b.1.c. (si:p-) siip... 'to have a ...ache'

The number of words formed with this prefix is small, as with the equivalent English compounds. The semantic range is not exactly the same as that of English, but the words affected are all body parts.

'to have a headache'

...-head

siipt'imges

si:p-wé:n

'to have a toothache'

...-teeth

siip ween

Si:p-ce:w 'to have diarrhea' ...-insides, guts

Siipts'eew

This prefix is identical with the stem or base of the stative verb Si:pkW 'to hurt, ache, be sick' siipkw, but it is not used in isolation.

7.1.B.2.a.1.b.2. Prefixed verb with the structure of a mediated compound: (see 9.2.A.2.): (kim-) gim-... 'to buy ... [sg. Object]'

This prefix can be used with any singular, pair or mass noun of suitable meaning, as in:

kim-ksláwisk<sup>W</sup> 'to buy a shirt'

...-shirt **Rim-**kslawiskw

kim-pót 'to buy a boat'

...-boat Rim-boot

kim-winé:x 'to buy groceries'

...-food

kim-cawaqs 'to buy [a pair of] shoes'

...-[pair.of]shoes

This restriction to a non-plural noun is not shared by the other intransitive-verb-forming prefixes, but differentiation between singular and plural nouns sometimes occurs with mediated compound verbs (9.2.A.2.), so the prefix could be considered as the first half of such a verb. Formally, the prefix also ends in /m/which could be the ATTR suffix characteristic of these compounds.

For a plural noun, the prefix is replaced by toqa?—In dok'a'am-..., which displays all the features of the first half of a mediated compound, as in

tòqa?-m·cáwaqs take.s.pl.DETR-ATTR+[pair.of] shoes

'to buy [two or more pairs of] shoes'

dok's'sm-ts'awags

tòqa?-m+?am?úkit

'to buy clothes'

take.s.pl.DETR-ATTR+clothes

dok's am-am'ugit

It is likely that the prefix (kim-) gim-... is indeed a reduced form of the first hal of a mediated compound. It could be related to the transitive verb ki:kW to buy st.' giikw; with base \* ki: or to the transitive verb kú:[t] to take/buy st.(sg.)' guu, the plural of which is tóq to take/buy st.(pl.)' dok, the stem of tóqa? dok'a'a which is used with a plural noun. This uncertainty and the loss of the distinctive quality of the vowel in the unstressed prefix make it safer to treat kim gim-... as a prefix in the current state of the language.

# 7.1 B.2 a.2. Prefixes forming transitive verbs from other parts of speech:

7.1.B.2.a.2.a. (ksə-) ksi.../ksa...

'to remove [noun] from s.

ksə-más

'to peel s.t.'

...-peel/bark

**ksi**maas

ksə-yáns

'to weed s.t.'

...-leaf, grass

ksiyans

This prefix also occurs in a frame, 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.2. It is homophonous with the Proclitic  $(kS\partial =)$  'out' ksi.../ksa... and may well have the same historical origin, but it cannot be identified with it synchronically. It also differs from the homophonous noun-forming prefix  $(kS\partial -)$  'fresh ...' ksi.../ksa..., 7.1.B.2.b.3.d.

7.1.B.2.a.2.b. (SƏ-) si.../sa...

'to make, cause ... [a process]'

This is the same prefix as above (7.1.B.2.a.1.a.2.), but here it is used with adjectives and intransitive verbs, so it seems preferable to place this use in a

different category.

(1) with adjective: 'to make s. ... (-er, more) ...'

SƏ-láỷ 'to enlarge s.t.'

...-large [in capacity] silay

SƏ-?á:m 'to improve s.t.'

...-geod si'aam/sa'aam

SƏ-SÁQ 'to sharpen s.t.'

...-sharp sisak

(2) with intransitive verb: this use is not productive:

so-más/so-límqsT 'to raise, grow s. (children, animals,

...-grow/...-grow.PL plants)' simas/silimks(t)

SƏ-tá: 'to start s.t.'

...-exist, stay, sit

7.1.B.2.a.2.c.  $\{tu: x-\}$  duux... 'to go all the way to the ... [noun] of s.'

tu:x-hakó? 'to go all the way to the back of s.t.'

...-back duuxhak'yo'o

tu:x-qap 'to go through to the end [of a line] of s.'

...-end, piece, butt douz 'ap

7.1.B.2.b.1.a. <u>Prefixes forming nouns</u>: There are a number of these, with apparently varied origins. Some seem to be 'cranberry-type' morphemes, others can be related to existing forms, yet others have no other associations. The classification below is based on broad categories for convenience.

## 7.1.B.2.b.1. Nouns designating persons:

7.1.B.2.b.1.a. (kit-) git... 'people of ...' (reduced form of kát 'man, person, people' gat ): may be prefixed to locational adverbs or nouns, including place-names.

kit-?ayans 'the people of Aiyansh' ...-Aiyansh Git-Ayans **kit**-kiké:nix 'the upriver people (= of Aiyansh)' ...-upriver [loc.] Gitgigeenix kit-?antó:sta? the opposition (e.g. the other team, ...-on.the.opp.side etc.)

This prefix enters into a number of place-names and may designate both the customary occupants of a place and the place itself:

Rit-andoosda'a

kit-wil/win-ksi+kW '[the people of] Canyon City' ...-where/LOC-salamander Gitwinksihlkw

This prefix also enters into a frame, 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.9.

7.1.B.2.b.1.b. (kSim-) ksim... 'person [esp. woman] originating from ... [a group] (probably from the former custom of taking foreign women as captives):

(1) 'person from ... [a group]'

ksim-níkin 'black person'

...-black.person ksimaigia

(2) 'woman from ... [a group]'

ksim-lax-kipú:

'woman of the Wolf tribe'

...-on-wolf

ksim Lazgibuu

ksim-háytax

'Haida woman'

...-Haida

ksim Haydax

ksim-?ax-qa-qó:t-ət ...-not-DIST-heart-REL

'loose woman' (lit. 'woman from the

Irresponsibles')

ksim axgagoodit

ksim-qá:kt

'Mouse Woman (a mythical character)'

...-mouse

Ksim Gaakh!

(compare hanàq-m qá:k i female mouse hanak am gaakh!).

#### 7.1.B.2.b.2. Measures:

Some nouns designating measures are formed by prefixing a numeral to a noun. If the numeral ends in a glottalized consonant, preconsonantal deglottalization applies (10.1.B.1.b.2.b.)

7.1.B.2.b.2.a. Fathoms: measures up to nine fathoms are built on the noun qa:x 'armspan' k'aar (see 7.1.B.2.c.2. for 'ten fathoms').

kíl-qá:x > kilqá:x

one fathom'

one-...

k'ilk'aax

 $k^{W}il\acute{a}\dot{l}$ - $\dot{q}\acute{a}:x > k^{W}ilal\dot{q}\acute{a}:x$  'three fathoms'

three-...

gvilalk'aax

When measuring cloth, one fathom is equivalent to two yards.

7.1.B.2.b.2.b. Handspans: built on the noun Saqans 'handspan' sak ans (only used in this context). The (originally plural) suffix (-ti:) ...dii (7.2.A.1.b.) may be added (cf. suffix (-ta) ...da in 7.1.B.2.b.2.d.); it is not clear at this point what the difference is between suffixed and unsuffixed forms.

This set comprises measures from one to three hanspans; four handspans correspond to half a fathom, or a yard.

7.1.B.2.b.2.c. Another set of measures is formed on the stem \*?ún 'hand, arm, un (the current word is the originally plural ?an?ún 'hand(s), arm(s)' an un). This stem is also used in the transitive verb ?ún-T 'to portion/measure out s.t.' un(t)-di.

Boas (1911) gives this set as meaning 'fathoms', and many older men use it in preference to, or interchangeably with, the ... Qá:X ... k'aar set (7.1.B.2.b.2.a.); but women use it to mean 'handfuls' and especially to translate the English measure 'cup,' for instance when measuring flour for breadmaking. Many people appear to be unaware that the other sex uses this set of measure words with a different meaning, for different activities.

7.1.B.2.b.2.d. <u>Periods of days</u>: In this category there seem to be only words for 'four days' and 'ten days.' The stem for these words appears to be an older form of the word Sá 'day' sa. The long vowel recalls an earlier final /h/ which is

also pronounced in formal speech (see 2.1.B.3.b.3.a.). The frozen plural suffix (-ta) ...da recalls the suffix (-ti:) ...dii on the 'handspan' set (7.1.B.2.b.2.b) (Both suffixes are discussed in 7.2.A.1.).

**txalpx**-\*sáh-ta four-...-PL

'four-day period' (important for ritual

purposes)

tyalpysaada

(see 7.1 B.2.c.2. for 'ten-day period').

7.1.B.2.b.2.e. <u>Travellers</u>: or rather, 'persons in a canoe, boat or vehicle.' For these words, numerals are prefixed to the base tá:t dast which is used by itself with the meaning 'crew member' and which occurs also in kwitá:t 'to be in a canoe, boat, etc. by oneself' kwidaat (it is not clear what the derivation of this word is). Only the word for 'to be four in a canoe, etc.' seems to be in use, as four was the normal crew of a canoe in the old days.

**txalpx**-tá:t

'to be four in a canoe, boat, vehicle'

txalpxdaat

four-crew

7.1.B.2.b.3. Nouns designating objects with salient characteristics:

7.1.B.2.b.3.a. (7am-) am... This prefix seems to be derived from the adjective ?á:m'good' aam.

(1) 's.t. [only] good for ...'

a. with noun:

?am-máil

'cottonwood' (formerly used for small

...-canoe

river canoes) ammaal

?am-haláyt

'carved ceremonial headdress'

...-shaman, shaman's dance

amhalayt

The noun ?amí 'voice' ami is from ?am-hí( hí 'saying' hi), recorded in Boas. The transitive verbs ?amqó:[t] to remember s. amgoo(t) seems to contain this prefix too. The stem is probably qó:t 'heart' goot. The adjective ?amqó:kit 'pretty, beautiful (us. not persons)' amgoogit must have been originally an unmediated compound (9.2.A.1.).

(2) 'old ... [too old to be useful]' (\* **k**SƏ= 'fresh' *ksi.../ksa...*, 7.1.B.2.b.3.d.):

It is difficult to tell whether this is an entirely different although homophonous prefix, or rather the same prefix with an extension of the meaning in a peculiar direction: 'formerly' good for ...'. Several words where the prefix has this meaning also occur without the prefix, apparently with the same meaning:

<b>?am</b> -háyxk <sup>W</sup>	'old rotten tree'
[wood] rotten	(am)hayzkw
?am-ćé:ử	'fish guts'
insides, entrails	amts'eeŵ

7.1.B.2.b.3.b. (?antə-) andi.../anda...: this prefix forms nouns designating relatively small, portable, closable containers (= (qaltim-) galdim..., 7.1.B.2.b. 3.f.). The semantic range includes both older and more recent forms.

(1) with noun: (most productive):

?antə-hawil 'quiver' wolls-... andahawil ?antə-ksə-hó:n 'jar of fish' ...-fresh-fish andiksihoon ?antə-cá:m jar or can of jam' ...-iam andijaam ?antə-tá:la purse, wallet' ...-money (< dollar) andidaala ?anta-?is/?anta-?is 'bladder' ...-urine/...-\*stink? anda'iis/ande'is

(For the last word, both pronunciations are current).

(b) with intransitive verb: (not productive):

?antə-wó:t 'pocket' ...-trading andiwoot'

7.1.B.2.b.3.c. (haňi:-) hadii...

This prefix, now often pronounced /ani/, derives from the combination of the instrumental prefix (ha-) ha... (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.) with the locational proclitic (hi:-) 'down on...' hii... (7.1.A.1.b.9.). This combination, receiving many applications in the modern period, has also acquired specialized meanings, warranting treating it as a single prefix.

(1) Basic meaning, combining those of (ha-) ha... 'instrumental' and

## (ni:-) down on... nii...:

a. with intransitive verb: 's.t. for ...ing on': applies mostly to words designating various pieces of post-contact household equipment, the useful parts of which are horizontal. The intransitive stem may be an intransitive verb, including a compound verb:

haniit'aa

han iiba'an sgum-aks

hani-tá: 'chair' ...-sit

hani-?i.ca? 'ironing board'

..-ironing hanii iits'a'a

hani-yaq+á:t 'net-drying rack'

...-nang+net **hzé**iiÿa<u>k</u>-aat

hani:-pà?ansk\(^4\)-m+?áks 'eavestrough'

...-run.AP-ATT+water

b. with noun: 'place for ...': the use of the prefix with a noun is probably modern, derived from its use with a verb:

hani:-tétx baby's bib'

...-saliva, drool **hadii**bleetr

hani:-wé:n 'gum(s)'

...-teeth **haë ii v**een

- (2) <u>specialized meanings</u>: these probably derive from translations of English expressions including the preposition 'on':
  - a. 's.t. written: document, book':

'bill'

...-ask.AP

haniik'it'ak'askw

hani-maqònisk -m+álkax

'dictionary'

...-get.explanation-ATT+word, talk

haniimagoonisgum-algas

(This word was coined in 1985 by the Rev. Hubert McMillan).

b. 'day of ...': The use of the prefix for naming days dates from the missionary period. It probably started with those days characterized by the specific activities prescribed by the missionaries:

'Sunday'

...-rest

han iisgwaaytkw

'Saturday'

...-contribute [money to the church]

haniiyeek

The use of the prefix has been extended to the names of the other days (except Monday), which include a numeral phrase (cf. 5.4.B.1.):

hani-kilpil-[t]=+sa

'Tuesday'

...-two-[3]=NC day

**Han ii**gilp'ilhl sa

hani-kWstins-[t]=+sà

'Friday'

...-five-[3]=NC day

Haniikwsdinshi sa

as well as to:

hani-skát

'birthday'

...-be.born

**hen**iiseat

7.1.B.2.b.3.c. (ksa-) ksi.../ksa...

There seem to be two separate prefixes here, both identical in shape to the proclitic meaning 'out' (7.1.A.1.b.3.) and the verb-forming prefix meaning 'to remove...' (7.1.B.2.a.2.a.).

(1) 'fresh ... [noun]' (probably: 'freshly removed' ? cf. the verb-forming prefix):

ksə-smáx 'fresh meat'

..-meat ksismar

ksə-lú:x green alderwood

..-alder ksiluur

(2) 'water, fluid, juice, sap, etc. of ...': the prefix is included in the names of some streams as well as in words for various fluids. It seems to be a truncated form of ?ákS-a: ... 'water of ...' aksa.../aksi... (Boas 1911; see also compound nouns, 9.1.B.1.):

ksa-lísims 'Nass River water'

...-Nass River ksiLisims

ksə-mociks 'mother's milk'

...-breast **ksim**oots'iks

ksə-cál 'fluid oozing from the eyes' ...-eye(s)

7.1.B.2.b.3.e. {kWi:S-} gwiis 'large piece of cloth or skin, garment, outfit, for/of/with ...' (probably related to kWilá 'blanket' gwila). Used quite productively.

### (1) with noun:

kWi:s-haláyt 'Chilkat blanket'

...-shaman gviishalayt

kWi:s-qanmala? 'button blanket'

...-button gwiisganmala'a

kWi:s~miksit 'ermineskin blanket'

...-ermine/weasel

k<sup>₩</sup>i:s-múx<sup>₩</sup> 'rug'

...-ears (??)

(2) with verb:

kWi:s-lipisT traditional warm blanket or sleeping

...-sew.AP robe, made of sewn rabbitskins'

gwiislip'is

kWi:s-hałálsT work clothes'

...-working gwiishahlals

kWi:s-hatiks '[woman's] bathing suit'

...-swimming gviishadiks

(3) with adjective:

kWi:s-na:=likskikát 'patchwork quilt'

...-in spots=different.PL gwiisnaaliksgigat

7.1.B.2.b.3.f. (qaltim-) galdim...: This prefix forms nouns designating large, open containers (\* (?antə-) andi.../anda..., 7.1.B.2.b.3.b.). Most instances involve relatively new items, and new words are freely made up.

(1) with noun:

qaltim-lákW 'fireplace'

...-firewood

qaltim-cilim 'lunchbox'

...-packed.lunch, snack

qaltim-?an-?i:s 'toilet bowl'

...-PLACE-urine galdim'an'iis

qaltim-hápax 'bowl, etc. used for keeping jar lids in

...-lid hot water while canning'

galdimhaba<u>s</u>

(2) with intransitive verb: (including compound verbs):

qaltim-láqs bathtub.

...-bathing **raidim**laks

qaltim-wóit 'store'

...-trading galdin woot'

qaltim-sitá: wisk 'freezer'

...-freeze.AP

qaltim-[cam+hó:n] canning-pot

...-[boil.s.+fish] galdimjamhoon

qaltim-[sikWàlkWa?-m+?am?úkit] 'clothes dryer'

...-dry.DETR-ATTR+clothes galdimsigwalkw's am-am'ugit

It is possible that (qaitim-) galdim... should be treated as a separate noun with

Attributive suffix (-m) ...m (7.2.B.1.), rather than as a prefix. This would make the word a compound rather than a prefixed form. However, no noun \*qalt \*galt\* occurs in present-day Nisgha, and the distribution is the same as that of a prefix, hence the classification adopted here.

7.1.B.2.b.3.g. (saxs-) saxs... 'boat, ship of/for...'

The prefix might be related to the verb Sax 'to pull s.t.' sar.

7.1.B.2.b.3.h. (sqan-) skan... 'support bearing ...': this prefix is used only with nouns.

(1)'... bush, tree, plant' (probably original meaning):

<b>sqan</b> -má:ỷ	'berry-bush'
berries	s <b>t an</b> maay
sqan-milksT crabapple(s)	'crabapple-tree' <b>s<u>k</u> 'aa</b> milks(t)
sdan-mi-kúnt strawberries	'strawberry plant'  sk'anmiigunt

s**đan**-má:wilx

'horsetail [plant]'

...-file [for wood]

sk'an maawilx

(2) '... support, shaft, post, pole, etc.' (probably derived meaning):

s**đan**-ỷúx<sup>W</sup>

fishing-rod

...-[fishing].line

sk an yuxw

sqan-ha46?

'mast'

...-sail

sk'anhahlo'o

**sqan**-lá:k<sup>W</sup>s

'lamp-post'

...-lamp

sk'anlaakws

## 7.1.B.2.b.4. Prefixes with locational meaning:

7.1.B.2.b.4.a. (cim-) ts'im... '[the] inside of ..., in ..., into ..., '

This morpheme can be prefixed to so many nouns, wherever pragmatically possible, that it often seems to be a kind of preposition, corresponding to English 'in', and it seems to be moving towards prepositional use in the speech of some younger speakers (see Remark below). However, in many words it is definitely a prefix, used especially of body cavities, insides of objects, and place-names designating the approaches to a place.

(1) body cavities:

cim-?á:q > cimá:q

'[inside of the] mouth'

...-mouth, lips

ts'imaak (from ts'im'aak)

(see 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.1.(b)) for loss of the glottal stop)

**čim**-múx<sup>W</sup>>čimúx W

'linside of the lear'

...-mouth, lips

ts'imuxw (from ts'immuxw)

## (see 10.2.B.1.a.1.a. for degemination)

**čim**-\*xsňé qs

'underside of foot arch'

...-foot.arch

ts'imxsneeks

(2) insides of other objects:

**čim**-wílp

'[interior of a] house'

...-house

ts'imwile

(3) in place-names: 'entrance or approach to...':

cim-sán

'Tsimshian' (people living at the

...-Skeena.River

entrance of the Skeena River)

Ts'imsan

**cim**-ks-qalá:n

'Observatory Inlet'

...-most-back.end

Ts'imksk'alaa

Most place-names prefixed with (cim-) is im... are paired with similar names prefixed with (lax-) on im... (7.1.B.2.b.4.d.).

Remark: Under the influence of English, this prefix is increasingly being used as a preposition by some younger speakers. Compare sentences (a) and (b): in (a), the morpheme is used as a prefix, and the prefixed noun is the argument of the predicate, as indicated by the connective = 1 ...h/ between verb and noun:

(a) lu:=kámk=ł cim-wilp
in=warm=NC...-house

It's warm in the house/The house is warm.

Luugamkhi ts'imwilp.

In (b), the morpheme is used as a preposition, with no connective: the sentence is an almost literal translation of the English equivalent:

(a) lu:=kámkčim t kùn in=warm ... DC this

It's warm in here

Luugamk ts'im tgun.

7.1.B.2.b.4.b. (kin-) Gin... 'place of ... [unusual feature]' (used only in place-names):

kin-qúlx ...-skull

'Kincolith' (site of a war episode in which enemy heads were displayed as a warning to raiders) Gingoly

kin-lú:laď ...-corpse

'Ginlulak' (a Naas tributary in which a quantity of bones were found)

Ginluulak'

7.1.B.2.b.4.c. {kWin-} Gwin... 'place of ... [resource or typical activity]' (used only in place-names; homophonous with the Jussive prefix, 7.1.B.1.a.2.b.):

**kWin-**hamó:q

'Kwinamuck' (Nass tributary)

Gwinhamook

kWin-?ahá: ...-Beautiful!

'Gwinaha' (a bend in the Nass River near Canyon City, from which one can admire a beautiful view) Gwin ahaa

**k**Win-wóq ...-sleeping

'Gwinwawq' (a place)

Gwin wok

7.1.B.2.b.4.d. (lax-) lax... 'top surface of ..., site of ..., on ...':

(1) Like 'in' ts'im... (7.1.B.2.b.4.a.), this prefix is susceptible of such wide application that it often seems to be a preposition corresponding to English 'on'. It enters into the formation of a number of nouns with locational meaning and a large number of place-names, referring especially to flat, open spaces.

whether on land or water.

a. body surfaces:

lax-\*xsnéqs>laxsnéqs

'top of foot, vamp'

...-foot.arch?

lassneeks

lax-nó?oł

'shoulder(s)'

...-shell, dish (=shoulderblades?)

laxno'oh!

b. other flat surfaces and open places:

lax-há

'sky, weather, heaven'

...-air

lexha

**lax-\***?ú

'top, upper surface [of ...]; on [...],

...-covering?

over [...]'

les'u ...

lax-?úm4kW

'swamp'

...-sphagnum.moss

lar umhlkw

lax-?an-si:linskW

'hunting-ground'

...-place-hunting

lax'ansiilinskw

lax-qal-cáp

'Greenville, Lakalzap' (a village which was unoccupied at various times in the

...-empty-group

past) Laggalts'ap

row, maggard ap

(2) The sequence /lax/also begins three names of 'tribes' or clans including the names of animals:

laxkipú:

'Wolf "tribe" Lazgibuu

(kipú: 'wolf *gibuu*)

laxcimilx

Beaver clan' Lasts imilx

(cimilx beaver tsimilx)

laxskí:k

'Eagle "tribe" Larsgiik

(cf. XSki:k , the CT equivalent of N

XSKá:k 'eagle' asgaak)

It is likely that the last form should be analyzed as a former prefixed plural (3.2.C.2.a.1.c., 7.1.B.1.a.1.a.) la-XSki:k (la-xsgiik), which was later reinterpreted as lax-XSki:k on the eagle' (lax-xsgiik), hence a new pattern on-tribal animal' giving rise to the other two names.

7.1.B.2.b.4.e. (Spa-) sbi.../sba... 'den, abode, dwelling-place of ... (non-human)' (homophonous with the proclitic meaning 'off horizontally', 7.1.A.1.b.3.b.):

spa-smáx

'bear's den'

...-bear

**sbi**smax

**spə**-qín

'skunk's den'

...-skunk

sbagen

spa-naxnóq

'abode of a supernatural being'

...-sup.being

sbinaznok

7.1.B.2.b.4.f. (spa[qa]yt-)sbagayt.../sbayt.../sbayt... 'among ...'

Like CIM- 'in...' ts'im... (7.1.B.2.b.4.a.) and lax- 'on ...' lax... (7.1.B.2.b.4.d.), this prefix is so productive that it almost seems to be a preposition, especially since the resulting prefixed nouns are often used as complements rather than arguments in a clause.

**spalqalyt**sqanisT

'[place] among the mountains'

...-mountain

sbayt sganist

spa[qa]ytsqe:xkW
...-dark[ness]

'in the darkness'

sbayt sk'eezkw

sbayt gangan

**spalqaly t**qan)qán

'lin the forest'

in tho lotest

7.1.B.2.b.4.h. (sqa-) sk 2...

...-PL)tree

'among ...'

This non-productive prefix is found especially in place-names.

X-sqa-skinisT>ksqaskinisT?-...-pine

'Ishkheenickh (a Nass River tributary)'

Ksk asginist

kit-sqa-há:sT>kisqa(h)á:sT

people-...-fireweed the firewee

'the Killerwhale "tribe" (lit. people of the fireweeds) Gisk ahaast, Gisk aast

(from Git-sk ahaast)

sqa-\*pti

'[in] the midst of ... [a group]'

-...-? (prob. related to *ptéq* 'exogamic clan, "tribe" *pdeek*)

sk spdi ...

The following verb, now considered old, is formed by suffixation on the same pattern SQa-Noun:

sqa-kát-tkW ...-people-MED

to be among people, to participate in

social activities' sk agatkw

7.1.B.2.b.4.i. (tim-) tim... 'place (not geographical) characterized by ... '(= homophonous proclitic, 7.1.A.1.b.44.; unproductive).

(1) body parts:  $(=(\tilde{cim}-) ts'im... 7.1.B.2.b.4.a.)$ 

tim-qís	'head'
hair	<i>t'imges</i>
tim-[ha-kó?] (having-backbone)	'spine [visible on a person's back]' <i>t'imhak'yo'o</i>
<b>tim-*</b> 4á:m	'shin'
?	<i>t'imhlaam</i>
(2) other:	
tim-*lá:n-ət	'steersman'
stern/rear-REL	<b>t'im</b> leanit

It is likely that this prefix derives from the attributive form ta: m taam of the verb ta: 'to exist, stay, sit' taa. It is sometimes preceded by the prefix (?an-) aa... which often has locative meaning (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.a.(1)), as in:

?an <b>-tim</b> -?anísT	'knothole'	
placebranch	ant'im'anis(t)	
?an <b>-tim</b> -čí:k <sup>w</sup> a? placeleak.DETR	'place in a canoe where the bailer sits'  ant'imts'iikw'a'a	
7.1.B.2.b.4.j. {x-/k-} x/k 'place	??'	

This prefix is not productive. It is used only in some place-names. The alternant (k-) k... is used before /S/.

x-ňúk <sup>W</sup> trad.halibut.hook (?)	'Iknouk (Nass River tributary)' <i>Káukw</i>
x-cim-rinq in-storage.box	'Chemainuk (Nass River tributary)'  **Its'im'ink**

lax-**x**-7á:t

'Portland Canal'

on-...-fish.w.net

Laxx'aat

kit-x-sán > kitksan

'Gitksan (people)'

people-...-Skeena.river

Gitksan

k-sqa-skinisT ...-among-pine

'Ishkheenickh (Nass River tributary)'

Ksk'asginist

7.1.B.2.b.4. Color prefixes: These were probably formerly free forms (modifiers, cf. 5.15), but now occur only bound in a few forms.

7.1.B.2.b.4.a. (mis-) mis... 'red'; probably a reduced form of \*más mas, the root or base of máskw 'reddish-brown' maskw:

mis-?áwsT

'red ochre'

...-sand

mis'avs(t)

7.1.B.2.b.4.b. (ma:s-) mass... 'white, shining, radiant':

**ma:s**-?úl

white bear'

...-bear

maas'ul

ma:s-cin4ík

'white squirrel'

...-bear

maasts'inhlik'

This prefix probably occurs also in

ma:sáxW

'grey/white [hair]'

**MARSET V** 

but the rest of the word is not identifiable.

7.1.B.2.b.4.c. <u>Remark</u>: In CT, processes of deglottalization and vowel-reduction in unstressed initial syllable have led to homophony of the equivalent prefixes, thus both the meanings 'red' and 'white' are represented by *mis* 

7.1.B.2.c. <u>Numeral prefixes: Frozen prefixes for 'one' and 'ten'</u>: (\* numerals used as prefixes, see 7.1.B.2.b.2.)

Two series of words sharing the meanings 'one ...' and 'ten ...' respectively, start with distinctive consonantal shapes which can be considered as frozen prefixes or compounding elements.

This prefix is recognizable at the beginning of three of the four numerals for 'one (5.4.) as well as in a number of other words sharing the meaning 'one' or at least singular usage. In most cases the rest of the word is not identifiable, but the few cases where it is lend credence to the prefixing or compounding interpretation.

kild in the state of the state	'one (object)'
kó:  ? (shared with 'ten [persons])	'one [person]'  *Yoo1
<b>k</b> é:k <sup>W</sup> ?	'one [animal, skin]'  **Reekw
<b>k</b> -a-kit-tk <sup>W</sup> man-MED	'twenty (=one man['s fingers and toes])' (obsolete)
<b>ka-*</b> ?ál > <b>k</b> á:l eye	'one-eyed' <b>k'asi</b>

7.1.B.2.c.2. (xpə-) xbi.../xba... 'ten ...'

This prefix is recognizable at the beginning of two of the four words for 'ten' (5.4.), where the rest of the word, though unanalyzable, is shared with words for 'one':

as well as in two words for measures (cf. 7.1.B.2.b.2.c./d.):

7.1.B.3. Other parts of speech used as prefixes: A few modifiers (5.15.) and subordinators (5.16) can also be used as prefixes, with widely varying rates of productivity. That they are used as prefixes is shown by the impossibility of replacing the modifier or subordinator with another in this context. The

semantics of some of these formations shows that they developed in the post-contact period; others are definitely older

7.1.B.3.a. <u>Modifiers used as prefixes</u>: They do not define class membership, but are usually lexically restricted. Productivity varies considerably between modifiers. Only a few common ones are mentioned in this section.

7.1.B.3.a.1. (?ax-) ax... 'no ..., non-..., un...' (cf. 5.15.B.15.); very productive in creating negative adjectives:

This prefix also enters into abstract nouns:

The last form seems to be a back-formation from  $?\acute{a}q^{\dagger}kW$  akhikw to [finally] succeed, be able to ...', itself from the negative verb  $?\acute{a}q$  ak (5.4.D.) and the suffix  $-\dagger kW$  -hikw which indicates temporariness (7.2.C.2.b.2.) (to be temporarily unable = to finally succeed). The verb seems to have been re-analyzed as  $?\acute{a}q^{\dagger}-[t]kW$  akhi-kw, hence a new stem  $?\acute{a}q^{\dagger}$  akhi used here.

ksax-kinám

'to give s.t. as a gift'

...-give.s.

ksarginam

ksax-kinama?

'to give gifts; a gift'

...-give

ksazginama'a

These two words refer mostly to the imported custom of giving personal gifts, for instance at Christmas, as opposed to the complex system of mutual obligations within traditional Nisgha society. Similarly,

ksax-kWiňá

'to beg for s.t.'

...-ask.for.s.

Isazevińa

ksax-kWińé?eskW

'to beg'

...-ask.for.things

kszzgwińe eskw

refer to begging on the street, from people from whom one has no reciprocal obligations, rather than asking for contributions one is entitled to from the appropriate person.

7.1.B.3.a.3. (lip-) *lip...* 'self-..., acting on one's own' (5.15.B.9.; usually with prefix (?a-) a... 'only ...' see 7.1.B.1.b.5.a.)

lip-kát

'to be free'

...-to be, fare? (here, not 'man')

lipgat

7.1.B.3.a.4. (qam-) gam... 'waste/refuse from ...' (5.15.B.41.): added productively to intransitives, but also sometimes to transitives and nouns, it forms nouns:

(a) with intransitive verb: 'waste resulting from ...ing'

qam-k<sup>W</sup>ásT 'broken pieces (of glass, etc.)'

Eamkw'as(t)

qam-xpé·qskW sawdust

...-sawing

qam-x-cáq clamshells

...-eat-clams

qam-x-?anáx bread crumbs'

...-eat-bread

(b) with transitive verb:

qam-kip 'inedible scraps left from a meal'

..-food/eat.s.

qam-tám '[coffee] grounds, [wine, etc.] dregs'

...-press.s.

qam-póx inedible parts: seeds, etc. expelled from

...-blow.s.out the mouth while eating berries, etc.'

**Zambox** 

(c) with noun:

qam-čú:č 'soot'

...-charcoal

7.1.B.3.a.5. (1ku-) hlgu... 'little (sg.) ...' (see 5.15.B.36 about the recent evolution from modifier to prefix):

...-little(pl.)

7.1.B.3.a.7. (kwi:x-/kuxw-) 'habitually, keenly' gwiix-/gurw- (5.15.B.50.) This modifier is used as a prefix to form adjectives, both from other adjectives and from verbs. (The two alternate forms for the prefix coexist in Aiyansh, but the first form seems to be more prevalent in the downriver villages):

L'ubasisuus

<b>k</b> ₩i:x-?aláys	'to be lazy'
reluctant, unwilling	gviit-alays
kWi:x-tít	'to be a ballplayer'
[play] ball	gviizhlit
<b>kux<sup>W</sup>-ł</b> ó:q	'to be an early riser'
rise.early	gurvhloo <u>k</u>
<b>kux<sup>W</sup></b> -cáp	'to be good with one's hands'
make.s.	gurvjap

That these formations are adjectives, not nouns or intransitive verbs, is shown by their use with the modifier ka: 'most' kaa (5.15.B.16.) in sentences such as:

<u>Péter</u>=1 ka: kuxWcáp-ətlò:-ti:t
 P.=NC most handy-REL IND-3P

Of all of them, Peter is the best at working with his hands.

Peterh! k'as gurwjabit loodiit.

To form the plural of these words, the Distributive plural prefix (qa-) ga-(7.1.B.1.a.1.b.) is inserted between the prefix and the main word, as in

• kWi:x-qa-tit niti:t
...-PL-[play] ball them

They are always playing ball, they are ballplayers. Grier-gahlit hidiit.

7.1.B.3.b. Subordinators used as prefixes: The subordinators Qan'[reason] why' gan (5.16.B.1.), Qay 'still' L'ay (5.16.B.9), and Wil 'as, because, where, when' wil (5.16.B.7.) are also used as prefixes. The most prolific such use is that of Qan '[reason] why' gan, which seems to have known considerable productivity during the missionization period. The use of Wil 'as, because, where, when' wil as a prefix is obviously older. Qay 'still' L'ay is only used as a prefix in three or four forms. With few exceptions the basic words are intransitive verbs.

7.1.B.3.b.1. (qan-) gan... 'cause, means of ...' (cf. 5.16.B.1.). The range of meanings of this prefix, both concrete and abstract, is roughly similar to that of (7an-) an... (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.a.), except that (qan-) gan... never has locational meaning. Most instances deal with post-contact objects and concepts, including a large number of Christian religious and moral concepts.

(a) concrete meaning: 'means of ..., reason why ...'

**qan**-timísT

'pencil'

...-writing

gent'imis(t)

qan-ki)kó:ks

...-ASP)float

gangigyooks

qan-lu:=qúypax

...-in=bright

qan-wálx

'packsaddle'

...-carry.s.on.back

'lifejacket'

gangigyooks

'window'

ganluugoyp'ar

(packsaddle'

(b) <u>abstract meaning</u>: 'cause of ..., reason why ...': the numerous abstract words formed with this prefix designate general concepts, as opposed to the abstract meaning of (?an-) an... (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.a.) which designates specific causes or sources of a feeling or idea.

qan-titilsT 'life' ...-live **zan**didils(t) qan-xpəčáxw 'fear' ...-afraid Reaxbits'exw qan-wilá:kils 'education' ...-knowledgeable Ran Wilaak'ils  $qan-[k^Wilks=?itk^W-s]$ 'repentance' ...-[ ...=blame.s.-...]REFL gangwilks'ithws

7.1.B.3.b.2. Wil wil... 'as, because, where, when' (5.16.B.7.): forms new nominals:

wil-na:=tat 'smaller organized group: clan (division ...-in.spot=be.in.group within a "tribe"), family, team, etc.'

wilinast'ahl

wil-pax=ha+=hitkW

...-uphill=parallel=stand

'slope, rollercoaster'

wilbazhahlhitkw

wil-ksə=witkW

...-out-come.from

'paternal relative'

**Vilksivitk**w

wil-kát

'Ito be a certain | color'

...-be, fare? [here, not 'person']

wilgat

wilhilkit prob. from \*wil-hilt-kit

'multitude'

...-many-people

**vil**hilgit

Such a noun equivalent can be used in a noun-incorporating verb (9.2.):

caka?-mwil-mit

'to put out fires; firefighting'

put.out.s.DETR-ATTR+...-burn

ts'ak'a'am-wil-mihl

lìlkit-m+wil-nálts

'Ito hold al wedding feast'

feast-ATTR+...-married

lilgidim-wil-naks

7.1.B.3.b.3. Qay k'sy... 'still...' (5.16.B.9.): the prefixed use seems to be restricted to three forms:

**qay**-más

'teen-aged, young (sg.)'

...-grow

k'aymas

**qay**-limqsT/**qay**-\*máqs

'teen-aged, young (pl.)'

...-grow

L'aylimks/L'aymaks

But the word qayúkWs 'smoke-dried salmon fillets' k'ayukws probably belongs here as well as it must be derived from earlier qay-húkWs k'ay-hukws cf. Gitksan hurws'id.'

7.1.B.3.b.4. Wila: wilaa ... 'how' (5.16.B.8.): is used as a prefix to form the intransitive or adjective Wila: -cáp-T 'to look like' wilaa jap-di.

- ntá=† wila:-cáp-T-[t]=†laxhà What is the weather like? which.way=NC ...-make.s.-DEF-[3]=NC sky Ndahl wilaz jabihl laxha?
- sim húkax-a-n=† wila:-cáp-T-[t]=s[t]nóx-n
  really be.like.s.-CTL-2S ...-make.s.-DEF-[3]=DC (DM) mother-2S

  You look a lot like your mother.

  Sim hugazanhi vilas jabis noon.

#### 7.2. Suffixes:

Suffixes are divided into Inflectional suffixes (a small, closed class, 7.2.A.). Mediating suffixes (a very small class, 7.2.B.), Predicative suffixes (a fairly large class, with some productive elements, 7.2.C.), and Lexical suffixes (a very small class, 7.2.D.).

#### 7.2.A. Inflectional suffixes:

7.2.A.1. Personal suffixes: Definite personal suffixes indicate person an number. For the 1st and 2nd persons, singular and plural are clearly differentiated. For the 3rd person, the single suffix (-t) is used not only for the singular, but also for the plural under certain conditions. Another suffix, the indefinite (-ti:) -dii, has restricted distribution by itseld but combines with the 3rd person (-t) to form a 3rd person plural suffix (-ti:t) -diit, also with restricted distribution.

7.2.A.1.a. <u>Definite personal suffixes</u>: The personal suffixes are used in a variety of syntactic roles, but they are not case-markers. They are used:

- with nouns, to indicate the possessor;
- with other  $P_a$ 's (intransitive verbs, adjectives and numerals) in regular clauses, to indicate the A argument (Subject or Attribute; see below 7.2.A.1.a.2.b. for restrictions on the occurrence of the 3P suffix);
- with PEA's (transitive verbs) in regular clauses, to indicate the A argument (Object); in predicate-focused clauses, to indicate the E argument (Agent).

The personal suffixes are also used in the formation of the Independent personal pronouns, built on the base  $\tilde{\Pi} = \tilde{n}i_{-}$  (5.8.), and the Indirect personal pronouns, built on the base  $\tilde{\Omega} = loo_{-}$  (5.9.).

#### 7.2.A.1.a.1. Forms and rules:

	SG	PL
1	<b>-ỷ</b> <i>-対</i>	- <b>m</b> - <b>m</b>
2	-n -a	-si <b>n</b> - <i>sin</i> i
3	-t -t	-t/-ti:t <i>-t/-diit</i>

The rule of VOWEL EPENTHESIS (10.1.A.1.a.2.d.2.(a)) inserts a vowel between a consonant-final stem and a suffix beginning in a syllabic resonant. It applies before  $(-\mathring{y})$  '1S', (-n) '2S' and  $(-\mathring{m})$  '1P'. The vowel quality is determined by the VOWEL SPECIFICATION rule (10.1.A.1.a.), hence for instance:

#### 7.2.A.1.a.2. Use of 3rd person suffixes:

7.2.A.1.a.2.a. The 3rd person suffix pronoun -t: The suffix pronoun -t is glossed as '3' rather than '3S' as it is not restricted to singular use (see below 7.2.A.1.a.2.b.). Except in predicate-focused PA clauses, it is always present on the predicate, whether or not a noun is also present (4.3.B.). However, it does not always occur as a recognizable phonological element, since its phonological shape causes to be it subject to the morphophonosyntactic CONSONANT-/DELETION rule (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.) which deletes it before a non-Velar fricative, such as the determinate connective =S ...s or the non-determinate connective = 4 ...h/ (6.2.B.) under most conditions). But its presence is recoverable from its overt occurrence when not immediately followed by a connective, as when postclitics intervene (6.3.).

7.2.A.1.a.2.a.1. Suffix refers to E in predicate-focused transitive clause, to A (Subject) in regular intransitive clause: In the following examples, the two types of clauses are linked in a single example for convenience, but the structures are independent of each other.

- (a) pronoun phonologically present in the absence of a noun (hence, in the absence of a pre-nominal connective):
  - without postclitic after the verb:

• ká?-ə-t wil páx-t see.s.-CTL-3 SUB run-3

S/he saw it/him/her run.
Ga'at wil bast.

- with postclitic after the verb:
- ká?-ə-t==qat wil páx-t==a? I hear s/he saw it/him/her actually run! see.s.-CTL-3 SUB run-3 Ga'at-gat wil baxda'a/
- (b) pronoun not phonologically present when immediately followed by a (pre-nominal) connective:
- ká?-ə-[t]=s[t] <u>Pèter</u> wil páx-[t]=s[t] <u>Màry</u>
   see.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] P. SUB run-[3]=DC[DM] M.

Peter saw Mary run.

Ga'as Peter wil bays Mary.

ká?-ə-[t]=ł kàt wil páx-[t]=ł hanàd
 see.s.-CTL-[3]=NC man SUB run-[3]=NC woman

The man saw the woman run.

Ga'ahl gat wil barh! hanak'.

- (c) pronoun phonologically present when a postclitic intervenes between it and a pre-nominal connective:
- ká?-a-t==qa[t]=s[t]<u>Pèter</u> wil páx-t==a?=s[t]<u>Màry</u> see.s.-CTL-3==REP=DC[DM]P.SUBrun-3==ASST=DC[DM]M.

I hear Peter saw Mary actually run!

Ga'at-gas Peter wil bazda'as Mary!

• ká?-ə-t==qa[t]=+ kàt wil páx-t==a?=+ hanàq see.s.-CTL-3-REP=NC man SUB run-3-ASST=NC woman

I hear the man saw the woman actually run!

Ga'at-ga(t)h! gat wil bazda'ah! hanak'!

# 7.2.A.1.a.2.a.2. Suffix refers to A (Object) in regular transitive clause:

Note that the single noun following the Object pronoun may corefer either with the Agent or with the Object; the difference is indicated by the stress pattern (4.3.B.2.).

- (a) suffix pronoun not phonologically present on the surface when followed by a connective:
- the following noun has secondary stress and does not corefers with the suffix pronoun (but with the 3ERG clitic pronoun preceding the verb):
- ká?-ə-twil-ttə-páx-[t]=+ +ku-tkì+kW
   see.s.-CTL-3 SUB-3E DOM-run[3]=NC little-\*child
   S/he saw the child run, carrying it/him/her.
   Ga'at wil t dibaxh! hlgutk'ihlkw.
- ká?-Ə-t wil-t tə-páx-[t]=s[t]Chrìs
   see.s.-CTL-3 SUB-3E DOM-run[3]=DC [DM]C.
   S/he saw Chris run, carrying it/ him/her.
   Ga'at wil t dibass Chris.
- the following noun has primary stress and corefers with the suffix pronoun:
- ká?-ə-twil-ttə-páx-[t]=+ +ku-tkí+kW

  see.s.-CTL-3SUB-3EDOM-run[3]=NClittle-\*child

  S/he saw him/her run, carrying a/the child.

  Ga'at wil t dibaxhl hlgutk'ihlkw.
- ká?-ə-twil-ttə-páx-[t]=s[t]Chrís see.s.-CTL-3 SUB-3EDOM-run[3]=DC[DM]C.

S/he saw him/her run, carrying Chris.

Ga'at wil t dibags Chris.

- (b) pronoun phonologically present on the surface when a postclitic ooccurs after the verb:
- ká?-ə-twil-ttə-páx-t==a?=+ +ku-tkí+kW

  see.s.-CTL-3SUB-3EDOM-run-3==ASST=NClittle-\*child

  S/he saw it/him/her actually run,carrying a/the child.

  Ga'at wilt dibarda'ahl hlgutk'ih/kw.
- ká?-ə-twil-ttə-páx-t==a?=s[t]Chrìs
   see.s.-CTL-3 SUB-3E DOM-run-3==ASST=DC{DM}C.
   S/he saw Chris actually run, carrying him/her.
   Ga'at wilt dibazda'as Chris.
- 7.2.A.1.a.2.b. The 3rd person plural suffix pronoun  $\{-ti:t\}$  -dit: The 3rd person plural suffix  $\{-ti:t\}$  -dit is peculiar both in its formation and its distribution.
- It is not a single suffix, but consists of the Indefinite personal suffix (-ti:) dii (7.2.A.1.b.) followed by the 3rd person suffix -t.
- When added to a clause predicate, it is used consistently only to refer to a plural Agent (E argument). When referring to a plural Object or Possessor (A argument), it is used only for humans (or animals and other characters given human characteristics in stories), and cannot corefer with a noun as -t does (7.2.A.1.a.2.b.2.(b)). For other referents, such as ordinary objects and animals, -t is used for both singular and plural. This distinction between humans and non-humans is characteristic of YFS speech, but in Boas and with some very old speakers, -t alone is often used to refer to groups of humans as well. This suggests that the present use of the compound suffix is fairly recent.

#### 7.2.A.1.a.2.b.1. Use in transitive clause:

### 7.2.A.1.a.2.b.1.a. In predicate-focused transitive clauses:

• ká?-ti:t They saw it/him/her/them. see.s.-3P Ga'adiit

• ká?-ti:t=4 4ku-tkí4kW They saw the child.
see.s.-3P=NClittle-\*child Ga'adiith! hlgutk'ihlkw.

• ká?-ti:t[t]Chrís

see.s.-3P[DM]C.

They saw Chris.

Ga'adiit (t) Chris

The CTL suffix  $(-\partial -)$  is never added to the verb stem before the suffix (-ti:t)-dist. (See 7.2.A.3.b. for an explanation).

#### 7.2.A.1.a.2.b.1.b. In regular transitive clause:

In a regular transitive clause, the plural suffix can be used as Agent coreferent or as Object pronoun. The difference is usually clear from the context, but the preferred interpretation is that of Agent coreferent.

(1) referring to plural Agent: the plural suffix corefers with the 3E clitic which precedes the verb:

• Wil-t ká?-ti:t ... as/when/where they saw it/him/her. SUB-3E see.s.-3P ... wilt ga'adiit

• Wil-t ká?-ti:t=1 1ku-tkí1kW ... as/when/where they saw the child.

