# ASPECTS OF WOODS CREE SYNTAX 

by

Donna Joy Starks

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Presented to the University of Manitoba in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in
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DONNA JOY STARKS

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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ABSTRACT
This study analyzes the syntax of Woods Cree, an Algonquian language spoken at South Indian Lake, Manitoba. The research is based on elicitation and on the analysis of spontaneous texts.

The work covers constituent structure, clause types and verb morphology. The findings illustrate that minor constituents obey rigid word order constaints, constraints on the major constituents are less rigid and the order of constituents within the clause is relatively free. Clause type is defined by a combination of morphological and syntactic features which include the relative order of clauses, tense sequencing, obviation and verb morphology. The latter two features distinguish main from subordinate clauses.

The verb morphology also plays an important role in structuring information flow, e.g., conjunct verbs link information between clauses. Conjunct verbs are classified into changed and unchanged forms. Unchanged conjunct verbs are unmarked for their realization unless preceded by a tense preverb or a future particle. The changed conjunct, when represented by the preverbs (k) $\hat{a}-$ and $\hat{i}-$, places special focus on specific aspects of the situation. Changed conjunct preverbs which have corresponding unchanged conjunct forms mark an event as realizable in the past.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

verb stems

| AI | Animate Intransitive verb |
| :--- | :--- |
| AIto | Animate Intransitive verb with an optional object |
| II | Inanimate Intransitive verb |
| TA | Transitive Animate verb |
| TA+O | Transitive Animate verb with double goal |
| TI | Transitive Inanimate verb |
| TI2 | Transitive Inanimate verb (inflected as AI) |

## verbal categories

| C | conjunct verb |
| :--- | :--- |
| Delimp | delayed imperative verb |
| I | independent verb |
| Imp | imperative verb |
| IPV | syntactic-semantic preverb |
| S | subjunctive verb |
| dim | diminutive |
| fut | future |
| incp | inceptive preverb |
| negpast | negative part tense |
| past | past tense |
| pret | preterit |
| prv | preverb |

```
recip reciprocal
redup reduplication
reflex reflexive
rel relative root or preverb
relat relational verb
```

person, number and obviation

| 1 | first person |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 | second person |
| 3 | third person |
| 3. | obviative |

1p first person exclusive
12 first person inclusive
2p second person plural
3p
third person plural
third person inanimate singular
third person inanimate plural
third person inanimate obviative
indefinite subject
nominal categories

| DNA | animate noun, dependent |
| :--- | :--- |
| DNI | inanimate noun, dependent |
| NA | animate noun |
| NI | inanimate noun |
| NP | noun phrase |
| an | animate |
| inan | inanimate |
| instr | instrument |
| loc | locative |
| pl | plural |
| pro | pronoun |
| voc | vocative |
| vocpl | vocative plural |

syntactic categories
c.q. content question
comp. complement
decl. declarative
obj. object
subj. subject
y.n. yes-no question

## particles

| INT | expressive particle |
| :--- | :--- |
| $Q$ | yes-no question particle |
| emp | emphatic particle |
| hrs | hearsay, assertive particle |
| neg | negative particle |
| prt | particle |

morpheme boundaries
$=\quad$ morpheme in inter-linear gloss

- word division in inter-linear gloss
- preverb boundary [orthographic]
\ stem class in inter-linear gloss
$+\quad$ morpheme boundary in Cree [not orthographic]
[ ] constituent structure in Cree examples
miscellaneous

C consonant [in rules]
V vowels [in rules]
SIL South Indian Lake

| br | brother |
| :--- | :--- |
| gr/fa | grandfather |
| gr/mo | grandmother |
| si | sister |
| s.o. | someone |
| yo-br/si | younger brother or sister |
|  |  |
| immed | immediately |
| whatev | whatever |
| whoev | whoever |

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## Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This is a study of the variant of Cree spoken at South Indian Lake. This isolated community of approximately 900 inhabitants is located on the south-eastern shore of Southern Indian Lake in north-central Manitoba (See Figure 1.1). Since the inception of the town in the 1930s, south Indian Lake has been a relatively self-supporting community. The traditional livelihood of the inhabitants is based on trapping and fishing.