SUB-3E see.s.-3P=NC little-\*child ... wilt ga'adiith! hlgutk'ihlkw.

• Wil-t ká?-ti:t[t] Chrís ... as/when/where they saw Chris.

SUB-3E see.s.-3P=DC [DM] C. ... wilt ga'adiit (t) Chris

(2) referring to Plural human Object: when an Object noun is not present in the clause:

• wil-t ká?-[t]=ł kupa:-tkíłkw SUB-3E see.s.-3P=NC little.PL-\*child

... as/when/where s/he saw the children.

... wilt ga'ahl k'ubatk'ihlky.

• wil-t ká?-[t]=s tip Chris SUB-3E see.s.-3P=DC DM.PL C.

... as/when/where s/he saw Chris "and them".

... wilt ga'as dip Chris

wil-t ká?-ti:t.

... as/when/where s/he saw them.

SUB-3E see.s.-3P

... Wilt ga'adiit

• nə wil ká?-ti:t

... as/when/where I saw them.

1S.E SUB see.s.-3P

... n.: wil ga'adiit.

Compare with a non-human Object:

• wil-t ká?-[t]=t kupa: smáx SUB-3E see.s.-3P=NC little PL bear

... as/when/where s/he saw the bear cubs.

... wilt ga'ahl k'uba smax.

• wil-t ká?-t. SUB-3E see.s.-3

... as/when/where s/he saw it/them.

... Wilt ga'at

7.2.A.1.a.2.b.2. <u>Use in possessive noun-phrase</u>: (see 3.2.A.2.a.).

The plural suffix is used when referring to two or more human possessors, not normally to non-human ones.

(a) single object, several possessors (human):

wilp-[t]=4 kát tip kùs[t]
 house-[3]=NC people DM.PL that

'those people's house'
wilph! gat dip gus

wilp-[t]=s tip <u>Péter</u>
 house-[3]=DC DM.PLP.

'Peter "and them"'s house'
wilps dip Peter

wilp-ti:t house-3P

'their house'

wilpdiit

- (b) individually distributed possessions:
  - human possessors:

• qa-?asisàÿ-t]=+ kupa:-tki+kW
DIST-feet-[3]=NClittle.PL-\*child

'the children's feet'

\$2'asisaÿhl k'ačatk'ihlkw

qa-?asisàý ti:t
 DIST-feet-3P

'their feet'

- non-human possessors:
- qa-?asisàỷ-t]=† cú:c
   DIST-feet-[3]=NCbird

'the birds' feet'

qa-?asisàý t
 DIST-feet-3

'their feet'

## 7.2.A.1.b. Indefinite personal suffix (-ti:) -dii:

The indefinite personal sugffix is used only with  $P_A$ 's, never with  $P_{EA}$ 's. Unlike the other personal suffixes, it can be used both in regular and predicate-focused

clauses, although the former is more common:

Reg. •CƏ kaxkú=1 tim mí:lukW-ti: When is the dance going to be?

IRR when?=NC FUT dance-...

Ji gazguhl dim miilukwdii?

 naxňá-(y)--ý willodali:=yé:-ti:qalá:n-ý hear.s.-CTL-1S SUB following=walk-... behind-1S

I heard (someone) walking behind me.

Nazňaviý wil lok aliiyeedii galaaniý.

• ?akú==y)əma?=\frac{1}{2}hu)wil-ti: I wonder what's going on? what==DUB=NCASP)be/act-... Aguyima'ahl huwildii?

P.-Foc. •timmí:luk W-ti-tá:yuwin

FUT dance-... tonight

Tonight there is a dance.

Dim milluk w dii t'aayuwin.

Some occurrences of this suffix with nouns parallel those of the frozen suffix (-ta) -da (7.2.A.1.c.) and hint to a former plural meaning (see also 7.1.B.2.b.2. Numerals used as suffixes).

# 7.2.A.1.c. The frozen suffix (-ta) -da:

This suffix was probably originally a variant of the impersonal suffix (-ti:) -dii. It occurs only in a few words with mass or plural meaning, where it is felt to be part of the word itself, although some peculiarities of use show its original meaning.

7.2.A.1.c.1. qó:-ta '(mass, group) to be gone'
\*all.gone goods

This word never takes the 3P suffix (-ti:t) -diit, only the 3 suffix, as in:

- †a: qó:-ta-t==a?=†Winè:x-m (Believe it or not) our food is all gone!
  now \*all.gone-...-3==ASST=NC food-1P Hlaa goodada ahl wineeyim!
- †a:yaqa=qó:-ta-[t]=†kàt
   now downhill=\*all.gone-...-{3}=NC people

The people have all gone down to the waterfront.

Hisa yagagoodahi gat

The sequence -ta-t -ds-t is exactly parallel to the compound structure -ti-t-di-t of the 3P suffix (7.2.A.1.a.2.b.).

This word, the singular form of which is  $y\acute{a}$  to say "..." ya, is a single exception to all Nisgha verbs, in that it never takes a personal suffix. It is always used with a preceding E clitic, which is phonologically bound to it, and which, in the plural form, corefers with the suffix  $\{-ta\}$ -da:

Unlike the case in other verbs, the plural suffix is still used here when followed by a coreferring nominal:

This word is used as an ambient predicate, usually in the expression:

If the word is analyzed into stem and suffix instead of considered a single ambient predicate, the sentence above shows the suffix used in a predicate-focused clause, paralleling the use of  $\{-ti:\}$  -dii (but not of other personal suffixes) in such clauses (7.2.A.1.b.).

In the modern meaning ('diapers') of this word, the suffix is fully integrated semantically and the resulting noun can occur with all personal suffixes, including the 3rd plural suffix:

• timsix)sitxé:xW-T-ə-n=4 4ə qa-?ó:ta-ti:t

FUT PL)change.s.-DEF-CTL-2S=NC the DIST-diapers-3P

[I want you to] change their diapers|

Dim sixsityeexwdinh1 hla ga'oodadiit.

### 7.2.A.2. The Relative suffix (-(a)t):

The Relative suffix  $\{-(\partial)t\}$  -t/-it/-at has the shape /t/ after vowel and / $\partial t$ /-it/-at after consonant. It can be added to all  $P_A$ 's (see Focusing, 4.7.A.).

- (a) With a noun: in a question, it relativizes the possessor.
- nà:=4 pó:t-ət?a=s[t]kùsti Whose boat is that?
  who=NC boat-... PREP=DC [DM] that.Q Naahl boodit as gusdi?
- (b) With an intransitive verb or adjective: it relativizes the Subject:
- nà:=†?axhúkskW-ət Who isn't here/didn't come?
  who=NC not be present-... Naahl ax huksgwit?
- ?akù=†ka:wi:nákW-ət Which is the longest?
  who=NC most long-... Aguhl k'as wiinagwit?
- kWiná:ti:=† wílp lukWti=hìtkW-ot †àxW-[t]=† hápiskW surprise!=NC house under=stand-... underside-[3]=NC grass
   To his surprise, there was a house standing right underneath the grass.

   (127.13-14) Gwinaadiihl wilp lukwhlihitgwit hlaxwhl hap'iskw.
- (c) Some relativized PA's can be used as nouns:

qa-simútk<sup>W</sup>s-ət 'believers', hence 'Christians'
DISTR-believe-... gasimutkwsit

timcé:q-ət bowman [in canoe]

bow-... t'imts'eegat

### 7.2.A.3. The Control suffix (-3-):

The suffix  $(-\partial -)$  (  $-y\partial -$  after vowel) -yi-/-i-/-a- is not part of the citation form of a transitive verb, but is added to it in predicate-focused clauses (4.4.)

before the personal suffix which indicates the Agent, with the exception of the 3P suffix (-ti:t)—diit (7.2.A.3.b.). (Note that the 3 suffix (-t) often does not occur phonologically before a connective, because of the rule of Consonant-deletion, 10.2.A.2.b.1.c.). The suffix  $(-\partial -)$  seems to indicate that the following personal suffix is the Agent, therefore that the verb is understood as having an Object. For this reason the term Control (CTL) has been chosen here to identify this suffix.

### 7.2.A.3.a. Conditions of occurrence:

Because of the rules of vowel-insertion before resonant (10.1.A.1.a.2.d.2.(a)) and after /?/ (2.1.B.3.b.3.b.) and Vowel-deletion after resonant (except /?/), the suffix  $(-\partial -)$  is not always phonologically present on the surface, and it may also be confused with an epenthetic vowel, especially before a personal suffix consisting of a resonant, such as  $(-\tilde{y})$  '1S', (-n) '2S',  $(-\tilde{m})$  '1P' (7.2.A.1.a.). It does not occur at all before the 3P suffix (-ti:t) -diit (7.2.A.3.b.).

The presence of the CTL suffix before the suffixes (-t) '3' and  $(-\sin h)$  '2P' differentiates a transitive verb from a possessed noun used as clause predicate:

#### - transitive verb:

?anó:q-ə−t

S/he likes/liked it.

like.s.-...-3

Anoogat.

?anó:q-**ə**-sim==a:

Do/Did you (pl.) like it?

like.s.-..-2P==0

Anoogasima?

- noun:

hasáq-t

S/he wants it (lit. [it's] h. want).

desire-3

Hasakt.

Noun and transitive verb forms are identical before the other personal suffixes which trigger vowel insertion since they consist of resonants:

I like/liked it.

like.s.-...-3

Anoogay.

Hasagev.

and before the 3P suffix, where the CTL suffix does not occur:

They like/liked it.

like.s.-3P

Anookdiit.

They want it ([it's] their want)

desire-3P

Hasakdiit.

### 7.2.A.3.a.1. Phonological realization:

7.2.A.3.a.1.a. After vowel: the suffix has the shape /yə/(-yi-) as the rule of epenthesis generally inserts /y/ between two vowels.

• kipá-ya-t ní.ý

S/he waited for me.

wait.for.s.-...-3 me

Gibayit niiy.

• wá-ya-ý

I found it.

finds- -1S

Wayiy.

7.2.A.3.a.1.b. After most consonants: (see 7.2.A.3.a.1.c. for Velar fricatives): the suffix has the shape  $\frac{\partial}{\partial -i^2/2a^2}$ :

•	kíp-o-t=t hó:n eat.s3=NC fish
	kíp- <b>ə</b> -t

Gibith! hoon.

S/he ate it.

Gibit.

I ate it.

Gibiý

You (pl.) are going to eat it!

Dim gibisim!

S/he took them.

Dogat.

Take them [if you like]!

Ji dogasim!

The suffix occurs phonologically after stem-final non-glottalized resonants placed immediately after stress (for other cases see 7.2.A.2.a.2.b.):

S/he boiled/cooked the fish.

Jamith! hoon.

S/he gave h. the fish [to eat].

Ginit ah! hoon.

7.2.A.3.a.1.c. Stem-final Velar fricatives: Since the suffix consists of a vowel, its presence causes the stem-final Velar fricatives /X/ and  $/X^W/$  to become the corresponding glides /y/ and /w/ through the rule of Glide-formation (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.):

S/he knows it/him/her.

Wilsayit.

I used/wore it.

Hooyiy.

S/he shot it/him/her.

Guwit

The glide corresponding to the third Velar fricative /X/, which is /h/, does not occur intervocalically after stress, but under certain conditions, an underlying sequence /Vh/ is realized phonologically as a long vowel /V:/ (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.b.). In modern Nisgha, the stems of most transitive verbs ending in /X/ remain unchanged before the suffix, as in

S/he ran, carrying it/him/her.

Dibaxat.

but this lack of change seems to be the result of a modern tendency to keep the verb stem intact with Velar-final stems as with other stems. Even with YFS, a few verbs have a long vowel before adding the personal suffix, suggesting that an original sequence /VXə/ must have gone through a stage /Vhə/ before deletion of intervocalic /h/ (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.b.).

• timsqa=s**áx-a**-n=<del>1</del> ptó? > ... sqas**á**:n<del>1</del> ... FUT barring=puil.s.-...-2S=NC door

You'll close the door (puil it close). Dim sgasmanh! pdo'o.

S/he sharpened it (e.g. axe-blade).

Good (not George)

In Boas a few verbs ending in Velars have a long vowel and also insert /y/

before the suffix (cf. 7.2.A.3.a.1.a. and 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.b.):

• kúxW-ə-t>kú:yit shoot.s.-..-3

S/he shot it.

Guuyit (modern: Guwit)

• ksə=tə-p**áx-a**-[t]=s[t]txè:msim>ksitip**á:yi**stxè:msim ...
out=DOM-run-...-[3]=DC[DM]T.

Tyeemsim ran out with [it] ... (23.3.)

Ksidibaayis Txeemsim ...

(modern: Ksidibaras Treemsim ...)

There are not enough data available at this point to tell whether this was a general rule at an earlier time, or whether it results from a confusion of the two rules of glide-formation and /y/-insertion.

### 7.2.A.3.a.2. Surface deletion of the Control suffix:

7.2.A.3.a.2.a. After a glottalized resonant: There are very few instances of this, as most stems ending in such resonants take the Definite Medial suffix (-T) (7.2.C.1.a.) before the CTL suffix.

• pcáy-[ə]-t=qís-t comb.s.-[...]-3=NC hair-3

S/he combed h. hair.

Pts'ayt's | gest.

7.2.A.3.a.2.b. After a syllabic resonant occurring after an unstressed vowel: (the unstressed vowel is usually the result of the Vowel-insertion rule)

• Sé:win-[ə]-t=+]úkW-t fill.s.-[...]-3=NCbelongings-3

S/he packed h. bags.

Seewinth! lukwt.

• kWó:tin-[a]-t=ttá:la-t lose.s.-[...]-3=NCmoney-3

S/he lost h. money.

Kw'oot'inthi daalat

# 7.2.A.3.b. Non-occurrence before the 3P suffix (-ti:t) -diit:

The Control suffix never occurs before the 3P suffix (-ti:t) and the verb always keeps the shape of its citation form, as in:

• kip-ti:t eat.s.-3P

They ate it.

Gipdiit.

• kWó:tin-ti:t lose.s.-3P

They lost it.

Kw'oot'indiit.

• kipá-ti:t wait.for.s.-3P

They waited for him/her.

Gibadiit.

• kúx<sup>W</sup>-ti:t shoot.s.-3P

They shot it.

Guxwdiit

qé:x-ti:tgrind:s:-3P

They sharpened it.

Geexdiit.

The vowel that occurs in a form like

ká?-ti:t>ká?ati:t
 see.s.-3P

They saw it/him/her.

Ga'adiit.

is epenthetic, caused by the release of the glottal stop before a following consonant (2.1.B.3.b.3.b.).

However, since the 3P suffix  $\{-ti:t\}$  is actually composed of two suffixes, the indefinite personal suffix  $\{-ti:t\}$  and the 3rd person suffix  $\{-t\}$ , it is possible that the non-occurrence of the CTL suffix before the plural suffix may be due--at least historically--to its occurrence between the two components of the plural suffix, thus  $-ti:-\partial -t$  (see also Tarpent 1983b):

They are it.

Gipdiit.

In this position, following an unstressed vowel, the  $(-\partial -)$  suffix would be unlikely to preserve a distinct phonological identity. Since this interpretation is only speculative, is it not used in the morphological analysis presented here, in order not to burden the description further.

- 7.2.B. <u>Mediating suffixes</u>: These occur between two words or morphemes which are part of the same phrase or compound. They are attached to t<sup>\*</sup> e first word.
- 7.2.B.1. The Attributive suffix  $\{-m\}$ : This is the only productive mediating suffix. It can be added to  $P_A$ 's under various circumstances.
- 7.2.B.1.a. <u>In noun-phrases</u>: it occurs between an adjective or stative intransitive, and the noun it modifies:

mìtk₩-**m**?aná:x

'flour'

powdered-... bread

mitgum anaas

?uk<sup>₩</sup>s=ċàḍasT-**m**qáyt

'basebali cap'

outward=protrude-... hat

ukwsts'ak'asim gayt

- 7.2.B.1.b. In mediated compounds: (9.)
- 7.2.B.1.b.1. In mediated compound nouns: (9.1.B.2.) between a head noun and ...
  - (a) ... a noun:

hở pix-m qán

'wooden spoon'

spoon-... wood

hoobixim gan

(b) an intransitive verb:

qàyt-**m**?uk<sup>W</sup>s=cáqasT

'baseball cap'

hat-... outward=protrude

gaydim ukwsts'ak'as

(c) a circumstantial complement:

tìkit-**m**lax-sqan-ló.c

'sun-dried oolichans'

dried.oolichans-... on-bush-elderberries

digidim lax sk'anloots'

7.2.B.1.b.2. In mediated compound intransitive verbs: (9.2.A.2.)

between the verb and ...

(a) an Object noun:

kùwsT-msmáx

'to shoot/kill bears'

kill.game-... bear

RU VSI m-smax

(b) a circumstantial complement:

caka?-m wil-mí+

'to put out fires'

put.out-... where-burn

ts'ak'a'am-wil-mihl

7.2.B.1.b.3. Between an adjective and a verb: it gives the adjective adverbial force, turning it into a modifier (5.15.B.50.):

?àciks-m yé:

'to walk proudly'

proud-... walk

ajiksim yaa

- 7.2.B.2. The suffix [-a:] \_\_as: This suffix is widely used but not productive. As it occurs in unstressed position, it is frequently reduced, losing its length (hence /a/), and even its quality (hence /i/). It occurs:
  - (a) in compound nouns (9.1.B.1.): between the head noun and the modifying

#### noun:

?anà:s-a:cimílx

'beaverskin'

skin-... beaver

anaasa ts'imila

màqs-a:likímtx

'llong' woollen underwear'

pants-... wool

maksa/maksi ligimtx

(b) between an adjective and a verb: this gives the adjective dverbial value: the suffixed adjective is a proclitic or modifier. Most of the morphemes the suffix is attached to are readily identifiable; however, with some proclitics ending in this suffix, the morpheme is not recognizable at present:

?a:m-**a**: wóq

'to sleep well'

good-... sleep

amas wok

?a:m-a: hí:tuk™

'Good morning!' (translation from

good-... morning

English)

Amas hiihlukw!

nàkW-a: wóq

'to sleep for a long time'

long-... sleep

nagwas wok

kina:/kana: wóq

'to sleep late'

left.behind-... sleep

ginas/ganas wok

kina: < kana: < \*ka:n-a:

'... left behind ...' (proclitic) <??'

ginas/genas

7.2.B.3. The suffix (-u:) <u>uu</u>: This unproductive suffix forms a small number of pre-predicate morphemes, prefixes, proclitics or modifiers (see Proclitics, 7.1.A., and Modifiers, 5.15.). Several of the morphemes it is attached to cannot be identified.

 $ko:l-\mathbf{u}: ti)ta:$ 

'to be home alone'

one[person]-...

k'yooluu dit'aa

ta.t-u: ?á.t fish.w.s.o.-... to.fish

'to go fishing with one or more persons [on a boat], to crew on a fishboat'

daaduu aat

kWit-u: ?át

'to go fishing alone, by oneself'

kw'iduu'aat

(kWit- perhaps from kWot 'missing, lost' kw'oot-)

?an-u:kiké:nix prefix ?an-??-...

'towards the North, further upriver'

### 7.2.C. Predicative suffixes:

A characteristic of Nisgha is the abundance of predicative suffixes, most of which consist of consonants, singly or in clusters. Several of these consonantal suffixes occur frequently or even exclusively in combination with each other, so that the endings of many words are heavily consonantal. However, careful comparison of the recurring components of similar cluster suffixes shows that the latter must have been originally combinations of suffixes, which have acquired a life of their own as single suffixes, although some meaning can often still be attached to the indibvidual components. In the following presentation, frequent combinations which can be glossed independently are treated as single suffixes, but where possible attention is drawn to further analytical possibilities.

# 7.2.C.1. The Medial suffixes (-T) and (-[t]kW):

These two suffixes have a variety of functions, especially (-[t]kW). These functions include both  $P_A$  and  $P_{EA}$  formation: depending on the particular stem it is attached to, (-[t]kW) can be glossed superficially as both Passive and

Transitive, among others;  $\{-T\}$  is less versatile, but occurs as Resultative Passive as well as Transitive. Hence the term MEDIAL used for both suffixes. Both can be attached to other predicative suffixes to form compound suffixes. Both enter in the formation of word-frames (7.3.A.).

These various meanings could be considered as independent from each other, even as belonging to separate though homophonous suffixes. But they can be reconciled with each other under the broader, more general meanings of Definite and Indefinite for  $\{-T\}$  and  $\{-[t]kW\}$  respectively.

The suffix  $\{-[t]kW\}$  was probably originally composed of the two suffixes  $\{-T\}$  and  $\{-kW\}$ , since there is evidence for the latter as well (7.2.C.2.b.3.), but in the present state of the language it functions as a single suffix. Conversely, in predicate-focused transitive clauses the combination of  $\{-T\}$  with the Control suffix  $\{-\partial_{-}\}$  (used only in that type of clause) may appear superficially to be a single transitivizing suffix  $\{-t\partial_{-}\}$  (-di) but careful analysis shows that the two must be kept separate.

## 7.2.C.1.a. The Definite Medial (DEF) suffix (-T):

The suffix  $\{-T\}$  can be attached to a variety of predicates and has different functions. Definite Medial seems to be the best overall gloss for this suffix. However, it is not always easy to identify, as it occurs under different shapes depending on its phonological environment, which itself is linked to syntactic conditions. In fact, unravelling the conditions of its occurrence and the guises under which it occurs is probably the thorniest problem of Nisgha morphological analysis (see chart p. 636).

The suffix occurs with both  $P_A$ 's (intransitives) and  $P_{EA}$ 's (transitives) when in the predicative role, in both regular and predicate-focused clauses. It also occurs in noun-phrases, including generic possessive phrases and nominalizations of transitive verbs. The presence of the suffix is most easily recognizable in absolute final position (which occurs with  $P_A$ 's) and in

predicate-focused  $P_{EA}$  clauses, where the combination of the suffix (-T) and the Control suffix  $(-\partial)$  which occurs in those clauses create a syllable  $/t\partial/dt$  which may appear at first sight to be a single suffix. With stems ending in vowels or resonants, the suffix is reinforced by an epenthetic /t/ which then acts as the stem-final consonant.

In regular clauses, phonological conditions create an environment in which the suffix is vocalized as  $/\partial/$ , after stem-final consonant or epenthetic /t/. This happens before the personal suffixes starting with consonants (except the 3P suffix  $\{-ti:t\}$ , which consists of an entire syllable before which  $\{-T\}$  is deleted, 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.2.d..

7.2.C.1.a.1.b.1.c.). In particular, The suffix (-T) appears as  $/\partial/$  before the 3 suffix (-t), whether the latter actually appears phonologically on the surface or is deleted before a connective (4.3., 10.2.A.2.b.1.c.). (This means that the rule vocalizing the (-T) suffix is posterior to the one deleting the 3 suffix). This causes surface similarities between forms occurring in the two types of clauses, as the phonological realization of (-T) in regular clause is identical to that of  $(-\partial)$  in predicate-focused clause. The chart on p. 633 summarizes the behavior of the two suffixes according to stem and clause types.

### 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.i. Occurrence of the suffix (-1):

7.2.C.1.a.1.a.1.a. <u>With intransitive verb (or stem)</u>: The suffix (-T) forms Resultative Passives (participial meaning). The meaning is definite: the action *has* happened.

k <sup>W</sup> ás-T shatter	'to be broken (into pieces), shattered'
hidaq-T break	'[long object] to be broken'  hihlakt

# OCCURRENCE OF THE SUFFIXES (-T) AND $(-\vartheta)$ BEFORE CONSONANT

Clause type		Pred-focused (except 3P)		Regular (except 3P) (3P)((-ti:t))			
				(except 3	Ρ)	(3P)( <b>(</b> -)	ri:tj)
P <sub>A</sub> :	/C_ /V, R_	-T - &T	-t -t	-T- - &T-	-ə- -tə-	-T- - <i>t</i> T-	 
P <sub>EA</sub> :	/C_ /V_ /R_	-9- -9-	- <i>ə-</i> - <i>yə</i> -	 		 	
	/C_ /V, R_	-T-ə-	-tə- -ttə-	-T- - <i>t</i> T-	-ə- -tə-	-T- - tT-	 -t -

Morphemes are given in bold type, phonological realizations in standard italics.  $\mathcal{L}$  represents the epenthetic consonant, which acts as stem-final consonant to stems ending in a vowel or resonant.  $\{-T\}$  is realized as the consonant /t/ before vowel; it is vocalized as  $/\partial$ / between a stem-final consonant (including the epenthetic consonant) and a syllable-final consonant. It is often deleted in absolute final position.

	pís-T tear.s	'to be torn'
	má:x-T *load.s	'[boat] to be loaded'  maaxt
•	$4a: \mathring{k}^{W} \acute{a}s - T - [t] = 4tk^{W} \grave{a}$ now shatter[3]=NC glass	Now the glass is broken.  Hlas kw'asihl tgwa.
	ła: k <sup>W</sup> ás-T-t now shatter3	Now it is broken. <i>Hlas kw'asit,</i>
•	ta: hitáq-T-[t]=t?asàỷ-t now break[3]=NC leg-3	Now h. leg is broken. Hlas hlihlagahl asayt.
	ta: hitaq-T-t now break3	Now it is broken.  Hlas hihlaget,
•	4a: má:x-T-[t]=4 bò:t now load.s[3]=NC boat	Now the boat is loaded.  Hlas masyih! boot.
	ła: má:x-T-t now load3	Now it is loaded.  Hlaa maayit.

7.2.C.1.a.1.a.1.b. <u>With noun</u>: it forms adjectives (cf. the English participial ending -ed/-en used with nouns as well).

?áks- <b>T</b>	'wet'	
water		akst
čé čiks- <b>T</b>	'dirty'	
dirt		ts'eets'ikst

λó:k-T 'muddy' mud-... tl'ook't • 4a:?ax)?áks-T-[t]=4 ta:4ìsk-ý Now my socks are wet now PL)water-...-[3]=NC socks-1S Hlaa ax aksihl daahliisgiy. ła:?ax)?áks-T-t. Now they are wet. now PL)water-...-3 Hlaa ax aksit. 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.1.c. With intransitive frames: The suffix (-T) also occurs as the suffixed component of a number of intransitive frames (7.3.A.1.a.1.), as in: • nə-imxti-T to be brother and sister' [...-opp.sex.sib.-...]RECIP niwakt • min-páq-T 'to have a fight' [...-try/feel.s.-...]RECIP. minbakt wilmin-páq-T-[t]=stip Pèterqan=s[t] Màx SUB [...-try/feel.s.-...]RECIP.ACT-[3]=DC DM.PL P. and=DC ...as/when/where Peter and Max had a fight. ...wil minbagas dip Peter gans Max. • max-yı́mq-T 'to be bearded/to have a moustache' [...-whiskers-...]FYCESS marýimkt wilmax-yimq-T-[t]=s[t] $\underline{M}$  $\underline{a}x$ ...as/when Max has/had a beard. SUB {...-whiskers-...} EXCESS -[3]=DC [DM] M. ... wil maxyimgas Max. max-mó?on-T 'to be very/too saity' [...-salt-...]EXCESS

mexmo ont

...as it is very/too salty.

... wil maxmo'on dit.

• max-súkWa-T

'to be very/too sweet'

maxsugwat

wilmax-súk<sup>W</sup>a-tT-t SUB[...-sugar-...]<sub>EXCESS</sub>-3

...as it is very/too sweet.

... wil maxsugwadit.

These frames include the pluralizing (10-...-T) li.../la...t (7.3.A.1.a.1.a.), as in:

'to eat [too] much and [too] fast (pl.)'

lit'eek(t)

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{la-sk}^{\textbf{W}} \acute{\textbf{a}}. \mathring{\textbf{y}} - \textbf{T} \\ \textbf{l...-act.in.vain-...} \end{bmatrix}_{PL}$ 

'to rest (pl.)'

lisgwaayt

• kilò cə lə-té.q-T-sim don't IRR [...-eat.fast-...]<sub>PL</sub>-2P

Don't make pigs of yourselves!

Gilo ji lit'eegasim!

• kilòcələ-\*xpi cí xW-T-sim don't IRR [...-afraid.PL-...]<sub>PI</sub>-2P

Don't be afraid (pl.)!

Gilo ji laxbiits'iiwisim!

(modern: ... laxbiits'iixwsim, see remark below)

The older plural limqsT 'to grow (pl.)' limks(t) (a plural of the basic type but with irregularities, see 10.3.B.2.1.a.) which suppletes the singular mas belongs in this category as well:

• ta limqs-T-[t]=t macaqalè.
now[grow.PL-...]-[3]=NC flower

Now the flowers are growing.

Hlaa limksihl majagalee.

Remark: The examples in this section show the OFS pronunciation; many YFS do

not use the suffix at all in these cases, see 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.2.(d) below.

7.2.C.1.a.1.a.2. /t/-deletion: As a phonological element, is subject to deletion rules (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.):

- (a) before another /t/ separated by a word-boundary: If the suffix (-T), occurring word-finally as /t/, comes in contact with another /t/, such as that in the determinate markers t (sg.) and tip (pl.) dip (as happens in predicate-focused intransitive clauses, 4.4.), the two /t/'s tend to merge phonologically, especially after a cluster:
- Simmax-yı́mq-T t Màx

  really [...-whiskers-...] EXCESS DM M.

  Sim maxyimk(t) t Max
- na-sip)sipin-T tip <u>Pèter</u>qan=s[t] <u>Màry</u>
  [...-PL)love.s.-...]
  RECIP.STAT. DM.PL P. and =DC (DM) M.

  Peter and Mary love each other.

  Nisipsiip in(t) dip Peter gans Mary.
- min-tóq-T tip <u>Pèter</u>qan=1 wàk-t
   [...-take.s.PL-...] <u>PECIP.ACT DM.PL P. and NC M's brother-3</u>
   Peter and his brother had a fight.
   Mindok(2) dip Peter ganhi wakt.
- (b) between consonants in a cluster: when occurri-g word-finally esuffix is often deleted when placed immediately before the non-determinate connective = 1 ... h.l. as happens in predicate-focused clauses (4.4.). This is most likely to occur after /5/ especially at the end of a cluster, and where there is no corresponding unsuffixed form.
- hitáq-(T)=t?asáŷ-ŷ My leg is broken.
  break-...=NC leg-IS Hiblak(t)hl asa aŷ.

na=pis-(T)=+kslàwiskW-y
in.spot-tear-...=NCshirt-IS

My shirt is torn.
Nuabis(t)hl kslawisgwiy.

• ?ax)áks-(T)=4 ?ta.4ìsk-ý PL)water-...=NC socks-1S

My socks are wet.

Ar'aks(t)hl daahliisgiy.

• limqs-(T)=+ macaqalè: grow.FL-...=NC flower

Flowers grow.

Limks(t)hi majugalee.

(c) before the 3P suffix (-ti:t): the suffix (-T) is deleted after stem-final consonant (cf. 7.2.C.1.a.1.b.(c)):

- wilmin-páq-[T]-ti:t
   SUB[...-try/feel.s.-[...]]-3P
- ... as/when/where they had a fight.
- ... wil minbakdiit.
- ?á:mcə?axlə-té.q-[T]-ti.t good IRR not [...-eat.much/fast-[...]]<sub>PL</sub>-3P

Let's hope they don't make pigs of themselves!

Aam ji az lit'eekdiit!

(d) in absolute final position: since most predicates are used in sentences together with other words, or at least with suffixes, some words are rarely heard in absolute final position in their citation form. As there are many cases where the suffix either is deleted, or appears under the shape /t/ which is subject to deletion rules, it is being lost from the ritation form of many words, especially when it occurs at the end of a cluster. This is most common with intransitive frames, where the prefix alone is enough to carry the meaning and a post-consonantal /t/ is most likely to be lost. Hence some differences in the speech of YFS and OFS, the latter being more likely to preserve the suffix, or at least some of the alternations which show the underlying presence of the suffix (see for instance 7.3.A.1.a.1., Intransitive frames ending in  $\{-T\}$ ).

7.2.C.1.a.1.b. With PA's: The suffix (-T) either forms transitive verbs from

intransitive ones, or adds extra precision and definiteness to an already transitive stem, whether a bare stem or one included in a transitivizing frame (7.3.A.2.a.). In predicate-focused clauses, (-T) is always followed by the Control suffix  $(-\partial -)$ , causing the phonological sequence  $/t\partial /$  ...di... In regular clauses, it is vocalized to  $/\partial /$ before consonantal suffix, as it is in a cluster. After vowel or resonant, epenthetic /t/ is added and acts as stem-final consonant. (See chart p. 633). The suffix occurs on the surface before resonantal suffix.

7.2.C.1.a.1.b.1. <u>Use as transitivizer</u>: Many stems which occurr as  $P_A$ 's when bare become transitive verbs with the addition of  $\{-T\}$  (perhaps the meaning is causative: 'causes ... to be ...ed'). Some transitive verbs only occur with the suffix attached.

(a) Examples with consonant-final stems: In predicate-focused clause, the combination  $(-T) + (-\partial -)$  occurs phonologically as the sequence  $/t\partial / ...di$ ... In regular clause, where  $(-\partial -)$  does not occur, (-T) vocalizes to  $/\partial /$  before consonantal suffix. Before a suffix consisting of a resonant, the normal rule of vowel-insertion applies and there is no vocalization. The examples below show both types of clause:

• qác-T-ə-t spilled-...-CTL-3

S/he poured/spilled it.

Gatsdit.

yùk<sup>W</sup>-tqác-T-t PROG-3E spilled-...-3

S/he is pouring it.

Yukwt gajit.

lu:=qác-T-ỷ
in=spilled-...-1S

Pour me some! [into my cup]

Luugatsdiy!

• hác-T-ə-[t]=+ smàx
\*bite-...-CTL-[3]=NC bear

A bear bit it/him/her.

Hats dihl smax.

wil-thác-T-[t]=4 smàx SUB-3E \*bite-...-[3]=NC bear

... as/when/where a bear bit it/him/her.
... wilt hats'ih/smax.

wil-t hác-T-y=4 smàx SUB-3E \*bite-..-1S=NC bear

... as/when/where a bear bit me.

• ksə=wóq-T-ə-t [out=sleep]<sub>dream</sub>-...-CTL-3 ... wilt hats diyhl smax.

$$\label{eq:wid-T-t} \begin{split} & \text{Wil-tks}\\ & \text{SUB-3E[out=sleep]}\\ & \text{dream}\\ & \text{-}\\ & \text{--}\\ & \text{3} \end{split}$$

Ksiwo<u>k</u>dit.

S/he dreamed of it/him/her.

wil-tksə=wóq-T-ỷ SUB-3E(out=sleep)<sub>dream</sub>-...-1S ... as/when/where s/he dreamed of it/him/her.

... as/when/where s/he dreamed of me.
... wilt ksiwokdiý.

... wilt ksiwogat.

• qáq-T-ə-t

S/he opened it.

K'akdit.

yùkW-t qaq-T-t PROG-3E open-...-3

open-...-CTL-3

S/he is opening it.

Yukwt k'agat.

• pát-T-ə-t spread.s.open-...-CTL-3

S/he spread it open [e.g. a sheet].

Bahldit.

yùkW-t pát-T-t PROG-3E spread.s.open-...-3

S/he is spreading it open.

Yukwt bahlit.

• sáxW-T-a-t=1?an?ún-t flutter-...-CTL-3=NChand-3

S/he waved h. hand.

Saxwdith! an'unt.

wil-tsáxW-T-[t]=4?an?ún-t SUB-3Eflutter-...-[3]=NChand-3

... as/when/where s/he waved h. hand.

... wilt sawihl an 'unt.

• tát-T-ə-t be.put.PL-...-CTL-3

S/he put/threw them away.

Tahldit.

• yúkW-T-ə-t hold.-..-CTL-3

S/he held it.

Yukwdit.

• ?atá:waq-T-ə-t story-...-CTL-3

S/he told the story of it.

Adaawakdit.

• Sim-?álkax-T-a-t S/he translated it into Nisgha. [really-speak]speak.Nisgha----CTL-3 Sim'algazdit.

- (b) Examples with stems ending in a vowel or non-glottalized resonant (including /?/): An epenthetic /t/ is added before the suffix. This new consonant acts as the stem-final consonant. With glottalized resonants (excluding /?/), there seems to be some fluctuation between speakers as to whether the epenthetic /t/ is added or not.
- siwá-tT-ə-m ?a=4 tíkit name.s.-...-CTL-1P PREP=NC sm.ool.

... what we call digit [smoked oolichans].

... siwatditm ah! "digit."

tikit tip siwá-tT-t sm.ool. 1P.E name.s.-...-3

We call it [smoked oolichans] digit.

"Digit" dip siwadit.

Máry t siwá-tT-ỷ

S/he named me Mary.

M. 1P.E name.s.-..-1S

Mary t siwa**td**iÿ.

• 46?-**t**T-ə-t push.s.-..-CTL-3

S/he honored her/him/them.

Hlo'otdit.

wil-t <del>1</del>6?-**t**T-t SUB-3E push.s.-...-3

...as/when/where s/he honored h.

... Wilt hlo'odit.

	wil-t łó?-tŤ-m SUB-3E push.s1P	as/when/where s/he honored us wilt hlo'otdim.
•	lu:=tám-(t)T-ə-t in=press.sCTL-3	S/he hugged him/her. Luudam(t)dit.
	wil-tlu:=tám-(t)T-t SUB-3Ein=press.s3	as/when/where s/he hugged h wilt luudamdit.
	wil-tlu:=tám-(t)T-ÿ SUB-3Ein=press.s1S	as/when/where s/he hugged h. <i>wilt luudamdiy</i> .
•	ťám-tT-ə-t writeCTL-3	S/he wrote it.  T'amtdit.
	wil-tłám- <b>tT</b> -t SUB-3E <b>write</b> 3	as/when/where s/he wrote it wilt t'amdit.
•	wán-tT-ə-t sit.PLCTL-3	S/he set/planted them.  Wantdit.
	wil-t wán-tT-t SUB-3E sit.PL3	as/when/where s/he set/planted them wilt wandit.
•	lípil-tT-ə-t mend.sCTL-3	S/he mended it. <i>Lip'il<b>tdi</b>t</i> .
	wil-t lípil-tT-t SUB-3E mend.s3	as/when/where s/he mended it wilt lip'il <b>di</b> t.
•	yé:- <b>tT</b> -ə-t *singCTL-3	S/he sang it.  Yeetdit.

- (c) Before the 3P suffix (-ti:t): Since the CTL suffix  $(-\partial -)$  never occurs before the 3P suffix, in either predicate-focused or regular clause, there is no difference between the 3P forms in the two types of clause, with or without (-T).
- With consonant-final stem: (-T) is always deleted, as it is in a cluster (cf. 7.2.A.1.a.1.a.2.(d)), hence:
- qaq-[T]-ti:t They opened it. open-...-3P Kakdiit.

yùk<sup>W</sup>-tqáq-[T]-tit They are opening it. PROG-3E open-...-3P Yukwt <u>k'akdiit.</u>

• SáxW-[T]-ti.t=1 qa-?an?ún-ti.t They waved their hands.

flutter-...-3P=NCDISTR-hand-2D Sarwdiithl ga'an'undiit.

wil-tsáx
$$^W$$
-[T]-ti:t= $^1$  qa- $^2$ an $^2$ ún-ti:t SUB-3E flutter-...-3P=NC DISTR-hand-3P

... as/when/where they waved their hands.
... wilt saxwdiith! ga'an'undiit.

- With stems ending in vowels or non-glottalized consonants: epenthesis takes place before the suffix; epenthetic t behaves as the stem-final consonant:
- yé-t[T]-tit They sang it.
   \*sing-...-3P Yeetdiit.

wil-tyé:-t[T]-ti:t ...as/when/where they sang it.
SUB-3E \*sing-...-3P ... wilt yeetdiit.

• lu:=simó?on-t[T]-ti:t in=salt.s.-..-3P

 lípil-t[T]-tit mend.s-...-3P

They wrote it.

...as/when/where they wrote it.

... wilt t'amtdiit.

They put salt in it.

Luusimo'ontdiit.

...as/when/where they put salt in it.

... wilt simo on tdiit.

They mended it.

Lip'iltdiit.

...as/when/where they mended it.
... wilt lip'iltdiit.

- (d) Remark: The suffix is very productive in this transitivizing role; in particular, it provides a way to adapt English verbs to the Nisgha language, as in:
- tim kúk<sup>W</sup>-T-a-ỷ
   FUT cook-...-CTL-is

ntá mə tim wila: <u>k</u>úk<sup>W</sup>-T-t which.way 2E FUT how <u>cook</u>-...-3

• tim fó:n-(t)T-ə-ỷ nì:n
FUT phone-...-CTL-1S you

?ám mə tim <u>fó.n</u>-tT-ÿ good 2E FUT phone-...-1S I am going to cook it.

Dim kukwdiÿ.

How are you going to cook it?

Nda mi dim wilsa kugwit?

I'll phone you.

Dim foon(t)diy hiin.

You better phone me.

Aam mi dim foondiý.

7.2.C.1.a.1.b.2. <u>Definite use with transitive verb</u>: some transitive verbs can occur both with and without the suffix, with a meaning difference: the meaning is more definite or specific with the suffix:

• kip-T-a-[t]=1 kipù=1 mús eat.s.-..-CTL-[3]=NC wolf=NC moose

The wolf ate the moose.

Gipdihl gibuuhl muus.

kíp-a-[t]=4 kipù:=4 mú:s eat.s.-...-[3]=NC wolf=NC moose

Wolves eat moose.

Gibihl gibuuhl muus.

• P.-Foc: ?úx-T-\(\pi\)-\(\frac{1}{2}\)-\(\fra

?úx~ə-[t]=†lò?op=†qanlu:qúy pax hit.s.-CTL-[3]=NC rock=NC window

The rock hit the window.

Uyihi lo'ophi ganluugoyp'ax.

• Reg: Wil-t? $\dot{u}x$ -T-[t]= $\dot{q}$   $\dot{q}ku$ - $\dot{k}$  $\dot{l}$  $\dot{q}k$  $\dot{w}$ = $\dot{q}$   $\dot{l}$  $\dot{o}$ ?Op SUB-3 hit..s.-...-[3]=NC child=NC rock

...as/when/where the child threw the rock.
...wilt uyihl hlgutk'ihlkwhl lo'op.

wil-t?úx-[t]=1lò?op=1qanluqúypax SUB-3 hit.s.-[3]=NCrock=NCwindow

...as/when/where the rock hit the window.
...wilt uxhl lo'ophl ganluugoyp'az.

7.2.C.1.a.1.b.3. <u>Use in transitive frames</u>: The suffix is also used in a number of transitive frames (7.3.A.2.a.), where a transitive verb stem which does not normally take the suffix adds it when preceded by a prefix or proclitic with circumstantial meaning. Again, these elements add more precision to the predicate. Compare:

• P-Foc: Cáp-o-t S/he made it. make.s.-CTL-3 Jabit. [?a·ma:-cáp]-a-t S/he fixed it. [well-make.s.-...]-CTL-3 Amaajap**di**t. Reg: yukW-tcáp-t S/he is making it. PROG-3 make.s.-3 Yukwt japt. yukW-t[?a:ma:-cáp-T]-t S/he is fixing it. PROG-3 [well-make.s.-...]-3 Yukwt amaajabit. • P-Foc: tim tóq-a-t S/he is going to take them [objects]. FUT take.s.PL-CTL-3 Dim dogst. tim[txa-tóq-T]-a-t S/he is going to take them along. FUT[all-take.s.PL-...]-CTL-3 Dim txaadokdit. Reg: yukW tim-ttóg-t S/he is about to take them [objects]. PROG-3 take.s.PL-3 Yukw dimt dokt.  $yuk^{W} tim-t[txa:-tóq-T]-t$ S/he is about to take them along... PROG-3 [all-take.s.PL-...]-3 Yukw dimt txaadogat. • P-Foc: wá-(y)a-t S/he reached/found/obtained it. find.s.-CTL-3 Wayit. [tdal-wátT]-a-t S/he met him/her. [against-find.s.-...]-CTL-3 Tk'alwatdit. Reg: Wil-twa-t ...as/when/where s/he reached/ found/ SUB-3 find.s.-3 obtained it. wilt wat

wil-t[tqal-wa-tT]-t... as/when/where s/he met him/her. PROG-3 [against-find.s.-...]-3 ... Wilt tkal wedit. • P-Foc: ká?-a-t. S/he saw it/him/her. see.s.-CTL-3 Ga'at [?a:ma:-ká?tT]-a-t. S/he looked after it/him/her. [well-see.s.-...]-CTL-3 Amaaga'atdit. Reg: ?á:mmətim[?a:ma:-ká?-tT-t (You should) look after it/him/her! good 2E FUT [well-see.s.-...]-3 (Aam mi dim) amaaga'adit! • P-Foc: čí:p-a-t S/he tied it. tie.s.-CTL-3 Ts'iibit [tqal-cip-T]-a-t S/he tied it to it. [against-tie.s.-...]-CTL-3 Tk'alts'iipdit. Reg:  $[t\dot{q}al-\dot{c}i:p-T]-[t]=4$ Tie it to it! (imperative) [against-tie.s.-...]-[3]=NC Tk'alts'iibih! • P-Foc: ťák-9-t S/he forgot it. forget.s.-CTL-3 T'agit. [txapax-ták]-a-t S/he completely forgot it. [altogether-forget.s.-...]-CTL-3 Txap'axt'akdit. • P-Foc: hax)hó:x-a-t=1 púc-t S/he put on h. boots. PL)use.s.-CTL-3=NCboots-3 Haxhooyith! butst. [niki+=hax)hó:x-T]-a-t S/he put them on the wrong feet.

Nigihlhaxhooxdit.

[back.to.back-PL)use.s.-...]-CTL-3

72.C.1.a.1.b.4. With Indirect Object or circumstantial complement: (-T) is also commonly used in cases where there is an Indirect Object or a circumstantial complement of a certain type present in a clause. The presence of the suffix seems to indicate that extra precision is being added to the meaning of the predicate. This happens especially after the subordinator Wila: 'how' wilds (5.16.B.8.), which introduces Manner complements, and sometimes after the subordinator Wil wil (which has a more general meaning, (5.16.B.7.), when introducing an Indirect Object or a Goal complement. Compare the following examples (all of which have regular clauses, as the verbs in question follow a subordinator, 4.3.):

ni -ki: tip wilá.x-t
 not-INTS IPE know.s.-3

We don't know h./didn't recognize h.

Nigii dip wilaaxt.

nta tim tip wila: wilá x-T-t which way FUT 1P.E how know.s-...-3

How are we going to recognize h.?

Nda dim dip wiles wilesyit?

nà: tim-t?an hó:x-t
 who FUT-3E REL.E use.s.-3

Who is going to use/wear it?

Naa dimt an hoost?

nta mə tim wila: hó:x-T-t which way 2E FUT how use.s-w-3

How are you going to use it?

Note mi dim wiles hooyit?

?akù mə tim wil hó.x-T-t what 2E FUT SUB use.s-..-3

What are you going to use it for?

Agu mi dim wil hooyit?

A similar use obtains with Jussive verbs built on transitive stems (7.1.B.1.a.1.b., 7.3.A.2.a.1.), which can be used with or without an Indirect Object corresponding to the actual performer of the action (as opposed to the person ordering it done). If this Indirect Object is mentioned in the sentence, the  $\{-T\}$  suffix is used (7.3.A.2.a.1.), but not if it is left unmentioned, as in the following pairs of sentences:

• P-Foc: kWin-quc-e-[t]=s[t]Mary=+ qis-t

JUSS-cut.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M.=NC hair-3

Mary had her hair cut.

Gwin-k'ojis Maryh! gest.

 $k^{W}$ in- $\dot{q}$ úc-T- $\partial$ -[t]=s[t] $\underline{M}$ àr $\underline{y}$ = $\dot{q}$  qís-t?a=s[t] $\underline{L}$ úc $\underline{y}$  $\underline{J}$ USS-cut.s.-..-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M.=NC hair-3 PREP=DC[DM] L.

Mary had her hair cut by Lucy/ Mary had Lucy cut her hair. Gwin-k'otsdis Maryhl gest as Lucy.

• Reg: ntá wil-t k<sup>W</sup>in-quc-[t]=[s][t]<u>Màry</u>=4 qis-t
which way SUB-3E JUSS-cut.s.-[3]=DC [DM] M.=NC hair-3
Where did Mary have her hair cut?
Nda wilt gwin-k'ots Maryhl gest?

ná: wil-t  $k^{W}$ in- $\dot{q}$ úc-T- $\{t\}$ = $\{s\}$  $\{t\}$  $\underline{M}$ àry= $\hat{q}$  qís-t $\underline{JUSS-cut.s.-...-}$  $\{3\}$ = $\underline{DC}$  $\{DM\}$  $\underline{M}$ .=NC hair-3  $\underline{PREP}$ = $\underline{DC}$  $\{DM\}$  $\underline{L}$ .

By whom did Mary have her hair cut?
Who did Mary get to cut her hair?
Naa wilt gwin-k'ojis Maryhl gest?

In this case also, the clause which includes the suffix gives more definite information than the one without.

7.2.C.1.a.1.c. <u>Use in noun-phrase</u>: The suffix can also occur in a noun-phrase, after the Restrictive particle 10 hii/hla (6.1.B.2.), with the meaning the ... (of the ...), where the first noun is either a possessed noun, or a nominalized transitive verb. The morphosyntactic frame (7.3.B.1.b.) is:

the [N/P<sub>EA</sub>]-DEF-3 ...(DC/NC N) the ... of the ... the [N/P<sub>EA</sub>]-DEF-3 ...(DC/NC N)

When framing a noun, this frame results in a noun-phrase expressive of generic possession; with a transitive verb, it results in a nominalization.

#### 7.2.C.1.a.1.c.1. Framing a noun:

With a noun as its first component, this frame differs from a possessive noun-phrase preceded by 10 hli/hla expressing alienated possession (3.2.A.2.b.1.), in that the first noun takes the suffix (-T). The meaning os this frame is 'the (particular type of ) ... of a/the ....' Compare:

•  $\dot{w}$ á-(y)ð- $\dot{y}$ = $\frac{1}{2}$ 4 $\dot{y}$ àns-[t]= $\frac{1}{2}$  $\dot{q}$ ó:qst find.s.-CTL- $\frac{1}{2}$ =NC the leaf- $\frac{1}{2}$ =NC maple

I found a maple leaf (the leaf of a maple).

Wayiyhi hii yanshi k'ookst.

witis=+ +a yans-T-[t]=+ qoqst big=NC the leaf-...-[3]=NC maple

The leaf of the maple is large/ Maple leaves are large. Wiit'ish! hli yansih! k'ookst.

The forms of the suffix in the nominalizing frame have the same morphophonemic distribution as in other  $P_A$ 's in regular clause (7.2.C.1.a.1.a.1.):

#### (a) After stem-final consonant: surface realization is vocalic:

• de yans-T-[t]=deforest the leaf-...-[3]=NC maple

'the leaf of the maple, the maple leaf'
hli yansihl k'ookst

the leaf-...-3

'the leaf [of the maple]'
hli yansit

• 4a xhé:q-T-[t]=4sqan-lo:c
the blossoms-...-[3]=NC bush-elderberries

'the blossoms of the elderberry bush'

de xhé q-∑-t the blossoms-...-3

'the blossoms [of the elderberry bush i' hla zheegat

(b) After vowel or resonant: epenthetic /t/ followed by vocalic realization:

• †a wà-tT-[t]=s[t]?an-mò-q-m+há-t the name of "Gutsucker" the name-...-[3]=DC [DM] CAUS-suck-ATTR-guts hli wadis Anmoogam-Haat

da wà-**t**T−t

'the name he had ["Gutsucker"]'

the name-...-3

hli wadit

• 40 qàn-tT-[t]=4 qó:qst
the tree-...-[3]=NC map!e

'the trunk of the maple tree'

hla gandihl k'ookst

də qàn-**tT**−t

'the trunk [of the tree]'

the tree-...-3

hla gandit

• 4ə mò?on-tT-[t]=4x-súp-ỷ

'the salt in my soup [that I am eating]'

the salt-...-[3]=NC eat-soup-1S

hli mo'ondihl zsubiý

də mò?on-**t**T−t

the salt in it

the salt-...-3

bli mo'ondit

• †atimlan[x]-tT-[t]=†ksláwiskW 'the collar of the shirt'
the neck-...-[3]=NC shirt hli t'imlandihl kslawiskw

+ətimlàn[x]-tT-t

'the collar [of the shirt]'

the neck-...-3

hli t'imlandit

(see 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.(b) for /X/-deletion)

• †aqa-qisa?-tT-[t]=† maqs the DISTR-knee-...-[3]=NC pants

'the knees of the pants'
hla gak'esa'adihl maks

dəqa-qìsa?-tT-t

'the knees (of the pants)'

the DISTR-knee-...-3

hla gak'esa'adit

7.2.C.1.a.1.c.2. Nominalizations of  $P_{EA}$ :  $P_{EA}$ 's can be nominalized for use as Adjuncts (4.5.) by using the particle  $1 \ni hli/hla$  (6.1.B.2.) before the verb instead of the E clitic pronoun, and the suffix  $\{-T\}$  before the A suffix pronoun, whether the verb in its predicative role normally takes the suffix or not. This structure is exactly the same as that of the nominalizing morphosyntactic frame used for generic possession of nouns (7.2.C.1.a.1.c.1.). As with a verb occurring in a regular clause,  $\{-T\}$  appears as  $/\partial/$  after consonant, with epenthetic /t/ followed by  $/\partial/$  after vowel or resonant.

#### (a) consonant-final stem:

- verb without (-T):
- yùkW-tlípkW-[t]=† nád She is sewing the dress.

  PROG-3E sew.s.-[3]=NC dress Yukwt lipkwhl nak;
- yùkW-t lícx-[t]=+?an+ù:tukWs-mtimisT PROG-3E read.s.-[3]=NC valuable-ATTR writing

S/he is reading the Bible.

Yukwt litszhl Anhluut'ukwsim Timis.

- verb with (-T):

• yùkW-t[tqal=lip)lípkW-T]-[t]=qanmála?
PROG-3E[against=PL)sew.s.-...-][3]=NCdress

She is sewing on the buttons.

Yukwt tk'alliplipgwihl ganmala'a.

- Nominalization:
- 4a lipk W-T-[t]=4 náq the sew.s.-...-[3]=NC dress

'the seam of the dress, [the] sewing [of] a/the dress' hli lipgwihl nak'.

- to licx-T-[t]=t?antùtukWs-mtimisT (the) reading (of) the Bible the reads.-[3]=NC valuable-ATTR writing his litspahl Anhluut ukwsim Timis
  - (b) vowel-final stem:
- verb without (-T):
- Wil-tnaxňá-[t]=4 Willimx-ti .... as/when s/he heard someone singing.

  SUB-3E hear.s.-[3]=NCSUB sing-IMPS .... wilt naxňahl wil limxdii.
- Nominalization:
- ?á:m=† †\(\theta\) naxná-tT-t It sounded nice.

  good-NC the hear.s.-..-3 (lit. the hearing of it was good)

  Aamh! hli nagnadit.
  - (c) resonant-final stem:
- verb with (-T):
- yùkW-thi:=tam-tT-[t]=+limx S/he is writing down the song.

  PROG-3E down=write.s.-...-[3]=NC sing

  Yukwt hiit amdihl limx.
- Nominalization:
- 40 Åi:=tam-tT-[t]=4 limx | ithel writing down [of] a song the down-write.s.-..-(3)=NC sing | hli hiit amdihl limx

## 7.2.C.1.b. The Indefinite Medial suffix (-[t]kW):

This suffix probably consisted originally of a combination (-T-kW), but it has acquired an independent life as (-[t]kW). Like its Definite counterpart (-T), Indefinite (-[t]kW) occurs on a wide variety of stems. Its uses are more

varied than those of  $\{-T\}$ ; in several uses, it alternates with  $\{-s\}$ , which is used after Velars. It is probably that  $\{-[t]kW\}$  and  $\{-s\}$  were distinct at an earlier period, rather than alternants, but had similar meanings which made it easy for them to merge into a single morpheme, hence the present alternation, which however is no longer productive: only  $\{-[t]kW\}$  is used for new formations, some of them replacements for older forms in  $\{-s\}$ .

## 7.2.C.1.b.1. Shapes and morphophonemic conditions of occurrence:

The suffix  $(-[t]k^W)$  occurs as  $/tk^W/$  after vowel or resonant, as  $/k^W/$  after consonant. The /t/ here cannot be epenthetic, for two reasons:

(a) There are instances of  $/k^W/$  alone occurring after vowel or resonant, showing that there was an earlier suffix  $(-k^W)$  (7.2.C.2.b.3.). In most cases the stem is not recognizable alone:

Wilá:- <b>kW</b> (stem cf. Wila: 'how' <i>wilae</i> )	'to treat/handle/manipulate <u>s.</u> [in a certain way]' wilaakw	
ké:- <b>kW</b> (* k- 'one', 7.1.B. 2.c.1.)	'one [animal]' <i>k'eek</i> v	
kí - <b>k W</b> ?	'to buy <u>s.t.</u> '	
yán <b>-kW</b> ?	'to be mouldy'  yanky	
(Compare with		
hin)*yán <b>-tkW</b>	'[body part] to give a tickling sensatio	n

hinyantkw)

PL)\*tickle?-MED.I

where the suffix is  $\{-[t]kW\}$ .

(b) There is a general (though no longer productive) rule of Velar fricativization before adding the suffix (10.1.B.1.b.3.a.1.(b)), contrasting with modern examples which do not fricativize. We can interpret this contrast thus: the older suffix was (-kW), so the rule  $K > X / C_{-}$  applied to the stem-final Velar before the suffix, but the modern suffix is (-[t]kW): instead of fricativization, /t/-deletion occurs between consonants.

#### - older examples:

- modern example (in frame):

The old and new rules are responsible for doublets such as

7.2.C.1.b.2. <u>Uses</u>:

7.2.C.1.b.2.a. Cases where (-[t]kW) alternates with (-s):

In general, there is complementary distribution:  $\{-S\}$  after Velars,  $\{-[t]kW\}$  after non-Velars, but  $\{-[t]kW\}$  also occurs after Velars as well. In such cases, if the Velar is a non-glottalized stop, fricativization occurs, except in the most recent formations (7.2.C.1.b.1.(b)). This complementary distribution is valid for all meanings of the Indefinite Medial suffix, except for the adjectival meanings (resembling ..., having ...) where  $\{-S\}$  is not used  $\{7.2.C.1.b.2.b.\}$ . However, there are also cases where  $\{-S\}$  alone occurs, not  $\{-[t]kW\}$ , without a definable meaning.

It is likely that there were originally two separate suffixes, with distinct though similar meanings, and with a distribution conditioned by other factors (e.g. (-S) may have been used mostly after suffixes, now augments (3.1.A) which happened to be Velar). Those two suffixes later coalesced in meaning and were then restriced distributionally. Later, the extension of (-kW) as a result of its association with other suffixes ((-T), (-?S), etc.) encroached on the domain of (-S), and (-[t]kW) now occurs after Velars as well.

## 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1. Forms PA's:

#### 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.a. PA's built on intransitive stems:

(1) <u>Single stems</u>: There are very few instances where a stem occurs intransitively both by itself and also with the suffix (with different meanings), as in:

Many stems with occur with the suffix do not occur by themselves, but are otherwise found with transitive suffixes, especially the productive Causative

hagwindilp'in

suffix (-?n) (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.). This suggests that the stems themselves were originally neutral, as in many pairs such as:

•	*hít-[t]kW	'to stand'
	standing	hitkv
	hít- <b>?n</b> > hítin standing-CAUS	to stand <u>s.t.</u> up, to erect <u>s.t.</u> hit in
•	*k <sup>W</sup> Ó.t-[t]kW missing	'to be missing, lost'  **Endote **  **Endote
	* $\mathring{k}^{W}$ ó: $t$ -? $n > \mathring{k}^{W}$ ó: $\mathring{t}$ in missing-CAUS	'to lose <u>s.t.'</u> ***********************************
•	*ké:q-[t]kW > ké:xkW *isolate4?	'to flee/escape (sg.)'  *k'eex**
	ké:q- <b>?n</b> >ké:qan *isolated?-CAUS	'to put <u>s.</u> to flight' <i>k'eek'an</i>
•	*qísq-[t]k\ >qísxk\ *silent?	'to shut up (sg.)'
	qísq-7n >qísqan *silent?-CAUS	'to make <u>s.</u> shut up' <i>gesk <b>'an</b></i>
•	*tílp-[t]kW *close?	'to be close, at a short distance'
	hakWin=*tîlp-?n >=tîlpin closer-*close?-CAUS	'to bring <u>s.t.</u> closer'  hagwindilp'i

There is no mutual implication about these two suffixes, since there are also examples in  $\{-[t]kW\}$  contrasting with transitive verbs in  $\{-T\}$ , most of which also have neutral stems, for instance:

These examples suggest that the original meaning of the suffix is Medial (self-directed, though not reflexive, action), but not Definite.

(2) <u>Compound stems</u>: To this category belong more modern examples of compound verbs (9.2.A.1.b.) with reflexive meaning, such as:

## 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.b. $P_{\underline{A}}$ 's built on nouns:

(1) <u>Possessives</u>: This is a productive formation with any suitable noun. The suffixed forms can be used as verbs: 'to have ...' or as nouns: 's.t. one has' (see Non-intimate or Collective possession, 3.2.A.2.b.2.):

7ús-[t]kW dog	'to have a dog; a dog one has'  usk
hó:n- <b>tk<sup>W</sup></b> fish	'fish one has, one's [supplies of] fish'  hoonthy
winé:x <b>-s</b> > winé:ks food	'food one has, one's [supplies of] food' wineeks

It is likely that the word  $y\dot{u}:xk^{W}$  'to eat' yuuxkw, formed on the stem  $y\dot{u}:q$  'string of oolichans' yuuk, was originally a word of this type: 'to have a string of oolichans' (something to eat after the winter shortages).

(2) Intransitives: 'to be caught/surprised by ... [time word]'. This formation is no longer productive. It is equivalent to the more modern frame (x-...-[t]kw)(7.3.A.1.a.2.b.5.).

yúk<sup>w</sup>sa-tkw evening-...

'to be caught in the bush by nightfall'

yukwsatkw

lu=misá:x-s>lu:misá:ks in=daybreak-...

'[boy] to be discovered in a girl's house in the morning after spending the night with her' luumissaks

7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.  $\underline{P_A}$ 's built on  $\underline{P_{EA}}$ 's: Older derivatives express a general Medial or intransitive meaning. More recent words have a more definitely Passive or Reflxive meaning.

# 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.1. Older meaning: Medial or general intransitive:

lícx-[t]kW

'to count/read'

count/read.s.-...

litsxk

pcáý-tk<sup>W</sup>

'to comb one's hair'

comb.s.-...

pts'ayk V

?á:cax-[t]kW

'to be enough [for a purpose]'

reach goal-...

asjaskv

lítk-s

'to keep watch'

watch/guard.s.-...

lihlks

# 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.2. More modern meaning: Passive or Reflexive: formation of Passives is productive with (-[t]kw), not with (-s).

# (a) (-5) after Velar (no longer productive):

sə-kámk s to warm oneself make-hot-... sigamks cákW-s to be killed' kill.s.-... jakws hó:x-s>hó:ks 'to be used/worn' use .. s, - ... hooks sitxé:xW-s>sitxé:kWs 'to be changed, to change' change.s.-... sityeekws wód-s 'to be buried' dig.s.-... WOK'S

# (b) {-[t]kW} after non-Volars (and productively even after Velars):

cáp-[t]kW 'to be made' makes.-... jepkv qác-[t]kW 'to be spilled/poured' [fiquid] be-... gatsky kinám-tkW 'to be given' give.s.-... gińamtky lu=tám-tkW 'to be hugged' in=press.s.-... luudamtk w

see.s.-... Ra'atk (c) Passives are formed on a great variety of stems, including those with transitivizing suffixes (especially Causative and Completive). - on stems that take (-T) to become transitive: this is a modern development (cf. end of 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.a. above); máq-[t]k<sup>W</sup> 'to be put away' put.away-... makko (cf.máq-T-ə-t S/he put it away. put.away-DEF-CTL-3 Makdit) • ťám-t.kW 'to be written' write-... L'amik (cf.tam-tT-a-t S/he wrote it. write-DEF-CTL-3 T'amtdit) • qác-[t]kW 'to be poured/spilled' [liquid] be-... Ratsky (cf.qác-T-a-t S/he poured/spilled it. [liquid] be-DEF-CTL-3 Gatsdit) • iu:=tá:-tkW 'to have been put in [s.t.]' in=sit-... luut'aatk w (cf.lu:=tá:-tT-a-t S/he put it in. in=sit-DEF-CTL-3 Luut'aatdit)

'to be seen'

ká?-tkW

- on stems with transitivizing suffixes (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.): the resulting combinations have a Resultative meaning: 'to have been ...'

CAUSATIVE suffix (-?n): (a productive pattern):

\*hit-?n-tkW >hitintkW

'to have been erected'

standing-CAUS-...

hit'intk w

\*támq-?n-**tkW** xámqantkW hold.tight-CAUS-...

'to have been pulled tight' damk'antky

\*lágs-?n-**tkW** lágsa?antkW

'to have been bathed'

bathe-CAUS-...

laksa'antkw

ks-laxhá-[t]?ntkW %slaxhátintkW to have been exalted (religious most-sky-CAUS-...

sense! kslaxhat'intkw

COMPLETIVE suffix (-?1):

\*ťák-?}-tkW>ťákiltkW

'to have been folded, wrinkled'

\*folding-COMPL-...

t'ak'ilth

tákW-?l-tkW > tákWiltkW

'to have been wrung'

twist.s.-COMPL-...

t'akw'ilthw

\*łwá:x-?l-**tkW**>hlwá:ỷiltkW

'[food] to have been mixed, stirred'

\*mixing-COMPL-...

hlwaayiltkw

\*húk<sup>W</sup>-?l-**tk**W>húk<sup>W</sup>iltkW

'[flat object] to have been rolled up'

\*rolled?-COMPL-...

hukw'ilthw

7.2.C.1.b.2.a.2. Forms PEA's: Most of the examples of this use all end in

consonants, thus there is no unambiguous evidence that they are instances of the suffix  $\{-[t]kW\}$  rather than  $\{-kW\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.3.). However, as the latter is attached to less identifiable stems, and does not seem to alternate with  $\{-5\}$  as  $\{-[t]kW\}$  does, it is likely that the instances in this section are indeed of  $\{-[t]kW\}$ . The transitive meaning is probably related to the Resultative one: 'to have/get st. (done)'.

*lip-[t]k\\ sewn?	'to sew <u>s.t.'</u>	lip <b>k v</b>
náks-[t]k <sup>W</sup> spouse	'to marry <u>s.o.</u> '	naksk v
*káł-[t] <b>kW</b> pierce(d)	'to pierce <u>s.t.</u> '	gahikw
*x <sup>W</sup> -*stáq- <b>s</b> >k <sup>W</sup> stáqs ?-aside	'to abandon <u>s.</u> '	kwsda <u>k</u> s
*háp-[t]k\\ hold.down?	'to jump on <u>s.t.</u> , to	catch <u>s.t.</u> in a trap'
*qamk <sup>W</sup> i:- <b>tkW</b> bless(ed)	to bless/baptize	s.t.' <u>k'amgwii<b>tkv</b></u>
*fóq-[t]kW swallow(ed)	'to swallow <u>s.t.'</u>	hlo <u>k</u> 'k w
qús-{t]k\) jump	'to jump for <u>s.t.</u> '	goskv
*tq̃ís-[t]kW attack(ed)	'to attack <u>s.</u> '	t <b>k</b> 'es <b>k</b> ▼

\* $y \acute{o} x/*y \acute{o} q \{t\} k^{W}$  pierce(d)-...

'to follow s. (esp. a route), to use a means of transportation' your w

# 7.2.C.1.b.2.b. Cases where $\{-[t]kW\}$ does not alternate with $\{-s\}$ : forms $P_A$ 's built on nouns:

(1) older meaning: forms adjectives: 'to be like ...' (cf. modern frame  $\{x_5-...-[t]k^w\}$ , 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.6.):

číp**-[t]k**₩

'to be hard'

bone-...

ts'ipkw

qís-[t]kW

'to be narrow, thin [not flat]'

hair-...

gesky

lált-tkW

'to be slow'

worm-...

Islik w

tú:ċ-[t]kW

'to be black; [black] metal'

coal-...

t'uuts'kw

mi<del>1</del>á-**tk**₩

'to be green'

bile-...

mihlatky

?iłé:?-t**k**W

'to be red'

blood-...

ihlee'etkv

(2) productive meaning: '...ed, having ...', esp. with names of clothing and similar belongings (cf. (-T) with nouns, 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.1.b., and frame  $(-yu:-...-[t]k^w)$ , 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.4.).

?am?úķit**{t]k**₩

'to have one's clothes on'

clothes-...

am'ugitkw

púc-[t]kW boots	'to have one's boots on'  butsk
pilá:n- <b>[t]k<sup>W</sup></b> belt	'to have one's belt on'  bilaantk
k <sup>W</sup> ilá- <b>tk<sup>W</sup></b> bianket	'to have one's [ceremonial] blanket on'
ἀίἀ- <b>[t]k₩</b> chin, labret	'[woman] to have character; (lit. to have a labret on)' <u>k'ets'</u>

### 7.2.C.1.b.3. The Indefinite Passive suffix (-[t]kWs):

The Indefinite medial suffix (-[t]kW), which can have Passive meaning (7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.2.), can be followed by its normal alternant (-S) in what appears to be a pleonastic (doubly-marked) formation. The combination has an Indefinite Passive (PAS.I) meaning (cf. French reflexives with Passive meaning). Compare the following pairs:

• kíp-[t]  eat.s	'to [have] be[en] eaten' (Fr. être mangé)  gipkv
ķíp- <b>[t]</b> !	"to be eaten {in general}, to be edible
eat.s	(Fr. se manger) gipkus
• cáp-[t]	W 'to [have] belen] made' (Fr. être fait)  japk  japk  ✓
cáp-[t]	

#### Sentence examples:

• hawin-tikip-[t]kW-[t]=4 ?anà:X The bread hasn't been eaten yet.

not.yet-INTS eat.s.-PAS-[3]=NC bread (Fr. Le pain n'a pas encore été mangé.)

Hawindii gipkwhi anaax.

ni:-ti: $kip-[t]kWs-[t]=\frac{1}{2}$  cimà: $\hat{y}$  not-INTS eat.s.-PAS.I-[3]=NC bread

Barnacles are not eaten.
(Fr. Les balanes ne se mangent pas).

Nidii gip**k vs**hl ts'imaay.

hawin-ti:húkax-[t]=\timliki:kíp-[t]k\s-t
not.yet-INTS correct-[3]=NC FUT about eat.s.-PAS.I-t

It is not ready to eat (lit. to be eaten) yet. Hawindii hugarh! dim ligii gipk vst.

?awà?-[t]=+wil?a:ma:-cáp-[t]kW-[t]=+?anhò:ya?-ŷ
proximity-[3]=NC where well-make.s.-PAS-[3]=NC vehicle-1S

... where my car was fixed.

... awa'ahl wil amaajapkwhl anhooya'ay.

?awà?-[t]=qwil?a:ma:-cáp-[t]kWs-[t]=q?anhò:ya?
 proximity-[3]=NC where well-make.s.-PAS.I-[3]=NC vehicle

... at the garage (= where cars are fixed).

... awa'ahl wil amaajapkwahl anhooya'a.

#### 7.2.C.2. Other predicative suffixes:

In addition to the Medial suffixes, there are a number of other predicative suffixes, covering a wide range of modalities. Some are productive, others seem quite old. Many occur as clusters, and only the cluster has a recognizable meaning. The classification below is by no means the only one possible.

# 7.2.C.2.a. Suffixes beginning with vowels: Detransitive suffixes:

A Detransitive concentrates on the act or the potentiality of the act, without any consideration of a particular object (unlike an Antipassive, 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.). Many Detransitives occur mostly in derivatives or mediated Object-incorporating compounds (which have an indefinite meaning, 9.2.A.2.b.). Formally the Detransitives all include a vowel, whether stressed or unstressed.

7.2.C.2.a.1. <u>Unstressed suffixes</u>: The three detransitive suffixes  $\{-27\}$  (very widespread),  $\{-3X\}$  and  $\{-iX\}$  (both non-productive) are attached mostly to transitive stems. The unstressed vowel is inherent in the suffixes, not introduced to break a cluster, and it could perhaps represent the Control suffix  $\{-3-\}$  (7.2.A.3.). Although it is possible up to a point to assign a separate meaning to the consonantal elements, the combinations function as single suffixes in present-day Nisgha. These three suffixes seem to indicate the potentiality rather than the realization of the action indicated:  $\{-37\}$  seems to have a more active meaning,  $\{-3X\}$  and  $\{-iX\}$  a more stative or passive meaning.

7.2.C.2.a.1.a. (-a?) ...a's occurs frequently in derivatives with instrumental meaning, and in the verbal component of Object-incorporating compound verbs. Words formed with this suffix alone are sometimes used as nouns rather than verbs.

(1) After stop: the suffix glottalizes a preceding stop or affricate, through the rule of Anticipatory Glottalization, 10..1.A.2.a.1.)

cí:p-a? >cí:pa? 'to tie w. knot' sqa=cí:pa? 'necktie'
tie.s.-... ts'iip'z'z barring=... sgats'iip'z'z

ha-tqal=cì:pa?-m+kiwatán
INSTR-against=tie-ATTR+horse
'bridle and bit' hatk'alts'iip'a'am-gyuwadan

 ?i.c-a? > ?i.ca?
 'to fry/iron'
 ha-?i.ca?
 '(an) iron'

 fry.s.-...
 iits's's
 INSTR-...
 ha iits's's

lák-a? > láka? '[fish] to pour out ?an-láka? 'end of oolichan net'

occur.as.mass-... of a net' lak's s place-... anlak's s

silákW-a? > silákWa? 'to burn things' silákWa?-m+?am?úkit burn.s.-... silakw'z'z ...-ATTR+clothes

'to burn old clothes'
(traditional custom)
silakw'a'am-am'ugit

 $qilk^W-a? > qilk^Wa?$  'headscarf, kerchief' wind around s.-... gelkwa'z

dáq-a? > dáda? 'to open things' ha-dáda? 'key'

open.s.-... kak's's INSTR-... hak'sk's's

## Consonants which are already glottalized remain so:

hác-a? >háca? 'to bite; a bite' qan-háca? 'clothespin' bite-... hats'z'z means-... ganhats'z'z

(2) After post-vocalic Velar fricative: the rule of Glide-formation (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.a.) occurs when a stem-final Velar fricative is in intervocalic position:

7úx-a? >7úya? 'to hit [against s.]' qan-7úya? 'boat bumpers' hit.s.-... uya'a place-... gan'uya'a

kúxW-a?>kúwa? '\*to shoot' kùwa?-m+ná.†q '[whale] to blow' shoot.s.-... guwa'a ...-ATTR+breath guwa'am-naah/k

(3) After other consonants: non-Velar fricatives are not affected, neither are resonants:

má:ks- <b>a?</b> put.s.in.water	to put s. [a net] in the water' maaksa a	mà.ksa?-m+?á:t ATTR+net	'to put the net(s)' in the water' maakss'sm-aat
hák <sup>W</sup> 4- <b>a?</b> hook.s	to hook things'	ha-min=hák <sup>W</sup> łac I <b>NSTR-up</b> =	L-shaped hook for lifting colichan net haminhakwhle s
ksax-kiňám <b>a?</b> only-give.s	'(to give) gift(s)' <i>ksa<u>rg</u>ińam<b>a 's</b></i>		
*yál- <b>a?</b> turn.s	'*to turn things'  yala's	ha-yála? INSTR ha-yàla?-m+ <del>1</del> ki	auger, drill' <i>hayal<b>a a</b></i> Mát 'eggbeater'
wán- <b>a?</b> set.s.PL	'to plant things'		hayala'am-higimat  t 'to plant potatoes' wana'am-sguusiit

## Already glottalized resonants remain so:

qé:l- <b>a?</b>	'to knead'	qaltim-qè:la?	'kneading-bowl'
knead.s	geel <b>s 's</b>	container	galdimgeela'a

This suffix occasionally occurs after other, older suffixes, e.g.

sitá:-m-a? 'to start, begin' ({-m} 7.2.C.2.b.4.)
start-TEMP?-...
sit same 's

7.2.C.2.a.1.b. (-ax) -ax This suffix is not productive. It forms nouns, adjectives or intransitives. The /x/ component occurs in other suffixes as well, where it seems to have an instrumental meaning (7.2.C.2.b.5.a.):

#### (1) forms nouns:

háp-ax 'lid' knead.s.-... habar

### (2) forms adjectives or intransitives.

(3) This suffix is also found followed by other suffixes, for instance by (-T) (7.2.C.1.a.):

by (-S) (7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.2.), which causes Stop-formation, (10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1.):

mak'ag'askw

and also by the Antipassive (-?SkW) (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.), as in:

where the combination  $/X^{-7}$ / gives rise to glottalized  $/\mathring{q}$ / (10 A.1.b.2.a.2.), as also in the following example with Causative suffix (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.):

7.2.C.2.a.1.c. (-ix) ...ix This suffix is not productive. The /X/component seems to indicate uncontrolled action, which may continue indefinitely once started (7.2.C.b.6.c.). This suffix is found before a suffix (-S) similar to that in the Antipassive suffixes (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.), but without the /?/ component which seems to indicate deliberate action (7.2.C.2.b.1.). Stop-formation occurs before /S/(10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1.).

(1) <u>before (-S-T)</u>: (with Definite Medial suffix (-T)): forms transitives or intransitives. The action seems to continue until exhaustion of its possibilities:

(2) <u>before  $\left(-s-[t]kW\right)$ </u>: (with Indefinite Medial suffix  $\left(-[t]kW\right)$ , 7.2.C.i.b.): the action continues indefinitely:

#### 7.2.C.2.a.2. Stressed suffixes:

These suffixes are not productive. As the suffix is stressed, the stem is unstressed and the stem vowel is reduced. Alternately, the stem vowel is lost, then a neutral epenthetic vowel is inserted (and adjusted to its consonantal environment), except where there has been fusion of the two consonants of the stem, as in  $\sqrt{l} + \frac{4}{3} > \frac{37}{6}$ .

Compared to the other detransitive suffixes, which seem to denote potentiality, the stressed suffixes seem to indicate that the action continues over a period of time.

7.2.C.2.a.2.a.  $[-\acute{e}:?]$  . ee'e: The use of this suffix is similar to that of [-a?] (7.2.C.2.a.1.a.): it forms intransitive verbs, sometimes nouns, and is frequently used in object-incorporating compounds. It may or may not be significant that the great majority of the words it is attached to are built on stems ending in anterior consonants.

*ká <b>1-é:?</b> > ki <b>1</b> é:? pierce.s	'to embroider' (orig. with porcupine quills) gihlee'e	kiłè?-m+tála ATTR+silver	'to carve silver' gihl <b>ee'e</b> m-daala
tát-é:7 > té? spread.s.flat	'to remove things	' sa:=ἆé·? off=	'to undress' saatl'ee'e
		λè:?-m+nó?o <del>l</del> ATTR+dishes	'to clear the table' after a meal' tl'ee'em-no'ohl
mán- <b>é:?</b> > miné:? smear.s	to apply s.t. to the skin' minee'e	ha-miné:? INSTR	'skin cream or lotion'
*(t)qat-e:7 > (t)qa patch.s (cf. (t)qatx 'to pa	k'adee'e	?an-tqaté? INSTR	's.t. used for a patch' antk'adee'e

It is likely that the same suffix is present also in

la:X=?ayé? 'to throw a ball back and forth' back.&.forth=... lass'aye'e

built on the stem ?ÚX 'to hit s.' ur (cf. above ?úya? 'to hit against s.' uya'a.
7.2.C.2.a.1.a.), but it is not clear why the vowel should be short in this case (cf. also the short vowel of kipé?eskw 'to wait' gibe'eskw; Antipassive of kipá 'to wait for s.' giba, 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.a.).

Remark: It is likely that this suffix was originally composed of two suffixes, older \*\*-éh (now represented by stems ending in stressed á), and the Detransitive  $\{-a?\}$ , thus the sequence \*\*-éh-a? resulting in the present

suffix after loss of the unstressed vowel and vocalization of the /h/ (Tarpent 1983b).

7.2.C.2.a.2.b. (-isT)/(-iskW): The suffix, found only in a few words, seems to occur only accompanied by the more ubiquitous Medial suffixes (-T), (7.2.C.1.a.) and (-[t]kW) (7.2.C.1.b.), so these combinations are treated here as single suffixes. Their meanings seem close to those of the Antipassive suffixes (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.), which also include an /S/ component.

7.2.C.2.a.2.b.1. [-IST]: as in many other cases, post-consonantal (-T) is being lost from the speech of many YFS and its presence can be inferred from other alternations.

skán-isT > skinísT 'pine-tree'

pitch, gum-... sginist

tám-isT > timísT 'to write, writing'
write.s.-... timis(t)

qan-timísT 'pencil'
means-... gant'imis(t)

yukW=\frac{1}{2} timisT-t
 PROG=NC writing-3
 S/he is writing.
 Yukwhl t'imis(i)t.

7.2.C.2.a.2.b.2. (-1sk\w):

tál-ískW > tilískW 'to make shakes' ha-tilískW 'froe'

split.s.[wood]-... t'iliskW INSTR-... hat'iliskW

WÖḍ-ískW > WaḍískW 'to dig., esp. ?an-waḍískW 'gravesite'

split.s.[wood]-... to dig a grave' INSTR-... an wak 'eskw

wak 'eskw

In the following form:

```
naxná-ísk >naxnísk 'to hear' ha-naxnísk 'hearing aid' hear.s.-... haaszáisk | INSTR-... haaszáisk |
```

the suffix vowel has cancelled the stem-final vowel, by a rule which does not seem to be currently productive.

#### 7.2.C.2.b. Consonantal suffixes:

7.2.C.2.b.1. Suffixes beginning with /?/: A number of predicative suffixes consist of a glottal stop followed by another consonant. Although they vary greatly in productivity, all seem to have in common the meaning 'deliberate action.' They include Transitive suffixes which require an Object to be mentioned in the context, Antipassive suffixes which only imply an Object, as well as other suffixes more difficult to categorize. Some of these formations are obviously older than others, and suggest different origins for the present meanings. A few forms suggest that the glottal stop which is a component of most of these suffixes must have been a separate suffix itself in an older period (7.2.C.2.b.1.d.).

Suffixes beginning with /?/ cause glottalization in the preceding segment(s). The following is a summary of Glottalization rules (see 10.2.B.1.b.) for details):

- stems ending in stops and affricates glottalize the post-stress consonant(s) (10.2.B.1.b.1.);
- stems ending in non-Velar fricatives add the epenthetic vowel /d/ before the suffix (10.1.A.1.a.2.a.(2));
- with stems ending in Velar fricatives, the merging of the fricative with the glottal stop usually causes a glottalized resonant (10.2.B.1.b.1.b.2.a);
- stems ending in vowels or resonants add epenthetic /t/ before the suffix (10.2.A.1.b.1.);
  - with suffix combinations, glottalization rules function as if only the first

suffix began with /?/.

## 7.2.C.2.b.1.a. Transitivizing suffixes:

7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1. The Causative suffix (-?n): This suffix is very widespread and productive.

(a) With an intransitive verb: it expresses direct causation, by the will or direct physical control of the Agent over the Object:

lák-?n be.in.heap	> lá <b>k</b> in	to wreck <u>s.t.'</u>
xháy <b>k₩-?n</b> capsize	>xháy <b>k<sup>w</sup></b> in	'to capsize <u>s.t.'</u> <u>xhay<b>k v'in</b></u>
hitá <b>q-?n</b> break	> hi <del>l</del> á <b>ďa</b> n	'to break <u>s.t.</u> (stick, bone, etc.)' hihla <b>k an</b>
m̂ <b>c-?n</b> pinched	> m̃í <b>c</b> in	'to pinch, squeeze <u>s.t.</u> (between two things)' mits in
ǩ <sup>W</sup> á <b>s−?n</b> shatter	> k̂ <sup>W</sup> á <b>sa</b> ?an	'to shatter <u>s.t.'</u> ***********************************
ké <b>d-?n</b> lie	> ké: <b>∃a</b> ?an	'to lay <u>s.</u> down, put <u>s.</u> to bed' <i>geehla</i> an
ksá <b>x<sup>W</sup>-?n</b> go.out	>ksa <b>w</b> in	'to cause <u>s.</u> to go outside (e.g. to put <u>a dog</u> out)' <i>(ksarv) ksavin</i>
pá <b>x-?n</b> run	> pá <b>?</b> an	'to run/drive/play, etc. <u>s.t.'</u> (ba <u>r</u> ) ba <b>'an</b>

(for deletion of /X/ here, see 10..2.A.2.b.2.b.2.(b))

The suffix is almost certainly present in the following form ending in  $/\mathring{n}/$ , although the root is not fully recoverable:

(b) With an adjective: the Causative means 'to find <u>s.</u> ..., to experience <u>s.</u> as ..., to notice that <u>s.</u> is ...' (in these formations the element of deliberateness or active will is missing, but that of conscious mental activity is still present):

likskåt-?n different	>likská <b>ť</b> in	'to notice a difference in <u>s</u> , to notice that <u>s.</u> is different' liksgat in
qás <b>q-?n</b> bitter	>qás <b>q</b> an	'to hate the taste of <u>s.t.</u> (to find it bitter)'
x411-?n delicious	> x+i <b>it</b> in	'to like the taste of <u>s.t.</u> (to find it tasty)'

It is likely that the following forms, where the base is not used in isolation, are also instances of this formation:

\*si:p-?n >si:pin 'to love s.o. (to experience pain, not to painful?-... cause it)' siip'in

\*
$$\mathring{k}\mathring{W}$$
0:t-?n > $\mathring{k}\mathring{W}$ 0:tin 'to lose s.o. (to experience it as missing)' missing-... kw'oot'in

(c) <u>With a transitive verb</u>: the Causative has the meaning 'to cause s.o. to [verb] s.t.' (the semantic Object may vary depending on the verb):

(d) Many of the bases the suffix is attached to also occur followed by the Indefinite Medial suffix  $\{-[t]k^w\}$ , so that there are contrastive word-pairs, but there is no mutual implication between the two suffixes (see also 7.2.C.1.b.). Some examples of pairs are:

Some Causatives formed on nouns designating clothes seem to be back-formations from words ending in the MED.I suffix and meaning 'to be ...ed, to have one's ... on' (7.2.C.1.b.2.b.(2)):

(e) In some recent formations, the Causative suffix is often followed by the Indefinite Medial suffix  $(-[t]k^{W})$ , here with the productive Passive meaning (7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.2.), or by one of the Antipassive suffixes, usually the Indefinite  $\{-75k^{W}\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.b.), hence new pairs such as:

There are also isolated instances of other suffixes, as in the older form:

\* 
$$\hat{c}i:X^W/\hat{c}i:k^W-?n-x \rightarrow \hat{c}i:\hat{k}^Winx$$
 '(net) to be tangled up' ?-...-INSTR?   
(see 7.2.C.2.b.4.a.for  $\{-x\}_{-x}$ ).

7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2. The Completive suffix (-?1): This suffix is less widespread than the Causative suffix (-?1). Its meaning indicates that the action is carried to its conclusion, somewhat like the English particle up.

7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.a. <u>Used alone</u>: Like the Causative suffix, the Completive is often added to stems which only occur with other suffixe, especially the Indefinite Medial  $\{-[t]kW\}$  (see 7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.(d), (e)).

Unlike the Causative suffix, which is used exclusively to form verbs, the Completive suffix also occurs in a number of other parts of speech, as in:

This suffix is almost certainly present in a number of forms (not all) ending in /1/ after a stressed vowel, where the rest of the word is only partly analyzable:

7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.b. <u>Used with other suffixes</u>: Like the Causative suffix (-?n), the Completive suffix (-?l) is often followed by Antipassive or Medial/Passive suffixes. In either case, the use of the Definite variant seems to be older, that of

the Indefinite seems to be more recent.

- (1) With Definite suffixes: with Definite suffixes, the Completive suffix seems fo form a unit, as there are no corresponding forms without the extra suffix:
- followed by the Definite Antipassive (-7sT) (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1.): it forms the adjective:

- followed by the Definite Medial suffix  $\{-T\}$  (7.2.C.1.a.): it forms a number of nouns and adjectives (in this case, the /t/occurring after /l/ is always clearly audible):

This suffixe combinations probably occurs also in words where the root is not entirely recognizable, for instance

and the following numbers:

- (2) With Indefinite suffixes: Indefinite Antipassive or Passive/Medial suffixes are often added to existing words ending in the Completive suffix:
  - followed by the Indefinite Antipassive (-?SkW) (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.)

\*
$$\mathring{k}W\acute{o}:t-?l-?sk^W>\mathring{k}W\acute{o}:\mathring{t}ilsk^W$$
 'to lose consciousness' lost-...-AP.I (\* $\mathring{k}W'oot'il$ )  $\mathring{k}W'oot'ilsk^W$  \* $\mathring{t}o$  keep count, do the accounts' count-...-AP.I (\* $\mathring{l}its'il$ )  $\mathring{l}its'ilsk^W$  \* $\mathring{t}o$  mix, stir (e.g. while cooking)' mixed?-...-AP.I (\* $\mathring{l}lwaz\dot{v}il$ )  $\mathring{l}lwaz\dot{v}ilsk^W$ 

- followed by the Indefinite Medial (here Passive) suffix  $\{-[t]k^{\mathbf{W}}\}$  (7.2.C.1.b.):

\*
$$t$$
ák-? $l$ - $t$ k $W$  >  $t$ ák $i$ l $t$ k $W$  'to be folded up' folded?-...-MED.I (t'ak'iI) t'ak'iItk $W$ 

- There are also instances of other suffixes, as in

#### 7.2.C.2.b.1.b. Antipassive suffixes:

The Antipassive (AP) emphasizes the action being performed, leaving its Object indefinite. However, unlike the Detransitive (7.2.C.2.A.), the Antipassive implies that the action does have an Object, which is left unmentioned but may be reintegrated into the sentence after the preposition ?a. The time required to perform the action is also left indefinite, and performance may take place at intervals, as needed. Many Antipassives have specialized meaning, and some are used as nouns.

The Antipassive suffix (-7S) always occurs followed by a Medial suffix, either the Definite (-T) or the Indefinite  $(-[t]k^{W})$ ; here the two combinations are treated as single suffixes (cf. the stressed Detransitives (-iST) and  $(-iSk^{W})$ , 7.2.C.2.a.2.b.).

The Definite Antipassive (AP.D) (-?sT) implies that there is a single Object of the action, and/or that the action is performed in a single period of time. Relatively few verbs include this suffix, and some of them can be used as nouns. The suffix is also added to a number of nouns to form new nouns.

The Indefinite Antipassive (AP.I) {-?SkW} implies that there is an indefinite number of Objects of the action, and/or that the action may be performed at intervals. Most of the words with this suffix are verbs, often with specialized meaning, a few are nouns. In most cases of verbal usage, the unmentioned

Object of the action may be included in the clause as a prepositional Object (4.2.A.4.a.).

With both Definite and Indefinite suffixes, the use as, or with, both noun and verb recalls the English suffix -ing as in covering, roofing. Other derivatives may be built on words formed with the Antipassive suffixes. As with the Detransitives (7.2.C.2.a.), Instrumental nouns and Object-incorporating verbs are especially common.

# 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1. The Definite Antipassive suffix (-7sT):

7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1.a <u>Forms Antipassive verbs from verbal stems</u>: The suffix is frequently added to stems with occur with other verbal suffixes, e.g. Causative or Medial.

## (1) Use as single verb:

The recent productivity of this suffix is shown by its use with an English borrowing in:

The stem of the word ha-qé?esT 'sharpening tool' hage'es(t) is an Antipassive of this type, but the root or base cannot be established with certainty (cf. qé:x 'to grind, sharpen st' geer).

#### Sentence examples:

(2) Some Definite Antipassives can be used as both verb and noun:

\*
$$h\acute{u}k^W$$
-?sT > $h\acute{u}k^W$ isT 'to snare an animal; a snare' snare.s.?-... hukw'is(t)

?ukWs=caq-?sT>?ukWs=caqasT 'to stick out; porch, awning, visor' outward=nose, protrusion-... ukwsts'ak'as(t)

or as noun alone:

$$lilk^W-?sT > lilk^W isT$$
 'shoelaces (lit. lacing)' lace.s.-... lilkw'is(t)

The noun kimisT 'soft shredded bark, formerly used as kindling, diapers, etc.' gimis(t) also has the form of an Antipassive (\*kim-?sT , cf. Eng. kindling

from to kindle). The root \*kim gim recalls kámk 'hot' gamk, which has the root \*kám gam (for root-vowel alternations, see 3.1.A.).

(3) Use as compound verb: Definite Antipassives can participate in mediated Object-incorporating compounds; the Object is a single item (9.2.A.2.a.(1)). Some of these compounds can also be used as nouns.

pè:nisT-m+wilp

paint-ATTR-house

péenisim-wilp

kùwsT-m+smáx

to kill a bear; bear one killed'

kill.game-ATTR-bear

nùkwisT-m+qáx

to snare a rabbit; rabbit one snared'

snare-ATTR-rabbit

hukwisim-gan

ni:-ti:-tna:=ta-?ákłkW-[t]=ł kùwsT-m+smáxt
 not-INTS-3E out.of.woods=DOM-able-[3]=NC kill.game-ATTR+bear
 He wasn't able to get the bear he had killed, from the forest to the village.

Nidiit naadi'akhikwhl gu vsim-smart

(4) Use with other suffixes: In a few instances, the Definite Antipaassive suffix is associated with a transitivizing suffix, especially Causative or Completive (cf the much more common use of the Indefinite Antipassive after those suffixes, 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.b.).