The majority of the older people in South Indian Lake grew up in Nelson House, a reserve directly to the south, not far from Thompson (See Figure 1.2). Most of the inhabitants are treaty indians, affiliated with the Nelson House band. The inhabitants of South Indian Lake also include descendants of two non-native trappers who married native women from the area in the 1930 s.

The South Indian Lake people call themselves nîhow 'Cree' and their community opônapiwinih 'in his stopping place'. The place name refers to the traditional winter
hunting ground of the Nelson House band. 1

At South Indian Lake, a variety of Cree referred to as Woods Cree is spoken (Wolfart 1973, Pentland 1979, Rhodes and Todd 1981). 2 South Indian Lake is one of the largest Woods Cree communities in Manitoba. Other major communities include Pukatawagan and Nelson House. Additional centers where Woods Cree is spoken are listed in capital letters in Figure 1.2.

The major linguistic feature that defines Woods Cree is $/ \delta /$, a voiced inter-dental fricative. This reflex of Proto-Algonquian */1/ occurs, for example, in the word nída 'I'. The cognate forms in other major variants of cree are nîya [Plains Cree], nina [Swampy Cree] and nila [Moose Cree] (Wolfart and Carroll 1981:xvii). / / / is recognized by the people of South Indian Lake and the other Woods cree communities as a linguistic marker that differentiates their speech from the Cree spoken elsewhere in Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

1 For a detailed cultural study of the south Indian Lake people see Waldram 1983.

2 The Woods Cree people have also been referred to as the 'Rock Cree' (Smith 1975, Leighton 1985, Brightman 1985). Although this name is used by the indigenous people in the Pukatawagan area, $I$ have not heard anyone use the term at South Indian Lake.

Figure 1.1: South Indian Lake


Source: Waldram, 1983.

Figure 1.2: Northern Manitoba


Source: Pentland, 1987.


### 1.2 LITERATURE ON CREE LANGUAGE

Although there is little documentation on Woods Cree, there are a number of descriptions of varying depth and coverage of four other varieties of Cree: Plains, Swampy, Moose and Atikamekw. ${ }^{3}$ Figure 1.3 shows the general area where the major varieties of Cree are spoken. Atikamekw is spoken further to the east.

For Plains Cree, there are three grammatical descriptions (Wolfart 1973, Ahenakew 1984, Dahlstrom 1986), as well as a number of texts (Ahenakew 1987, Bloomfield 1930, 1934) and two fairly comprehensive dictionaries (Faries 1938, Bloomfield 1984). There is also a fair amount of documentation on Swampy and Moose Cree among which are two pedagogical grammars (Ellis 1983; Voorhis 1972). A list of verbal paradigms for both the Swampy and Moose dialects is also available (Ellis 1971). Morphological and lexical data on Atikamekw is presented in Béland (1978).

> Although there are lexical and morphological descriptions for at least one variety each of plains,

3 Pentland and Wolfart (1982) provide a listing of all Cree language sources published from 1891 to 1981. Sources published before 1891 are listed in Pilling (1891). One source of particular importance is listed only in Pilling: Howse (1844), an early description of Woods Cree.

Moose, Swampy Cree and Atikamekw, an analysis of the syntactic component of the grammar is lacking for most varieties of Cree. A notable exception is Moose Cree on which James has published a series of papers (1979, 1983, 1984b, 1986). Insights in the function of the changed conjunct (1983), raising (1979,1984b) and narrative structure (1986) are detailed in these articles.

There are also a number of other syntactic analyses in the literature. A few comments on the syntax are included in Ellis's (1983) grammar of Swampy Cree and an interesting analysis of the particle ôma 'this (0)' in Plains Cree is available in Ahenakew 1984. A thorough account of obviation is presented in Dahlstrom's 1986 dissertation on Plains Cree. This work also contains an analysis of subjects and objects and the syntactic processes that depend on them such as raising and the passive.