- after Causative (-?n) (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.)

 $tux^{W}$ ) $táx^{W}$ -?n-?sT > $tux^{W}$ táwinsT PL)dead?-CAUS-...

'to be sluggish, lethargic'

- after Completive (-?1) (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.):

wilá:x-?l-?sT > wilá:kilsT

'to be knowledgeable, educated'
wilaak'ils(t)

7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1.b. Forms nouns from other nouns: The new noun means 'part [of an object] resembling ..., having the function of ...' (lit. 'noun-ing'; this use recalls that of the frozen suffix (-7), 7.2.C.2.b.1.d.).

?an?ún**-?sT**>?an?únsT

'sleeve'

hand(s)/arm(s)-...

an'uns(t)

qán-?sT>qánsT

'[straight] handle [of an axe, etc.]'

stick-...

gais(t)

timlán[x] +sT > timlánsT

'collar'

neck-...

timlans(t)

(for /X/-deletion see 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.(b))

• ni:-ti:timlánsT-[t]=fcàkit-y My blouse doesn't have a collar.

not-INTS collar-[3]=NC blouse (< iacket)-1S Nidii t'imlansihl jagidiy.

7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2. The Indefinite Antipassive suffix  $\{-?5kW\}$ : This suffix is usually added to transitive stems, whether plain or already suffixed, where it is very productive. Indefinite Antipassives often have a specialized meaning, especially those which are only used as nouns. Object-incorporation is also extremely frequent (9.2.A.2.a.(2)).

7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.a. Added to plain stems: most of these stems occur as transitive verbs without other suffixes.

(1) Use as verb: in many cases these verbs can also be used nominally:

kíp**-?sk<sup>₩</sup>** 

>kíṗisk<sup>₩</sup>

'to eat berries while picking'

eat.s.-...

gip'iskv

háď- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> bite.s	>hácisk <sup>W</sup>	'to bite' (as in: 'that dog v	
yú:timq-?sk <sup>W</sup> advise/admonish	•	'to give advice; to tell s.o.	how to behave'
?a-páq- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> spontaneous-fee	%apádask <sup>₩</sup> 1. <b>s</b>	'to be excited, anxious, ea (older meaning) to be up abak'a	oset'
tás- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> touch.s	xása?ask <sup>w</sup>	'[disease] to be contagious	
má†- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> teil.s	>má <del>1</del> a?ask₩	'to preach, make an anno tell on s.o.' mahla	ouncement,
à:m-(ə)t=1má1a?ask <sup>W</sup> good-REL=NC announcement		'the Gospel' (lit. Good New Aamit	vs) h <i>i Mahl<b>a'ask v</b></i>
ťáx <sup>W</sup> -?s <b>k</b> ₩ sweep.s	>ťáwisk <sup>w</sup>	'to sweep'	tv
lúx <sup>W</sup> -?5 <b>k</b> W not.let.others.ha	>lúਔsk <sup>₩</sup> ve <b>s</b>	'to be "stingy", possessive	e, to refuse to
x-7álkax <b>.7sk<sup>v</sup></b> claim-talk	♥>x़?álkaqaskW	'to govern/reign; reign,	kingdom'
łimó:m-7skW help.s	>†imó:ṁisk <sup>₩</sup>	'to help out [with money as required by traditiona hlimo	

Sillín-?skW chase.s	>si·lín≀sk₩	'to hunt'
swán- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> blow.s	>swáńsk <sup>W</sup>	'[shaman] to blow on s.o. [to cure h.]'  **Swansk***
SƏ-tá:W- <b>?sk<sup>W</sup></b> make-freeze	>sitá:w≀isk™	'to freeze food' sidaa <b>v</b> iskv
ká? <b>-?sk<sup>W</sup></b> see.s	>ká?ask₩	'to look [around, etc.]'
čó?− <b>?sk₩</b> puii.s.apart	>ċó?osk₩	'to skin animals'

A few such Antipassives are built on transitive stems consisting of a verbforming prefix plus a noun, e.g.

and the following ambient predicate is formally an Antipassive, built on an intransitive stem:

The productivity of this suffix is shown by its use with English words, e.g.

$$\frac{\text{can-7skW}}{\text{can.s.-...}} \rightarrow \underline{k} \hat{a}: \hat{n} \text{iskW} \qquad \text{'to can food, do some canning'}$$

$$\frac{\text{bottle-7skW}}{\text{bottle.s.-...}} \rightarrow \underline{p} \hat{o}: \underline{ti} \text{skW} \qquad \text{'to jar food'}$$

$$\frac{\text{bottle.s.-...}}{\text{(bootilskW)}}$$

The Nisgha versions of these words are written between brackets, as they are by no means acceptable to all speakers. (See below 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.b.(3) for non-glottalization of the post-stress consonant).

An older form is the following, corresponding to transitive kipá 'to wait for s.' giba; the vowel-alternation indicates that there was a different vowel in the original stem, which was most likely \*\*kipéh (\*gibeh) (cf. remarks on Detransitive (-é:?) above, 7.2.C.2.a.b.1.):

$$x-m\acute{a}lk^W-7sk^W>xm\acute{a}lk^Wisk^W$$
 'deceased person's belongings given away [ instead of being burnt]

(3) Some are used as nouns when by themselves, as verbs in Object-incorporating compounds (see below 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.c.):

sə-miyen-qskw simiyeniskw smoked spring salmon make-smoke-... simiyeeniskw

simiyenisky-m+hon to smoke fish smoking-ATTR+fish simiyeenisgum-hoon

In the following example, the Antipassive is used as a noun:

but it also enters into an Object-incorporating verb as its verbal component; this verb can in turn be used as a noun:

CàkWiskW-m+qáx 'to kill rabbits; rabbit killed (lit. killing-ATTR+rabbit 'rabbit-killing')

jakw'isgum-gar

• ni:-ti:-t kip-[t]=+ cakWiskW-m+qax-t not-INTS-3E eat.s.-[3]=NC killing-ATTR+rabbit-3

He did not eat the rabbit he had killed.

Nidiit giph! jakw'isgum-gagt.

7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.b. Added to stems ending in transitive suffixes: The AP.I suffix  $\{-75kW\}$  is often added to verbs which end in a transitivizing suffix, especially the Causative  $\{-71\}$  and to a lesser extent the Completive  $\{-71\}$ . With these suffix combinations, glottalization occurs only once, with the stem-final consonant; the suffix resonant is not glottalized (10.1.B.2.).

(1) After Causative [-?n] (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.): most of the Antipassives formed on Causatives are verbs, a few are also used as nouns. sometimes there seems to be no independent Causative form, and the combination [-?n-?skw], which is productive, is added directly to a stem. In the examples below, the two suffixes are indicated separately when this is the case. The combination often has the meaning 'self-actuated, acting independently.'

likskåtinskW 'to notice [a difference, that s. is likskátin**-?sk<sup>W</sup>** differentl' liksgat'inskw different-... kipáyk<sup>w</sup>in-?sk<sup>w</sup>>kipáyk<sup>w</sup>insk<sup>w</sup> 'airplane' gibaykw'inskw fly.s.-... XStámq-?n-?skW>XStámdanskW 'to make noise (deliberately)' xsdamk 'anskw noise-...-... sáksa?an**?sk<sup>W</sup> »**áksa?ansk<sup>W</sup> 'to clean up' clean.s.-... saksa'an**sk**w qúsa?an**?sk**W xqusa?anskW 'firecracker' explode.s.-... gosa'anskv kutáca?an**?sk<sup>W</sup>** xutáca?anskW to put the coat on the bride las part of the traditional wedding ceremony] put.coat.on.s.-... k'udats'a'anskw >pá?ansk<sup>W</sup> pá?an**-?sk**₩ 'to drive' ba'anskw run.s.-... səwilá:yı́n-?skW >siwilá:yı́nskW 'to teach' siwilaayin**skw** teach.s.-...

límin-?sk₩ >líminsk W 'to play music; music' play.s.-... liminsky ?ax-wiltin-?skW >?axwiltinskW 'to be disobedient' not-manifest.s.-... axwilt'insk nítin-?skW >ñítinsk₩ 'to bear witness, to confess' bear.witness.to.s.-... nit'insk w ⇒té?etinsk<sup>W</sup> \*té?-?n-**?sk**\ 'to beat time, conduct a band' lead?-...-... de'et'insk

The combination is also used in more complex formations, such as:

ha-ni:-xs-pát-?n-?skW>hani:xspátinskW matting of cedar boughs'
INSTR-on-like-spread.flat-...-... haniixsbatl'inskw

qan-sə-xpičáxW-?n-?skWxqansaxpičáwinskW 'scarecrow, s.t. intended

means-make-afraid-...- to frighten'

gansazbits'awinskw

(2) After Completive [-?1] (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.): there are a number of Antipassive forms built on existing Completive verbs.

lípil-?skw >lípilskw 'to mend things (esp. nets)'
mend.s.-...

kwó:til-?skw >kwó:tilskw 'to lose consciousness'
lose.track.of.s.-...-...

kwoot'ilskw

lícil-?skw >lícilskw 'to keep count of things, to calculate'
count.s.-...

(3) Non-glottalization of some resonant-final stems: Glottalization occurs only once in suffix clusters such as those where the Indefinite Antipassive  $(-7Sk^W)$  is added to the Causative (-7R) or the Completive (-7l) (10.1.B.2.). As the resonant which ends Causatives and Completives is not glottalized in this process, so the Antipassive suffix appears superficially to be only  $(-5k^W)$ . This explains the occurrence of some otherwise irregular Antipassive forms where the stem-final resonant is not glottalized:

(note the similarity of the surface shape of the post-stress half of this word with that of, for instance, SákSa?anskw 'to clean up' saksa'anskw , where the AP.I suffix is added to a stem containing the Causative suffix).

$$yim-[?]sk^W \rightarrow yimsk^W$$
 'to sniff' smell.s.-...  $yimsk^W$ 

(compare forms with the predicative suffix (-m), 7.2.C.2.b.4.)

7.2.B.2.b.1.b.2.c. <u>Use in Object-incorporating compounds</u>: Indefinite Antipassives are very commonly involved in the formation of mediated Objecc-incorporating compound verbs designating actions habitually done on an indefinite number of objects. Note that these compounds can also be used as nouns designating the result of the action: the English translation includes a past participle, which gives the impression of a Passive construction, but the

# meaning of the Nisgha compound is Active, not Passive.

simò?onskW-m+hó:n 'to salt fish; fish salted' (lit. fish-salting-ATTR+fish salting) simo'onsgum-hoon

kìlskW-m+cáq 'to dig for clams, [to go] clam-digging; gathering-ATTR+clams clams dug' gilsgum-ts'ak'

†Wà:ỷisk<sup>W</sup>-m+?aná:x 'to mix dough; dough mixed' salting-ATTR+fish *h/waaŷisgum-anaax* 

Sitá: wisk - m+smáx 'to freeze meat; meat frozen (lit. meat-salting-ATTR+fish freezing)' sidas wisgum-smax

correction of the control of the co

Si:lìnskW-m+mú:s 'to hunt moose, [to go] moose-hunting' hunting-ATTR+moose siilinsgum-muus

lìpilskW-m+9á:t 'to mend nets; net-mending'
mending-ATTR+net 'lip'ilsgum-aat

lìcilskW-m+tá:la 'to keep track of money, do the counting-ATTR+money (dollar) accounts' lits'ilsgum-daala

The productivity of this formation is shown by the following recent coinages:

kipày kwinskw-m+?álkax 'to broadcast, bradcasting'
self.flying-ATTR+talk gibaykw'insgum-algaz
(coined for the Northern Native Broadcasting Corporation in Terrace, B.C.)

hani-maqònisk -m+?álkax 'dictionary'
book.of-explaining-ATTR+talk haniimagoonisgum-algax

(coined by Rev. Hubert McMillan of Aiyansh for the Nisgha Phrase Dictionary published by School District 92 (Nisgha)).

7.2.C.2.b.1.c. Suffixes consisting of /?/ + Velar: These suffixes are not procutive (cf. the Detransitives in  $/\partial/$  + Velar, 7.2.C.2.a.1.). They often form complex suffixes with other predicative suffies, especially Antipassives (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.), and with what appears to be an augment /C/ (3.1.A.). With Antipassive suffixes, which include a component (-?S), the suffix Velar is not glottalized (cf. 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.b.(3)), but contact with /S/ causes Stop- formation (10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1.).

7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1. (-?x/-?ksl/): The suffix (-?x) occurs mostly followed by an Antipassive suffix, In most cases the stems are not identifiable with certainty. The meaning is also undetermined, but seems to be incompletive, recurrent, meant to occur whenever the opportunity arises.

# (a) plain suffix (-?X): forms various parts of speech:

?á:t- <b>?x</b> ? (here, not 'net	>7á:tix :')	'to touch, come into contact with s.; to sense s.o.'s feelings, to hit upon a truth'
?an-láyt <b>?x</b> cause-sign?	≫anláytix	'sign, landmark, beacon, indicator (thermostat, etc.)' anlayt'ir
hó:n <b>-?x</b>	>hó:n≀ix	'calf of the leg'
fish?		hooâi <b>x</b>

When the suffix  $\{-7X\}$  is added to a word ending in a Uvular, the epenthetic vowel is /a/, not /i/ as with other consonants (10.1.A.1.a.1.b.(2)). In addition,

the /X/ is weakened to /Y/(10.1.B.1.b.3.b.3.).

(yuhl)

yatl'ikskw

The following doublets appear to have the same meaning, but the shorter one seems more formal:

(c) The suffix also occurs following the augment /C/ and followed by [-S] (the post-Velar alternant of the Indefinite Medial suffix, 7.2.C.1.b.), resulting in the complex suffix (-ciks) from (-c-?x-s):

hin)\*yán-ciks 'to tickle s.o.'

PL)shiver?-...

\*mo:-ciks 'breast; [baby] to nurse'

suck?-...

\*moots'its

(cf. MOQ 'to suck through a tube' mook)

This compound suffix also occurs unglottalized, as in

\*?
$$\acute{u}$$
m-CikS 'to be lonesome for s.o.' uneasy?-... umjiks (cf. ? $\acute{u}$ m $\chi$ k $^W$  'to be unable to stand s.' um $\chi$ k $^W$ )

where the element of deliberateness conveyed by the glottal stop is absent.

7.2.C.2.b.1.c.2. Suffix (-?X): The meaning of this suffix seems to be similar to that of (-?X) (7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1.), with perhaps more of a resultative element. Like (-?X), it usually appears in combination with other suffixes.

(a) plain suffix: can be intransitive or transitive:

(2) with other suffixes: the result is transitive or intransitive, depending on the following suffix:

cóaxW-7x-s >cáwaqs 'shoes' (lit. 'hardened [soles]'??)

considerable-...-MED 

\*táx-7x-s >táyaqs 'to choke on food or drink'
?-...-MED 

\*táyats

(cf.  $t\acute{e}$ :q 'to eat too much, too fast'  $t'ee\underline{k}$ )

to kill s. with one blow;

k'ilaz-di

ha4)\*hú4-7x- $4k^W$  > ha4(h)ú $^{1}$ aq $^{1}$ k $^{W}$ 

'to boil' (orig. prob.

PL)rumble?-...-TEMP

'to make a rumbling noise')

hahl(h)utl'akhlkw

(c) occurs following the augment /C/: the result is the complex suffix (-cax), which is usually transitive:

'to kiss s.o.'

joined?-...

humts'ax

(cf. ham)húm 'joints' hamhum)

'to carry, "pack" s. on one's shoulders'

rol1?-...

golts'az

\*ním**-cax** 

'to sniff in/inhale s.t.'

sniff?-...

nimis'ax

This suffix sometimes also occurs unglottalized, e.g.

\*á:-cax

'to be ... enough to reach  $\underline{s}$ .' (e.g. to be

?-...

tail enough, to have enough money,

etc.)

88 ja k

\*lám-cax/\*lám-cax

'to come in, enter (pl.)'

PL.enter??-...

lamjag/lamts'ag

The last word, where the suffix occurs under both forms, is intransitive.

7.2.C.b.1.d. The frozen suffix (-?): The element /? which is a component of so many predicative suffixes also occurs as a (non-productive) suffix in its own

right. Its presence is recognizable in a few frozen forms, by the glottalization of the final consonant in a word which contrasts with another of otherwise identical shape and with related meaning. The meaning of this old suffix, which occurs with nouns, seems to be 'specific case of ...', or 'functioning as ...' (cf. one use of the Definite Antipassive (-?sT), 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1.b.).

 $s\dot{y} \in n-7 > s\dot{y} \in \vec{h}$  in  $1 \ni s\dot{y} \in \vec{h}-t$  'saucer' (lit. 'the bottom of it' [the bottom (of boat, etc.)-.. the ...-3 cup]) hli syeont

cliwin-?>cliwin in qa-cliwin-t 'fingers' (lit. 'their [the hands'] tips)
tip-...

DISTR-...-3

Rats'iwint

7.2.C.2.b.2. Suffix (-(?)+k): This compound suffix seems to mean 'temporary, occurring at intervals, not continuously.' The component /?/ occurs rarely, mostly when the suffix follows the predicative (-m) (7.2.C.2.b.4.), so this suffix is not classified with those normally beginning with a glottal stop. The component /4/ sometimes occurs in isolated other cases.

(a) ?an-támq**-1k W** 

'close friend' (Boas 1902)

cause-embrace.s.-...

andamkhikw

?áq-1kW not/impossible-...

'to be able, to succeed' (lit. 'to be unable temporarily', hence 'to finally succeed')

(cf. the neg. verb?áQ ak, 5.13.D.) akhikw

ha4)\* $h\dot{u}$ 4-? $\dot{x}$ -4k\* > ha4(h) $\dot{u}$  $\dot{x}$ aq4k\* PL)rumble?-SUFF-...

'to boil' (prob. orig.
'to rumble temporarily')

hahl(h)utl'akhlkw

sə-\*?ó:-**1k W** 

make-protect.s.-...

'to gather firewood' (prob. orig. 'to set up camp, make a temporary shelter')

si'oohlkw

(b) In the following form, the suffix is preceded by /?/. This does not seem to be an occurrence of the frozen suffix  $\{-?\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.d.), but a calque of other compound suffixes beginning with /?/ and ending in  $/k^W/$ , all of them expressing deliberate action but leaving the object unmentioned:

(c) This suffix is often found after predicative (-m), 7.2.C.2.b.4.

(a) Forms PA's:

mál-kW-T

? -...

This non-productive suffix should not be confused with the very common Indefinite Medial suffix  $\{-[t]kW\}$  (7.2.C.1.b.), although it is likely that there is a historical connection between the two. It forms both intransitives and transitives. Often the stems affected do not occur in isolation, but only with other suffixes. Some do not occur otherwise and their meaning is tentative.

# ké:-kW (\* kô-'one', 7.1.B.2.c.1.) Síl-kW 'middle, waist; to be awfui' ?-... yán-kW 'to be mouldy' ?-... yankw

(In the last example, the transitive meaning is given by the Definite Medial

'to throw s.t. into a fire'

malk w-di

suffix (-T) (7.2.C.1.a.), not by the suffix (-kW)).

(b) Forms PEA's:

7.2.C.2.b.4. Suffixes beginning with /m/: There are only a few instances of a suffix (-m) alone. Most often it is a component of other complex suffixes, the general meaning of which seems to be 'recurring on/relative to a specific purpose or occasion.'

7.2.C.2.b.4.a. The frozen suffix  $\{-m\}$ : it seems to occur only in two seasonal words:

7.2.C.2.b.4.b. Suffix (-(?)m+k): The suffix (-m) is most often associated with the Temporary suffix (-(?)+k) (7.2.C.2.b.2.). The compound suffix does not usually include the glottal stop component /?/. the meaning seems to be 'temporarily but for a relatively predictable duration.'

(here the compound suffix is attached to a mediated compound verb \*?it-m+wá \*idim-wa which does not seem to occur unsuffixed).

pronounce, utter-ATTR+name-...

'to "call out" a son's new name at a

settlement feast idimwamhlkw

In the following examples, the component /?/ which belongs to the second part of the compound suffix flottalizes the stem-final consonant: in effect, glottalization 'skips over' the /m/ component of the combination (cf. with AP.I suffix, 7.2.C.2.b.4.c., and 10.1.B.2.).

$$\begin{array}{lll} w\acute{o}q^{-[\textbf{m-?lk}'']} &> w\acute{o}q^{-?m\cdot lk}'' &> w\acute{o}?om\cdot lk'' & \text{`cradie'} \\ &\text{sleep-...} & (\text{\it wok}) & \text{\it wo'omblk''} \\ \\ *\mathring{k}^{W}\acute{o}:t^{-[\textbf{m-?lk}'']} &> \mathring{k}^{W}\acute{o}:t^{-?m\cdot lk''} &> \mathring{k}^{W}\acute{o}:\mathring{t}im\cdot lk'' \\ &\text{missing-...} & \text{'to miss menstrual periods because of} \end{array}$$

pregnancy'

kw'oot'imhlkw

The following example does not show whether the /?/ is included or not in the suffix, as the stem-final consonant is already glottalized:

7.2.C.2.b.4.c. With Antipassive suffixes: Two alternate processes of glottalization occur with the combination of  $\{-m\}$  with the Indefinite Antipassive suffix  $\{-75k^W\}$ . In one process, glottalization skips over the /m and affects the stem-final consonant, as with  $\{-m-(7)+k^W\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.4.b.). The opposite process, which glottalizes the /m component alone, results in a sequence  $/\text{misk}^W$  which seems to have acquired a specialized meaning.

(1)  $(-m-7sk^{\mathbf{W}}) \rightarrow (-7msk^{\mathbf{W}})$ : The meaning seems to be: 'on/for a particular occasion':

wán-m-?sk<sup>W</sup> >wán-?msk<sup>W</sup>> wánimsk<sup>W</sup> 'to show people to their sit/set.s.PL-...-... seats at a public function'

wań i **msk** w

xkáy †-m-?skW >xkáy †-?mskW>xkáy †a?amskW
repay/reward-...-.... 'to repay/repayment to one's paternal
relatives for traditional services
rendered (done at settlement feast)'
xk'ayhla'amaxx

\*kil-xtá:-m-?sk\scrip\*\kilxtá:-?msk\scrip\*\kilxtá:?amsk\scrip\*

ito give a mattress to a widowed brotheror sister-in-law [after the funeral]

pilxdaa'amsk\scrip\*

(see (2) below for alternate form)

(2)  $(-m-75k^W) \rightarrow (-m15k^W)$ : Words with this suffix all seem to have to do with clothing and similar objects. This could be an extension of the 'special occasion' meaning, since in most cases these words have to do with the ceremonial use or giving of these objects:

\*\*kWiléh-m-?skW > kWilé:-mskW > kWilé:miskW
blanket-...-...
'to put a blanket around the bride's
shoulders' (as part of the traditional
wedding ceremony) gwileemiskw

(\*\* $k^W$ iléh > mod.  $k^W$ ilá 'blanket' gwila; cf.  $k^I$ pá 'to wait for s.' giba from earlier \*\* $k^I$ péh, 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.a.(1))

\*kil-xtá:-m-?skW>kilxtá:-miskW 'to give a mattress to a widowed give-mattress-...- brother- or sister-in-law [after the funeral]' gilxdaamiskw

(see (1) above for alternate form)

The following verb shows the extension of this suffix to a transitive stem:

sitxé:xW-m-?skW>sitxé:-mskW >sitxé:miskW
change.s.-...- 'to change one's clothes'
sityeemiskw

In the following noun, the suffix (-m) is followed by the Definite Antipassive (-7sT), not the Indefinite (compare 7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.a.(2) for the use of the AP.D suffix to form nouns):

\*?ó:-m-?sT >?ó:misT 'pitlowcase'
protect.s.-...-... 00 mis(t)

7.2.C.2.b.4.d. (-mks) ((-m-x-s)): 'relatively, comparatively': This suffix is attached mostly to words designating natural states. Epenthesis inserts a vowel

before /m/, unless the stem has a long vowel, in which case epenthesis occurs between /m/ and the following consonant (10.2.A.1.a.1.):

This suffix can also be followed by another, as in:

7.2.C.2.b.4.d. (-mqs) ((-m-q-s) or (-m-x-s)): the meaning is undetermined at the moment:

The sequences /mq/and /mx/also occur with the suffix (-mq/-mx) (7.2.D.1.c.), the meaning of which is so different from those of the suffixes in this section that it probably does not consist of the same morphemic components.

7.2.C.2.b.4.f. (-ms)((-m-s)):

 stíl-ms
 > stílims
 'attendant at wedding: bridesmaid,

 PL-get.up-...
 usher'
 sdilims

7.2.C.2.b.5. Suffixes beginning with /X/: It is often difficult to decide whether the Velar consonant in these suffixes is originally a stop or a fricative, especially with stems that do not occur independently. The analysis of the forms quoted below seems fairly straightforward, but there are many other cases which are more doubtful in the present state of our knowledge (see discussion of (-XN), 7.2.C.2.b.5.b.).

7.2.C.2.b.5.a. Suffix (-X): This suffix occurs at the end of a fairly large number of words as well as being a component in several other suffixes. A stem-final /X/ occurring with  $P_A$ 's is better treated as an augment (3.1.A.), but with  $P_{EA}$ 's it seems to be a true suffix, though unproductive, occurring with bases which recur with other predicative suffixes. Its meaning may have to do with the use of an instrument or accessory to perform the action (Bruce Rigsby, p.c.).

# (1) occurring singly:

\*[t]qat-x 'to patch s.t.' (cf. \*[t]qat-é? 'to patch things')
applied?-... k'alx k'adee'e

\*lic-x 'to count/read s.t.' (cf. \*lic-?] 'to keep count of s.t.')
applied?-... k'atx lits'il

\*qé:-x 'to grind s.t.' (cf. \*ha-qé?esT 'grinding-tool')
applied?-... k'atx hage'es(t)

# (2) following other suffixes:

In the following transitive verb, the suffix follows the Completive suffix (-?1):

The suffix also occurs after a Causative suffix:

The word túkwtinx 'to suffocate, to drown' dukw'hlinx probably also ends in this combination, but it is not possible to analyze it further at the present time.

(3) followed by the Indefinite Medial suffix (-[t]kW/-s) (7.2.C.1.b.), hence  $P_A$ 's:

7.2.C.2.b.5.b. Suffix  $(-X\Pi)$ : This suffix has a Causative meaning, recalling that of  $(-?\Pi)$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.) with which it shares the final consonant  $/\Pi/$  (see  $(-\Pi)$ , 7.2.C.2.b.6.a.), but the Uvular component instead of the Glottal stop indicates the use of an instrument (7.2.C.2.b.5.a.). It forms transitive verbs from intransitives or more commonly from other transitives:

### (1) single use:

In the following forms, it is not possible to determine the base or root with certainty:

Forms of similar meaning ending in the sequence /qan/, which seems to be a variant of (-xn) (cf. /q/x/ alternation after /m/, 7.2.D.1.c.), are more likely to be instances of the suffix (-n) attached to a stem ending in /q/ (7.2.C.2.b.6.a.). The occurrence of the two sequences /qan/ and /xan/ after vowel prevents considering /q/ as a variant of the morpheme (-x), at least synchronically.

(2) Followed by Antipassive suffix: this is especially so with instrumental derivatives. Usually the /?/ component of the AP.I suffix is not included (cf. lack of glottalization in some forms, 7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.):

A difference can sometimes be made between the two variants (glottalized and unglottalized) of the AP.I suffix:

7.2.C.2 b.6. <u>Miscellaneous suffixes consisting of a single consonant</u>: These are rarely used single, but inter as components in more productive suffixes. That they can be identified suffests that most if not all of the present 'augments' following some roots (3.1.A.) were at a time suffixes.

7.2.C.2.b.6.a.  $(-\Pi)$ : This suffix seems to have a Causative meaning (cf. its role as a component of Causative  $(-?\Pi)$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.) and Instrumental  $(-X\Pi)$  (7.2.C.2.b.5.b.), but it occurs by itself in only a few forms:

- transitives:

This category includes a series ending in the sequence /qan/, where the /q/ component which is part of the stem recalls the Velar in the Instrumental suffix (-xn) (7.2.C.2.b.5.b.). This suggests that this /q/ may itself be a former suffix, now considered an augment (3.1.A.) (and that (-x) may derived historically from an earlier (-x).

The same suffix (-n) also occurs followed by the Instrumental suffix in:

- intransitives:

7.2.C.2.b.6.b. [-1]: This element seems to have Continuative meaning (cf. Completive [-71], 7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.). It does not seem to occur by itself, but forms compound suffixes when followed by [-x] (7.2.C.2.b.6.c.), which can itself be followed by others. The meaning of these compound suffixes seems to have to do with continuing and uncontrollable action (cf. the meaning of suffixes including [-7x], 7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1.).

(1) 
$$\{-lx\}$$
 ( $\{-l-x\}$ ): forms nouns:

(2)  $\{-lks\}(\{-l-x-s\})$ : forms intransitives:

(3)  $(-lksk^{W})$  ( $(-l-x-s-[t]k^{W})$ ): forms intransitives:

$$m\acute{u}\acute{k}^W$$
-lkSk $^W$  >  $m\acute{u}\acute{k}^W$ ilkSk $^W$  '[water] to be roiled, full of sediment' bruised-...

7.2.C.2.b.6.c. (-X): This element occurs as an augment in many stems and as a component of several suffixes which seem to have the common meaning uncontrolled action. See 7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1. for its association with the Glottal stop in some Detransitive suffixes and 7.2.C.2.b.6.b. for its use after  $\{-1\}$ .

#### 7.2.D. Lexical suffixes.

Lexical suffixes, which are a very important element in the morphology of most Northwest languages, are very few in Nisgha. They fall into two categories: true suffixes and pseudo-suffixes. The latter are actually weakened forms of existing words in unstressed position, and the words in which they appear to be suffixes can be identified as older compounds (cf. lexical prefixes, which behave like the verbal components of compounds, 7.2.B.2.).

### 7.2.D.1. True suffixes:

7.2.D.1.a. The numeral suffix (-[t]o:] -(d)ool: This stressed suffix forms numerals in the category 'persons'.

It is likely that an original sequence /6:1/ (of whatever origin) occurring after the now frozen prefixes  $(k\partial -)$  'one' and  $(xp\partial -)$  'ten' (7.1.B.2.c.) was understood as a suffix and extended to other number words. The sequence /t6:1/ resulting from the addition of the new suffix to numbers ending in /t/ was again interpreted as a suffix and added to another number word (Tarpent 1983a). Three stages can be recognized.

# - stage 1: added to numeral prefixes:

- stage 2: added to some number words and extended to most of them:

k <sup>W</sup> stíns- <b>ó</b> :l five	'five [persons]'	kwsdinsool
ἀό:lT- <b>ó</b> :l six	'six [persons]'	<u>k</u> 'oold <b>ool</b>
tipxóilT- <b>ó:l</b> seven	'seven [persons]'	t'ipzoold <b>ool</b>
ỷux <sup>W</sup> tá:ÎT- <b>ó</b> :l eight	'eight [persons]'	ýuzwdaaidool

kWstimós-ó:l 'nine [persons]'
nine-... kwsdimoosool

- stage 3: reinterpretation of the sequence /tol/ as a suffix:

txálpx**tó:l** 'four [persons]' four-... txalpxdool

In the number for 'three [persons]'  $k^{\mathbf{W}}$ iló: $\mathbf{n}$  gwiloon, the final  $/\mathbf{n}$ / seems to be the result of dissimilation, caused by the preceding  $/\mathbf{l}$ /.

7.2.D.1.b.  $(-xw_s)(-xw_s)$ : mass of ...': this noun-forming suffix should not be confused with the Indefinite Passive suffix (7.2.C.1.b.3.).

qán-kWS 'pile of sticks, formerly used as a toilet' stick-...

\*má:-kWs 'snow [on the ground]' snow?-... maakws

(cf. má:tim 'snow [falling], winter' maadim)

\*lú:-k\sigmas bundle of 40 dried fish'
?-...

It is likely that this suffix should be interpreted as (-XW-S), with stop-formation before /S/(10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1.). Lending credence to this interpretation is the following word:

qan-sə-mituk<sup>W</sup>s 'kindling' means-make-...? gansimihlukws

where the vowel intervening between /4/ and  $/k^W/$  is only explainable it it was originally followed by a fricative:  $/4k^W/$  is an allowable cluster, but

/4xW/ is not, hence the insertion of the vowel before the occurrence of stop-formation: the word can be interpreted as:

There is no identifiable suffix  $\{-X^W\}$  in present-day Nisgha, but there are a number of words ending in what could be an augment, e.g.  $[\hat{a}:X^W]$  'trout' laarw,  $k\hat{a}:X^W$  'to twist/spin st. [twine, etc.], by the traditional method' gaarw, SitxéxW 'to (ex)change st.' sityeerw, hú:XW 'saw-whet owl' huurw, and others.

7.2.D.1.c. —mq/mx: These two suffixes occur on a number of words, all habing to do with using the mouth, either to speak or to eat. The components of this suffix recur in others (7.2.C.2.b.4.a., 7.2.C.2.b.5.a., 7.2.C.2.b.6.a.), but the meanings that can be attributed to them are grammatical, not lexical as in this case.

# 7.2.D.1.c.1. (-mq):

(a) with nouns designating people: the suffix forms nouns with the meaning language/speech of ...':

cimsán-mq>cimsánimq 'Tsimshian language'
Tsimshian-...

Ts'imsanimk

damksi:wa:mq damksi:wa:maq 'English language'
white.person-...

K'amksiiwaamak

nisqá?-mq>nisqá?amq 'Nisgha language' [formal term]
Nisgha-...

Nisga'amk

(2) older meaning: forms transitive verbs all having to do with vocal

activity: it is added to non-occurring bases, although some elements may be recognizable:

The suffix can also be followed by an Indefinite Medial suffix:

\*tíl-
$$mq$$
-[t]k $^W$  >tíli $mxk^W$  'to answer' ?-...-MED dili $mxk^W$ 

or by an Antipassive suffix:

7.2.D.1.c.2. Suffix (-mx): added to existing verbs, it builds other verbs:

híc-mx

'to tell/order s.o. to do s.t.' (from 'to send

send.s.-...

word to s.o.?)

hijimx

té:q-mx

'to speak too fast'

eat.too.fast.-...

t'eegama

In the following word, the suffix is probably intransitive, since the two alternate forms both use transitivizing suffixes:

\*
$$k\acute{e}q$$
- $mx$ - $[t]k^W$ /\* $k\acute{e}q$ - $mx$ - $T$  to eat a whole s.t.

act.on.one?-...MED/....-DEF

k'eegamikw/k'eegami-di

#### 2.2. Pseudo-suffixes:

A number of words end in a full but unstressed syllable identical (at least in its consonantal structure) to an existing word. Some of these also bear a lexical similarity to this word, as in:

?antápsa

'a traditional time-telling device'

(Sá 'day' sæ)

andapsa

?am?úkit

'clothing'

(kit = kát 'man, people' git/gat)

am unit

A few such words can be fully analyzed, for instance:

?an-táp-sa

'a traditional time-telling device'

CAUS-measure.s.-day

(an-dap-sa)

andapsa

?am-\*?úkit

'clothing'

good.for-cover.s.-people

(am-'u-git)

am ugit

```
?amqó.kit 'pretty [sight] (<'memorable'?)
remember.s.-people (amgoo-git) amgoogit

haltá:xW-kit>haltá:wkit 'sorcerer'
anoint.s.-people (haldaaxw-git) haldaawgit
```

Taking away the prefix, and ignoring the stress on the penultimate syllable, these words are identical in structure to unmediated Object-incorporating compound verbs (9.2.A.1.). The apparent 'suffixes,' then, are actually full words whose phonological structure has been altered by their being unstressed. The words in which they appear are compounds, even though present compounding rules place the stress on the last element (cf. the penultimate stress rule in one category of plurals, evidencing an older stress pattern, 10.3.B.2.).

The same structure must be recognized in other words even where the first part may not be readily identifiable (note that the incorporated word does not have to be a Direct Object as with modern compounds):

```
a. -kit 'people' ...git (from kát 'man, person, people' gat)
    wi:-wil-hilt-kit>wi:wilhilkit
                                          'multitude'
   great-SUB-many-...
                                                           wiiwilhilait
   líl-kit
                                        'feast; to give a feast'
    ?-...
                                                           lilgit
   txúkit
                                        'hostage; to take hostages'
   ?-...
                                                           trogit
(*txú- cf. txó? 'earnings' troo'o , orig. 'booty'?)
   níkit
                                        'spook; to have a spooky experience'
    ?-...
                                                           nigit
```

?í <b>ỷkit</b> ?	'to be clumsy'	til <b>git</b>
tí <b>kit</b> ?	'smooked oolichan	s' di <b>git</b>
tipó <b>kit</b> ?	'shrew'	diboo <b>git</b>
bciptsip (from cap	'lone's] people, tribe, domain'	ts'ap)
tə-*?ó:- <b>čip</b> >tə?ó:ċip <b>DOM-protect.s</b>	'fortress'	da'oots'ip
cks 'water'ks (from	?áks 'water' aks)	
kó:- <b>ks</b> [boat]motionless	'to float'	gy00 <b>ks</b>
ptál <b>-ks</b> [water]rise	'[it's] high tide'	pdal <b>ks</b>
má: <b>ks</b> ? (cf. máq 'to put <u>s.t' <i>mak-di</i></u>	'to place <u>s.t.</u> in wat	ter' <i>maa<b>ks</b></i>
dSa 'day' <i>sa</i>		
yúk <sup>W</sup> -sa move?	'evening'	yukwsa

#### 7.3. FRAMES:

A <u>frame</u> is defined as a combination of co-occurring elements enclosing an existing word, and used for inflection, derivation or phrase-formation.

Nisgha has two kinds of frames:

- Word-frames (morphological frames): these frames enclose a word, and the result can be said in isolation. In most cases a word-frame consists of a proclitic or prefix co-occurring with a Medial suffix, either Definite  $\{-T\}$  (7.2.C.1.a.) or Indefinite  $\{-[t]k^W/-s\}$  (7.2.C.1.b.).
- Phrasal frames (morphosyntactic frames): these enclose a word when embedded in a clause. Phrasal frames can be divided into nominalizing frames and focusing frames.
- 7.3.A. Word-frames: Word-frames must be distinguished from fortuitous combinations of prefix/proclitic and suffix. In a word-frame, the combination of prefix and suffix recurs in a number of words. It is usually associated with a particular grammatical category. Even if both prefix and suffix occur separately in other words, the combination of the two in a frame has a definite meaning not reducible to the sum of the meanings of the isolated affixes, either from the lexical or the grammatical points of view.

Surface analogy plays an inportant role in framing. For instance, (-[t]kW) is normally replaced by (-S) if the verb ends in a Velar, including /kW/(7.2.C.1.b.1.). If most of the forms affected by the frame pattern take (-S) after /kW/ (hence a final sequence /kWS/), others which would normally end only in (-[t]kW) take (-S) as well. Conversely, if the stem already ends in /kW/, and most of the other forms take (-[t]kW) he suffix may not be added.

These properties are displayed in the following contrasting utterances involving the sequence / ni hitkw/ hithitkw.

a. PROC + Intr: Proclitic ni: 'on' nii., intr. verb hitkW 'to stand' hitkW:

ni:=hitkW nì ý lax hani tá: on estand me on chair

I stood on a/the chair. Niihitkw hiiy lax hahiit aa.

b. Transitivizing frame [hi:-...-[t]kW]: 'to ... on s.t.' hii...(t)kw (framing an intransitive verb): in this case, since the framed verb hitk 'to stand' hithw already ends in the sequence /tkW/, which is identical to the suffix, this sequence is not repeated:

 $\hat{n}i = hitk^W - [tk^W] - \partial - \hat{y} = ha\hat{n}i \cdot \hat{t}\hat{a}i$ [on=stand-[SUFF]] to ...on.s. -CTL-1S=NC chair Niihitgwiyhl haniit aa.

I stepped on a/the chair.

Some of these word-frames are more productive than others, and some have a more definitely grammatical meaning. The presentation below divides the word-frames into PA's and PEA's. Within each category, some frames are closer to the inflectional, some to the derivational pole. However, as with most other Nisgha processes of word-formation, it is not always possible to make a clear differentiation between the two processes. The presentation follows the suffixes.

# 7.3.A.1. Frames forming PA's:

# 7.3.A.1.a. Intransitive verbs and adjectives:

7.3.A.1.a.1. Frames ending in the Definite Medial suffix (-T): In most cases the prefixes used with this suffix are not used for any other purpose. The resulting frames have grammatical meaning: all express a variation on plurality. As with other instances of  $\{-T\}$ , surface occurrence is relatively rare and the suffix seems on its way to extinction (see 7.2.C.1.a.2. for distribution of the consonantal and vocalic allomorphs of this suffix).

7.3.A.1.a.1.a. The Plural frame [10-...-T]: This frame is no longer procducive

and applies only to a small number of stems, all verbs or adjectives (3.2.C.2.). Compared to other types of plural formation, this one seems to emphasize identical actions or states by separate individuals, thus to have distributive meaning (cf. the more modern use of the Distributive prefix  $\{qa-\}$  ga... for some plurals, 3.2.C.2.a.1.c.).

7.3.a.1.a.1.a.1. Corresponds to singular in  $(-[t]k^w)$ : It is not clear why the two medial suffixes should be in complementary distribution in this case.

SINGUL	AR	PLURAL
ptál- <b>tk<sup>W</sup></b>	'to climb'	l <b>ə</b> -ptál- <b>tT</b>
rise	pdal <b>th</b>	<i>lipdalt</i>
sk <sup>W</sup> á:ỷ- <b>tkW</b>	'to rest'	l <b>ə</b> -sk <sup>W</sup> á:ỷ-tT
give.up	sgwaaÿtkw	<i>Iisgwaaÿt</i>
XS-tál- <b>tkW</b> imitate-sound	'to respond'	lə-xs-tál-tT <i>laxsdalt</i>

## 7.3.A.1.a.1.a.2. Corresponds fo unsuffixed singular:

# (a) stems prefixed with [?a-]: (7.1.B.1.b.5.a.)

?a- <b>y</b> é:	'to go fast'	?a-l <b>ə</b> -yé:-tT
spontaneous-go	ayee	aliyeet
?a-skí	'to be abnormal,	?a <b>-lə</b> -sķí <b>-tT</b>
spontaneous-go	ugly, comical	alisgit
	asgi	

$$?a-*yin$$
 '(trees) to be in bud'  $?a-la-yin-tT$ 

spontaneous-? (sg. not in use) aliyint

(2) unprefixed stems:

čé:x	'to be satiated'	lə-čé:x-T	(ts'e0 <u>x</u> (1)
ťé:q	'to eat too much, too fast' <i>t'eek</i>	lə-téq-T	it'ee <u>k</u> (t)
xpičáx <sup>W</sup>	'to be afraid'	lə-xpi:čí:x <sup>W</sup> -T	larhiits'iirw(t

7.3.A.1.a.1.b. Reciprocal frames: These are productive. Reciprocity applies to two or more individuals who are related by the action or state described by the reciprocal word. The difference in meaning between the two reciprocal frames is not quite clear. It seems that  $[n\partial_{-}...-T]$  insists on the antagonistic or perhaps Dual character of the relationship, while  $[min_{-}...-T]$  rather emphasizes a more diffuse togetherness, or perhaps general Plurality.

# 7.3.A.1.a.1.b.1. The Reciprocal frame [no-...-T] forms intransitive verbs.

(a) from verbs (plural stem if different from the singular):

- from transitive stems: 'to ... each other' (in general):

na-sip)sí:pin-T 'to love each other'

...-PL)love.s.o.-... aisipsiip'int

nə-timóm-T to help each other

...-PL)help.s.o.-... nihlimoomt

nə-xsinq-T 'not to believe each other' ...-PL)disbelieve.s.o.-... naxsinkt - from intransitive stems: 'to ... to each other' na-?al)?álkax-T 'to talk to each other' ...-PL)talk-... na'al'algaxt • hi)yùkW=1 kax na-?al)?álkax-T-ti:t ASP)PROG=NC for.a.while [...-PL)talk-...]<sub>RFCID</sub>-3P While they were talking to each other ... (19.8) Hiyukwhi k'ax as al'algazdiit ... (b) from nouns (singular stem): 'to be ...s': (seems restricted to a few kinship terms) na-wák-T 'to be brothers' ...-M's brother-... niwakt na-4kí:kW-T 'to be sisters' ...-W's sister-... nihlgiikwt The Reciprocal frame [min-...-T] 'to ... each other 7.3.A.1.a.1.b.2. [actively?]': forms intransitive verbs from (usually plural) transitive stems: min-tóq-T 'to take each other on [in a fight]' ...-take.s.PL-... mindokt min-kúxW-T '[group] to shoot each other' ...-shoot.s.-... minguxwt min-łú:tuxW-T 'to cherish each other' ...-cherish.s.-... minhluut'uxwt

7.3.A.1.b.3. Remark: The two prefixes  $(n\partial -)$  and (min-) of these frames are sometimes used together, as in

7.3.A.1.a.1.b.4. The Competitive frame  $[\min -qa - ka : -... - T]$  to ... against each other or others, in competition with each other or others'  $\min gak'as...(t)$ . This frame incorporates the DISTR prefix (qa -) ga... and the modifier ka: 'most' k'aa (5.15.B.16.). It can be added to intransitive verbs of suitable meaning.

7.3.A.1.a.1.c. The adjective-forming frame [max-\_\_\_T] 'to be all .../nothing but .../altogether .../excessively ...; to have a lot of ...[a characteristic] max...(t)

The prefix  $(\tilde{\mathbf{max}})$  also occurs as a modifier (5.15.B.18.), which is probably its original usage, since both the phonological structure and the semantic range of this prefix are more in keeping with those of modifiers than of the prefixes described above. This prefix forms adjectives from nouns.

max-yimq-T

'to have a hairy face, a big moustache or beard'

The suffix tends to be lost with YFS, thus differences such as the following (cf. also 7.2.C.1.a.1.a.2.):

• OFS: wil max-yimq-T-t SUB[...-whiskers-...]-3

... as he has a big moustache/beard.

YFS: wil **max**-yımq-t SUB[...-whiskers]-3

... as he has a big moustache/beard.

• OFS: wil **max**-mó?on-**tT**-t . SUB[...-sait-...]-3

... as it's too salty
... Wil maxmo'ondit.

... wil maxyimkt.

YFS: wil max-mó?on-t SUB1...-saltl-3

... as it's too salty.

... Wil maxmo'ont.

7.3.A.1.a.2. PA frames ending in the Indefinite Medial suffix (-[t]kW/-s):

7.3.A.1.a.2.a. Intransitive frames built on verb stems:

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.1. Reflexive frames:

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.1.a. The Animate Reflexive frame [kWi]kS - [t]kW/-S]: 'to ... oneself' gwilks...tkw/..s. The proclitic kWi]kS ='back' gwilks... (7.1.A.1.b.35.) is used with Reflexive meaning in this frame.

 $k^{W}$ ilks-imó:i- $tk^{W}$ 

'to wrap oneself up'

gvilkshlimooltkv

kWilks-7itkW-s

'to blame/accuse oneself, to repent'

**k<sup>W</sup>ilks**-haltim=kú+**tk<sup>W</sup>** [...-wrap.s.-...]

'to "pick oneself up"; esp. to redeem oneself after being disgraced'

gvilkshaldimguutkw

**k<sup>W</sup>ilks**-tə-tálq-**s** [...-DOMIN-talk.to.s.-...]

'to talk to oneself'

gvilksdidalks

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.1.b. The Inanimate Reflexive frame [?a-..-[t]kw/-s]: 'to ... by/of itself' a...tkw/...s. The prefix (?a-) 'spontaneously' is used with reflexive meaning in this frame. In modern usage the frame is usually preceded by the modifier lip 'self' lip (5.15.B.3.). (The English equivalent is not always Reflexive, but the French or German equivalent would usually be).

**7a**-qáq-s

'to open by itself' (older form)

(Fr. s'ouvrir)

ak'aks

lip **?a**-ḍáq-**[t]k**W

'to open by itself' (newer form)

self[...-open-...]

(Fr. s'ouvrir)

lip-ak'akkw

(note the lack of fricativization of the stem-final Velar, characteristic of newer formations)

?a-ló:-[t]kW

'Ischool of fish ] to start moving' (Boas)

[...-motionless.PL-...]

#looth w

lip ?a-qinx-[t]kW self [...-[tree]falling-...]

'[tree] to fall by itself' (newer form)

lip-agenxky

lip a-qús- $[t]_k$ 

'igun] to go off by itself' (newer form)

self [...-open-...] lip-agoskw

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2. <u>Passives of transitive-forming frames</u>: (see 7.3.A.2.): Many transitive-forming frames have Passive equivalents: the prefix is the same for

both forms, but the suffix differs.

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.a. The Passive/Reflexive Jussive [kWin-...-[t]kW/-s]: 'to make oneself ...ed' (Fr. se faire + infinitive) gwin...tkw/...s (see Active counterpart, 7.3.A.2.a.1.):

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.b. <u>Passives of modal transitives</u>: (see 7.3.A.2.a.3.): these are the Passive counterparts of transitive verbs starting with 7a:ma: 'well' amas..., twa: 'all' amas..., and others. Only a couple of examples are given here.

## 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c. Other intransitive frames built on verb stems:

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.1. [Si:x-...-[t]kW/-S] 'to ... intently, with intense concentration; to focus all one's attention to ...ing' siix...tkw/...s. The prefix is also used in a transitive-forming frame, 7.3.A.2.a.4.b.

si:x-té:q-s	'to eat voraciously, to concentrate on eating' siirt'eeks
si:x-[?a]múk <sup>W</sup> s-[s] [listen]	'to listen intently'  Siixmukws
<b>si:x-</b> ká?ask <sup>W</sup> -[[ <b>t]k<sup>W</sup>]</b> [look]	'to look intently'  **SilEga'ask***********************************
'.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.2.	-[t]kW/-S] 'to (be) all completely

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.2. [txa:=...=[t]kW/=s] to (be) all, completely, ... trans. tkw/...s.

This frame can be used as the Passive counterpart of a modal transitive (7.3.A.2.a.4.c.), but it can also be used with other intransitive stems:

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.3. [txapax-...-[t]W(-s)] to (be) completely, totally ... txap'ax...tkw/...s (see also 7.3.A.2.a.4.d.).

txapax-tá:w-[t]kWs [ice, frozen]	'to be frozen through'  **LISP SIEGES   LIST SEE   LIST
<b>txapax-</b> má:n- <b>tk<sup>W</sup></b> [leftover]	'to be all left [the whole of s.t.]'

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.4. [ $tu:la:=...=[t]k^W/=s$ ] 'not to ... properly, to ... funny' duulaa...tkw/...s

The prefix appears to be composed of an element tu:=duu... which recurs in  $[tu:wil-...-[t]k^W/-s]$  duuwil...tkw/...s (7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.5.) and of the proclitic la:=laa... (7.1.A.1.c.8.) which expresses negative emotion. (The first element tu:=duu... seems to be different from the homonymous verb-forming prefix, 7.1.B.2.a.1.a.4).

tu:la:-nú:tkW-s

[...-adorn.self-...]

tu:la:-páx-[t]kW

[...-run-...]

tu:la:-kát-[t]kW

(person) to be abnormal (deformed, retarded, etc. [Boas])

duulaagatkw

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.5. [tu:wil-...-[t]kW/-s] 'to ... aggressively' duuwil...tkw/...s.

The first element tu:=duu recurs in [tu:]a:=...=[t]kW/-s] duulaa...tkw/...s (7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.4.) and the second is probably the subordinator Wil wil.

tu:wil-hi-[t]kW 'to jeer, heckie'

[...-speak-...]

tu:wil-wil-[t]kW 'to jeer, heckie'

tu:wil-wil-[t]kW 'to jeer, heckie'

duulaahitkw

duulaahitkw

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.6. [xla:-\_\_-[t]xW(-s)] 'to ... unlawfully, without being competent or entitled to do so' xlaa...tkw(s).

The initial part seems to be composed of the prefix (X-) to lawfully claim or

receive ...'  $\underline{x}$ ... (7.1.B.2.a.1.a.6.) and of the proclitic a := laa... expressing negative emotion (7.1.A.1.c.8., cf.  $[tu: a:-...-[t]k^{\mathbf{W}}(-s)]$  7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.4.).

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.7. [ $x + \hat{n}a := -[t]k^{W}(-s)$ ] to ..., trying to be inconspicuous  $xhl\hat{n}aa...tkw(s)$ .

The prefix seems to include the proclitic  $\hat{\Pi}a:=$  in places, conspicuously against a background  $\hat{n}aa...$  (7.1.A.1.b.22.), and the preceding sequence  $/X^{4}/$  may be derived from  $?\hat{a}q=1$  ... 'there isn't ..., impossible to ..., etc.' akhl... (5.13.D.).

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.8. [?a $\pm$ ax=...=[t] $\pm$ W(-S)] to be unable to ... (from being crippled)' ahlax... $\pm$ kw(s).

The frame indicates that a normal activity cannot be done. The prefixed part is very unusual and cannot be identified with certainty at this point. The initial sequence /7a4/, which also occurs in  $7a4isq\acute{o}$ :t to wonder about s. ahlisgoot, cannot be identified with certainty, but it could be a negative prefix (cf. the Tsimshian negative prefix (Wa4-), Dunn 1979). The remainder /aX/of the prefix probably includes an epenthetic vowel /a/since the sequence /4X/of is not allowable in Nisgha. The /X/could be the prefix (X-) meaning to lawfully claim or receive (X-) (X-) meaning to

$a_{x-wil-[t]k^w(s)}$	'to be unable to do anything'
[be/act]	ahlagwilthw(s)
?a <del>1</del> ax-yé:-[t] <b>k</b> ₩(s)	'to be unable to walk'
[walk]	ahla <u>r</u> yeetk <b>v</b> (s)

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.9. [kit-?an-...-[t]k\*(-s)] to go elsewhere for the temporary purpose of ...ing' git-aa...tkw/...s.

The initial element of the frame is probably not the prefix (kit-) 'people of ...'

git... (7.1.B.2.b.1.a.), which forms nouns (cf. 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.10.). The homophonous prefix here is followed by the prefix (?an-) an...

(7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.). As the latter has more than one meaning, it is difficult to tell whether a particular one is involved here. This definitely verbal frame is used most often in reference to a group, but can also apply to a single person.

kit-?an-it-[t]kW [[play]ball]	'to go elsewhere to play ball (e.g. team going to a tournament)'  git-anhlit'ky
<b>kit-?an-</b> hałáłsT <b>-[t]kW</b> [[work]	'to go elsewhere to find work (esp. to leave the village for summer work in the canneries)' git-anhahlaiskw
kit-?an-tá:-[t]k\ [stay}	'to spend the night at s.o. else's house'
kit-?an-xsán-[t]kW [stick.gambling]	'to go elsewhere to participate in stick-gambling' (28.9)  git-anzsantky

7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.10. [kis-...-[t]kW/-s] 'to ... to another place' gis...tkw/...s.

It is likely that the initial element (kis-) gis... is composed of (kit-) git... (cf. 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.c.9.) and a prefix (s-), and that the single /s/ is due to the Deaffrication rule (10.1.B.2.1.a.). However, there is no prefix (s-) identifiable in present-day Nisgha (there is an augment /s/, but augments do not have grammatical value, 3.1.A.), so (kis-) is here treated as a single morpheme.

7.3.A.1.a.2.b. Frames built mostly on nouns stems: Most of these have unsuffixed counterparts with related but different meanings.

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.1. [his-...-[t]kW/-s] 'to do ... for fun, not in earnest' his...tkw/...s

The prefix or proclitic his= his... is rarely used outside of this frame.

#### - with noun stems:

For the plural, the DISTR prefix (qa-) ga... is inserted between his= and the noun stem:

- with intransitive verb stem:

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.2. [kSə-...-[t]kW] 'to remove ... from oneself ksi...(t)kw (For the prefix alone, see 7.1.B.2.a.2.a.). This frame seems to be a recent formation since the addition of the suffix does not cause fricativization of the stem-final Velar, and there is no (-5) alternant.

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.2. [SƏ-...-[t]kW/-S]  $si_{...}(t)kw$  (For the prefix alone, see 7.1.B.2.a.2.b. ).

(a) 'to be in the process of making .... to be working on ...' (similar words without the suffix refer to the complete process and product):

SO-pcá:n-tkW 'to work on [making] a totem-pole' [...-totem.pole-...] sipts'aantkw

(b) 'to make, set up, prepare ...' (no unsuffixed counterpart):

sə-qinx-[t]kW 'to build a road'

[...-road-...-...] segenzkv

SO-Sá-tkW 'to perform the traditional four-day

[...-day-...] purification ritual' sistly

sə-lákW-s 'to build a fire'

[...-fuel-...] silakws

So-hanitxóxkW-S to set the tables for a feast

[...-blanket-...] sihaniitxooxkws

SO-Winex-S > Siwine ks to process and preserve food (wineex) siwineeks

Sə-?anláy tix s>sa?anláy tiks 'to set up a sign or beacon'
[...-sign/beacon-...] (anlayt'ix) sz'anlayt'iks

For some more ambitious undertakings, the suffix is (-[t]kW-S), not just (-[t]kW) or (-S), as in:

sə-wilp-[t]kW-s 'to build a house'

[...-house-...-...] siwilpkws

sə-pó:t-[t]kW-s 'to build a boat'

[...-boat-...-] sibootkvs

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.4.  $[yu:-...-[t]k^{W}/-s]$  to be in charge of ..., to carry/have

a/one's ... [on one's person]' yuu...(t)kw/...s (for the prefix alone, see 7.1.B.2.a.1.a.7.).

This frame is used most often, and productively, with noun stems:

yu:-tá:la-tk <sup>w</sup>	'to have one's money (e.g. in one's
[money]	pocket)' yuudaalatk
<b>yu</b> :-qapalu- <b>tk</b>	'to have one's gun, to carry a gun'
[gun]	yuu <u>k</u> 'ap'aaluu <b>tk</b> v
<b>yu</b> :-?ayú:q- <b>s</b>	'[to be] the police (to be in charge of the
[law]	law)' yuu'ayuu <u>k</u> s
yu:-timísT-[t]kW	'to be in charge of the paperwork, to be
[writing]	the secretary' yuut'imiskw
yu:-ťis)ťís-[t]kW	'to be in charge of the elders (e.g. escor
[PL)old]	them on a trip)' yuut'ist'iskw

(In the last example, the nominal which corresponds to the stem would be the Relative form tis)tis-at, lit. '[those] who are old' tistisit, used nominally, see 7.2.A.2.(c)).

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.5. [X-...-[t]kW/-s] 'to be caught in/by ..., to be personally affected by ...' x...(t)kw/...s (for the prefix x... alone, see 7.1.B.2.a.1.a.6.; for the suffix alone with a similar meaning, see 7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.b.(2)).

'to be possessed by demons'

zhat'agam-haykws

7.3.A.1.a.2.b.6. [XS-...-[t]kW/-S] 'to imitate a ..., to be like a ...' <u>xs...(t)kw/...s</u>

'to whistle [like a marmot]'

**I**SRWIIKWS

'(moon) to be hazy'

åii**gs**yeen**tk**₩

A few color words are formed with this frame. (For the suffix alone with this meaning, see 7.2.C.1.b.2.b.(1)).

'to be purple (like berries)'

[...-berries-...]

'to be dark brown (like rotted stone)'

slogalo'opk

7.3.A.1.b.2. Noun-forming frame: [7an-xs-\_-[t]kW/-s] 's, in lieu of ...'

anxs...(t)kw/...s

The first element of this frame is the prefix (7an-) an... (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.), preceding the frame  $[xs-...-[t]k^w/-s]$  to be like ..., to imitate ... xs...(t)kw/...s (7.3.A.1.a.2.b.6.). It forms a few nouns from other nouns:

'adoptive father'

an Isnigwooth w

'adoptive mother'

an zsnozkw

or from intransitive verbs:

7.3.A.2. PEA'S:

# 7.3.A.2.a. Frames ending in the Definite Medial suffix $\{-T\}$ : (7.2.C.1.a)

These frames are built on transitive verbs. A number of transitive verbs which do not normally take the suffix add it when preceded by certain prefixes or proclitic. An epenthetic is inserted between the suffix and a stem-final vowel or resonant. Many of these framed transitive verbs have Passive counterparts in  $\{-[t]kW/-s\}$  (see above 7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.).

7.3.A.2.a.1. The Definite Jussive frame [kWin-...-[t]kW/-s] to cause s.o. to do s.t. to have s.o. do s.t. to have s.t. done by s.o. gwin-...-di (Fr. faire faire qqch à qqn). (For the prefix alone, see 7.1.B.1.a.1.b.). Transitive verbs prefixed with gwin- take the  $\{-T\}$  suffix when accompanied by an Indirect object with designates the person actually performing the action.

• kilò mə cə kwin-ká?-tT-t ?a=4 wák-n don't 2E IRR (...-see.s.-...)-3 PREP=NC M's.brother-2

Don't show it to your brother!

Gwilo mi ji gwin-ga'adit ahl wagin!

7.3.A.2.a.2. The Reciprocal frame [na-...-T] to ... s. to/against each other ai...t: this frame, usually intransitive (7.3.A.1.a.1.b.1.), can also be used to form transitive verbs from other transitive verbs.

no-lúxW-T to fight over [who should have] s.t.; lit.
[...-not.let.s.o.have.s.-...] to deny s.t. to each other niluxw(t)

• [nə-lúxW-T]-ti:t=f wilp They fought over [who should have] the [...-not.let.s.o.have.s.-...]-3P=NC house house. Niluxwdiith1 wilp.

• tim[nə-tóq-T]-ə-m=+ ksán qan=+ lísims
FUT [...-take.s.PL-...]-CTL-1P=NC Skeena and=NC Nass
We'll bet each other the Street

We'll bet each other the Skeena against the Nass (19.3).

Dim nidokdimh! Ksan ganh! Lisims.

7.3.A.2.a.3. The frame [ni)ntə-\_\_\_T 'to \_\_\_[things] together [into one]' nindi/ninda...-di. The current prefix is probably a partially reduplicated form: Boas 1902 has several instances where the prefix is simply (ntə-) ndi/nda..., obviously related to the indefinite pronoun ntá 'which way, where' nda (5.6.A.1.b.2.). In general, the verb stem is plural.

ni)ntə-tix)ták f-T 'to tie things together into a bundle'
[...-PL)tie.s.-...]

ni)ntə-hix)qantó? T 'to pin things together'
[...-PL)tie.s.-...]

nindzhizgant'o'v(t)-di

• ki:-t kú:[t]=1 kWi:s-qá:q-t?a-t ntə-cip)ci:p-T-t

and-3E take.s.=ND garment-raven-3 PREP-3E[...-PL)tie.s.-...]-3

He took his raven blanket [that he had torn apart] in order to tie it together

again (39.2.).

K'iit guuhl gwiisgaakt at adits ipts iibit.

7.3.A.2.a.4. Modal frames: These frames add modal/adverbial meanings to the verb. Many of these transitive frames have Passive counterparts ending in  $\{-[t]kW/-s\}$  (7.3.A.1.a.2.a.2.).

7.3.A.2.a.4.a. [Sikil-...-T] 'to try to ... s.' sik'ih!-...-di.

7.3.A.2.a.4.b. [Si:X = ... = T] 'to try intently to ...  $\underline{s}_{ii}$  to concentrate on ...  $\underline{s}_{i}$ ' siix = ... = di:

7.3.A.2.a.4.c. [txa:-...-T] 'to ... <u>s.t.</u> completely, to ... all over <u>s.t.</u>' *txaa-...-di* 

7.3.A.2.a.4.d. [txapax-...-T] to ... s. completely, altogether; to ... the whole of s.t.' trap'ar-...-di. The prefix is probably compounded of (txa:-) 'altogether' tras... and (max-) 'nothing but ...' max..., which are found singly in other frames ((7.3.A.1.a.1.c.).

7.3.A.2.a.4.e. [?a:ma:-...-T] 'to ... s. well, properly' amas...-di: The prefix is a suffixed form of the word ?á:m 'good' aam.

7.3.A.2.a.5. Transitive frames in  $\{-T\}$  starting with proclitics: Some proclitics cause a transitive verb to add the Definite Medial suffix. Only a few instances are given here.

7.3.A.2.a.5. a. 
$$[\mathring{\mathbf{n}}a:-...-T]$$
 'to ... s. in one or more spots'  $\mathring{\mathbf{n}}aa...-di$  (cf. 7.1.A.1.b.22.)

7.3.A.2.a.5.b. [tqal-...-T] to ...  $\underline{s}$  to/with s.o. else  $\underline{t}$  al...- $\underline{d}$  (7.1.A.1.b.33.)

7.3.A.2.a.6. Transitive frames in (-T) starting with lexical verb-forming prefixes: (7.1.B.2.): these verbs are formed on nouns.

7.3.A.2.a.6.a. [SƏ-...-T] to make <u>s.t.</u> into ..., to make ... with <u>s.t.</u> to add ... to <u>s.t.</u> [a <u>food</u>]' <u>si/sa...di</u>. This productive frame forms transitive verbs from nouns (cf. also intransitive frame 7.3.A.1.a.2.b.3.). The prefix alone means 'to pick, prepare, make ...' (7.1.B.2.a.1.a.2..).

sə-lák <sup>W</sup> -T [fuel]	'to burn <u>s.t.</u> (lit. to make <u>s.t.</u> into fuel)' <i>silakw-di</i>	
<b>sə-</b> súp <b>-T</b> [ <u>soup</u> ]	'to make <u>s.t.</u> into soup, to make soup with <u>s.t.</u> ' <b>sisup-di</b>	
sə-cá:m-tT [ <u>jam</u> ]	'to make <u>s.t.</u> into jam, to make jam with <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>sijaam(t)-di</i>	
lu:=[ <b>sə</b> -?áks- <b>tT</b> ] in=[water]	'to add water to [a pot of] <u>s.t.'</u> <i>luu<b>si</b>'aks-<b>di</b></i>	
lu:=[sə-mó?on-tT] in=[salt]	'to salt <u>s.t.</u> [a food in a pot], to add salt to [a pot of] <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>luusimo'on(t)-di</i>	

7.3.A.2.a.6.b. [X=...=T]'to serve ... [a food] to <u>s.o.</u>' <u>x...</u>-di

The currently productive meaning of the prefix <u>x...</u> alone is 'to eat/drink/|
consume ...' (7.1.B.2.a.1.a.6.).

- tim [x-kó:fi:-tT]-ə-ỷ nì:n-a Shall I give you a cup of coffee?

  FUT [...-coffee-...]-CTL-1S you-Q Dim xkoofiitdiý niina?
- [x-?amálkW-ax-tT]-ə-[t]=+ wò:sa?huxWtá:kin-y
  [...-scab-?-...]-CTL--[3]=NC[a monster] grandchild-1S

  The woosa'a [a monster] has been feeding my grandchild scabs. (37.7.)

  X'amalgwaxdihl woosa'a(hl) huxwdaak'iniy.

7.3.A.2.b. <u>Transitive frames ending in (-[t]kW/-s</u>): (cf. transitive use of this suffix, 7.2.C.2.b.3.).

7.3.A.2.b.1.a. [Sil-(qa)-...-[t] $k^W$ /-S] to ... together with <u>s.o.</u> sil(ga)...  $tk^W$ /... (For the prefix alone, see 7.1.B.1.b.5.d.)). This productive frame is used with intransitive verb stems.

<b>sil-</b> cóq <b>-s</b> [stay]	to live in the same house with <u>s.o.</u> ' siljo <u>k</u> s
<b>sil-</b> ké: <del>1</del> - <b>[t]kW</b> [lie]	'to share a bed with <u>s.o.'</u> silgeehik
sil-wilkát-[t] <b>kW</b> [color]	'to be the same color as <u>s.'</u> silwilgatk

In some cases the DISTR plural prefix ga... is used to differentiate meaning:

In many cases however the Distributive prefix is part of the productive version of the frame and does not have a distinctive meaning:

7.3.A.2.b.1.b. [lipilt-...-[t]kw] to ... in rebellion or hostility against s. libilt ... the prefix does not seem to occur except in this frame, which does not appear to be productive.

7.3.A.2.b.2. Transitive frames ending in (-[t]kW/-s) starting with proclitic: These frames are built on intransitive stems. The alternant suffix (-s) is rarely

used in the context of these frames. Instead, if the stem used with the frame already ends in  $/k^W/$ , no suffix is added, so that most of the words in this category tend to end in the same phonological element. Examples are given with the most common proclitics entering in this type of frame. Compared to intransitive verbs with the proclitic but without the suffix, these transitive verbs imply an action which affects the Object, rather than the latter being just the location of the action (see beginning of the section on Frames, 7.3.A.).

7.3.A.2.b.2.a.  $lu := 'in' / \nu \nu_{m}$ 

7.3.A.2.b.2.b.  $\vec{\Pi}\vec{1} = \text{on}' \vec{\Delta}\vec{u}$ ...

(1) used singly:

$$\vec{\mathbf{n}} := \hat{\mathbf{t}} \hat{\mathbf{a}} := \hat{\mathbf{t}} \hat{\mathbf{k}} \mathbf{W}$$

$$[...=sit-...]$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{n}} := |\mathbf{a} \hat{\mathbf{x}}| |\mathbf{a} \hat{\mathbf{q}} - |\mathbf{t}| \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}$$

$$[...=[snow]to.fall-...]$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{n}} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

$$[...=stand-...]$$

$$\mathbf{n} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

$$\mathbf{n} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

$$\mathbf{n} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

$$\mathbf{n} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

$$\mathbf{n} := |\mathbf{n} \hat{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W} - [[t] \mathbf{k} \mathbf{W}]$$

In the following example, the framed word ends in /S/, so that the alternant  $\{-S\}$  is not repeated. This word is itself originally a Passive (of the transitive verb  $?\acute{\mathbf{U}}\mathbf{X}$  'to throw/fling  $\underline{s.t.}$ ' ux), ending in the alternant suffix  $\{-S\}$  because of the stem-final Velar.

nii(t)k'anyuuxkws

- (2) associated with other proclitics: these combinations only seem to occur in the following frames:
- (a)  $[\vec{n}i:=\vec{m}in=...-[t]kW/-s]$  to ... to the top of  $\underline{s.t.}$   $\vec{n}ii\dot{m}in...tkw/...s$ ( ni = 'on' *nii...*; min='upward' *min...*):

$$\vec{n}i:=\vec{m}in=kip\acute{a}yk^{W}-[tk^{W}]$$
 to fly to the top of  $\underline{s.t.}$ 

(b)  $[\hat{n}i:=[t]\hat{q}an=...-[t]\hat{w}/-s]$  'to ... over [the top of]  $\underline{s.t.}$ '  $\dot{n}ii(t)k'an...tkw/...s$  ( $\dot{n}i=$  on'  $\dot{n}ii...$ ; [t] $\dot{q}an=$  level with the top (?)' (t)k'an...):

- 7.3.B. Morphosyntactic (phrasal) frames: Phrasal frames can be divided into nominalizing frames and focusing frames. Nominalizing frames make an adjective, locational adverb, transitive verb, and even noun, into the head of a possessive noun-phrase: 'the ... [of the ...].' There are too kinds of focusing frames: those which only focus nouns and those which focus any predicates. In both cases, these frames add special meaning to the focused element.
- 7.3.B.1. Nominalizing frames: There are two nominalizing frames, one which nominalizes adjectives and locational adverbs, the other which nominalizes

transitive verbs and other nouns.

7.3.B.1.a. The Abstract nominalizing frame  $[qa--\partial]ga.../a...$  This frame can be used to nominalize adjectives and locational adverbs. It is not clear whether the prefix can be identified with the Distributive plural prefix [qa-]ga... (7.1.B.1.a.1.b.) (it could mean 'each and every instance of ...') or with the other prefix of the same shape (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.3.), which has a less definable meaning. The suffix  $[-\partial-]$  should probably not be identified with the Control suffix (7.2.A.3.), but considered as a homophonous morpheme, since it occurs under quite different conditions. No specific gloss seems appropriate at the present time.

7.3.B.1.a.1. Framing Adjectives: With an adjective, this frame is usually translated locally by 'how ... [long, thick, etc.] s. is', but many times the best English translation is by an abstract noun, e.g. 'the length, thickness, etc. of s.' However, the Nisgha framed word is not an abstract noun, like those nouns formed with the prefixes 7an - an... (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.) or qan - gan... (7.1.B.3.b.1.), but a downshifted adjectival predicate (4.5.A.1.c.2.) used in a nominalizing frame: the downshifted adjective is always accompanied by its argument and agrees with it in number. The resulting noun-phrase can be used either predicatively, or as an Adjunct, especially after an evaluative predicate.

qa-sàq-e-[t]= $\frac{1}{2}$ laxhá [...-sharp-...]-[3]=NCsky

how cold the weather is (!). The weather is so cold!; the coldness of the weather, the low temperature

gasagahl lagha (!)

qa-nnì:lukW-ə-[t]=+qan)qán [...-long.PL-...]-[3]=NCPL)tree

'how long the logs are (!). The logs are so long!; the length of the logs'

sanniilugwihl gangan (!)

• cáxW=+ qa-sàq-a-[t]=+laxhá==sa considerable=NC[...-sharp-...]-[3]-NCsky==PROX This weather is so/very cold!

Ts'axwhigesagehilagha-sa!

- kax páq-[t]=+qa-kàmk -o-[t]=+húpx-t==sa
  considerable=NC[...-hot-...]-[3]=NC forehead==PROX
  Just feel how hot h. forehead is!

  <u>K'ax bakhl gagamgihl hupxt-sa/</u>
- †a ?á.m-[t]=† **qa**-nàkW-ə-t ?i: ... After a while ... (lit. now its length now good-[3]=NC [...-long-...]-3 and ... [of time] was right and ...)

  Haa aamh! **ga**nagwit ii ...

A few stems are used only with the frame and do not occur by themselves. They all end in vowels, a fact which causes deletion of the vowel suffix.

speech)

Gabiihl hiy.

- **qa-\***pì:-**ə**-t==əma?=<del>1</del> tá:la-t That's probably all the money s/he has! [...-?-...]-3==PROB=NCmoney-3 Gabiidime'ah! daalat!
- ntá=4 qa-\*tiptì.-a-[t]=4cáwaqs=4hax)hóx-a-n which.way=NC[...-\*big.PL?-...]-[3]=NCshoes=NCPL)use.s.-CTL-2S

What size shoes do you wear? (lit. what is the size of the shoes you wear) Ndahl gadipdiihl ts'awakshl haxhooyin:

If the adjective includes a proclitic or modifier, that morpheme precedes the prefix (qa-) ga...

• kax ká?-[t]=+ wi:-qa-hàkW-a-[t]=s[t]Máry just see.s.-[3]=NC great-[...-long-...]-[3]=DC [DM] M.

> See how tall Mary is! K'ax ga'ahl wiiganagwis Mary

•  $\dot{c}\dot{a}x^{W} == a? = \frac{1}{2} lu = qa - ?\dot{c}ks - a - t$ considerable==ASST=NC in=[...-wide-...]-3

My, it's really wide insidel Ts'axwa'ab! luuga'ooksit!

However, some YFS prefix it to the proclitic:

•  $\dot{c}\dot{a}x^{W}==a?=1$  **qa**-lu:=kámk-**ə**-t==sa 

My, it's really hot in here!

# 7.3.B.1.a.2. Framing locational Adverb:

(a) plain frame:

qa-kè:c-a-[t]=+?ayans [...-dowriver-...]-[3]=NC Aiyansh

'downriver from Aiyansh' gageets'ih! Ayans qa-kikè:ni[x] e-[t]= laxqalcap 'upriver from Greenville' [...-upriver-...]-[3]=NC Aiyansh

gagigeenihl Laxgalts'ap

(b) The frame itself can be prefixed with (?an-) aa..., which has both abstract and locational meanings ((7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.). The result is a noun with locational meaning, which must be used in a possessive noun-phrase:

?an-qa-tù w -{ə}-[t]=+ sqanı́sT [...-over.there-...]-[3]=NC mountain

'[on] the far side of the mountain' angaduuwhl sganist

 $\operatorname{an-qa-kiks-a-[t]=1} \operatorname{hu} \operatorname{wilp}$ [...-on.water.side-...]-[3]=NCPL)house

'(on) the river side of the houses' angagiiksihl huwilp

7.3.B.1.b. Nominalizing frame [10 ...-T-[t]=CON Noun]: 'the ... of the ...' hli/hla ... (d)i ...(...): this frame nominalizes transitive verbs or nouns. With nouns, the result is a generic rather than simply possessive noun-phrase. More details (especially morphophonemic) and examples are given under the suffix (7.2.C.1.a.1.c.).

7.3.B.1.b.1. With transitive verbs: '[the act of ] ...ing [the] ...'

tətqal=lip)lipkW-T-[t]=tqanmála? the against=PL)sew.s.-DEF-[3]=NC button

'Ithe act of sewing on buttons' hli tk'alliplipgwihl ganmala'a

10 ni =yè-tT-[t]=1 lax-mí1 the on-walk-DEF-[3]=NC on-fire

'[the act of] walking on the lava' hli niiyeedihl laxmihl

7.3.B.1.b.2. With nouns: 'the [type of ] ... of [the] ...'

1a qàn-tT-[t]=1 ha1ikó:tkW the stick-DEF-[3]=NC axe

'the [type of] handle of the/an axe' hla gandihl hahligyootkw 10 sqàns-T-[t]=1ksláwisk w the [type of] elbow of the/a shirt the elbow-DEF-[3]=NC shirt his sgansihl kslawisk w

10 qisa?-tT-[t]=1 maqs-t the [type of] knee of h. pants, h. pant knee the knee-DEF-[3]=NC pants

his kiesa adihi makst

7.3.B.2. Focusing frames: Focusing frames emphasize a particular element of the clause, as well as adding a particular meaning (unlike regular focusing, 4.7., which does not add such meaning). There are two kinds of focusing frames: two are a means of focusing a noun, and use the Relative pronoun  $\{(a)t^{-}\}$  which is normally used in focusing  $P_A$ 's. The third frame uses a morpheme peculiar to itself.

## 7.3.B.2.a. Noun-focusing frames:

- (1) [?akù=1 wilas ...-(a)t] 'What kind of ...?' Aguhl wilas ...it?
- (2) [liki:-lip-wilas ...-(a)t] 'any/whatever kind/all kinds of ...'
  ligii-lip-wilas ...it

?akù what agu is an Indefinite pronoun. The combination of modifiers liki:-lip ligii-lip is used before Indefinite pronouns to reinforce the indefinite meaning (5.6.B.). The following segment wilas wilas appears to include a shorter form of the subordinator wila 'how' wilas (5.16.B.9.). It is not clear what the following represents, but it could be a special use of the determinate connective =S. In the frames discussed here, these morphemes precede a noun suffixed with the Relative suffix (-(a)t) \_\_it\_\_at\_\_t (see other examples under Nouns, 5.5.F.).

These two frames are always used with a noun in focused position.

• [?akù=+ wilas púc-(ə)t]=+ tim ti: tóq-a-n [...-boots-...] FUT=NC INTS take.s.PL-CTL-2S What kind of boots are you going to buy?

Aguhl wiles bujith! dim dii dogan?

[liki: lip wilas púc-(ə)t]=+ tóx-(ə)t lò--ti-t
[...-boots-...]=NC PL.lie/be-REL=NC IND-3P

- Whatever kind [of boots] they have.
- Ligii-lip wilas bujith! doxat loodiit.
- [?akù=+ wilas ?á.t-(ə)t]=+ ti: hó:x-ə-t [...-net-...] =NC INTS use.s.-CTL-3

What kind of fi. . does he fish for? (lit. what kind of net does he use?)

Aguhl wiles asdith! dii hooyit?

[liki: lip wilas ?á:t-(ə)t]
-All kinds. /Any kind he finds.

[...-net-...]
(lit. whatever kind of net)
- Ligii-lip wilas aadit.

7.3.B.2.b. Comparative frame: [wit (liki:) ...-i:] 'seeming/looking/sounding/etc. like ...' wit (ligii) ...ii

This frame can be used with most types of predicatives. It frames a focused or at least a clause-initial constituent, including not only clause predicates, but auxiliaries, the latter especially before  $P_{EA}$ 's (which cannot themselves be focused in this frame). Note that a focused predicate (in a predicate-focused clause) embedded in this frame is no longer focused in the grammatical sense of this expression (4.4.), although it is still emphasized.

It is not clear what type of form Wit wit is. When it is separated from a following P<sub>A</sub> by the no-determinate connective = 1 ...h/, the final /t/ usually disappears before the connective, because of the consonant-deletion rule (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.). The modifier liki: 'about, maybe, etc.' ligii (5.15.B.42.) is not used with nouns.

# 7.3.B.2.b.1. With nouns: (see also examples in Nouns, 5.5.G.)

- (a) Noun as focused predicate (in predicate-focused clause, cf. 4.4.):
- huxW kil-[t]=4 ló?op [wi[t]=4 kWiskWó.s-i: again one-[3]=NC rock [...=NC bluejay-...]

There was one more stone, a blue one (lit. ..., it was like a Steller's jay)(139.9-10).

Huxw k'ilhl lo'op - wihl gwisgwoosii.

• [wi[t]=1 má:kWs-i:]=1 1ip1àn-t [...=NC snow-...]=NC body-3

Her body was as white as snow. (lit. ... was like snow) (211.7.)

Wihl maak wsiihl bliphlant.

- (b) Noun as focused constituent of second clause (pivot between two clauses): in this case, the verb following the noun is relativized, and it too takes the ending  $\{-i:\}$  ...ii (cf. the double use of the REL suffix in some cases, 4.7..A.2.b.1.b.):
- naxná-(y)a-y=4[wì[t]=4 liki: čú:ċ-i:]=4 lím[x]-(a)t-i: hear.s.-CTL-1S=NC[...=NC about bird-...]=NC sing-REL-...

I heard what sounded like a bird singing.

Nazňaviýhl wihi ligii to souts'iihl limidii.

- 7.3.B.2.b.2. With intransitive verb: This verb takes a personal suffix. If that suffix is the 3 suffix (-t), it appears on the surface before the frame suffix (-i:) ...ii.
- (a) With main verb: In the following example from Boas 1902, the intensive modifier ti: dii is used, not the indefinite liki: ligii which is more common in present-day Nisgha.

• [wi[t]=1 ti: wiyitkW-t-i:]=1 hi-t

I...=NC INTS cry-3-...]=NC saying-3

?a-t?itkW-[t]=1?a:m-a:Wák-t==ki:

PREP-3 call.s.-[3]=NC good-SUFF M.'s brother-3==DISTAL

He sounded as if he were crying as he called his good brother (17.6.-7)

(lit. his words sounded like his crying ...)

Wihl dii wiyitkwdiihl hit at itkwhl amaa wakt-gi.

- (b) With auxiliary verb: in this case, there may or may not be a connective between Wit and the auxiliary (it seems that YFS use the connective more than OFS):
- OFS: [wit liki: yùkW-i:]=† WiyítkW-t It seems/seemed like s/he is/was [... about PROG-...]=NC cry-3 crying.

  Wit ligii yugwiihl wiyitkwt.

YFS: [wi[t]=1 liki: yùkW-i:]=1 wiyitkW-t It seems/seemed like s/he
[...=NC about PROG-...]=NC cry-3 is/was crying.

Wihl ligii yugwiihl wiyitkwt.

- [wi[t]=+ liki: yùkW-i:]=+ wiyitkW-ti: It sounded like[someone was]

  [...=NC about PROG-...]=NC cry-IMPS crying.

  Wihl ligii yugwiihl wiyitkwdii.
- [wi[t]=1 liķi: yùkW-i:]=1 tim wiyitkW-ỷ nə wila: páq-T-t
  [...=NC about PROG-...]=NC FUT cry-18 18.E how feel.s.-DEF-3

  I feel like I am about to cry.

  (local: It's like I am going to cry, how I feel.)

  Wihl ligii yugwiihl dim wiyitgwiÿ,

  ni wilaa bagat.
- 7.3.B.2.b.3. With transitive verb: The frame only seems to be used with the Progressive auxiliary Yukw. Usually there is no connective after Wit

wit

• [wit liki: yùkw-i:]=+ tim-t kip-t
[...=NC about PROG-...]=NC FUT-3E eat.s.-3

S/he/it looked like s/he was about to eat it.

Vit ligii yugwiihl dimt gipt.

#### CHAPTER 8: REDUPLICATION

Reduplication occurs in Nisgha under two basic forms: partial and full. Partial reduplication is a fairly simple process; full reduplication occurs under a variety of forms bearing evidence of a very long history of morphophonemic and numbhological evolution.

- 8.1. <u>Partial reduplication (C-)</u>: Partial reduplication involves only the initial consonant. The resulting contact between two consonants is prevented by the insertion of a vowel, unless the consonants are syllabic resonants.
- 8.1.A. <u>Aspectual use</u>: Partial reduplication is used with all suitable verbs to indicate the progressive/imperfective aspect, as in:

p)páx > ASP)run	pipáx	'to be running' <b>biba<u>r</u></b>
t)tá: > ttá:> ASP)sit	tiťá:	'to be sitting'  dit'as
c)cám > ASP)cook.s.	cicám	'to be cooking <u>s.t.'</u> <i>jijam</i>
y)yé: > hyé: > ASP)go, walk	hiyé:	'to go, waik' <i>hiyee</i>

as in:

Partial reduplication usually involves the entire word, including prefixes and proclitics, as in:

- †a: t)tqulyé:-[t]=†qañàk<sup>W</sup>ə-[t]=† sá The days are getting longer.
  now ASP)increase-[3]=NC length-[3]=NC day Hlan ditk'alyeehl ganagwihl sa.
- qay ci)caqam=yúk -[t]=+ mà:|
   still ASP)shoreward=move-[3]-NC canoe

While the canoe was still moving towards the shore ...(185:10-11)

<u>K'ay jijagamyukwhi maai</u>...

8.1 B. <u>Plural use</u>: Partial reduplication also indicates the plural of a few words, mostly nouns: most of these nouns designate items which occur (or are noticed in the plural) as groups or sets, including pairs, as in:

p)pá? > PL)thigh	pipá?	'thighs'	biba'a
t)tó? > PL)cheek	titó?	'cheeks'	dido'o
t)táx > ttáx > PL)lake	tiťáx	'lakes'	dit's z
<b>c</b> )cák > ccák > PL)dish	ci <b>ćá</b> k	'dishes'	jits'ak'
<b>đ</b> )ជុំá:x > ជុជុំá:x > PL) <b>wing</b>	qaqa:x	'feather(s)' (old w	ord) <sup>1</sup>

?a- <b>s</b> )sáỷ > PL.feet	?asisá <b>ỷ</b>	'legs, feet'	a <b>s</b> isaÿ
1)linkit > PL)Tlingit	4i4ínkit	'slaves' (< <u>Tling</u>	iit)) <sup>2</sup> <b>hli</b> hlingit
?a-n)ná:s > PL.skins	?anná:s	'skins, pelts'	a <b>n</b> naus
w)wá:x > hwá:} PL)paddle	c > huwá:x	'paddles'	huwaax

Partial reduplication then seems to be associated with extensive or extended meaning.

There are no very recent plurals using partial reduplication; however, the form

shows that the formula was still productive at the time of European contact.

Only exceptionally does partial reduplication occur as an extra plural morpheme on an already plural form; this occurs however in:

$$\hat{\mathbf{n}}$$
)  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$   $\hat{\mathbf$ 

the plural of  $\mathring{\mathbf{nak}}^{\mathbf{W}}$  'to be long (time), far'  $\mathring{\mathbf{nak}}_{\mathbf{W}}$  (original reduplicative type  $\mathring{\mathbf{CV}}$ :CvK (archaic) with irregularities, see below ).

8.1.C. Morphophonemic rules associated with partial reduplication: (These rules apply regardless of the morphological structure of the word, i.e. whether

the initial consonant belongs to the stem or base or to an affix).

### 8.1.C.1. <u>Deglottalization</u>: (10.1.B.1.b.2.):

8.1.C.2. <u>Vowel Insertion</u>: (10.2.1.a.1.): except when the consonant is a syllabic resonant (glottalized or not): the following examples show non-insertion; see examples of vowel-insertion in other sections of this chapter.

m)míłk <sup>W</sup> ASP)burn-MED	<b>m</b> míłķ <sup>w</sup>	'to be shiny'	<b>m</b> mihlkw
m)má:l > PL)canoe	<b>m</b> má:l	'canoes'	<b>m</b> inaal
?a-n)nó:ÌT PL.let.s.	?a <b>n</b> nó:ÌT	'to let <u>s.o.</u> [do s.t.	]' a <b>n</b> nool-di

8.1.C.3. Glide-reduction to the default value /h/ (16.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.):

ASP)fry, iron.s.

hi'iits-di

?)?an-hé:> h?anhé: > ha?anhé: 'sayings'

PL)cause-saying

ha'anhee

8.2. <u>Full reduplication</u>: in its basic form, full reduplication affects the CVC root, which is prefixed to itself (usually with accompanying morphophonemic changes in the vowel and stem-final consonant, hence the notation Cvc-). It is

used to form the piural (3.2.C.) of a large number of words, mostly verbs, and their derivatives, as in:

/	,	
cam	<b>cim</b> )cám	to cook s.pl.

8.2.A. <u>Uses:</u> Full reduplication is associated with repetitive meaning: the plural stem of a transitive verb may be used to indicate either a plurality of Objects, especially separate ones, as in:

K'ask'ojithi hlakst.

or repetitive actions performed on a single Object, as in

Similarly, in an intransitive verb with a plural Subject, the singular stem indicates an action performed by the whole group, the plural stem indicates actions performed separately by different individuals or groups:

ła: káck<sup>w</sup>-ti:t

They have arrived (in one boat, car, etc.).

now arrive-3P

Hlaa k'atskwdiit.

da: **kis**)káck<sup>W</sup>-ti:t now PL)arrive-3P

They have arrived (in different boats, cars, etc.).

Hlaa k'isk'aiskwdiit.

This explains why some plural forms are very rarely used (e.g. that of  $k\acute{a}$ ? to see  $\underline{s}$ ,  $ga\dot{a}$ ), and why some proclitics are used mostly with the plural, e.g.  $\{kW_{1}^{\dagger}i:-\}$  'all over, randomly, messily' kwhlii..., as in:

 $k^{\mathbf{W}} \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{\hat{t}} \mathbf{i} \mathbf{m} \mathbf{\hat{t}}$ ám

'to write all over s.t.'

all.over--PL)write.s.

kwhliit'imt'am

kW4i:=4ix)4á:k
all.over--PL).scratched

'(skin, furniture, etc.) to be all scratched up' kwhliihlinhlank

- 8.2.B. Types of full reduplication: Full reduplication occurs under three sub-types, which can be shown to correspond to three historical stages (3.2.C.; see Tarpent 1983b for more details): Type 1 (archaic) affects the root, Type 2 (regular) affects the stem, Type 3 (modern) affects the whole word. Here Type 2 is described first as it shows the most typical features of reduplication and of its historical development.
- 8.2.B.1. <u>Regular full reduplication</u>: (Type 2): this method applies to a very large number of stems but is not currently productive.
- 8.2.B.1.a. C<sub>1</sub>VC<sub>2</sub> stems: (with long or short vowel):

At the earliest stage the entire syllable CVC must have been prefixed to the stem, and the vowel of the prefixed unstressed syllable became despecified and later respecified according to its environment (for a synchronic description it is

enough to specify the consonants since the vowel is predictable).

3.2.B.1.a.1. Formula for stage 1: stem =  $C_1VC_2$  root: (may also have affixes attached, not involved in reduplication)<sup>3</sup>

$$c_1 \forall c_2) \ c_1 \forall c_2 \rightarrow c_1 \partial c_2) \ c_1 \forall c_2$$

This stage is represented by forms such as:

ťám	'to write <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>t'am</i>	ťim)ťám	'to write <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> ' <i>t'imt'am</i>
qá:p	to scratch s.t.'	qap)qá:p	'to scratch s.t. (repeatedly)' gapgaap
tálpiksk <sup>W</sup>	'to shrink; to crouch, double over' dalbikskw	<b>t</b> il)tálpiksk <sup>W</sup>	'(pl.) to shrink; to crouch, double over' dildalbikskw

including formations on older plurals, such as (forms prefixed with (10-),  $li_{10}/la_{10}/la_{10}$ , 7.1.B.1.a.1.a.):

kámk	'hot, warm' <i>gamk</i>		
*lə-kámk PL	:>*lámk	li <b>m)</b> lámk	'(pl.) to be hot, warm'
?as-ká:pa	lX 'to chatter a	ill the time'	

Affixes remain outside of the reduplicative formula, e.g.

ťám	'to write <u>s.t.'</u> <i>t'um</i>	kWłi:=tim)tám all.over=	'to write all over <u>s.t.</u> '  kwhliit'imi'am
tám- <b>tk<sup>W</sup></b> PAS	'to be written'	ťim)ťám- <b>tk₩</b> PAS	'(pl.)to be written'

# 8.2.B.1.a.2. Morphophonemic rules affecting the reduplicated syllable:

8.2.B.1.a.2.a. <u>Vowel-specification</u>: according to the new environment, see 10.1.A.1.a.1, 10.1.A.1.a.2.

# 8.2.B.1.a.2.b. Rules affecting C<sub>1</sub>:

Most of the time, the initial consonant is not affected, with one exception. In stems beginning with the sequence /ya/, the initial consonant reduplicates as /h/, which is the default value of glides (10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.); this does not occur when initial /h/ is followed by another vowel:

<b>y</b> áłk <sup>W</sup> in-turn	'to be slippery' <i>yahlkw</i>	hił) <b>y</b> áłk <sup>W</sup>	'(pl.) to be slippery'
			hihlyahlkw
lu≔ <b>y</b> áltk <sup>W</sup> in-turn	'to return' <i>luuyaltk</i> w	lu≔ <b>h</b> il) <b>y</b> áltk <sup>W</sup>	'(pl.) to return' <i>luuhilyaltkw</i>

but:

yím 'to sniff s.t.' yim)yím 'to sniff s.t.(pl)'
yim yimyim

kSƏ=ÿé:nWa? 'to be reluctant kSƏ=ÿin)ÿé:nWa? '(pl.) to be reluctant to go out esp. into into foul weather'
ksiyeenwa'a ksiyinyeenwa'a

**8.2.B.1.a.2.c.** Rules affecting  $C_2$ . In its new preconsonantal position,  $C_2$  is subject to the rules of Deaffrication, Deglottalization and Velar Fricativization.