Figure 1.3

## Major Cree Dialects



Source: Wolfart and Carroll, 1981

### 1.3 LITERATURE ON WOODS CREE

Woods Cree is the least studied of the Cree dialects. Although the first full cree grammar published by Howse in 1844 is based on a variant of Woods cree, since then only four contemporary scholars have published material containing linguistic data from this dialect. The works of Pentland (1978, 1979) and Leighton (1985) contain a limited number of lexical items from woods Cree. Pentland (1978, 1979) cites examples of words in Woods Cree that illustrate Proto-Algonquian reflexes ${ }^{4}$ and Leighton, an ethnobotanist, cites approximately 200 names of herbs and plants but provides no linguistic analysis of the data in the appendix of her book on wild plant use.

The only other scholars to have published material for which Woods Cree is the primary linguistic data base are Robert Brightman (1985) and Jennifer Greensmith (1985a,1985b). Both authors have written on specific points of Woods Cree. Their published research consists of an analysis of the indefinite possessor (Brightman 1985), an analysis of future tense morpheme (Greensmith 1985b) and a comprehensive study of the phonetic variants of the

4 Early missionary work on the language is discussed in Pentland 1979.
phonemes of Woods Cree (Greensmith 1985a).

The latter study by Greensmith (1985a) outlines the major phonetic variants of Woods Cree as it is spoken in and around Pukatawagan. In the appendixes, she includes a 350 word vocabulary and a lengthy text. Although morphological and syntactic material can be extracted from the text, this work does not focus on the morphology or the syntax of Woods Cree. No comprehensive study of the morphology or any analysis of the syntax of any variant of Woods Cree has been published since Howse's grammar in 1844.

### 1.4 OBJECTIVES

The major objective of this study is to describe the syntax of the variant of Woods Cree spoken at South Indian Lake. This is accomplished as follows. Chapters I, II and III provide background information. Chapter I details the objectives of the study and reviews the literature in the field. Chapter II outlines the phonological component of the grammar. Chapter III describes the basic lexical categories: nouns, pronouns, particles and verbs. Noun phrases and verb phrases are the subjects of Chapters IV and $V$ respectively. Clause structure is the focus of

Chapters VI and VII. Main clauses are described in Chapter VI and subordinate clauses in Chapter VII. Chapters VIII and IX outline the function of the two major verb orders in Woods Cree. Chapter VIII looks at the distinction between independent and conjunct verbs and Chapter IX describes the changed/unchanged contrast in the conjunct order in this variant of Cree. The major inflections needed to understand the syntactic discussions are exemplified in Appendix A.

The Woods Cree described here is only one variant of Woods Cree. Clear differences exist between the Woods Cree spoken at South Indian Lake and other Woods Cree communities. See Greensmith 1985a for comparative data on Pukatawagan. No attempt should be made to generalize this description to the entire Woods Cree dialect area outlined on Figure 1.3.

There are even difficulties in applying this descriptive study to all members of this one speech community because there is a considerable degree of variability within South Indian Lake. For example, there are two II conjunct vowel stem plural inflections: -ki and -kwâw. Younger speakers use the -kwâw form more than older speakers but age is not the only factor that conditions the use of one form over
the other. Older speakers often use the two inflections in the same text. A detailed sociolinguistic study of the entire Woods Cree area is needed to understand this type of variation; a project well beyond the scope of this work.

### 1.5 SOURCES

The fieldwork for the dissertation was completed between July 1983 and March 1987. During that period, approximately 20 weeks were spent at South Indian Lake. Material was also collected from informants living and visiting in Winnipeg. Materials from older speakers in the community were transcribed with the aid of younger speakers. Data collected from younger speakers were used primarily for verification purposes. During the course of this study approximately 40 speakers between the ages of 10 and 88 were recorded. At least one member from each of the major families in the community was interviewed.

Most of the materials from the older informants (aged 60+) were collected in the form of texts because many of the older speakers are monolingual in Cree. Both elicited and textual data were collected from speakers between the ages of 30 and 60. Most people in this age group are bilingual in Cree and English. Although people under 30 are
also bilingual, very few texts were recorded largely due to the fact that the preferred language of many of the younger speakers is English. The few excerpts of natural discourse that were recorded consisted of short conversations and descriptions of pictures. The texts of younger speakers contain a large amount of code-switching. An example is provided in Appendix $c$.