### 8.2.B.1.a.2.c.1. Deaffrication (10.1.B.2.1.a.):

φú <b>c</b>	to cut <u>s.t.</u>	фа <b>s</b> )фи́ <b>с</b>	'to cut <u>s.t.(pi.)</u> to slice, cut <u>up s.t.</u> ' <u>k'ask'ots</u>
yác	'to chop <u>s.t.;</u> to kill <u>s.o.(pl.)</u> ' <i>yats</i>	hi <b>s</b> )yác	'to chop <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> ' <i>hisyats</i>

### 8.2.B.1.a.2.c.2. Deglottalization (10.1.B.1.b.2.):

ċá <b>i</b>	'face, eyes' <i>ts'al</i>	ċì <b>l</b> )ċá <b>ľ</b>	'faces, (pairs of) eyes' <i>ts'ilts'al</i>
hí <b>ť</b>	'to stick' <i>hit'</i>	ha <b>t</b> )hí <b>ṫ</b>	' (pl.) to stick' <i>hathit</i> '

# 8.2.B.1.a.2.c.3. Velar fricativization (10.1.B.1.b.3.):

ŧá∶ <b>k</b>	to be scratched hlaak	†i <b>x</b> )†á: <b>k</b>	'(pl.) to be scratched; to have many scratches' hlixhlaak 'to twist s.t.(pl.)' t'uxwt'skw
ťá <b>k</b> ♥	'to twist <u>s.t.</u> '	tu <b>x</b> ₩)tá <b>k</b> ♥	
pá <b>q</b>	'to feel <u>s.t.</u> '	pa <b>x</b> )pá <b>q</b>	'to feel <u>s.t.(pl.);</u> to feel around for <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>baybak</i>

**8.**2.B.1.b. Formulas for stems larger than  $C_1 VC_2$ : These represent a later stage of the same regular formula  $C_1 \ni C_2 \setminus C_1 VC_2$ , with an extension of the definition of the reduplicative  $C_2$ , thus the different types:

8.2.B.1.b.1. Stage 2.a.: stem = base including initial non-Velar fricative augments: this formula is restricted fo a small number of stems of the shapes SKVC and  $\frac{1}{2}$  KVC: the augment is taken as  $C_1$ , the following K as  $C_2$  (causing fricativization K > X):

$$c_{1} \ni c_{2}) \ c_{1} \lor c_{2} \rightarrow c_{1} \ni c_{2}) \ c_{1} c_{2} \lor c_{3}$$

$$sq(ksk^{W} \quad \text{'to be injured'} \quad sax)sq(ksk^{W} \quad \text{'(pl.)to be injured'} \quad saxsgeksk^{W} \quad saxsgeksk^{W}$$

$$! (W's) \ sister' \quad ! \ ix)! \ k(k^{W} - s) \quad (W's) \ sisters' \quad hlgiikw \quad ...-MED \qquad hlixhlgiikws$$

8.2.B.1.b.2. Stage 2.b.: stems including final augments or suffixes that speakers no longer identify as such: the last consonant of the stem (or what appears to be the stem as the meaning of former suffixes is forgotten) is taken as  $C_2$  of the reduplicative syllable:

$$c_1 \!\!\ni \!\! c_2) \, c_1 \, \forall c_2 \rightarrow c_1 \!\!\ni \!\! c_3) \, c_1 \, \forall c_2 c_3$$

$$ks\theta = n\acute{a} + q - [t]k^W > ks\theta = n\acute{a} + xk^W \qquad \text{`to breathe out'}$$
 
$$[...-breath-...]_{remove} \qquad \textit{ksinashlxkw}$$

ksə=nax)ná: xkW [...-PL)breath-...]<sub>remove</sub>

'(pl.) to breathe out'

ksinagnaehlkw

†útux\* 'to value, †ux\*)†útux\* 'to value, treasure st.: st.(pl.): to cherish to cherish so.' s.o.(pl.)'

to cherish <u>s.o.'</u> <u>s.o.(pl.)'</u>

hluut'uxw hluxwhlu

hluut'uxw hluxwhluut'uxw

\* $q\acute{o}:=?sT > q\acute{o}:?osT$  'to be cooled'  $qas)q\acute{o}:?osT$  '(pl.) to be cooled' ?-AP.D goo'os(t)

including reformations on older plurals, such as (archaic reduplication CV:CvK, 8.2.B.3.):

Si:SaQ '(blades, etc.) Sax)Si:SaQ '(blades, etc.)
to be sharp' to be all sharp'
siisak saxsiisak

(in this case, the two forms coexist).

8.2.b.1.b.3. Stage 2.c.: bisyllabic stems stressed on the second syllable:

$$c_1 \!\!\ni \!\! c_2) \; c_1 \forall c_2 \mathrel{\rightarrow} c_1 \!\!\ni \!\! c_2) \; c_1 \forall c_2 \forall c_3$$

Wiláx 'to know s.' Wil)Wiláx 'to know s.(pl.)'

wilaax wilwilaax

# 8.2.B.2. Modern: (Type 3.):

8.2.B.2.a. <u>General</u>: This currently productive method prefixes CiX - to the word. C being the initial consonant, regardless of the rest of the word.

<b>m</b> aqó:n-tT	'to explain <u>s.t.'</u> magoon(t)-di	<b>mix)m</b> aqó:n-tT '	to explain <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> '  mixmagoon(t)-di
<b>h</b> a <del>ł</del> álsT	'to work' hahlais(t)	hi <b>x)h</b> a†álsT	'(pl.) to work' hixhahlais(t)

This method makes it possible to pluralize any type of stem, including borrowings:

swé <u>t</u> a	'sweater'	six)swé <u>t</u> a	'sweaters'
	swela		Sixswela

As a result, many words have CiX- plurals concurrently with other types of plurals: many times a CiX- syllable is attached to an already plural form:

<b>p</b> ilísT	'star'	pi <b>x)p</b> i:lísT	stars (each and every
	bilist	PL)stars	star) bixbiilist

lu=yó?oks 'to wash s.t. out' lu=yó??oks > lu=hix)yó??oks
in=wash.s.PL 'to wash out s.t.(pi)'

luwhixyoo'oks

This method applies not just to the stem, but to the entire word, often including prefixes and proclitics:

Sqa=pité? 'curtain' Six)Sqapité? 'curtains' across=spreading sgabiblee'e sixsgabiblee'e

This method appears to be an extension to all types of stems of a reduplicative syllable which originally occurred as part of the regular process, as in:

ták 'to forget s.' tix) ták 'to forget s.(pl)'

t'at tixt'et

The intermediate stage was probably the pluralization by full reduplication of bisyllabic stems, e.g.

ki)kil 'to look for s.' kix)kikil 'to look for s.(pl.)'
ASP)pick.s. gigil gizgigil

where the original aspectually reduplicated form ki)kil gigil had acquired a separate meaning, necessitating a plural of its own. In this example, the Vetar fricative /X/ occurs because of the  $C_2$  /k/, but it bears no relation to the stem-final, post-stress consonant /l/. In the extension of this formula, then, only the  $C_1$  plays a part in reduplication.

## 8.2.B.2.b. Initial consonant changes:

(1) Word-initial uvulars beginning an unstressed syllable deglottalize and are reduced to the default value for Velars, /k/ (10.1.B.1.b.5.a.) when in this position:

8.2.B.2.b.2. Similarly, glides are reduced to the default value /h/ (as in partial reduplication, see 8.1.C.3.):

<b>y</b> ú:†imq	'to lecture, advise <u>s.o.'</u> yuuhlim <u>k</u>	hix) <b>y</b> ú: <del>l</del> imq	'to lecture, advise, s.o.(pl.)' hixyuuhlim <u>k</u>
qam- <b>w</b> íl	'(thing) to be old, useless' gamwil	qam <b>-h</b> ix) <b>w</b> íl	'(things) to be old, useless, garbage' gamhirwil
<b>?</b> amqó:kit	'to be pretty, beautiful' amgoogit	hix)?amqókit	'(pl.) to be pretty, beautiful' hix'amgoogit

### 8.2.B.3. Archaic (Type 1):

8.2.B.3.a. General: This type applies only to bases or roots of the shape CVK (where K may include glottals), with a <u>short</u> vowel; in this type, stress falls on the prefixed syllable, with consequent Velar Fricativization and Vocalization, resulting in a long stressed vowel, while that of the original syllable is despecified. The resulting plural shape is CV:CvK (augments and suffixes can occur outside this shape), as in:

Some vowel changes are associated with this type of reduplication, making it irregular on a synchronic basis. Further irregularities often result from the addition of extra plural morphemes, reduplicative or affixal.

- 8.2.B.3.b. <u>Comments</u>: That this is an archaic type is evidenced by a number of features:
- **8.2.B.3.b.1.** Involvement of the CVC root only (not augments, let alone affixes, which remain outside the scope of this form of reduplication):

 $k^W$ -s.táq.s 'to leave,  $k^W$ -s.táq)taq.s >  $k^W$ stá:taqs 'to leave, abandon  $\underline{s}$ .' 'to leave, abandon  $\underline{s}$ .'  $\underline{s}$ .(pl.)'

**8.2.B.3.b.2.** Stress on the prefixed syllable (also found in other archaic formations, **10.3.B.**), with consequent weakening of the following unstressed vowel (see **8.2.B.3.b.3.**);

8.2.B.3.b.3. In the stressed vowel, pre-consonantal Velar weakening up to and including vocalization, a rule or series of rules which is archaizing with other forms (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.a.2.):

These two rules are examplified in

 $n\acute{o}$ x) $nox > n\acute{o}$ h) $nox > n\acute{o}$ :nox

**8.2.B.3.b.4.** Numerous irregularities in comparison with other methods, especially:

8.2.B.3.b.4.a. Stressed vowel alternations not found with any other method:

náks 'spouse; to ní:niksk<sup>W</sup> 'spouses; (animals)
marry' naks to mate' niinikskw

p. $fáks-[t]k^W >> pláksk^W$  'to be tired' pfí: $fiksk^W > plí:fiksk^W$ plakskw '(pl.) to be tired'

pliihlikskw

qalksə=kW.†ák 'to be inside out' qalksə=kW.†í:†ik
through-? galksikwhlak '(pl.) to be inside out'
galksikwhliihlik

sáiq	'(cold, blade, etc.) to be sharp'	s <b>í</b> :saq	'(blades, arrows, etc.) to be sharp' siisa <u>k</u>
ሰ <b>á</b> k <sup>₩</sup> s	'to reach, stretch out a hand' hakws	ที <b>่</b> 1:ก้นห <sup>พ</sup> ร	'(pl.) to reach, stretch out a hand' 'AiiAUKWS

The vowel alternation /a/ in the singular, /i:/ in the plural, can be accounted for by postulating an earlier stage \*\*/é/ for present  $/a/^5$  and \*\*/é:/ for present /i:/.6

#### Hence for instance:

\*\* n'é:k'W)n'ek'Ws > n'é:n'ək'Ws > n'í:n'uk Ws
'(pl.) to reach, etc.'
n'iinuk ws

### 8.2.B.3.b.4.b. Other rules not found in other parts of the morphology:

#### (1) final fricativization after unstressed vowel:

(see other examples in (2) below)

(2) glottalized  $\ddot{K} > /^{?} / CV \subseteq vK$ 

Because of /?/ resulting from this rule, the unstressed vowel is a short copy of the stem vowel (2.1.B.3.b.3.b.).

<b>đ</b> áq	'to be open'	q̇́áq)q̇́aq>>q̀á q̇́a	oq >> qá: <b>?</b> ax
	<u>k'ak</u>	'(pl.) to be open'	£'aa'aŢ
<b>đ</b> óq	to pull <u>s.t.</u> by the roots' <b>k</b> ok	qoq)qoq >> qoqq to pull <u>s.t.(pl.</u> ) by t	
(3) many ot	her irregularities, e	o.g. <sup>7</sup>	
<b>yó</b> ?oks	'to wash <u>s.t.</u> (by applying water to it)  yo'oks	y <b>ó</b> :?oks	to wash <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> (by applying water to it)  yoo'oks

8.2.B.3.b.5. Many cases of other pluralization morphemes added to forms using this reduplicative type, which is itself never superimposed over another method:

- (a) regular full reduplication: (example of type 2, 8.2.B.1.)

пахпоопак

(The current singular is the regularly reduplicated form Nax)NóQ supernatural being naxnok, probably a back-formation from the regular plural Nax)Nó:NaQ naxnoonak).

(b) partial reduplication: 8

(c) prefixation with (13-): (7.1.B.1.a.1.a.)

## 8.2.B.4. Remarks: Consistency of the fully reduplicating pattern:

Although the CV:CvK type bears many signs of being archaic, it is also consistent with the regular CvCCVC type: we can assume that the old formula was CVC)CVC, with exact reduplication of the entire CVC syllable, regardless of the nature of the consonants; only Velars were affected by preconsonantal weakening, ultimately causing the long vowel; initial stressed syllables ending in other consonants remained intact, and we can assume that vowel quality also remained intact in the unstressed syllable until a later date, since the stress

reversal (from first to second syllable) that is the main difference between the two formulas is not detectable (except by inference) in syllables ending in non-Velars (since the present regular formations preserve the stressed root vowel in all cases), thus the difference between, for instance:

which have lost the C2 of the initial reduplicated syllable, and

It may be objected that regular full reduplication also affects some CVK roots, for instance:

But numerous cases of reformation on the new pattern must have taken place, as in the modern case of new CIX- plurals concurrent with older ones, such as:

There are a number of cases of the same root being affected by both types of fully reduplicating formula, depending on what other morphemes are used with this root as in the case of the root **PáQ** to feel <u>s.t.</u>:

- archaic (type 1): (root with augment or non-productive prefix):

- regular (type 2): (reformation on plain root, and use of this plural stem with more recently productive suffix):

páq	'to feel <u>s.t.'</u> <i>ba<u>k</u></i>	<b>paq</b> )páq > <b>pax</b> páq	to feel s.t.(pl.); to feel around for s.t.' barbak
?a-páq-?	?sk <sup>W</sup> ౫apáḍask <sup>W</sup>	'to be excited, upset'	
		u	?apaxpádask <sup>w</sup> pl.) to be excited, pset' baxbak'askw

## NOTES TO CHAPTER 8

- <sup>1</sup> a. In this word, the initial sequence /qa/ resulting from deglottalization could be confused with the DISTR plural prefix (qa-). That a number of words beginning with uvulars have in their plural form (by partial reduplication) the syllabie /qa/ may have contributed to the spread of the prefix to the plural (3.2.C.2.a.1.c.(2)).
  - b. The modern word for 'feather' is tax-a:+cu:c laya ts'uuts', lit. bird-fur.
- Some speakers interpret this word as 40 Hinkit 'the Tlingit' his hlingit, equating the reduplicated syllable with the particle 10 (6.1.B.2.) which can often be translated as the. However, the particle is never used in front of single nouns, but always in possessive noun-phrases.
- 3 The symbol -> as used in the formulas below indicates the evolution of the reduplicative formula, not the application of a morphophonemic rule.
- <sup>4</sup> There is a tendency for the sequence hi to become yi, so that the reverse tendency which occurs before a is checked before i).
- 5 cf. the alternation kipá 'to wait for s.' giba / kipé?esk♥ 'to wait' gibe'esk₩. 10.2.B.1.b.1.c.2.(b)).
- <sup>6</sup> For more discussion and examples of these alternations both within and without reduplication, see T 1983b.
- $^7$  For an analysis of this and more irregular forms, see T 1983b.
- 8. Note the irregularity of the post-stress /1/ in the plural form; compare with nák / ni:nuk stretch one's hand nak ws/niinuk sabove; cf. T 1983b.

### CHAPTER 9: COMPOUNDS

Compounding is an extremely common and productive process in Nisgha (as in English). There are compound nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Compound nouns and verbs may be mediated or unmediated. In unmediated compounds the two components are next to each other, in mediated compounds, they are separated (or linked), by a mediating suffix (7.2.B.). The Attributive suffix -M may be used for all three categories. The suffix -A: ...a is characteristic of nouns. All compounds bear primary stress on the second component and secondary stress on the first.

Compounds should not be confused with phrases, in spite of formal resemblances. In a compound, the head is first; in a phrase, the head is second (the head is defined as that element which can remain by itself in the clause without grammatical or (major) semantic change).

## - Examples with nouns:

compounds: the head is first:

HN-a: +N: ?anà:s-a:+?ú! 'bear skin'

skin-SUFF+bear anaasa ul

HN-m +N hò:pix-m+qán 'wooden spoon'

spoon-ATTR+wood hoobixim gan

HN+N/V Wìlp+kúkW 'kitchen'

house/room+cook wilokukw

- noun-phrases: the head is second:

ADJ-m +N nùkax-m+kát 'the just man'

just, correct-ATTR+man hugazam gat

INTR- $\mathbf{m} + \mathbf{N}$  (the intransitive verb is used with adjectival meaning; this is <u>not</u> a verb compound,  $\neq 9.2.A.2.$ ). As shown by the semantic content, this is a recent type, often a translation of an English phrase of the type V-ing N (where the suffixed verb is attributive), or an analogical formation:

V-M+N kWàcikskW-m+hani-tá: 'rocking chair rock,totter-ATTR+chair kw'ajiksgum haniit'aa màta?askW-m+sáwinsk 'newspaper' spread.news-ATTR+paper mahla'asgum sawinsk

- Examples with verbs or adjectives:

- compounds:

xpè:qs+lákW V+N 'to saw wood' saw.s.+wood xbeekslakw simiye nisky-m+hon V-m + N 'to smoke fish' smoke.food=ATTR+fish simiyeenisgum-hoon ADJ-m + V ?ìýkit-m + ?álkax 'to make mistakes in speaking' awkward,clumsy-ATTR+speak iygidim-algar ?alàysT-m+náks 'to be rejuctant to get married' reluctant-ATTR+married alaysim-naks

- 9.1. NOUNS: In a compound noun, the head noun always comes first. The second component is usually a noun or an intransitive verb.
- 9.1.A. <u>Unmediated nominal compounds:</u> These are relatively few. It is likely that some of the noun-forming prefixes (7.1.B.2.b.), e.g. Sqan—bush, support skan... (7.1.B.2.b.3.h.), were originally independent nouns which are now used

exclusively in compounding. Probably the largest number of such compounds occur with the head Wilp 'house' wilp. As their meanings show, most of them are modern in origin. Because of their diversity they provide good examples of unmediated nominal compounding.

# 9.1.A.1. wilp + N<sub>2</sub>:

a. 'building, room, or similar structure, used for  $N_2$ '

wilp+qalcap 'community hall'
....+village wilpgults'ap

b. 'house, etc. made of N2'

wilp+qán 'log cabin' wilpgan

c. house, etc. having N2'

wilp+tá:q 'terraced house, with inside
...+platform platforms, formerly used for
public ceremonies'

wilpdaak'

9.1.A.2. Wilp + verb/adj: 'building, etc. used for V-ing'

The largest number of instances is in this group.

wilp+sə-hó:n 'smokehouse'
...+prepare-fish wilpsihoon

# 9.1.B. Mediated nominal compounds:

9.1.B.1. With mediating suffix (-a) (7.2.B.1.): There is a large number of these compounds, especially with a noun as the second component. The suffix sometimes is reduced to i in a consonantal environment consisting of non-back consonants.

## 9.1.B.1.a. With noun:

(1)  $N_1$  is a part of, or comes from,  $N_2$ :

This category contains by far the greatest number of examples, only a few of which appear to be recent. Among the semantic subcategories represented are:

- part of an animal or plant:

'beaver tail'

(beaver's) tail-SUFF+beaver

wakhla ts'imilx

- substance or traces from, object made by, an animal or plant:

wolf tracks

tracks-SUFF-wolf

geeksa gibuu

- object or phenomenon belonging to or typical of N2:

'bluejeans'

pants-SUFF+Chinese

maksijayn

- metaphorical extensions of these meanings to other phenomena:

'mushroom'

hat-SUFF+bird

gayda ts'uuts'

(2) N<sub>1</sub> made of N<sub>2</sub>:

cawaas-a:+txa

'moccasins'

shoes-SUFF+leather

ts'awaksa txa

(3) N<sub>1</sub> used for N<sub>2</sub>:

làk<sup>w</sup>-a:+wilpsihó:n firewood-SUFF+smokehouse

'firewood for the smokehouse'

lagwa wilpsihoon

(4) N<sub>1</sub> resembling N<sub>2</sub>: only a few examples:

mags-a:+qapó:q pants-SUFF+cockles 'corduroy pants' (ridged like

cockles) maksa gabook

- 9.1.B.1.b. With verb or adjective; there are only a few examples in this category;
  - (1) with verb:

mags-a +hátiks

'swimming trunks'

pants-SUFF+swim

maksa hadiks

(2) with adjective: in the lone example

wein-a:+kWine:xkW 'icicles'

teeth-SUFF+cold

weens gwineerkw

the adjective kwiné:xkw 'cold' gwineezkw seems to be used as a noun (or ambient predicate). The compound may actually be a reformation since the stem \*kWiné:q attested in this word and in XSkWiné:qs 'to feel cold' asgwineeks (both words consistent with formation from a noun) must have been formerly a noun, now no longer in use.

## 9.1.B.1.c. With complement:

(1) with ambient predicate:  $N_1$  used when AMB:

cawaqs-a:+sint

'sandals'

shoes-SUFF+summer

ts'awaksa sint

b. with noun preceded by locational prefix:  $N_1$  used at  $N_2$ :

cawaqs-a:+cim-wilp

slippers

shoes-SUFF+in-house

ts'awaksa ts'imwilp

9.1.B.2. Nominal compounds mediated with Attributive suffix (-m) (7.2.B.1.) This is the most productive compounding pattern, and there is a huge number of such compounds, especially designating modern objects and phenomena. By and large the semantic categories represented are the same as for compounds in (-a), but compounding with (-m) is currently productive.

## 9.1.B.2.a. With noun:

(1)  $N_1$  belonging to, coming from, or typical of  $N_2$ :

mò:s-m+?asáý

'big toe'

thumb-ATTR+foot

moosim asav

(2) N<sub>1</sub> made or consisting of N<sub>2</sub>:

cal-m+tkWá

'eyeglasses' (lit. eyes of glass)

eyes-SUFF+glass

ts'alim tgwa

(3) N<sub>1</sub> used for or by N<sub>2</sub>:

?à:t-m+ská

'herring net'

net-SUFF-herring

aadim sga

(4) N<sub>1</sub> resembling N<sub>2</sub>: many modern examples:

qàyt-m+cu pé q

'umbrella'

hat-SUFF+webbed.foot

gaydim ts'uubeek'

(5) other: influenced by English compounds and noun phrases:

nòx-m+?ayú:q

'mother-in-law'

mother-SUFF+law

noom ayuuk

- 9.1.B.2.b. With verb or adjective:
  - (1) N characterized by V-ing:

kutàc-m+sák

'cardigan, knitted jacket'

coat-SUFF+stretch

k'udats'im sak'

(2) N used for V-ing:

nàq-m+náks

'wedding dress'

dress-SUFF+marry/spouse

nak'am naks

- 9.1.B.2.c. With circumstantial element:
- 9.1.B.2.c.1. With ambient predicate:
  - (a) N characteristic of when AMB

làlt-m+haywis

'earthworm'

worm+ATTR+rain

laldim haywis

(b) N used when AMB

kutàd-m+haywis

'rain coat'

k'udats'im haywis

9.1.B.2.c.2. with locational adverb or noun:

(a) N characteristic of LOC

kàt-m+qaltó:?

'savage, uncouth person'

man-ATTR+in the wilderness

gadim galdoo'o

(b) N used at LCC

là:k<sup>W</sup>s-m+kálq

'lantern'

torch-ATTR+outside

laakwsim galk

9.1.B.2.c.3. With noun preceded by locational prefix:

(a) N characteristic of LOC

màtx-m+lax-sqanist

'Dall sheep'

mountain.goat+on-mountain

matxim lax sganist

(b) N used at LOC

là:k<sup>W</sup>s-m+cim-wilp

'kerosene lamp'

torch-ATTR+in-house

laakwsim ts'im wilo

9.1.B.2.c.4. with clausal complement: (the verb of the clause is used as a  $P_0$ )

lìlkit-m+wil-náks

'wedding feast'

feast-ATTR+SUB-marry

lilgidim wil naks

- **9.2.** VERBAL COMPOUNDS: There are two basic kinds of noun-incorporating verbal compounds:
- the large majority incorporate a noun which is semantically the object of the action indicated by the verb, as in

yàc+lák<sup>W</sup>

'to chop wood'

to.chop.s.+firewood

yatslakw

simiyé:niskW-m+hó:n

'to smoke fish'

[to.smoke-AP]-ATTR+fish

simiyeenisgum-hoon

- a few others have the meaning 'to V like a N', as in

hìtkW-m+s-kát-tkW

'to stand like a person'

stand-ATTR-AFFIX+man-MED

hitgumsgatkw

in which the incorporated noun is the intransitive subject.

- 9.2.A. Object-incorporating compounds: There is a very large number of such compounds, and they can apparently be built quite freely. They are all intransitive verbs and designate activities which are part of normal life, whether daily, seasonal or ceremonial, activities which apply to kinds of objects rather than to individual, specific objects. Compare with the analytical construction transitive verb + separate object noun:
- ex. 1. a. Transitive + Object:

qú4-ə-y=t hó:n

I gutted a/the fish.

gut.s.-CTL-1S=NC fish

K'ohliyhl hoon.

b. Unmediated Object-incorporation:

I gutted fish. *K'ohlhoon niiy*.

ex. 2. a. Transitive + Object:

$$sil\acute{a}k^W-T-\partial-\mathring{y}=4qam?am?\acute{u}kit-\mathring{y}$$
  
burn.s.-DEF-CTL-1S=NC old clothes-1S

I burned my old clothes.

Silakwdiÿhl gam am ugidiÿ.

b. Object-incorporation mediated with {-m}:

I burned some old clothes.
Silakw'a'am-am'ugit hiiŷ.

As with nouns, a formal difference exists between unmediated compounds and those mediated with (-m), matched with a semantic difference in the verbs:

- unmediated compounds consist of a transitive verb followed by its object noun, as in:

yò?oks+nó?oł wash.s.+dishes

'to wash the dishes'

yo'oksno'ohl

In general an unmediated compound indicates that the action is performed on a single occasion, and applies to all items available on that occasion: e.g. 'to wash the dishes' means washing all the dishes that need washing on the particular occasion, not a few plates only; it does not mean washing one or two objects at one time, then a few more ten minutes or a few hours later, and so on. The action then is circumscribed both in time and in the number of objects it applies to.

- mediated compounds consist of an intransitive verb (often a Detransitive or Antipassive derivative of a transitive verb), linked to the nominal element by the suffix (-m), as in:

mà:ks-a?-m+?á:t 'to set the net(s)'
put.s.in.water-DETR+ATTR-net maaksa'am-aat

In general, a mediated compound indicates an action with no limit in time, that can be done as needed, at intervals, as a regular job, etc., and/or applies to an indefinite number of objects.<sup>3</sup>

These differences are evident in the fairly large number of compounds which describe activities necessary for the preservation of fish: those operations which must be done shortly after the fish is caught, e.g. washing, gutting, canning, are described by unmediated compounds; those which require mostly supervision, e.g. smoking, freezing, are described by mediated compounds.

There are very few minimal pairs where the same verb stem and noun form both mediated and unmediated compounds, but the following pair is typical of the difference:

Unmed: Wilq+lákW 'to transport, unload, etc. the wood

carry.s.pl.+firewood (all the wood available on

one

occasion, e.g. a truckload)'

wilklakw

Med: wilda?-m+lákW 'to transport, carry wood, as needed

carry.things-ATTR+firewood (eg. from the shed to the house)'

wilk'a'am-lakw

9.2.A.1. <u>Unmediated verbal compounds</u>: The transitive verb which is the first component of the compound is followed directly by its Object. Formally the following details apply:<sup>4</sup>

(a) Where the verb used transitively takes the Indefinite Medial suffix  $\{-(t)kW\}$ , the compounding verb is suffix-less, as in:

kàt-múx<sup>W</sup> 'to pierce s.o.'s ears'
pierce+ears gahlmuxw
(cf. 'to pierce.s.' = kátk<sup>W</sup>)

(b) Normally, only the singular form of the verb is used in compounding, even if the noun is plural. Compare the use of the plural in the transitive sentence:

tim ki†)ká†k<sup>W</sup>-\(\pa\)-y=†múx<sup>W</sup>-\(\pi\)

FUT pierce.s.pl.-CTL-1S=NC ear-2S

Dim gihlgahlgwiyhl muwin.

(c) This is the general rule, but there are a few cases where a suppletive plural stem is more common for the meaning of the verb, so pluarl noun and verb stems may be used in these cases:

lu:=litiks+kWi:l\u00e1\u00e4 'to wash (the) blankets'
in=wash.s.PL+blankets luulidiksgwiila

9.2.A.1.a.. Transitive verb + noun:

yò?oks+hó:n 'to wash fish (before preserving it)'
wash.s.+fish yo'okshoon

Many such verbs are used in nominal derivatives, as in:

qàltim-cam+hó:n 'canning-pot'
container-boil.s.+fish galdimjamhoon

REMARK 1: Words such as

tòq-a-qís 'to pull [s.o.'s] hair'
take.s.pl.-EP+hair dogages

lìlk<sup>W</sup>s-i-winé:x

'to steal food'

steal.s.-EP+food

lilkwsiwineex

appear superficially to be mediated with  $\{-a:\}$  (like nouns, 9.1.B.1.). But the vowel is probably epenthetic, separating consonants of similar articulation (stops, fricatives) or breaking up a cluster. 5

REMARK 2: Some recent compounds also use intransitive verbs for unmediated compounds. In the following example, the intransitive verb ?álqal alk'al, which translates English 'to watch', is used transitively in a calque of an English phrases:

> ?àlgal+cú:c watch+bird

'bird-watching, to watch birds' alk'alts'uuts'

9.2.A.1.b. Transitive verb with noun and Indefinite Medial suffix -[t]kW: These designate personal care verbs: the Medial suffix here has Reflexive meaning (7.2.C.1.b.2.a.1.c.2.):

[yò?oks+we:n]-tW

'to brush one's teeth'

wash.s.+teeth-MED

yo'oksweentkw

[kìmk+cá]]-tkW

'to wipe one's face'

wipe.s.+face-MED

gimkts'altkw

Such compounds can also enter into nominal derivatives:

ha-[yò?oks+wé:n-tk] 'toothbrush'

INSTR-...

hayo'oksweentkw

## 9.2.A.2. Mediated verbal compounds:

The (-m) mediated compounds do not normally differentiate between singular

and plural, but there are a few cases of differentiation, as will be noted. There are also a few cases of a modifying element used within the incorporated noun. The rules then are more flexible than those for unmediated verbal compounds.

# 9.2.A.2.a.. With Antipassive suffixes: (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.)

(1) The Definite Antipassive suffix (-?sT) (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.1.) indicates that the action applies to one object (ex. hunting a large animal): the suffix is fairly rare, and there are only a few examples of its use in compounding:

> kùwsT-m+mú:s shoot.AP.D-ATTR+monse

'to [shoot and] kill (a) moose' Ruvsim-muus

(2) The Indefinite Antipassive suffix (-75kW) (7.2.C.2.b.1.b.2.) is very common and indicates an indefinite amount or number of objects:

simiye: niskw-m+ho:n 'to smoke fish'

smoke.s.AP-ATTR+fish

simiyeenisgum-hoon

## 9.2.A.2.b. With Detransitive suffix:

(1) With suffix (-a?) (7.2.C.2.a.1.a.): this suffix is extremely common, and there is a very large number of compounds:

- singular verb stem:

?ì:ca?-m+hó:n

to fry fish

fry.s.DETR-ATTR-fish

iits'a'am-hoon

- plural verb stem: when that stem is more often used for the particular activity (cf. above 9.2.A.1.(c)):

lu:=lìtiks-a?-m+kWi:lá

'to wash blankets'

in-wash.s.PL-DETR-ATTR-blankets

luulidiksa'am-gwiila

There are many nominal derivatives of these verbs, e.g.:

?an-lu:=lisa?-m+?am?úkit

'clothes closet'

place-in=hang.s.DETR-ATTR+clothes

anluulisa'am-am'ugit

(2) suffix  $(-\acute{e}:?)$  (7.2.C.2.a.2.a.): as this suffix is fairly rare, there are only a few examples of compounds:

kiłè:?-m+qán

'to carve wood'

pierce.s.DETR-ATTR+wood

gihlee'em-gan

9.2.A.2.c. Other intransitives: a variety of suffixed or unsuffixed intransitive verbs are also used in compounding:

lìcxk<sup>W</sup>-m+hó:n

'to count fish (a job in a cannery)'

count-ATTR+fish

litsxgum-hoon

lu=tax)tò:s-m+hó:n

'to fill cans with fish (a job in a

in=PL)put-ATTR+fish

cannery) luudardoosim-hoon

lìłks-m+hańi txó xk

'to be a waitress'

watch-ATTR+table

lihlksim-haniitxooxkw

They can also have nominal derivatives:

?an-[lu:=lò:-m+pi)pó:t]

'harbour'

place-in=moored.PL-ATTR+PL)boat

an luuloom-biboot

(the compound verb component of this word is not used by itself).

9.2.B. <u>Subject-incorporating compounds</u>: A few intransitive verbs incorporate a Subject in the frame [\_(verb)\_-M-S-\_(noun)\_-tkW], 'to ... like a ...', for instance

hìtk $^{\mathbf{W}}$ -m-s-kát-t $^{\mathbf{W}}$ 

'to stand up like a person'

stand-ATTR-??-man-MED

hitgumsgatkw

?ukWs=[t]ko=qùs-m-s-wán-tW outward=drop.in.level=jump-ATTR-??-deer-MED

> 'to dash away like a deer' (= to act before thinking)

> > ukwsk'agosimswantkw

The status of -S- in this type of compound is unclear.

9.3. ADJECTIVAL COMPOUNDS.

Adjectives can incorporate either a Subject/Attribute, or a Complement.

- 9.3.A. Subject-incorporation:
- 9.3.A.1. With suffix -M -m: There are numerous examples of compounds where the nominal element is the word QÓ:t 'heart' goot: (cf. compounds like good-hearted in English)

haťàq-m+qó:t

'to be selfish' (lit. bad-hearted)

bad-ATTR+heart

hat'agam-goot

lu:=làỷ-m+qó:t

'to be brave, courageous'

in=large-ATTR+heart

luulayim-goot

9.3.A.1. With suffix =a: -a: This use seems to be less common:

nnî:lukW-a:+qís long-SUFF+hair

'to have long hair, to be long-haired'

nniilugwa-ges

9.3.B. <u>Complement-incorporation</u>: in the following example, a noun-phrase with locational meaning is the nominal component:

?àlaq-m+[laxcè:-[t]=dákW] 'to be "brave by the fireside"'

determined-ATTR+edge-[3]=NC fire<sup>6</sup> [but afraid to actually face danger]

alagam-laxts'eehl lakw

### NOTES TO CHAPTER 9

- The older Nisgha equivalent is fams-m hanad 'mother-in-law' hlamsim hanak', which can also mean 'daughter-in-law'. The potential ambiguity probably contributed to the adoption of similar loan-translations from English.
- Although it is very easy to make up such compounds, competent speakers know what compounds already exist and which ones are being made up, cf. Mithun's observations of Mohawk speakers, Mithun 1984: 889.
- 3 cf. Tarpent 1982, quoted in Mithun 1984.
- <sup>4</sup> These details are similar to those of English compounding, as in *dishwasher* (not \*disheswasher).
- 5 cf. also haliko:tk 'axe' habligyootkw (carpenter's axe, for squaring timber), probably from hal-ko:tk 'to be held parallel'--originally applied to paddles, here refers to holding the axe almost parallel to the piece of wood.
- 6 The word lakw which usually means 'firewood' often refers to wood that is actually burning, as is the case here.

### CHAPTER 10: MORPHOPHONEMIC RULES

Morphophonemic rules add and delete individual phonological segments and merge others together under definite conditions. Concurrently with these rules, certain segments acquire or lose specific features depending on their environment. In this section, rules specifying or despecifying features are presented first, rules adding, deleting and merging segments are presented second.

The morphophonemic rules described here also include morphophonosyntactic rules ocurring in sandhi or in specific syntactic contexts.

### 10.1. Rules affecting features of phonological segments:

10.1.A. Rules specifying/adding features: (strengthening segments): It seems that the feature 'anterior' is a default feature for both V's and C's, hence /i/, /t/ are the default values for V and C unless the context imposes another specification.

### 10.1.A.1. Rules affecting one segment:

10.1.A.1.a. <u>Yowels</u>: An epenthetic vowel, an unspecified vowel inherent in a prefix or suffix, or a vowel in a position where it has lost its distinctive quality, adjust to the consonantal environment. Post-consonantal rules take precedence over pre-consonantal rules.

### 10.1.A.1.a.1. Post-consonantal:

## 10.1.A.1.a.1.a. After glottal consonant:

10.1.A.1.a.1.a.1. <u>Pre-stress</u>: the vowel is /a/[A] with prefixes and in full (type 2) reduplication (see below 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.a. for partial reduplication after /h/). With C3- prefixes starting with glottals, there is no vowel-alternation as

there is with non-back consonants; the vowel is always /a/ as in the prefixes (?a-) 'early, spontaneously' (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.1.) and (ha-) 'used for ...' (7.1.B.1.b.1.a.2.).

Reduplicative examples (type 2 full reduplication): (in this type of reduplication, only the two consonants need to be replicated, and the vowel is inserted by rule)(\$.2.B.1.):

After /?/:

After /h/:

$$h\acute{u}\acute{k}^{W}il$$
 'to roll s.t. up'  $h$   $k^{W})h\acute{u}\acute{k}^{W}il >> hax^{W})h\acute{u}\acute{k}^{W}il$  'to roll up   
 $hukw'il$  s.t. (pl.)'   
 $haxwhukw'il$ 

(This rule does not apply in partial reduplication, see 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.a).

10.1.A.1.a.1.a.2. <u>post-stress</u>, after /?/: the vowel is a (short) copy of that preceding the glottal stop:

### (a) before suffix:

(b) in type 1 (archaic) full reduplication (8.2.B.3.):

(c) if the unspecified vowel is part of a suffix:

ká? 'to see s.' ká?
$$-\partial -n$$
 > ká?an 'you see/saw s.' ga'an ga'an

(d) This rule also applies in cases where the glottal stop results from the replacement of a  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  (1.B.1.b.5.a.2.), as in

?asá
$$\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$$
 'foot, leg' ?asá $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  > ?asá? $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  > ?asá?a $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  'my foot'

asa $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$ 

tití $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  'to look after  $\underline{\mathbf{s}}$ .' tití $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  - $\partial$  - $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  > tití $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  > tití? $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  > tití? $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$  'I looked after him/her/it'

didi'i $\mathring{\mathbf{y}}$ 

(for loss of  $\left(-\partial -\right)$  after post-stress resonant, see 10.2.A.2.a`.).

(e) Also included here are cases where the vowel to be copied has been added by rule before a suffix beginning with a glottal stop (10.1.A.1.a.2.a.2.), as in:

## 10.1.A.1.a.1.b. After uvular: /a/[A]

# 10.1.A.1.a.1.b.1. <u>pre-stress</u>: this occurs mostly in reduplication, both partial (C-)(8.1.) and full (Type 2, Cvc-)(8.2.B.1.):

<b>q</b> ó?	'to go <u>s.w.</u> to go get <u>s.</u> '	<b>q</b> )qó? asp)	> <b>qa</b> qó?	'to usually go <u>s.w.</u> etc.' <i>gago'o</i>
<b>q</b> é ksk <sup>W</sup>	to slide on one's rear' geekskw	<b>q</b> )qé:ksk <sup>W</sup> asp)	> <b>qa</b> qé:ksk <sup>w</sup>	to be sliding on one's rear' gageekskw
		q x)qé:ksk PL)	<sup>w</sup> → <b>qa</b> xqé:ksk <sup>w</sup>	'(pl.) to slide on one's rear' gazgeekskw
qá:k <sup>W</sup>	'large vein, sinew'	<b>q</b> x <sup>W</sup> qá:k <sup>W</sup> PL)	<sup>7</sup> → <b>qa</b> x <sup>w</sup> qá·k <sup>w</sup>	large veins, sinews

With CO-prefixes starting with uvulars, there is no vowel-alternation as there is with non-back consonants; the vowel is always /a/, as in the Distributive prefix (7.1.B.1.a.1.b.)

## 10.1.A.1.a.1.b.2. Post-stress: this occurs with a variety of suffixes:

10.1.A.1.a.1.c. After consonants other than uvular and glottal, vowel quality depends on the consonant following, as described in 10.1.A.1.a.2.

## 10.1.A.1.a.2. Pre-consonantal:

### 10.1.A.1.a.2.a.. Before glottals:

10.1.A.1.a.2.a.1. <u>Pre-stress</u>: with  $\bigcirc$ - prefixes, or in partial reduplication (C-): the vowel is more variable than with most other C's as it depends on the quality of the stressed vowel in the following syllable, without being a copy of it. It tends to be /a/[A] before lower, more back vowels, especially long or short /a/, and /i/[I] before higher, more fronted vowels, but there is much individual variation.

## 10.1.A.1.a.2.a. 1.a. Before /?/:

## (1) with prefixes:

 ?áks
 'to drink'
 lə-?áks > lì?áks / la?áks
 'to drink (pl.)'

 aks
 PL-...
 li'aks/la'aks

 ?ó:misT
 'pittowcase'
 sə-?ó:mis>si?ó:mis/sa?ó:mis / sa?ó:mis
 to make

 oomis
 make-...
 pittowcases'

 si'oomis/
 sa'oomis

 71S
 'soapberries'
 SO-71S > S171S
 'to pick

 is
 pick-...
 soapberries'

 si'is
 si'is

## (2) in partial reduplication:

 VicT
 'to fry, iron s.t.'
 ?)YicT > h)YicT > hiYicT
 'to be frying, ironing s.t.'

 iits-di
 ASP)...
 ironing s.t.'

 hi'iits-di

qal-7inq 'traditional qal-7)?inq>qal-h)?inq>qal-ha?inq storage box' empty-PL)... 'traditional storage boxes' gallink' storage boxes'

### 10.1.A.1.a.2.a.1.b. Before /h/:

## (a) with prefixes:

hón 'fish' sə-hón sihón / sahón 'to catch and hoon get/process-... process fish' sihoon / sahoon

<b>h</b> ú:t	'(pl.) to flee'  huut	tə-hút>tihút DOMIN	'to flee with s.t.(pl.)' dihuut
húksa?alt	'blueberries (one species)' huksa'alt	sə-húksa?alt>sihúksa?alt pick	'to pick blue- berries' sihuksa'alt

## (b) in partial reduplication:

<b>h</b> ítk <sup>W</sup>	'to stand' hitkw	h)hítk <sup>W</sup> ASP)	<b>'</b> >	hihítk <sup>W</sup>	'to be standing' hihitkw
hó:x	'to use/wear <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>hoor</i>	h)hó:x ASP)	>	hahó:x	'to be using/ wearing <u>s.t.'</u> hahoox
*hé:	'to speak' ASP)speak	h)hé:	<b>hahé</b> :	> <b>hehé</b> :	'to be speaking'

# 10.1.A.1.a.2.a..2. Post-stress: with /?/oniy:

(a) with suffix: this rule is responsible for the quality of the vowel in the Detransitive suffix (-a?) (7.2.C.2.a.1.a.);

## (b) in alternative to glottalization:

This vowel-specification rule also occurs when adding suffixes beginning with a glottal stop to a non-Velar fricative (other consonants are subject to glottalization under these conditions, 10.2.B.1.a.). The vowel is always /a/([A]) or a more centralized vowel) regardless of the quality of the preceding stressed vowel (a copy vowel is then added after /?/, 10.1.A.1.a.2.a.2.).

10.1.A.1.a.2.b. Before uvulars:

# 10.1.A.1.a.2.b.1. Pre-stress: with prefixes or partial reduplication::

<b>q</b> almos	'crab' <u>k'almoos</u>	sə-qalmó:s>saqalmó:s pick	'to harvest crab' sak'almoos
<b>x</b> s-k <sup>W</sup> iné	::q-S 'to feel col	d' l <b>ə-x</b> s-k <sup>W</sup> i:né:q-s>l <b>ax</b> s	k <sup>W</sup> i:né:qs
	<i>ysgwineel</i> ts	PL-[*cold.PL]	'to feel cold (pl.)'  lazsgwiineeks
<b>x</b> sinq	'not to believe <u>s.o.</u> ' <u>rsink</u>	n <b>ə-x</b> sinq-T>n <b>ax</b> sinqt	'not to believe each other' <i>nagsinkt</i>

### 10.1.A.1.a.2.b.2. Post-stress:

- (a) with suffixes: this rule is responsible for the quality of the vowel in the Detransitive suffix  $\{-ax\}$ , 7.2.C.2.a.1.b.).
- (b) in type ! (archaic) reduplication (CV:Cvk from root CVK, 8.2.B.3.), when the K is a Uvular:

## 10.1.A.1.a.2.c. Before labio-velar:

The vowel is /u/ under certain conditions; otherwise the rule is the same as for other consonants (10.1.A.1.a.2.d.).

## 10.1.A.1.a.2.c.1. Pre-stress:

(a) In partial reduplication before the labio-velar resonant /W/:

<b>w</b> ílp	'house'	w)wílp > <b>h)w</b> ílp > <b>huw</b> ílp	'houses'
	<i>wilp</i>	PL)	<i>huwilp</i>
<b>w</b> á:x	'paddle,	w)wá:x > h)wá:x > huwá:x	'paddles; to
	to paddle'	PL/ASP)	be paddling'
	Waai		huwaax

Remark: some speakers, especially older men, have this rule in prefixes too, e.g.

SƏ-Wilá:X-S>> SUWilá:kS> SUWlá:kS / SU:lá:kS 'to learn s.t.' make-know.s.-MED.I

(see (b) below):

(b) With a C2-prefix, the vowel is /U/only if the labio-velar is extrasyllabic in the unprefixed word (but see (a) above):

(c) In type 2 full reduplication, the vowel is /u/u unless the initial C is a glottal or uvular:

but the vowel is /a/ after glottal (10.1.A.1.a.1.b.1.):

 $h\acute{u}k^{W}il-T$  'to roll st. up'  $h \times W$ )  $h\acute{u}k^{W}il-T \gg hax^{W}h\acute{u}k^{W}il(t)$  'to roll up hukw'il(t)-di PL)...-DEF s.t.pl.' haxwhukw'il(t)-di

10.1.A.1.a.2.c.2. <u>Post-stress</u>: in type 1 (archaic) full reduplication ( CV:Cvk from root CVK, 8.1.B.3.) where the K is a labio-velar.

nák ws 'to reach out' nínk ws nínuk ws nínuk ws 'to reach out'

nak ws ninuk ws/
ninuk ws/

- 10.1 A.1.a.2.d. Before other consonants: The vowel is /i/ [I] in all other cases.
- 10.1.A.1.a.2.d.1. <u>Pre-stress</u>: examples are given in the order: partial reduplication, prefix, full reduplication (type 2).
  - (a) with stops and non-Velar fricatives, there is a vowel in all cases:

/p/:

pá?	thigh' <i>ba's</i>	p)pá? > PL)	pipá?	'thighs' <i>biba'a</i>
<b>p</b> áx	'to run' <i>ba</i> z	tə- <b>p</b> áx > <b>DOMIN</b>	ti <b>p</b> áx	'to run with <u>s.t.</u> ' diba <u>r</u>
ċí: <b>p</b>	'to close one's eyes; to tie <u>s.t.</u> w. a knot' ts'iip	č <b>p</b> )čí:p > PL)	ċ <b>ip</b> ċí:p	'(pl.) to close one's eyes; to tie <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> w. a knot' ts'ipts'iip
/t/:				
<b>t</b> á:	'to sit' <i>t'as</i>	t)tá: > ASP)	tiťá:	'to be sitting' dit'aa

tə-tá: > titá: 'to sit with st.,

DOMIN-... while doing st.'

dit'aa

waagitgatkw

/c/:

<b>č</b> íp	'bone' <i>ts'ip</i>	ċ)ċíp > <b>c)ċ</b> íp > <b>ciċ</b> íp PL)	'[all the] bones (of a person or animal)' jits'ip
<b>č</b> é:x	'to be satiated' <i>ts'eex</i>	$la-\ddot{c}\acute{e}:x-T \rightarrow li\ddot{c}\acute{e}:x(t)$ [[satiated]] <sub>pL</sub>	'to be satiated (pl.)'  Lits'eex(t)

( /c/ does not occur in the preconsonantal position in full reduplication, because of the rule of Deaffrication, 10.1.B.1.b.1.)

# /k/(and/k/)

<b>k</b> íp	'to eat <u>s.t.'</u> <i>gip</i>	<b>k)k</b> íp > ASP)	kikíp	to be eating <u>s.t.</u> '
<b>k</b> á?	'to see <u>s.'</u> ga'a	lu: <b>k )k</b> á? > in-ASP)	lu: <b>kik</b> á?	'to stare at <u>s.'</u> <i>luugiga</i> :a

(in full reduplication, /X/ occurs instead of preconsonantal /k/, see Velar fricativization, 10.1.B.1.b.3.a.).

/k\/

 $t \ni -k \hat{\mathbf{W}} \circ : t k \hat{\mathbf{W$ 

(in full reduplication,  $/X^W$ / occurs instead of preconsonantal  $/K^W$ /, see Velar fricativization, 10.1.B.1.b.3.a.).

/s/

?a− <b>*s</b> áỷ	'foot, leg, paw'	?a <b>-s)s</b> áỷ PL)	>	?a <b>sis</b> á∲	'feet, legs, paws' <i>(a)sisay</i>
<b>s</b> píks	'high-bush cranberries' sbiks	s <b>ə-s</b> píks pick	>	si <b>s</b> píks	'to pick high bush- cranberries' sisbiks
tá <b>s</b>	'to touch <u>s.t.</u> '  das	t <b>s</b> )tás	>	t <b>is</b> tás	'to touch <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> ' disdas
/ <del>1</del> /:					
<b>†</b> ínkit	'Tlingit' <i>Hlingit</i>	<b>1)1</b> inkit PL)	>	<b>tití</b> nkit	'slaves' <i>hlihlingit</i>
<b>1</b> ó?	'(pl.) to walk' hlo'o	tə-167 Domin	>	tí <del>l</del> ó?	'to take <u>s.o. (pl.)</u> along while walking' <i>dihlo'o</i>

(b) with syllabic resonants, there is no vowel in partial reduplication; examples are of prefixation and full reduplication:

,	~~	1	
1	ш	/	•

<b>m</b> ó:tk <sup>W</sup>	'to be saved, rescued, cured' mootkw	l <b>ə-m</b> ó:tk <sup>₩</sup> → l <b>im</b> ó:tk <sup>₩</sup> PL	'to be saved, rescued, cured (pl.)' limootkw
cá <b>m</b>	'to boil, cook <i>jam</i>	c m)cám > cimcám PL)	'to boil, cook s.t.(pl.)' jimjam
tá <b>ṁ</b>	'to press <u>s.t.'</u> <i>dam</i>	t <b>m</b> )tám > t )tám > t <b>im</b> tám PL)	'to press <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> ' <i>dimdam</i>
/n/:			
⁴á <b>n</b> tk <sup>W</sup>	'to sway' hlantkw	† <b>n</b> )†ántk <sup>W</sup> >† <b>in</b> †ántk <sup>W</sup> PL)…	'(pl.) to sway' hlinhlantkw
<b>ň</b> áx	'bait'	SƏ-NAX > SINAX make	'to bait <u>s.t.'</u> sinag
/IV:			
láỷ	'to be large	sə-láỷ > siláỷ(t) make	'to enlarge <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>silaÿ-di</i>

ťál	'to split <u>s.t.</u> (a tree)'	t ltál > tiltál PL)	'to split <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> (trees)' <i>t'ilt'al</i>
ċá <b>l</b>	'face, eyes'	c lcál > c lcál > cilcál PL)	'faces, [pairs of] eyes' <i>ts'ilts'al</i>

(c) non-syllabics: for partial reduplication, only /y/ fits into this category.

/y/:

<b>y</b> é:	'to walk' yee	y)yé: > h <b>)y</b> é: > hi <b>y</b> é: ASP)	'to be walking' hiyee
<b>y</b> óxk <sup>w</sup>	'to follow <u>s.</u> (s.o., or a route)	$l\mathbf{\partial} - \mathbf{y} \acute{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}} \rightarrow li\mathbf{y} \acute{\mathbf{x}} \mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{W}}$	"to follow <u>s.</u> (pi.)'
/w/:			
<b>w</b> á:x	'paddle, to paddle' waar	tə-wá:x > tiwá:x DOMIN	'to do <u>s.t.</u> while paddling' <i>diwaax</i>

# 10.1.A.1.a.2.d.2. Post-stress:

## (a) Generai:

/p/:

wíl <b>p</b>	'house'	wíl <b>p-ỷ</b>	> wíl <b>pi</b>	'my house'
	wilp	1\$		wilbiy

		$wilp-n \rightarrow wilpin$ 2S	'your house' <i>Wilbia</i>
		$wil\mathbf{p}$ -as(t) > $wil\mathbf{p}$ is(t)AFF	'[it's] a house! [of course!]'
laxlíl <b>p</b>	'to roll' <i>la<u>s</u>lilp</i>	laxlíl <b>p - 72.&gt;</b> laxlíl <b>p̃n</b> > laxlí CAUS	lpin 'to make <u>s.t.</u> roll' <i>la<u>x</u>lilp'in</i>
*líl <b>p</b>	'*to roll'	?an-tku=*líp-x-s-kW>>?? place-around-roll-???	antkulíl <b>pik</b> sk <sup>W</sup> 'whirlpool' <i>antk'ulilbiksk</i> w
/t/:			
sďá <b>t</b>	'side (of s.t.)' s <u>k</u> 'aat	sqá <b>t-ỷ</b> > sqá <b>tiỷ</b> 18	'my side (body part)' <i>s<u>k</u>'aadiÿ</i>
₫á <b>ṫ</b>	'cane' <u>k</u> 'aat'	$     \frac{d}{d} \hat{t} - \hat{y} \rightarrow d\hat{a} \hat{t} \hat{i} \hat{y} $ 18	'my cane' <i>k'aat'iŷ</i>
/c/:			
pú <b>c</b>	' <u>boots</u> ' buts	púc-n > púcin 2S	'your boots' <i>bujin</i>
kutá <b>č</b>	'coat' <i>k'udats'</i>	kutác-n → kutácin 2S	'your coat' <i>k'udats'in</i>

/ <del>K</del> /:				
ċá <b>λ</b>	'(music) reco	rd' čá <b>x</b> −n > 2S	ċá <b>x≀in</b>	'your record(s)' <i>ts'atl'in</i>
/k/:				
tadís <b>k</b>	'socks' daahliisk	tadísk-n > 2S	ta:fís <b>kin</b>	'your socks' daahliisgin
ċá <b>k</b>	'dish, plate' <i>ts'ak'</i>	ċá <b>k</b> −n > 2S	čá <b>ķin</b>	'your plate' <i>ts'ak'in</i>
/k <b>w</b> /:				
lú <b>k</b> W	'luggage' <i>lukw</i>	lú <b>k™-n</b> →2S	lúk <sup>w</sup> in	'your luggage' <i>lugwin</i>
tú <b>k₩</b>	'navel' <i>t'ukw'</i>	tú <b>kw</b> -n >	tú <b>kw</b> in	'your navel' <i>t'ukw'in</i>
/s/:				
qí <b>s</b>	'hair' ges	q <b>ís-n</b> >2\$	qí <b>sin</b>	'your hair' <i>gesin</i>
/4/:				
cá <del>1</del>	'to lose, fail'	cá <del>1</del> -n >2\$	cá <del>l</del> in	' you lost, failed' <i>jahlin</i>

/ <b>x</b> /:			
wá: <b>x</b>	'paddle' waax	wáx-n >> wáyin 2S	'your paddle' <i>waayin</i>
/ <b>x</b> w/:			
mú <b>x<sup>W</sup></b>	'ear(s)' muzw	múx <sup>₩</sup> -n → múwin 2S	'your ear(s)' <i>muwin</i>
/m/:			
?an-cámn	'cooking-pot' anjam	?an-cám-y² > ?ancámiy² for-cook.s1S	'my cooking-pot' <i>anjamiÿ</i>
ťim⁴á: <b>ṁ</b>	'shin(s)' <i>t'imhlaam</i>	tim4á: <b>m-y²</b> > tim4á: <b>miy</b> place-?-18	'my shin(s)' <i>t'imhlaaṁiy</i> '
/n/:			
?an)?ú <b>n</b>	'hand(s), arm <i>an'un</i>	u(s)' ?an)?ú <b>n-y²</b> >?an?úni <b>ý</b> *(PL))hand-1S	'my hand(s), arm(s)' <i>an'uniy</i> '
qí <b>n</b>	'to chew (s.t.)	g <b>in-ə-ỷ</b> > qi <b>niy</b> CTL-1S	'I chewed it' <i>geniÿ</i>

PL)chew.s.-SUFF

 $q \hat{n} = q \hat{n} + q$ 

gangenks

/1/:

<b>/I/</b> :					
tá <b>i</b>	'to fight'	tál- <b>ỷ</b> 18	>	tá <b>liy</b>	' I fought' <i>daliÿ</i>
čá <b>l</b>	'eyes, face'	čá <b>l−ý</b> 1S	>	čáli <b>y</b>	'my eyes, my face' <i>ts'aliÿ</i>
/y/:(see also	/x/)				
?asá <b>ỷ</b>	'foot, leg'	?asá <b>ỷ−n</b> <i>asaý</i>	>	?asá <b>ý</b> i <u>n</u> 2S	'your foot, your leg' <i>asayin</i>
/W/: (see also	/x <sup>w</sup> /)				
tá: <b>w</b>	'ice, to be frozen' daaw	sə-tá. <b>w-ə</b> makeCTL-	•	> sitá: <b>wiỷ</b>	'I froze it' sidaawiÿ
čé: <b>₩</b>	'insides, guts'	ćé: <b>ẁ −ỷ</b> 1S	>	čé: <b>₩iỷ</b>	'my insides, my guts' <i>(hli) ts'eeŵiŷ</i>

This rule is also responsible for the quality of the vowel in the Detransitive suffix  $\{-ix\}$  (7.2.C.2.A.1.c.).

# Remarks on stem-final /y/ and $/y^2/$ :

-/y/does not occur stem-finally;

- see 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.2./10.2.B.2.a. about adding the 1S suffix  $(-\vec{y})$  to a word ending in  $/\vec{y}$ /.

#### (b) Variations:

\$

- [I] tends to be more centralized before labials; some persons use  $\frac{a}{A}$  before the 1P ending  $-\frac{a}{A}$ :

$$\text{Wil}\mathbf{p}$$
 'house'  $\text{Wil}\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{m} > [\text{Wil}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{m}], \text{Wil}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{m}]$  'our house ...-1P wilbim

- In a sequence of labio-velar + /i/, the non-consonantal part may be realized as [U] especially in rapid speech:

This is general when the 1P ending (-in) is edded to a word ending in  $/k^w/$ :

10.1.A.1.b. <u>Consonants</u>: An epenthetic consonant is inserted between two segments in certain cases.

10.1.A.1.b.1. Specification of inserted C: stop or glide.

## 10.1.A.1.b.1.a. Stop inserted before C:

The consonant /t/ is inserted between a stem-final vowel or resonant and certain suffixes (the Definite Medial  $\{-T\}$ , 7.2.C.1.a., suffixes starting with  $/^{?}/7$ , 7.2.C.2.b.1.).

#### (1) after V:

kó·	'to be moored, parked' gyoo	kó <sup>?</sup> n > kó-t <sup>?</sup> n > kó-tin CAUS	'to moor, park <u>s.t.</u> ' gyoot'in
ťá∙	'to sit'	ťá <b>?1</b> > ťá· <b>t?1</b> > ťá·ťi! compl	to place <u>s.t.'</u> (in Boas; seems obsolete now)  t'aat'!!
		ťá.−T > ťá.−tT > ťá.tt DEF	'to place <u>s.t.'</u> (modern form) <i>t'aa(t)-di</i>

#### (2) after resonant:

fám 'to write' 
$$fám-T > fám-T > fámtt...$$
 'to write st' ((root) ...-DEF-...  $fam(t)$ -di t'am

<b>čin</b>	'to go/come in' <i>ts'in</i>	ćin-?n > ćint?n > ćintin CAUS	'to let <u>s.o.</u> in'  ts'int'in
tál	'to fight' dal	tál- $^{\mathbf{n}}$ > tált $^{\mathbf{n}}$ > tálťin CAUS	'to make <u>s.</u> fight' <i>dalt'in</i>
há <b>w</b>	'to stop [doing s.t.]' haw	há <b>w<sup>1-?</sup>n</b> > há <b>w<sup>†</sup>t<sup>?</sup>n</b> > háw <sup>²</sup> CAUS	in 'to put a stop to  s.t.'  hawt'in

## 10.1.A.1.b.1.b. Glide /V/inserted:

The glide /y/ is usually inserted between two vowels, especially a stem-final vowel and a suffix-initial vowel:

kwil <b>á</b>	'blanket' gwila	kwil <b>á-a: &gt;</b> Q	k <b>w</b> il <b>áya</b> :	'(is it) a blanket?" Gwilaya?
		kwilá-əs(t) AFF	>> k <b>w</b> il <b>áyi</b> s(t)	'(it's) a blanket (of course)!' Gwilayis!
kip <b>ú</b> -	wolf <i>gibuu</i>	kip <b>úa</b> : Q	> kip <b>ú-ya</b> :	'(is it) a wolf?'
kwina <b>á</b>	'to ask for <u>s.t.'</u> gwińa	kwina-ə-y	>> kwiñ <b>áyi</b> ỷ	'I asked for it' <i>gwinayiÿ</i>

10.1.A.1.b.1.c. <u>Remark</u>: if 'anterior' is a default value of C's in general, including glides, then /y/ is the default value of glides; on the other hand, (10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.) shows that /h/ is the default value of glides in other contexts; Bruce Rigsby has suggested (p.c.) that the inserted /y/ might come from

earlier /h/; this suggestion would make sense from this point of view, and also because it seems that all vowel-final stems originally ended in /h/; it might also explain some strange forms found in Boas (10.1.B.1.b.3.b.). The change /h/ > /y/ intervocalically is also found initially, e.g. hi?6:S > yi?6:S to wash/scrub'; this change could be explained by adaptation to the following /i/.

### 10.1.A.1.b.2. Velar strengthening:

#### 10.1.A.1.b.2.a. Stop formation from fricative:

A Velar fricative is replaced by the corresponding stop before certain suffixes.

10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1. <u>Before /S/</u>: in suffix (-S) or beginning with /S/ (does not occur in word-initial presyllabic position):

(Remark: this may be a modern rule, counteracting the weakening tendency as in tox-s >> to-s 'to put (things)' doos, cf. 10.1.B.1.b.3.a.).

x + s > ks

ho:x-s > use/wear.sMED/PASS	hó: <b>ks</b>	'to be used/worn' (hoor) hooks
sə-wila: <b>x-s</b> > make-know-MED	siwilá: <b>ks</b>	'to learn <u>s.t.</u> ' ( <i>wilaax) siwilaaks</i>
lu·=misá·x-s > in=dawn-MED	lu∙m̂isá• <b>ks</b>	'(boy) to be discovered in the morning in a girl's house after spending the night with her' (missan) luumisaaks
cí·p-l- <b>x-s</b> > vanish, evaporate?-?-?-}	cí•pil <b>ks</b> MED	'to burn to the ground'  jiibil <b>ks</b>

$$x^w + s > k^w s$$

In pre-stress position, this rule seems to occur also, cf. the proclitic  $^9\text{U}\text{K}^\text{W}\text{S}=$  'outward' *UKWS*... where /S/ is in the same syllable as the Velar.

# 10.1.A.1.b.2.a.2. Before suffix beginning with a glottal stop:

(= sporadic glottalization rule, 10.2.B.1.a..2.b.2.) : X + ? > K

(for glottalization of the previous consonant, see Anticipatory glottalization, 10.1.A.2.b.)

10.1.A.1.b.2.b. <u>Fricative-formation from glide</u>: (\* fricative sonorization, 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.). A glide can be replaced by its corresponding fricative preconsonantally in unstressed syllable:

### (1) full reduplication (type 2) (8.2.B.1.):

q̂a <b>y</b> á∙n	'to harpoon <u>s.t.</u> ' (Boas) <i>k'ayaan</i>	đ <b>y</b> )đayá∙n > đa <b>x</b> đayá∙n	'to harpoon <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> ' (Boas) <i>k'ark'ayean</i>
ťá?	'to clap; to slap <u>s.t.</u> (once) <i>t'a a</i>	ť ?)ťá? >> ťa <b>χ</b> ťá? PL)	'to slap <u>s.t.</u> (more than once); to pet <u>s.t.</u> (an animal)' t'a <b>g</b> t'a'a
qó <b>?</b>	'to go <u>s.w.;</u> to go get <u>s.</u> '	q <b>?</b> )qó <sup>?</sup> >> qa <b>x</b> )qó <sup>?</sup> PL)	'to go get <u>s.(pl)</u> ' <i>ga<b>rgo</b>'o</i>

(2) The rule /h/ > /x/ explains the following word:

(Note stress on first element of compound, an old rule, 10.3.B.3; cf. other words ending in the pseudo-suffix -Sa 'day' ....sz, 7.2.D.2., but without the final -S).

The strengthening of /h/ to /x/ before /S/ parallels that of fricatives for stops in the same position (10.1.A.1.b.2.a.).

10.1.A.2. Rules extending features to other segments: Anticipatory glottalization across an unstressed syllable: The presence of a glottal stop in a suffix causes glottalization of a preceding post-stress consonant. (This rule is not to be confused with glottalization rules which merge a stem-final consonant with a following glottal stop, 10.2.B.1.a.).

10.1.A.2.a.1. A suffix of the shape -V? (with unstressed vowel) glottalizes a stem-final stop or affricate: this occurs with the Detransitive suffix (-a?) (7.2.C.2.a.1.a.):

cáp	to make <u>s.t.</u> ja <b>p</b>	ksə-cá <b>p-a<sup>?</sup>&gt;</b> ksicá <b>pa<sup>?</sup></b> out-make.sDETR	'addition to a house' <i>ksija<b>p '</b>a'a</i>
?í-c-T	'to fry, iron <u>s.t.</u> ' <i>ii<b>ls</b>-di</i>	ha- <sup>?</sup> i· <b>c-a<sup>?</sup> &gt; ha</b> ²i· <b>ca<sup>?</sup></b> INSTDETR	'an iron' <i>ha'ii<b>ts'</b>a'a</i>
lák <b>w</b>	'fuel' <i>lak</i> ▼	silá <b>kw-a?</b> > silá <b>kwa?</b> burn.sDETR	to burn things'
qáq	'to be open'	ha-qa $\hat{\mathbf{q}}$ - $\mathbf{a}$ ? $\rightarrow$ haqa $\hat{\mathbf{q}}$ a? INSTDETR	key hakaka

but not a fricative or resonant:

*lĺs-a?	lí <b>sa</b> ?	to hang up the
hang-DETR		wash' <i>lisa'a</i>

In this case, Velar fricatives are weakened to glides, 10.1.B.2.c.2.

10.1.A.2.a. The addition of a suffix containing a glottal stop normally causes glottalization of the stem-final consonant (10.2.B.1.a.). If there is another consonant between the stressed vowel and the stem-final consonant, that consonant is glottalized as well.

If the final C is a Velar fricative (X), it is replaced by the corresponding Velar stop (K) before glottalization (see Stop-formation, 10.1.A.1.b.2.a.).

- 10.1.B. Rules despecifying/removing features: (weakening segments)
- 10.1.B.1. Rules affecting one segment:
- 19.1.B.1.a. <u>Vowels</u>: <u>Vowel-weakening/despecification</u>: in unstressed syllables (full reduplication, some unstressed morphemes):
- 10.1.B.1.a.1. Shortening of long vowels:
- 10.1.B.1.a.1.a. In stressed position, before a resonant + consonant cluster: (this seems to be an older rule; = V-insertion / V:R\_C (10.2.A.1.a.1.)

<u>Remark</u>: This rule seems to be involved in the YFS shortening of the vowel in the following word prononced by OFS with long vowel:

10.1.B.1.a.1.b. <u>In unstressed position</u>: long vowels tend to be shortened phonetically. Sometimes they are so shortened that they lose their quality (10.1.B.1.a.2.) and become predictable according to the environment:

10.1.B.1.a.2. <u>Unstressed short vowel despecification</u>: This rule applies both to original short vowels and those deriving from shortening of a long vowel (10.1.B.1.a.1.b.).

10.1.B.1.a.2.a. Type 2 full reduplication (8.2.B.1.): The vowel in the reduplicated syllable (CVC) does not copy the stem vowel, but is fully predictable according to the consonantal environment (10.1.A.1.a.); from a purely synchronic viewpoint the formula for reduplication can just include the two consonants, with insertion of an unspecified vowel; however, from a historical viewpoint it is likely that the whole syllable including the vowel was reduplicated at one time.

#### 10.1.B.1.a.2.a. Addition of stressed suffix:

However, the following form shows loss of the unstressed vowel (10.2.A.2.a.), not just despecification, so it may be better to consider these forms as having undergone vowel deletion.

$$la4-\acute{e}.^{?}>> li4\acute{e}.^{?}> l4\acute{e}.^{?}> le.^{?}$$
 to put things away' (used in comp.) put.s.away-DETR *tl'ee'e*

However, there is no need to invoke vowel-deletion and reinsertion in cases like those in 10.1.B.1.a.1.b. above: despecification has a rightful place there.

#### 10.1.B.1.b. Consonants:

Deglottalization, De-affrication and Velar fricativization and sonorization apply in similar environments and can all be considered instances of consonant weakening. Velar fricativization and fricative sonorization can be considered two stages of the same rule.

#### 10.1.B.1.b.1. De-affrication (loss of consonantal onset)

After an unstressed syllable, an affricate, whether original, or the result of a sequence, simplifies to the corresponding fricative (it loses its stop onset and keeps only its fricative release). This is most obvious in Type 2 full

reduplication (affecting the  $C_2$  of a reduplicated CVC sequence). For prefixation, there is little direct evidence, since prefixes and proclitics are rarely related 10 independent words, but none of these morphemes end in an affricate (some modifiers do, however, so the rule does not apply to all pre-predicate morphemes).

## 10.1.B.1.b.1.a. <u>Sibilants</u>: C, t+S > S

# (1) Full reduplication (type 2): (see 8.2.B.1. for other details)

h c)híc >> PL)send.s.	ha <b>s</b> hĺc	io send <u>s. (p1)</u> '	hashits
h $\hat{c}$ )há $\hat{c}$ >> PL)send.s.	hasháð	'to bite <u>s. (pl)</u> '	hashats'
q <b>c</b> )qá·c >> PL?)?	qa <b>s</b> qá∙c	'dogfish'	gasgaats

## (2) Prefixing:

kit-sqa-hast > kisqahast '(lit. People of the Fireweed): the people-among-fireweed Killerwhale clan'

Gisk'ahaast,

Gisk'aast

# 10.1.B.1.b.1.b. Laterals: $\frac{2}{3} > \frac{1}{3}$

### (1) Reduplication:

It is difficult to tell whether the  $/\frac{2}{100}$  of the stem is indeed the original ending, or whether there is a suffix or augment  $/\frac{2}{100}$  (3.1.A., 7.2.C.2.b.1.d.) (cf. some glottalized glides reduplicating as fricatives, e.g.  $/\frac{1}{100}$  as  $/\frac{1}{100}$  the original C is reduplicated, not the one that results from glottalization); in the latter case the consonant to be replicated would not be  $/\frac{2}{100}$  but  $/\frac{1}{100}$ ; the result would be the same. In the first example below, the word is analyzable with a root or base ending in  $/\frac{1}{100}$  not  $/\frac{2}{100}$ ; the others are not so clear-cut (see also note to 10.1.B.1.b.2.b. below).

h +)*hú+-?x-4k* > PL)rumble?-SUFF-TEMP	ha <b>4</b> )hu <del>Xa</del> q4k™	'to boil' <i>hahlhutl'a<u>k</u>hlk</i> w
	q̃a∄)q́á <del>x</del> ੌ	'to be slightly crooked' (no sg. used) k'ahlk'atl'
can '(music) record'	ći <b>∔)</b> ća <b>⊀</b>	'to have a rippled surface (?); e.g. (record) to be distorted by heat' ts'ihlts'atl'

10.1.B.1.b.1.c.. The deaffrication rule is also responsible for the disappearance of /t/ in several cases where this phonological element is brought into contact with a non-Velar fricative, causing a phonetic affricate. However, as the number of original elements is reduced in this case, these cases are listed under Consonant-deletion (10.2.A.2.b.2.) rather than under Deaffrication.

10.1.B.1.b.2. <u>Deglottalization</u>: <u>Pre-consonantal deglottalization before stressed syllable</u>: applies to all glottalized segments, whether consonants or resonants.

### 10.1.B.1.b.2.a. Initial deglottalization:

**10**.1.B.1.b In partial reduplication; this rule applies before Vowel-insertion and other applicable rules (see 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.a.1. for Glide-reduction/neutralization to /h/):

# (a) with consonants: glottalized stops and fricatives:

t)tá. >t)tá.>titá.

ASP)sit

to be sitting; to exist dit aa

 $\vec{c}$ ) cák  $\rightarrow c$ ) cák  $\rightarrow$  ci cák

PL)plate, bowl

'plates, bowls'

jits'ak'

lip=k)kil > lip=k)kil > lip=kikil

downward-ASP)one

to fall one by one (e.g. snowflakes)

t'ipgik'il

 $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{w}}$ ) $\hat{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathbf{w}}$ ó· $\mathbf{t}$  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{w}}$ ) $\hat{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathbf{w}}$ ó· $\mathbf{t}$  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{w}}$ >  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{w}}$ i $\hat{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathbf{w}}$ ó· $\mathbf{t}$  $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{w}}$ 

ASP)lost

to keep getting

lost'

AWIKW OOLKW,

RUKW OOLKW

 $\mathbf{q}$ )\* $\mathbf{q}$ itk\* >  $\mathbf{q}$ ) $\mathbf{q}$ itk\* >qa $\mathbf{q}$ itk\*

\*ASP)howi

'(wolf) to how!'

gu<u>k</u> elkw

# (b) with resonants:

 $\mathbf{m}')$  $\mathbf{m}'(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{l})$ 

mmá.l

anoes mmaa/

PL)canoe

nďi

that's still.

**n**()n(i → ASP)that's

precisely] ...'

aåi

(/Î/ does not occur word-initially)

$$\mathbf{y}$$
) $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ áq  $> \mathbf{y}$ ) $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ áq  $> \text{hi}\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ áq ASP) $\mathbf{hang}$ 

'to be hanging'

$$\mathbf{w}$$
) $\mathbf{w}$ ó? >  $\mathbf{w}$ ) $\mathbf{w}$ ó? >  $\mathbf{hu}$  $\mathbf{w}$ ó? ASP/PL)call.s.

'to be calling <u>s.o.;</u>
to call, invite
s.o.(pl.)' huŵo'o

The non-glottalized equivalent of /?/ is /h/:

?)
$$^{9}$$
á·t  $\rightarrow$  h) $^{9}$ á·t  $\rightarrow$  ha $^{9}$ á·t ASP)fish.w.net

'to be fishing'

ha'aat

## 10.1.B.1.b.2.a.2. In pre-stress syllable, especially two syllables before stress:

The further away a consonant is from the stressed syllable, the more likely it is to undergo weakening.

# (a) Full reduplication of a proclitic:

(c) <u>Cix-reduplication</u> (full reduplication, type 3, 8.2.B.2.): this form of reduplication often occurs with stems containing prefixes or proclitics, the initial consonant of which is treated as the one to be reduplicated. If this consonant is a glottalized Velar, the C of the Cix-syllable is usually deglottalized.

Kix)ké-qan kixké-qan 'to drill holes in s.t.'

PL)drill.a.hole.in.s. gizk'eegan

Kix)ka-4--qisa?-tk" >> kixka-qisa?atk" (pl.) to kneel down'
PL)to.one.side=knee-MED gixk'ahlk'esa'atkw

qix)qamkwi.tkw > Kixqamkwi.tkw > Kixqamkwi.tkw 'to bless s.o. (pl.)' PL) bless.s.

(for /k/ instead of /q/ see 10.1.B.1.b.5.a.).

(c) prefixation: initial deglottalization occurs sporadically, e.g. for individuals who do not perceive the derivation of the following measure and its relationship with kil one kil:

10.1.B.1.b.2.b. Pre-consonantal deglottalization (in prefixed syllable) (prefixed or reduplicated segment): the rule affects the  $C_2$  of a reduplicated CVC:

Remark: it is likely that in all cases of stems where the C2 is a glottalized consonant, the glottalized C is not original, but derives from addition of a suffix beginning with a glottal stop, or a glottal stop augment, therefore this rule should be construed only in synchronic terms; whether the C2 to be reduplicated is interpreted to be the original non-glottalized C or the derived glottalized C has a bearing on which rule is followed--especially with Velar fricatives, see 10.2.8.1.a.2.b.

#### (1) consonants:

- stops: (non-Velars; see 10.1.B.1.b.3.a. for Velar fricativization in this position): There are very few examples of stem-final glottalized stops: in particular,  $/\hat{p}/$  does not occur finally.

With Velars, the final consonant of the reduplicative syllable is replaced by a fricative; an intermediate stage with non-glottalized stop should be postulated:

(NOTE: if the glottalized consonant always results from an added morpheme in /?/, then this 'intermediate stage' is the normal one).

•	t <b>r</b> )tík > PL)silly,s <b>hy</b>	ti <b>k</b> )tík >	tixtík	'to feel silly, shy (pl.)' dixdik'
•	s <b>đ</b> )sé dal PL)rough	sa <b>q)</b> sé·dal >	saxsé dal	'to be rough (to the touch)(pl.)'

(here the ending is the Completive suffix [-?]]; base unglossable at present).

- affricates:
- h c)hác > hac)hác > has)hác 'to bite s. (pl.)'
   PL)stick hashats'
  - (2) resonants:
  - (b) processes:
  - full reduplication (type 2, 8.2.B.1.):
- t m) tám > tim) tám 'to press s.t. (p!')'
  PL) press.s.

  dimdem

- For prefixes, direct evidence is rare, since most prefixes and proclitics are not related to full words, but there are a few cases where an independent word ending in a glottalized C is used as a prefix and loses its glottalization, as in:

kii-qa∙x one-armspan	>	Kilq́á∙x	one fathom k <i>ilk aax</i>
Kil-*?ún one-hand, arm	>	k̃il <sup>9</sup> ún	'(men) one fathom;(women) one cupful' k'il'un
kwilá <b>l</b> -sádans three-handspar		kwilal-sádans gwilalsak ans	'three handspans'

There is also the fact that no prefix or proclitic ends in a glottalized consonant (some modifiers (5.15.) do, however, so the rule does not apply to all pre-predicate morphemes).

## 10.1.B.1.b.3. Velar weakening:

Velar weakening occurs as fricativization for stops and sonorization for fricatives. Ultimately the process may result in deletion (10.2.A.2.b.2.)

10.1.B.1.b.3.a. <u>Fricativization of Velar stops</u>: (this is the opposite of Stop-formation, 10.1.B.1.b.2.a.):

#### 10.1.B.1.b.3.a.1. Before consonant:

10.1.B.1.b.3.a.1.a. pre-stress: in prefixation and in full reduplication (type 2,

CVC, 8.2.B.1.), non-glottalized Velar stops are replaced by the corresponding fricatives:

(a) prefix: no prefix, proclitic or modifier ends in a Velar stop, but many end in uvular fricatives, e.g. kSax 'only' ksax, kax 'just for a short while kax; the following shows fricativization when a full word is used as a modifier/prefix:

(b) full reduplication: Type 2 (8.2.B.1.): CVK stems reduplicate as CvX:

If the Velar stop is glottalized, deglottalization (regular in this position, 10.1.B.1.b.2.b.) takes place before fricativization (alternately: glottalization derives from addition of a suffix containing a glottal stop, to a plain stem-final stop; reduplication can be said to occur on the unsuffixed stem):

$$d > q > x$$
:  $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al 'to be rough'  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al  $s \cdot q$ ) $s\acute{e}\cdot d$ al

## **10**.1.B.1.b.3.a.1.b. <u>post-stress</u>:

(a) before suffix consisting of a stop: after vowel, resonant or consonant:

(b) in compounding, after syllabic resonant (not always applied in more recent compounds):

(c) type 1 (archaic) full reduplication (CV:Cvk): CVKCVK > CVXCVK > CVhCvk > CV:Cvk (> CV:Cvx) (8.2.B.3.);

(1) the long vowel with root CVK suggests a series of weakenings K > X > h > V. Steps X > V are actually attested in suffixed forms (10.1.B.1.2.c.2./3) after stress.

(2) sporadically: final K > X:

10.1.B.1.b.3.a.2. After consonant: this sporadic rule seems to affect both glottalized and non-glottalized uvular stops, after another stop:

10.1.B.1.b.3.b. Velar fricative sonorization to corresponding glide:

## 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1. Intervocalically:

10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.a. <u>Non-Uvulars</u>: A word-final palato-velar or labio-velar fricative which immediately follows stress is replaced by a corresponding non-glottalized glide (which is voiced) before a suffix vowel, whether inherent, or epenthetic before a resonant suffix. (A sequence V + /y/ before the fricative is considered vocalic with this rule).

wá:x	'paddle' <i>Waax</i>	wá: <b>x</b> -ỷ >> wá: <b>y</b> iỷ 1\$	'my paddle' <i>waayiy</i> '
hó:x	'to use <u>s,</u> '  hoox	<sup>?</sup> an-hó· <b>x-a<sup>?</sup> &gt;</b> <sup>?</sup> an(h)ó· <b>ya</b> ? used.for-use.sDETR	
<b>x ~</b> × <b>w</b>			
čiláyx <b>"</b>	'to visit <u>\$.o.</u> ' <i>ts'ilayxw</i>	čiláy <b>x™</b> -ə-t > čiláy <b>w</b> it CTL-3	'S/he visited h.'
múx <b>"</b>	'ear(s)' <i>murw</i>	mú <b>x*</b> -n >> mú <b>w</b> ir <b>2</b> S	l 'your ear(s)' muwin
ķúx <b>~</b>	'to shoot <u>s.</u> '	ķú <b>xʷ</b> -ə-t >>ķú <b>w</b> it CTL-3	'S/he shot it/h.' guwit
		ķú <b>xw-a?</b> -m + ná.4q > DETR-ATT + breath	ķù <b>wa?</b> am ná.4q
			(whale) to blow guwa am-naahik

# Compare with the retention of the fricative after unstressed vowel, in:

hố: pix 'spoon' hố: pi
$$\mathbf{x}$$
- $\mathbf{\hat{y}}$  > hố: pi $\mathbf{x}$ i $\mathbf{\hat{y}}$  'my spoon' hoobix' ...-1S hoobixi $\mathbf{\hat{y}}$ 

10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1.b. <u>Uvular</u>: The application of this rule to the uvular fricative /X/ would result in /h/, which has a more restricted distribution than the other resonants; in fact, /X/ is deleted, and an intermediate stage /h/ can be postulated, with a later rule deleting it (see 10.2.A.2.b.2.).

A stage /h/ also accounts for some otherwise irregular forms: a few transitive verbs ending in /X/ seem to delete the fricative instead of adding the Control suffix  $(-\partial -)$ , as in:

instead of  $\forall q \in x - \partial y$  'I ground,... it' (geogray),  $\forall q \in x - \partial t$  's/he ground,... it' (geograp). These forms are explainable by an older rule weakening /x/to /h/, with later deletion:

In these forms the unstressed vowel left after the deletion of /h/ has been absorbed into the long stressed vowel.

A stage long vowel + suffix vowel explains other forms in Boas, where the CTL suffix  $\{-\partial -\}$  is preceded by /y/ as in vowel-final stems, for instance:

where instead of being absorbed into the long vowel as described above, the suffix vowel is separated from the stem by epenthetic /y/, exactly as if the long vowel was originally part of the stem (10.2.A.1.b.1.).

There are also archaizing forms which have a long vowel before the REL suffix -(\(\theta\))t: the vowel of this suffix normally appears after consonant, never after vowel; with a resonant it is optional after short vowel: here again the long vowel created by the weakening of the Uvular is treated as if it was original, or alternately, the unstressed vowel is absorbed into the long vowel:

(these forms alternate with the regularized toxat dozat, paxat bazat).

# 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2. Preconsonantally:

### 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.a. After stress:

#### 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.a.1. Non-Uvulars:

x > y

syax 'to be scorched' ha-syax-ks > hasyayks 'swallow'
syax having?-...-? hasyayks

x > w

haltá·xw 'to anoint s.' haltá·xw-kát >> haltáwkit

haldaaxw ...-people 'sorcerer, male witch

(malevolent)'

haldawgit

10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.a.2. <u>Uvular</u>: There is evidence for a former rule /x/ > /h/ from long vowel vocalization (V + /h/ > V): in archaic and archaizing forms built on roots ending in /x/:

(a) <u>before suffix</u>: (only in a few common words, since there is a modern tendency to keeping the stem intact):

Vocalization of /h/ occurs before V-insertion (10.2.a.1.a.1.) can apply before resonant suffix:

nóx 'mother' nóx-n>nóhn>nó:n 'your mother'
nox ...-2S noon

(regularized forms noxay 'my mother' noxay, paxan 'Run!' Paxan do occur as well).

(b) in type 1 (CV:Cvk) full reduplication: this is an archaic type (8.2.B.3.b.), as evidenced by (a) involvement of root only (not augments, let alone affixes), (b) stress on prefixed syllable (archaic, 10.3.B.), (c) numerous irregularities (C-shifts, reformations with other pluralization methods) and (d) this rule, which is archaizing with other forms, as described above.

Similarly there is a long vowel in such forms as:

10.1.B.1.b.3.b.2.b. <u>Before stress</u>: there are cases of long V: alternating with Vx in proclitics and prefixes:

10.1.B.1.b.3.b.3. Finally: When the suffix  $\{-?X\}$  is added to a stem ending in a Uvular, /X/ of the suffix is weakened to /Y/(7.2.C.2.b.1.c.1.a.).

10.1.B.1.b.4.. Lateral fricative sonorization: Sonorization of the lateral fricative /4/ is phonetically parallel to the sonorization of the Velar fricatives, but occurs under different conditions. In particular, it does not occur intervocalically, where the contrast between fricative and resonant laterals is always maintained. Post-consonantal fluctuation between the two does not impair communication as there is no contrast in this position.

The lateral fricative /4/ is sonorized to /1/ between the fricative /3/ and a vowel. This occurs mostly after the prefix (kS-) most ...':

This rule does not apply intervocalically, hence the medial /4/ in the plural:

After other fricatives, the situation is less clear-cut than after /s/, and there is

a certain amount of free variation, e.g.

$$x = x + ip =$$
 'at the tip (proc.)'

xlip..., also pron. xhlip

zlil..., also pron. zhlil

Some fluctuation also exists after stops. In general, the fricative tends to stay after  $/k^w$ / and to be sonorized after /p/, hence the following singular-plural alternations: where /4/ occurs in both post-consonantal and intervocalic positions (the vocalic alternations are independent of this rule):

plakskw/cliihlikskw

/4/ is more likely to be senerized after /p/ than after  $/k^W/$ , although both pronunciations occur).

No sonorization occurs after /p/ in fipfan (human) body hliphlan, nor fricativization in  $lipl\acute{e}t$  'priest' lipleet (< Chinook < Fr. le pretre), perhaps because the  $C_1 VCC_1 VC$  structure of these words recalls full reduplication (type 2), where the  $C_1$  in the stressed syllable does not change.

10.1.B.1.b.5.. Reduction (of Velars and glides) to default feature: Velars to anterior, glides to glottal.

10.1.B.1.b.5.a. <u>Velar-despecification/reduction to anterior Velar</u>: This occurs especially two syllables before stress. Infrequently, it also happens in

pre-stress syllable, as in the alternate forms:

Two syllables before stress, in a reduplicative syllable away from stress, a Uvular is replaced by a front Velar; deglottalization may also take place (cf. 10.1.B.1.b.2.a.2.).

(1) Reduplicating proclitic: the proclitic (t) qal= 'flush with ...' th'al... which occurs in pre-stress position has a fully reduplicated form kilqal= or kilqal= 'all over...' k'ilk'al... or gilk'al... which shows despecification (and also deglottalization) of the consonant furthest away from word-stress:

(2) With Cix-reduplication: two syllables before stress:

### 10.1.B.1.b.5.b. Glide-despecification/glide-reduction to glottal segment:

Under certain conditions, palatal and labio-velar glides may lost their specific

quality and be replaced by a glottal segment, /h/ for non-glottalized glides, /?/ for glottalized glides.

# 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1. Non-glottalized glides: reduction to /h/:

a. <u>in partial reduplication</u>: the rule applies both to original non-glottalized glides, and to those which result from deglottalization in initial preconsonatal position (10.1.B.2.a.1.)

y)y > h)y

yé.	'to walk, go'  yee	<b>y</b> )yé. ASP)	>h)yé·> hiyé·	to be walking hiyee
yuk <b>"</b>	'(PROG aux.)'	<b>y</b> )yukw ASP)	> h)yukw>hiyúkw	to be doing'
у̂а́q	'to hang' <i>ýa<u>k</u></i>	ỷ)ỷáq > ASP)	$\mathbf{y}$ ) $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ áq > $\mathbf{h}$ ) $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ áq > hi $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$	áq 'to be hanging'  hiÿak
w)w>h	)w			
wilp	'house' <i>wilp</i>	<b>w</b> )wilp PL)	> <b>h</b> )wilp > huwilp	'houses' huwilp
wán	'(pl.) to sit, be located, exist' wan	<b>w</b> )wán ASP)	> h)wán > huwán	'(pl.) to be sitting, located, to exist'
w³óγ	'to call, invite <u>s.o.</u> '	w)wó? ASP/PL)		

The rule applies vacuously in the case of word-initial /h/, or /h/ resulting from the deglottalization of /?/.

b. in CV:Cvk reduplication (type 1, 8.2.B.3.): In this archaic type of reduplication, applying only to CVK roots, the original sequence of stressed vowel + Velar is realized as a long vowel. This is probably the result of a sequence (VK >) VX > VGlide > long vowel. Since all combinations result in a long vowel of the same quality as the original vowel (e.g. there are no differences such as might result from different diphthongs, e.g. /ay/and/aw/), the stage immediately before the long vowel must have /h/ regardless of the original Velar.

10.1.B.1.b.5.b.2. The glottalized glide  $/\sqrt[3]{}$ ; Reduction to  $/\sqrt[3]{}$  before another  $/\sqrt[3]{}$ ;

If two  $/\hat{y}$ /'s come in contact, the first  $/\hat{y}$ / loses its anterior/palatal character and is replaced by  $/^2$ /, which is then followed by a copy vowel. (Remark: some younger speakers do not apply this rule and treat  $/\hat{y}$ / as any other anterior consonant).

This occurs only after stress: before stress, as in partial reduplication, the deglottalization rule applies first (10.1.B.1.b.2.a.), and the conditions for this rule no longer exist. The rule applies when a word ending in  $/\hat{y}$ / adds the 1S suffix  $(-\hat{y})$ , either directly, as in:

$$^{?}$$
asá $\hat{y}$  'foot, leg'  $^{?}$ asá $\hat{y}$ - $\hat{y}$  >  $^{?}$ asá $^{?}$  $\hat{y}$  >  $^{?}$ asá $^{?}$ a $\hat{y}$  'my foot'

lí
$$\hat{y}$$
 'garters' lí $\hat{y}$ - $\hat{y}$  > lí $\hat{y}$  $\hat{y}$  > lí $\hat{y}$  'my garters' lí $\hat{y}$ 

or with the intervening Control suffix  $\{-\partial\}$ , which is deleted after glottalized resonant (10.2.A.2.a.):

pcá
$$\hat{y}$$
 'to comb s.t.'

pcá $\hat{y}$ -ə- $\hat{y}$  > pcá $\hat{y}$ 3 > pcá $\hat{z}$ 3 > pcá $\hat{z}$ 3 pcá $\hat{z}$ 4 pcá $\hat{z}$ 3 pcá $\hat{z}$ 4 pcá $\hat{z}$ 5 pcá $\hat{z}$ 6 pcá $\hat{z}$ 7 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá $\hat{z}$ 8 pcá $\hat{z}$ 9 pcá

This rule, which despecifies the first of two adjacent glides, seems to be parallel to the rule of glide-despecification/ glide-reduction to /h/ ( 10.1.B.1.b.5.b.1.) which occurs especially in partial reduplication (it does not occur with the other glottalized glide /W/ as there is no opportunity for two /W/'s to be adjacent after stress). However, unlike that rule, it only occurs after stress. Phonetically, it is a consequence of the phonetic realization [?] of /y/ before consonant (2.1.B.3.b.), separating the consonantal and vocalic components of the glottalized glide; before consonant the phonetic [?] behaves like a phonological /?/, and causes a copy vowel to occur (2.1.B.3.b.3.b.).

# 10.1.B.2. Rules extending over several segments: Dissimilation of glottalized consonants (dissimilatory deglottalization):

(a) If there is more than one suffix beginning with  $/^{2}/$ , only the first suffix causes glottalization; other suffixes lose their  $/^{2}/$ .

(b) if the stem contains a glottal stop in post-stress position, the glottal stop is lost from the suffix as well:

These rules cause the AP.I suffix in particular to appear to be just  $(-Sk^{\mathbf{W}})$  not  $(-7Sk^{\mathbf{W}})$ , hence some new formations in  $(-5k^{\mathbf{W}})$  (7.2.2.2.5.1.5.2.5.(3)).

- 10.2. Rules affecting the number of elements:
- 10.2.A. Addition and deletion rules:
- 10.2.A.1. Addition rules: epenthesis (insertion):
- 10.2.A.1.a. Vowels:
- 10.2.A.1.a.1. <u>Vowel-insertion conditions</u>: A vowel is inserted after stress, between certain consonants.
- 10.2.A.1.a.1.a. Between any consonant and a non-stop:

- when adding the personal suffixes  $(-\mathring{y})$  '1S', (-n)'2S',  $(-\mathring{m})$ '1P', which consist of syllabic resonants; (this rule is also responsible for the vowel of the 2P suffix  $(-\sin^2 f)$ ):

wĺlp	'house' <i>Wilp</i>	wîlp-ŷ > wîlpiŷ 1\$	'my house' <i>wilbiy</i> '
		wilp-n > wilpin 28	'your house' <i>wilbin</i>
		wílp-sm² > wílpsi 2P	m 'your (pl.) house' wilpsim
ćáq	'nose' ts'a <u>k</u>	cáq-y > cáq <b>a</b> y 18	'my nose' <i>ls'agaÿ</i>
		cáq-n > cáqan 2S	'your nose' <i>ts'agan</i>

contrasting with no vowel before a true consonant as in:

This rule also occurs with various suffixes consisting of, or beginning with a syllabic resonant, for instance:

- between a glottalized consonant and a syllabic resonant or a fricative: this occurs when adding a suffix consisting of (or beginning with) a glottal stop, followed by a syllabic resonant or a fricative:

*líp-?sT sew-AP.D	> líps(t)	>	lípis(t)	'to sew' lip'is(t)
*líp- <sup>?</sup> l sew-COMPL	> lípl	>	lípil	'to sew' <i>lip'il</i>
*k**ó·t- <sup>?</sup> n lose?-CAUS	> kʷó⋅t̂n	>	kwó.tin	'to lose <u>s.t.'</u> kw'oot'in
yá <del>1-</del> ?x-?sk <b>w</b> slime-?-AP.I	> yá <del>⊀</del> x²sk'	<b>*</b> >	yá <del>x</del> iksk <b>"</b>	'to slip and fall' <i>yatl'ikskw</i>

#### 10.2.A.1.a.1.b. Between a resonant following a long vowel and a following stop:

(remark: an older rule shortens the long vowel in such cases, 10.1.2.A.1.b.)

(With glottalized non-syllabics, there is more variability in the realization of a cluster).

Compare with non-insertion after short vowel:

 ĉimsán-mq
 > ĉimsánimq
 Tsimshian (lg.)\*

 Tsimshian-lang.?
 Tsimshian (lg.)\*

10.2.A.1.a.1.c. Between non-Velar fricatives

A vowel(/i/) is inserted between a word-final/S/ and the 2P suffix  $(-Si\vec{n})$ :

qantimis 'pencil' qa-qantimis-sm > qaqantimisisim'
gant'imis(t) DIST-... 'your (2P) pencils'
gagant'imisisim

However, no vowel is inserted between adjacent /S/'s or /4/'s as a result of the addition of a connective (6.2.B.); instead, the two identical fricatives merge into one (10.2.B.1.c.).

10.2.A.1.a.1.d. Between a nonVelar fricative and a glottal stop: this occurs in suffixation: (the vowel inserted is /a/ because of the following glottal stop; a copy vowel then follows the glottal stop):

máł -?sk<sup>W</sup> >> máła?ask<sup>W</sup> 'to announce, preach, broadcast' tell.s.t.-AP.I mahla'ask w

ýáns-?l-T >> ýánsa?alt 'May' (lit. 'fully-leafed') leaf-COMPL-DEF 'Yansa'alt

10.2.A.1.a.2. <u>Non-insertion of a vowel</u>: the rule does not occur between some other combinations of consonants (this does not mean that a vowel is never found between such consonants because of other causes).

10.2.A.1.a.2.a. with a combination of fricative + stop:

ná.4q 'breath'

naahik

ćú·sk 'to be small' ts'uusk yú.**xk**w 'to eat' yuu<u>x</u>kw (compare hit dukw 'morning' hiihlukw) 10.2.A.1.a.2. with a combination of non-glottalized stop/affricate + fricative: má.ks 'to put s.t. in water (a net, laundry, etc.)' maaks lá·kws 'torch, lamp' laakws piyá q4 'cliff' biyaa<u>k</u>hl dó.cx 'fish offal: gills and guts' k'ootsk 10.2.A.1.a.2.c. between two stops in word-final position: ĉé∙**₫k**₩ 'to be deafening' is'eek'kw <sup>?</sup>ampó**qk**w 'poplar' ambokkw ksiyimqkw

to shave

ksiyimkkw

ĉá**ťk**w '(sun) to shine' ts at kw (compare Watukw 'female slave' watukw) hítkw 'to stand' hitkw 10.2.A.1.a.2.d. between two fricatives of different types (non-Velar and Velar): qí**+x**k\* 'to shout, holler' gehlxkw qi**sx**k\* 'to stop talking, shouting, etc. (= Fr. se taire) POSTAW (compare pasaxkw 'to be divided' basaxkw where the vowel is inherent); 10.2.A.1.a.2.e. in a cluster of syllabic resonant, fricative and stop following a short vowel: ?ú**m+k**w sphagnum moss umhlkw yi**msk** 'to sniff' yimskw ?ú**mxk**w 'not to be able to stand s. to hate s. ' UMXKW

'to moan'

gilskw

ķils**k**w

'to pick, gather things (berries, plants, clams, etc.) gilskw

#### 10.2.A.1.b. Consonants:

10.2.A.1.b.1. A consonant (which is always /t/) is added between a stem-final vowel or resonant and a suffix consisting of a glottal stop and a resonant: the added consonant serves as a support for glottalization (10.2.B.1.b.1.):

#### 10.2.A.1.b.1.a. after long or short vowel:

$k\acute{o}$ - $^{9}n > k\acute{o}$ - $t$ - $^{9}n >> k\acute{o}$ · $t$ in moored, parked-CAUS		'to moor, park <u>s.t.</u> '	gyoot'in
yé⊷ <sup>?</sup> n go-CAUS	» yé∙ <b>t</b> in	'to pass <u>s.t.</u> (to anothe	or person) yeet'in
ťá <sup>?</sup> l sit-COMPL	» ťá∙ <b>ť</b> il	'to place, sit <u>s.</u> ' (Boas;	now obsolete?) t'aat'il
sil-qatiptí <sup>?</sup> n COMIT-Pl.size-CA		'to make <u>s.t.(pl.)</u> the sothers'	same size as silgadipdiit'in
<sup>?</sup> asķí- <sup>?</sup> n abnormal, etcC	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	'to find <u>s.t.</u> strange, f	unny, ugly' <i>asgit'in</i>
ks-laxhá- <sup>7</sup> n-tk most-sky-CAUS-l		k <sup>w</sup> 'to be exalted (rel	igious sense)' <i>ksla<u>x</u>hat'intk</i> w
k <sup>w</sup> ilá- <sup>?</sup> msk <sup>w</sup> blanket-TEMP?	» kwilá <b>t</b> imskw	'to put a blanket or coshoulders (as part of ceremony)'	

#### 10.2.A.1.b.1.b. after resonant.

Remark: There are many examples of this rule, especially with the Causative suffix (-?n) (7.2.C.2.b.a.l.); it seems to be fairly recent, as there are other words which add a suffix of this type directly and glottalize the suffix resonant: this seems to be expecially common with the Completive suffix (-?l) (7.2.C.2.b.a.2.) e.g. †ku-l to be narrow, small (in capacity) hlguul (the stem is related to the modifier †ku 'little' hlgu (5.15.B.36.)). The rule adding /t/especially before the Causative suffix may have been influenced by the presence of a /t/ (non-epenthetic) in the Medial suffix (-[t]kW) (7.2.C.1.b.), as there are many word-pairs with these two suffixes, built on the same stem, as in hitkw 'to stand' hithw / hitin 'to stand, erect s.t.' hit in. (in this causaple, it is not possible to tell whether the stem ends in a vowel or in /t/).

10.2.A.1.b.2. Non-insertion of a consonant: this rule does not apply between vowel or resonant and stop: in particular, in forms like the following:

tamtkw	'to be written'
	t'antkw
hinyántkw	'(body part) to tickle'
	hinyantkw

lu táltkw

'to meet <u>s.o.</u>'

luudaltkw

pčáýtkw

'to comb one's hair'

pts'aythw

the /t/ is part of the suffix (-[t]kW) (7.2.C.1.b.). Compare with:

yank" 'to be moldy'

yankw.

malkw-T to throw s.t. into a fire

malkw-di

10.2.A.1.c. Resonant: The non-syllabic resonant /y/ is inserted between a stem-final vowel and a suffix beginning with a vowel:

timkipá-y-ə-t

S/he is going to wait for h.

FUT wait.for.s,-...-CTL-3

Dim gibayit.

wá-**y**-ə-ÿ

I found it.

find.s.-..-CTL-1S

Wayiy.

including postclitics:

ni: mə ká?-[t]= $\frac{1}{2}$  liki: ?akú==y-a: Did you see anything?

not 2E see.s.-[3]=NC about something==...-Q Nii mi ga'ahl ligii aguya?

# 10.2.A.2. Deletion rules/rules removing segments:

<u>Vowel-deletion</u>: a vowel that is unspecified (e.g. in an added morpheme) or despecified in a particular environment is often deleted.

10.2.A.2.a.1. Loss of the vowel representing the Control infix  $\{-\partial -\}$  (7.2.A.3.) after resonant under certain conditions:

NOTE: examples are all given with personal suffixes (7.2.A.1.) beginning with a consonant; with those suffixes consisting of a resonant, the Control infix vowel can be confused with the epenthetic vowel needed between the stem-final consonant and the resonant suffix when there is no vowel infix (10.2.A.1.a.).

The loss of this vowel is explainable by the phonetic rather than phonological conditions of the realization of glottalized resonants before a consonant (2.1.B.3.): either an epenthetic vowel is added after the resonant (thus a sequence RV), or the glottal stop component is pronounced ahead of the resonant component, with intervening copy vowel (thus a sequence ?VR). The latter realization is most often found in rapid speech and after short vowels.

a. after short stressed vowel followed by a glottalized resonant: the sequence of glottalized resonant + infix vowel is interpreted as the slow realization of the glottalized resonant (RV); this realization can then be replaced by the sequence ?VR:

$$p\hat{c}a\hat{y}-a-t \times [p\hat{c}a\hat{y}I\hat{t}] > p\hat{c}a\hat{y}t \quad [p\hat{c}a\hat{y}A\hat{t}] \quad 'S/he \ combed \ it' \ comb.s.-CTL-3$$

Pts'ayt

Only a few words are affected by this rule, as most transitive verbs ending in glottalized resonants (including the glottal stop) add the Definite suffix  $\{-7\}$  before the Control infix  $\{-3\}$ .

b. after unstressed short vowel followed by non-glottalized resonant: (sequence CVR)

This rule is most in evidence after a verb suffixed with the Causative suffix  $\{-7n\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.1.) which causes glottalization and insertion of an unstressed vowel. Verbs formed with the Completive suffix  $\{-7l\}$  (7.2.C.2.b.1.a.2.) tend to add the Definite suffix  $\{-T\}$  (7.2.C.1.a.) before the Control infix.

# Compare with the retention of this vowel after stressed stem vowel:

cám- <b>ə</b> -t	> cámit	'S/he boiled <u>it</u> '
boil.sCTL-3		Jamit.
kin- <b>ə</b> -t	> kínit	'S/he gave it/h. s.t. to eat'
give.so.to.eat-CT	L-3	Ginit.
si·lín- <b>ə</b> -t	> si·lĺ́n <b>i</b> t	'S/he pursued, chased, hunted it/h.'
pursue.sCTL-3		Siiliait.
stíl- <b>ə</b> -t	> stíl <b>i</b> t	'S/he took <u>h</u> , with h. (for company)'
accompany.sCT	L-3	Sdilit.
cə stíl- <b>ə</b> -sim	> ci stíl <b>i</b> sim	'[You pl. could] go with h.!'
IRR accompany.	sCTL-2P	Ji sdilisim!

10.2.A.2.a.2. Loss of a despecified vowel between initial  $/\ell$  and /4, resulting in the affricate  $/\frac{2}{4}$ : or alternately: loss of a despecified vowel in the environment #C\_CV (followed by insertion of an unspecified vowel, unless

affrication has occurred):

In the following form, the addition of a stressed suffix to a CVC stem has caused de-stressing, despecification and loss of the stem vowel, followed by merging by affrication of the two consonants thus brought into contact:

$$ta+-e^{.?} > ta+$$

This obvious case of deletion, not just despecification, suggests that other instances where an unstressed vowel occurs should be interpreted as cases of deletion and later reinsertion, rather than just despecification, e.g. the similar formations:

ká
$$\pm$$
-é.? > ka $\pm$ é.? > k $\pm$ é.? > ki $\pm$ é.? 'to embroider' pierce.s.-DETR gihlee'e

\*[t] $\dot{q}$ át-é.? >  $\dot{q}$ até.? >  $\dot{q}$ até.? >  $\dot{q}$ até.? >  $\dot{q}$ até.? 'to patch' apply.s.?-DETR (t)k'adee'e

in which there is no possibility of affrication between the two consonants brought into contact, and a vowel must be inserted anew and specified according to the existing consonantal environment (10.2.A.1.a.1.).

A succession of two rules, one reversing the other unless conditions no longer apply, gives a more general description of all these forms, rather than a single rule applying in the restricted environment  $/\#^2_{L-} + V$ .

It is likely that affrication would also occur between  $/\ell$  and the other non-Velar fricative /S/; thus it is possible that some forms beginning with  $/\ell$  before stressed vowel are the result of similar affrication, but these is no convincing evidence for this at present.

10.2.A.2.a.3. Loss of unspecified vowel in sequence of unstressed syllables (esp. in rapid speech): the consonant immediately preceding the unspecified vowel is attached phonologically to the previous word, which ends in a vowel; the unspecified vowel is deleted: (these conditions recall those of schwa-deletion in French, e.g. in *je n(e) sais pas*):

#### a. with clitics:

nì no ti- wila-x-t > ninti- wila-xt I don't know (it/h.).

not IS.E INTS know.s.-3

Nindii wilaart.

kilò mə cə tás-t > kilomci tást Don't touch it!

don't 2E IRR touch.s.-3 Gilo m(i) ji dast/

b. as a result of loss of a glottal element between unstressed syllables, after vowel or syllabic resonant (10.2.A.2.b.2.):

cáwaqs-a· ha+ó? > càwaqsa(·)ha+ó? ~ càwaqsa+ó? 'running shoes' shoes-SUFF canvas 'ts'awaksa (ha)hlo'o

mó·s-m ?asáý > mò·sim ?asáý ~ mò·sim sáý 'big toe'
thumb-ATT foot moosim (a)saý

#### 10.2.A.2.b. Consonant-deletion:

10.2.A.2.b.1. Deletion of /t/ before and between consonants: morphosyntactic consequences: (/t/ is the default value of a C; \*/t/ - insertion, 10.2.A.1.b.1.). /t/-deletion occurs optionally between a vowel and a consonant, obligatorily in clusters. As several very common morphemes are realized as /t/, the deletion rule has important morphological and syntactic consequences.

#### 10.2.A.2.b.1.a. Initially:

(1) /t/ occurs word-initially before Velar stop, but has a tendency to drop in this position, especially away from stress, as in proclitics, which are never stressed:

If one of these proclitics is preceded by other morphemes ending in consonants, /t/ always drops, whether after a prefix:

or a reduplicated syllable:

- (2) As the realization of the singular Determinate marker t (6.2.A.), which occurs before personal names and a few other words, /t/ also occurs before any consonant. In initial position, only very old speakers maintain the /t/:
  - (t) kiná. ?an-t cáp-t So-and-so made it.

    DM So-and-so REL E-3 make.s.-3 (T) K'inaa ant japt.

(t) <u>Máry</u> mə tim wil kirlám-t DM M. 2E FUT SUB give.s.-3

[You will] give it to Mary.

(T) Mary mi dim wil giñami.

It is maintained after vowels and other consonants:

ni-ti-t <u>Máry</u> lo-t

It isn't Mary [it's someone else].

not-INTS DM M. IND-3

Nidii t Mary loot.

huxwti· t <u>Mary</u>=4 wà-ŷ also DM M.=NC name-1S

My name is Mary too.

Huxwdii t Maryhl way.

ksax t <u>Máry</u>=4 húkskw-ət

Only Mary came/attended.

only DM M.=NC attend-REL

Ksar & Maryhl huksgwit.

except before /S/, as happens before the Determinate connective (=S) (6.2.B.1.):

tim kinam-ə-n a=s [t] <u>Mary</u>

[You will] give it to Mary.

FUT give.s.-CTL-2S PREP=DC [DM] M.

Dim ginamin as Mary.

ni--ti- t <u>Máry</u> <sup>?</sup>a=s [t] kùst not-INTS DM M. PREP=DC [DM] that.

That isn't Mary.

Nidii t Mary as gus.

10.2.A.2.b.1.b. Word-finally: /t/ also tends to drop in final post-consonantal position. Since the Definite Medial suffix (-T) (7.2.C.1.a.) is realized as /t/ word-finally, this rule is responsible for the loss of this suffix under certain conditions, among many YFS, especially where the suffix is associated with another, as in:

\*líp- $^{7}$ s-T > lí $\hat{p}$ is $\mathbf{t} \sim$ lí $\hat{p}$ is

'to sew'

lip'is(t)

sew-AP-DEF

or to a prefix in a morphological frame (see Frames ending in this suffix.

7.3.A.1.a.1.):

$$max-hix-T > maxhixt \sim maxhix$$
 '(food) to be fat'  $l...-fat-....l_{to.excess}$  'maxhix(t)

With many words ending in /st/, it is often difficult to tell whether the /t/ is part of the word, and subject to the deletion rule, or added as a kind of consonantal reinforcement, since it rarely occurs before vowel, as in

10.2.A.2.b.1.c. <u>Medially</u>: before a non-Velar fricative followed by another consonant: (these could also be treated as instances of the Deaffrication rule (10.1.B.1.b.1.)).

(1) /t/is part of a prefix, the other consonant is part of a word:

(2) /t/ is the 3 suffix (-t), the non-Velar fricative is one of the connective suffixes (=5) or (=1): in a complete sentence these suffixes always occur between two words, and since no word begins with a vowel, a /t/ which occurs before one of them is always before a non-Velar fricative followed by a consonant. This is a position where /t/ always drops, hence for instance the contrast between the following sentences:

2 kinam-ə-{t]=s [t] <u>Mary 10-y</u> give.s.-CTL-i3]=DC(DM) M. IND-1S

Mary gave it to me.

Ginamis Mary loov.

3 kinam-ə-[t]=4 hanaq lo--y give.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman IND-1S

The woman gave it to me.

Ginamih! hanak' looy.

4 kinam-ə-t==a?=s [t] <u>Mary</u> 10--y give.s.-CTL-3==ASST=DC[DM] M. IND-1S

Mary did give it to me!

Gińamida'as Mary looy!

5 kirlám-ə-t==a?=4 hanáq lo--ŷ give.s.-CTL-3==ASST=NC woman IND-1S

The woman did give it to me!

Ginamida'ah! hanak' looy!

Because of this rule, the suffix (-t) does not occur on the surface when followed by a noun, since the intervening connective suffix, consisting of a non-Veiar fricative, causes deletion. It only occurs on the surface when another morpheme intervenes: evidential postclitics such as the Assertive (==a?) ...-2'a (6.3.A.2.a.) are the only ones able to occur in this position.

Similarly the final /t/ of the evidential postclitic (==qat) (6.3.B.1.) is subject to deletion before a connective: it is always deleted before (=5), optionally so before (-1) (but the 3 suffix (-t) is not deleted before (==qat)):

6 kirlám-ə-t==qat lo-n give.s.-CTL-3 IND-2S

I hear s/he gave it to you.

Ginamit-gat loon.

- 7 kinam-ə-t==qa[t]=s [t] Mary 10-n I hear Mary gave it to you. give.s.-CTL-[3]=DC[DM] M. IND-1S Ginamit-gas Mary 100n.
- 8 kinam-ə-t==qa(t)=4 hanaq lo-n I hear the woman gave it to you.
  give.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman-1S Ginamit-ga(t)hl hanak loon.

Exception: When there is only one noun in a predicate-focused transitive sentence such as (2), it may or may not corefer with the 3 suffix pronoun on the

verb. If the noun is determinate, there is no ambiguity as the structures are different: the determinate connective (=S) occurs only between the verb and the coreferring Agent noun, as in (9):

9 Wila-x-ə-[t]=s [t] <u>Mary</u> Mary <u>knows</u> it/him/her. know.s.-CTL-[3]=DC [DM] M. Wilasyis Mary.

10 Wila-x-o-t t <u>Máry</u> S/he <u>knows Mary.</u> know.s.-CTL-3 DM M. Wilaayit t Mary.

But if the noun is non-determinate, the non-determinate connective  $\{=1\}$  occurs between the verb and any noun, so that there could be ambiguity were the /t/of the 3 suffix deleted in both cases: this /t/ then is only deleted under the same conditions as where  $\{=5\}$  occurs, before a coreferring Agent noun, not before an Object noun:

11 Wila-x-a-[t]=4 hanad The woman knows it/him/her. know.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman Wilaayihl hanak!

12 Wila-X-ə-t=4 hanaq S/he knows the woman. know.s.-CTL-[3]=NC woman Wilayithi hanak:

(Note that if a postclitic intervenes, there is no distinction except stress, since the 3 suffix is phonologically present).

This distinction however is not maintained with the non-predicate-focused clause, where connectives occur regardless of the grammatical status of the following noun and where the 3 suffix is deleted in all cases: the distinction between Agent and Object noun is made solely through stress:

13 wil-t wila·x-[t]=s [t] <u>Mary</u> ... as Mary <u>knows</u> it/him/her. know.s.-[3]=DC[DM] M. ... wilt wilsaxs Mary. 14 wil-t wila-x-[t]=s [t] Mary know.s.-[3]=DC[DM]M.

...as s/he knows Mary. ... Wilt Wilaaxs Mary.

15 wil-t wila·x-[t]=+ hanàd know.s.-[3]=NC woman

... as the woman knows it/him/her.

... wilt wilaaxh! hanak'.

16 wil-t wilax-[t]=4 hanad know.s.-[3]=NC woman

...as s/he knows the woman.

... wilt wilaarh! hanak'.

10.2.A.2.b.2. Deletion of Velar elements: Weaker Velar elements or those in weak position may be deleted intervocalically and after syllabic resonant, under certain conditions. The lack of final /h/ also points to a deletion rule (cf. sporadic Velar fricativization in unstressed final syllable, in CV:CvK plurals).

- 10.2.A.2.b.2.a. Intervocalic: Non-glottalized Velar stops (/k, kw, q/) and 'resonants' (the glottal 'resonant' /h/) may be deleted between unstressed vowels, especially at morpheme boundary (in this position, the Velar stops have a voiced phonetic realization). The two vowels brought together by this deletion merge into a long vowel; however, in rapid speech this vowel does not always stay long.
- (1) with unstressed pre-predicate morphemes (clitics, modifiers, subordinators): optionally in rapid speech:

<sup>?</sup>aķú mə qan <sup>?</sup>ax ĉiláyxw-ý > <sup>?</sup>aķú ma(qa)n <sup>?</sup>ax ĉiláywiý what 2E reason not visit.s.-1S

Why didn't/don't you come and visit me?

Agu ma gan az ts'ilaywiý?

Agu man ax ...

l**iki**- lip ?aķú > l**i**- lip ?aķú about self what

'anything, whatever' ligii-lip-agu, lii-lip-agu

(2) in some plurals formed by prefixation or C- reduplication on stems

beginning with an unstressed syllable: here the rule is not optional; the distinction of short vowel in the singular, long vowel in the plural is maintained, as it is the only difference between the singular and plural stems in this category:

lə-ķipáyk» > l <b>iķi</b> páyk» > lī:páyk»	'(pl.) to fly'
PL-fly	<i>liibaykw</i>
k)ķirlám >> ķiķirlám > ki-rlám	'to give <u>s.t. (pl.)</u> '
PL)give.s.	<i>giińam</i>
kw)kwilá >>kwīkwīlá > kwī-lá	'blankets'
PL)blanket	<i>gwiila</i>
tə-q)qalá:n-T>> taq <b>aqa</b> lá:nt > taq <b>a</b> :lá:nTt	'(pl.)to be behind,
DOM-PL)[place]behind-DEF	last' dagaalaant
h)hanád >> h <b>aha</b> nád > h <b>a</b> -nád	'women'
PL)woman	<i>hasna<u>k</u>'</i>

(3) in compounds, both glottals /?/ and /h/ are often deleted at the junction of two unstressed syllables:

(4) These rules also occur with some prefixes, before stressed syllable: this does not seem to be a productive process any more, except with /h/:

old plurals:

lə-qinx >> linx '(trees) to fall'

PL-(tree) fall

other prefixes:

kə-?axkw >> kaxkw 'last night'

ADV-night gazkw

kit-sra-ha-st > kisqaha-st ~ kisqa-s(t) 'the Killerwhale clan' people-among-fireweed Gisk'uhuast,

Gisk'aast

#### 10.2.A.2.b.2.b. After resonant (esp. syllabic):

#### 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.1. Glottals:

(a) in compounds, between unstressed syllables:

\*[sim-kát'-m hanád >> sìkitim(h)anád > sìkitimnád 'chieftainess, [real-man]noble-ATTR woman lady' sigidimnak

tú-ckw-m ha-?áks >> tù-ckuma?áks ~ tù-ckum ?áks 'canteen > bottle'
metal-ATT INST-drink t'uuts'gum (ha )aks

(Note: the resulting contraction is identical to:

tú-ckw-m ?áks > tú-ckum ?áks 'black water' black-ATT water 't'uuts'gum aks)

(b) in prefixed forms:

cim-2a.q > cima.q 'inside of the mouth'

in-mouth ts'imaak

(modern) Ganada

10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2. <u>Velar fricatives</u>: A Velar fricative following a syllabic resonant (/1 m n/) in a post-stress cluster is deleted under certain conditions.

10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.a. <u>Before a vowel</u>, whether inherent or epenthetic. (Since the labio-velar fricative does not occur in this position, the rule is evidenced only for front velars and uvulars).

<b>ť</b> íl <b>x</b>	grease, oil' (esp. oolichan) 'ilx	ťilx-a·+sá·k > ťila(∙ SUFF+oolichan	)sá·k <u>'ceiichan</u> grease' <i>t'ila saak</i>
x-tîl <b>x</b> eat-oo.grease	'to eat oolichan grease' at'ila	x-ťil <b>x</b> -ý > xťiliý 1S	' I ate oolichan grease; the ool. grease I ate' at'iliy
tĺpil <b>x</b>	back of the neck dibilx	típil <b>x-ý</b> > típiliý	'the back of my neck' <i>dibiliy</i>

timlán <b>x</b>	'neck' <i>t'imlanx</i>	timlán <b>x</b> -ý > timlániý	'my neck' 18 <i>t'imlaniÿ</i>
		timlánx-n> timlánir 28	l 'your neck' <i>t'imlanin</i>
lím <b>x</b>	'song, to sing'	lím <b>x</b> -ŷ > límiŷ 1S	'my song, I sing/sang' limiÿ
		lím <b>x</b> -ət > límit <b>REL</b>	' that sang/ sings' <i>limit</i>
tĺl <b>x</b>	'tongue' <i>dil<u>x</u></i>	tíl <b>x</b> -ŷ > tíliŷ 1S	'my tongue' <i>diliy</i>
		qa-tíl <b>x</b> -m² > qatílim² DIST1P	'our ton gues'

(NOTE: tilxlakw 'flame, lit. tongue of fire', may be a reduction of \*tilx-a-lakw, or a modern formation; see 9.1.B.1. for nouns compounded with (-a:))

Compare with the lack of deletion after non-resonant:

#### 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.b. Before a cluster:

Remark: an alternate interpretation is possible: instead of deletion, there could be neutralization and vocalization of Velar fricatives to /h/, which drops. Compare with Velar vocalization between stressed vowel and consonant, occurring in CV:Cvk reduplication (8.2.B.1., type 3, c.).

10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.c. Between a resonant and a glottal stop: A Velar fricative (not the result of Velar fricativization) is deleted between a resonant and a glottal stop; if the glottal stop is part of a suffix, deletion occurs prior to the application of the vowel-epenthesis rule (10.2.A.1.a.1.):

lím <b>x</b>	'sing/song' <i>limx</i>	lím <b>x</b> -?ó:y <sup>2</sup> > lim?ó: song-yore??	y 'ancient [funeral?] song' <i>lim'ooy</i>
		lím <b>x</b> - <sup>?</sup> n > límin CAUS	'to play <u>a song.</u> <u>a record'</u> <i>limin</i>

#### 10.2.B. Merging rules:

#### 10.2.B.1. Degemination:

#### 10.2.B.1.a. Within a word:

(1) between unstressed prefix and stem:

(2) between the two elements of a compound: in rapid speech:

- (3) Degemination does not occur in forms built by C-reduplication, whether word-initially or medially (8.1.C.2.).
- 10.2.B.1.b. In sandhi: between a word ending in a non-Velar fricative /S/ or / $\frac{1}{4}$ / or an affricate /CO/, / $\frac{1}{6}$ / or / $\frac{1}{4}$ / and a connective consisting of the same fricative or fricative release:
  - (1) non-determinate connective (=1):

$$\hat{c}_{1}+\hat{c}_{2}+\hat{c}_{3}+\hat{c}_{4}+\hat{c}_{5}+\hat$$

Contact between the two fricatives may result from the deletion of a /t/ representing the 3 suffix (-t) (10.2.A.2.b.1.c.2.)

wil 
$$\mathring{c}i4$$
) $\mathring{c}a\overset{?}{\cancel{\lambda}}$ -[t.]=4  $\mathring{c}a\overset{?}{\cancel{\lambda}}$ - $\mathring{y}$  > wil  $\mathring{c}i4\mathring{c}a\overset{?}{\cancel{\lambda}}$ - $\mathring{c}a\overset{?}{\cancel{\lambda}}$ i $\mathring{y}$  ... as my records are warped. PL)rippled-[3]=NC record-1S ... wil ts'il.lts'atl' ts'atl'i $\mathring{y}$ .

(2) determinate connective {=S}: this connective occurs only before determinates, which are preceded by the Determinate marker t, which is deleted after /S/(10.2.A.2.b.1.c.2.):

#### 10.2.B.1.b. Rules creating glottalized segments:

The glottal absorption rules merge a stem-final consonant (except /S/, which cannot be glottalized) with a /?/ belonging to a suffix. Of lesser importance is the rule merging a glottalized  $/t^2$ / with a following  $/t^4$ / (as a result of a

vowel-deletion rule) into a  $/\frac{3}{\lambda}$ /.

# 10.2.B.1.b.1. Glottal absorption: (occurs post-stress):

When a base ending in a consonant (except /S/) is followed by a suffix consisting of, or beginning with /?/, the sequence C + /?/ becomes a glottalized consonant. If /?/ in the suffix is followed by a consonant, a vowel is inserted between the new glottalized consonant and the consonant of the suffix (see above 10.2.A.1.a. and 10.1.A.1.a.1.a.2. for vowel rules).

### 10.2.B.1.b.1.a. <u>Stop + /?/ → glottalized stop</u>:

# t + ? > t (there are very few examples as few stems end in /t/)

	taxká <b>t-</b> <sup>2</sup> n > taxká <b>ť</b> in strong-CAUS	'to strengthen, reinforce <u>s.'</u> da <u>zgat'in</u>
c + ? > ĉ	yá <b>c-<sup>?</sup>sk</b> <sup>w</sup> > yá <b>č</b> isk <sup>w</sup> strike.s.plAP.I	'animals' <i>yats'iskw</i>
k + ? > k²	lák- <sup>2</sup> n > lákin be.in.heap-CAUS	'to wreck <u>s.</u> ' lak'in
kw + ? > kw	cá <b>kw-</b> ?skw > cá <b>k</b> wiskw kill.sAP.I	'animal' <i>jakw'iskw</i>

bahlk'an

$$\chi h \acute{a} y k^{w-?} n \rightarrow \chi h \acute{a} y k^{w} i n$$
 'to capsize s.'
$$capsize-CAUS \qquad \qquad \chi h a y k w i n$$

$$q + ? > \mathring{q} \qquad p \acute{a} + q - ? n \rightarrow p \acute{a} + \mathring{q} a n \qquad \text{'to grade } \underline{s}. \text{ (a road)'}$$

(road) smooth-CAUS

Remarks: a. If a stop is already glottalized, no extra glottalization occurs; the /?/ of the suffix merges with the base-final consonant, as in:

b. If the final consonant does not immediately follow stress, the previous consonant is also glottalized, 10.1.A.2.c. (Anticipatory glottalization).

#### 10.2.B.1.b.1.b. Fricatives:

The rule of Glottal Absorption is not as absolute with fricatives as with stops. Other rules may apply instead, as will be mentioned. Note that /S/ is the only consonant that cannot be glottalized.

# 10.2.B.1.b.1.b.1. Lateral fricative + $\frac{1}{2}$ | glottalized lateral affricate $\frac{1}{2}$ /:

$$y\acute{a}+^{?}x-^{?}sk^{w} > y\acute{a}+^{?}iksk^{w}$$
 'to slip and fall' slime-?-AP.I yatl'ikskw (for /x/> /k/, see 10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1., Stop-formation)

ha-ni-xs-pá4-?n-?skw > hani:xspáxinskw matting of cedar boughs
INSTR-on-like-spread.s.-CAUS-AP.I (for sleeping in the open)'

haniixsbatl'inskw

<u>Remark</u>: This rule seems to apply mostly when there are two suffixes beginning with a glottal stop. If only one such suffix is added, the vowel /a/ is generally inserted between  $\frac{1}{4}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ , as between  $\frac{1}{4}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

10.2.B.1.b.1.b.2. <u>Velar fricative + /?/</u>: In general, this combination is replaced by the glottalized glide corresponding to the Velar fricative (cf. 10.1.B.1.b.3.b.1. where intervocalic Velar fricatives are replaced by glides); alternately but sporadically, the combination is replaced by the corresponding glottalized stop.

10.2.B.1.b.1.b.2.a. General rule:  $X + ? \rightarrow R$  (glide)

10.2.B.1.b.1.b.2.b. Sporadic rule: X + ? > K (the fricative is replaced by the corresponding stop).

These cases are probably influenced by other alternations involving the same

base, in which a stop does occur.

 $x + ? > k^2$ 

wilá: $\mathbf{x}^{-2}$ l-?sT > wilá: $\mathbf{k}$ ils know.s.-CPL-AP.D

to be knowledgeable, educated wilaak'ils

(compare SiWila: ks 'to learn st' siwilaaks, with /k/ before /S/, see 10.1.A.1.b.2.a.1.).

x + ? > d qinx-?n > qindan 'to fell a tree' (tree)fall-CAUS

genk'an

This formation is analogous to other  $/x \sim d/$  alternations, where /x/ however is followed by /kw/ and results from preconsonantal spirantization (10.1.B.1.b.3.a.), as in:

yú-xkw / yú-dan

to eat / to feed s.o.

yuuxkw/yuuk'an

both probably deriving from yu.q 'string of oolichans' yuuk.

Note that while the plural of qinx '(tree) to fail' genx is linx /inx , that of qindan genk'an is lintin lintin, with /t/-insertion (10.2.A.1.b.1.b.), not @lindan. (See also Anticipatory Glottalization (10.1.A.2.).

10.2.B.1.b.1.b.2.c. Conversely, sometimes a glottalized resonant results from a Velar stop + /?/:

 $k^w + ? > w^2$  txa:-yú $k^w$ -?n >txa:yú $w^2$ in 'to have s.o. carry s.t.' all-move-CAUS

txaayuwin

10.2.B.1.b.1.c. Resonant +  $\frac{?}{>}$  glottalized resonant: R +  $\frac{?}{>}$  R

10.2.B.1.b.1.c.1. The non-glottal resonants /m n l w/: (/y/ does not occur in base-final position).

Glottalization of the non-glottal resonants occurs mostly with the AP suffixes  $\{-7sT\}$  and  $\{-7skW\}$ . With the Causative suffix  $\{-7n\}$  and the Completive suffix  $\{-7l\}$ , /t/-insertion (10.2.A.1.b.1.b.) is more common. Before a non-Velar fricative, vowel-insertion occurs only if the stem vowel is long.

(for loss of /X/after resonant, see 10.2.A.2.b.2.b.2.).

Note: With resonants as with stops, if the base-final consonant is already glottalized, suffix-initial /?/ merges with the consonant:

$$\vec{n}$$
u $\vec{w}$ - $^{2}$ m $^{4}$ k $^{w}$   $> \vec{n}$ u $\vec{w}$ im $^{4}$ k $^{w}$  'to be bereaved' dead - TEMP?

10.2.B.1.b.1.c.2. Glottals and vowels: A word-final glottal element merges with a following glottal stop. Some vowel-final stems show evidence of having once ended in /h/, others attach a glottalizing suffix directly.

a. 
$$? + ? > ?$$

b. \* h + ? > ?: Although /h/ does not occur word-finally in normal speech, its presence at some point can be inferred from some present alternations. Its behavior matches that of /?/.

A number of words presently ending in the short vowel /a/ have suffixed counterparts in which the vowel of the suffixed word is /e/: it is likely that these words originally ended in \*\* /eh/( the two asterisks indicate a reconstructed form; see also 8.2. CV:CvK Reduplication for other examples of this alternation):

c. For the following stems presently ending in long vowels, which are probably

more modern, direct attachment of a  $/^2$ /-initial suffix can be assumed, without an intervening stage /h/. There is no change in either vowel length or quality.

t)ťá?skw >> tiťá.?askw ASP)sit-AP.I		'to bounce on one's chair (while sitting)' dit'aa'askw	
tə-yé?skw DOM-goAP.I	>> tiyé. <sup>?</sup> esk <b>w</b>	'very high tide (bringing debris)' diyee'eskw	

#### 10.3. Stress rules:

- 10.3.A. <u>Current rule: stress on the root or base</u>: Stress on the root (or at least on the base) is the rule in the vast majority of cases, including modern coinages.
- All prefixes are unstressed (7.1., 7.2.);
- In reduplication, stress is on the stem, not on the prefixed syllable (8.2.B.1.).
- In a compound, main stress on the second major component (9.).
- 10.3.B. Exceptions: Exceptions to the current rule are not productive patterns and usually bear signs of being older, such as vocalic alternations.
- 10.3.B.1. Stressed suffixes: A few non-productive suffixes (7.2.C.2.a.2.) bear stress, hence alternations such as:

ťám	'to write <u>s.t.'</u> <i>t'am</i>	<pre>fam-isT &gt; fimis(t)SUFF</pre>	'to write, writing' <i>t'imis(t)</i>
ká†-[t]kW pierce-MED.I	'to pierce <u>s.t.'</u> <i>gahlkw</i>	ķa†- <b>é:?</b> > ķi <b>† é:?</b>	'to embroider' (orig. with porcupine quills) gihlee'e

10.3.B.2. <u>Penultimate stress</u>: A number of forms bear stress on the initial or penultimate syllable, regardless of the specific grammatical function of that syllable. Other characteristics of most of these forms show that they are older and that the process is not productive.

#### 10.3.B.2.a. Stress on the prefix:

10.3.B.2.a.1. <u>Prefixed plurals</u>: (7.1.B.1.a.1.a.) Stress falls on the plural prefix (10-) in a few forms, rather than on the root, hence presently irregular pairs such as:

skát	to be born'	<b>lí</b> sķit	'to be born (pl.)'  lisgit
kúk <b>w</b> sk <b>w</b>	'to wake up' k(y)ukwskw	<b>lú</b> ķuk <b>~</b> sk <b>~</b>	'to wake up (pl.)'  lugukwskw
(* máq-s) place.sMED.I	'to be placed'	la-maqs-T >> limqs(t) 'to grow (pl.)' [be.placed]pL limks(t)	

(Note the loss of the root vowel in the last example as a result of stress placement on the prefix).

#### 10.3.B.2.a.2. Other prefixes:

A prefix used to form many high-ranking names means 'grandfather of ...' and is derived from the word meaning 'grandfather', now stressed normally on the root. The new prefix however shows stress on the original prefix  $\{n\partial -\}$  (7.1.B.1.b.1.b.2.) and loss of the original root vowel, exactly as in  $\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{1}{t} \log_2(t)$  'to grow (pl.)'  $\lim_{t\to\infty} \frac{1}{t} \log_2(t)$  above:

10.3.B.2. b. <u>Reduplication</u>: Numerous irregularities show that the CV:Cvk form of reduplication is archaic (8.2.B.3.b.). One of these irregularities is stress on the reduplicated syllable, for instance:

10.3.B.2.c. <u>Compounds</u>: Some older compounds are stressed on the first component, with resulting weakening of the vowel of the second component, so that the second component appears to be a lexical suffix (Pseudo-suffixes, 7.2.D.2.), as in the following examples:

- with kit 'man, person, people' ... git ( kat):

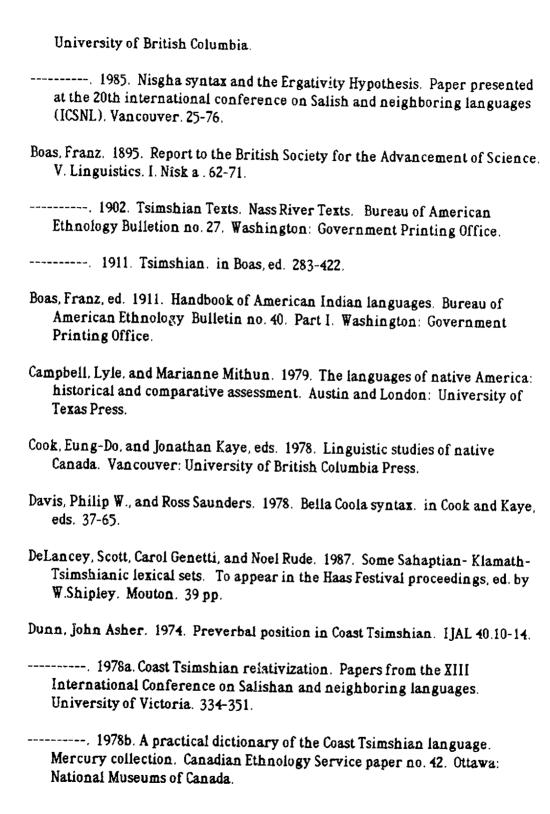
- with Sa 'day' ...se ( sa(h)):

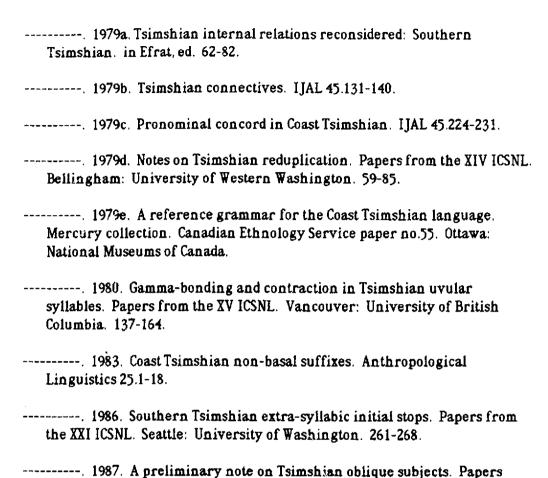
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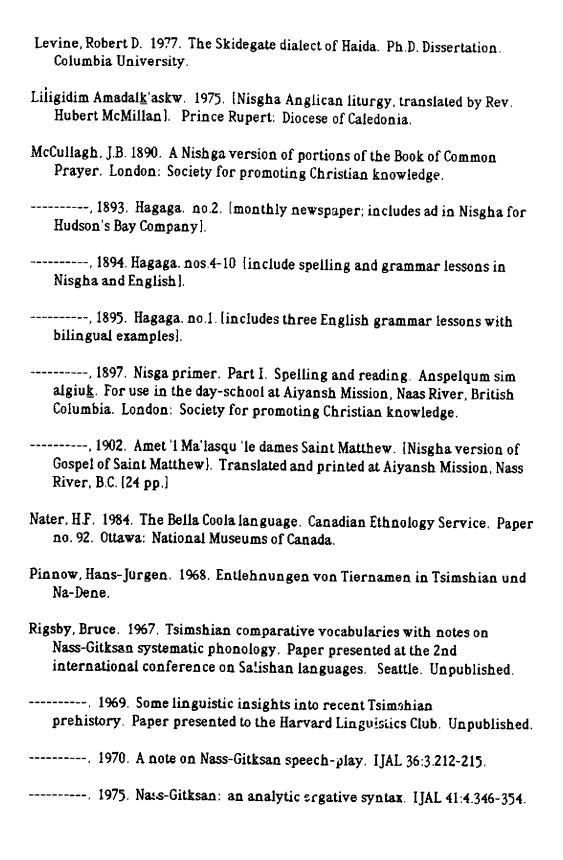


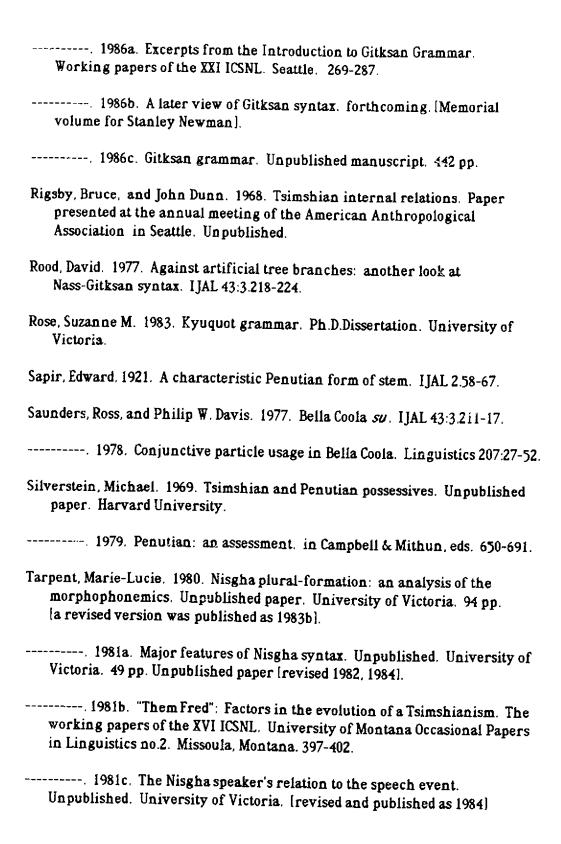


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