An attempt has been made to use textual examples in the dissertation. However, elicited forms were necessary in the demonstration of syntactic constraints and in the illustration of syntactic structures not frequent in texts.

## Chapter II

THE SOUND SYSTEM

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the phonemic inventory and the major phonetic, phonological and morphophonemic processes are outlined along with the orthographical conventions used in this study. This chapter should be viewed as background information. Its content is not necessary to understand the chapters to follow. For a more thorough analysis of the Woods Cree phonological system see Greensmith 1985 a and Starks 1987a.

### 2.2 THE PHONEMIC INVENTORY

Table 2.1 provides a list of the phonemes for Woods Cree.

TABLE 2.1
Phonemes


Woods Cree has a symmetrical vowel system. There are three short vowels /i,a,o/ and three long vowels /i, a, ô/.1


Although the vowels differ phonemically in length, they differ phonetically on the basis of length and quality. Phonetically, /î/ varies from [ê] to [î].2 /â/ and /ô/ also have a wide phonetic distribution. /â/ varies from back to front and /o/ from high to mid. For further details on phonetic variants see Greensmith 1985a.

The Woods Cree consonant system consists of three stops $/ p, t, k /$, one affricate /c/, three fricatives /s, $\delta, h /$, two nasals $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n} /$ and two semivowels /w,y/. There is also the marginal phoneme /1/, discussed in section 2.3.

1 Vowel length is indicated by a circumflex over the vowel, and the high back vowels are represented as /o/ and /ô/, respectively.

2 There are a few words that occur with [ê] among older speakers. This fact is also reported by Greensmith (1985a:93-94) for the Pukatawagan area. Greensmith 1985a reports that the change of *ê to $\hat{i}$ is a recent change, not recorded in Howse (1844:37).
/p,t,c,k/ have voiced and voiceless allophones. The voiced allophones frequently occur in inter-vocalic position.


Although /c/ is phonetically an affricate, at a phonotactic level it patterns as a stop. All four consonants $/ p, t, c, k /$ occur in consonant clusters whose first member is $/ \mathrm{h} /$ or $/ \mathrm{s} /$.
3./sp/ and /hp/ nâspic 'forever'; akohp 'blanket'
/st/ and /ht/ âstam 'come here'; itiyihtam 'he thinks'3
/sc/ and /hc/ pisci- 'by mistake'; anohc 'now'
/sk/ and /hk/ isko 'until'; askihk 'pail'

The nasals $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n} /$ only have voiced allophones and these two phonemes do not form consonant clusters with /h/ or /s/ as their initial member. Examples of the two nasals are provided in \#4.
${ }^{3}$ Given that this is an $/ \delta /$ dialect, this word should be realized as itíihtam 'he thinks (it)'. This form does occur, although infrequently.
4. $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$ mâna [mâna] 'used to'
nôhkom [nôhkum] 'my grandmother'

The two fricatives $/ \mathrm{s} /$ and $/ \mathrm{h} /$ have both voiced and voiceless allophones. Word final $/ \mathrm{h} /$ is whispered.
5. $/ \mathrm{s} / \mathrm{sisip} \quad[\operatorname{sizip}]$ or [sisîp] 'duck'
/h/ ayahâw [ayahâw] 'whoever'
mistikowatin [mistikowatih] 'in the box'
$/ \delta /$ has two allophones: [ $\delta$ ] and [ $t$ ]. The most frequent allophone is [6], as in abapiy 'net'. /6/ may be realized phonetically as a voiceless fortis stop when the following syllable begins with a nasal.

| 6. asapiy | 'net' | [asapiy] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nídanân | 'we (1p)' | [nitanân] |

The two semi-vowels are /w/ and /y/.

| 7. /w/ awa | micisow 'he eats' |
| :--- | :--- |
| /y/ ayaminiw 'he talks to him' watay 'belly' |  |

2.3 A MARGINAL PHONEME / $1 /$

The phoneme /l/ has a highly specialized use. Most words that occur with this phoneme are borrowings. Two examples are:
8. omakalakisa
$3=m u k l u k=d^{\prime} m=3$ '
'his mukluk[s]'
9. Milcîn [nickname]
'Mary Jane'

A few of the borrowings have been incorporated into the language forming blends with native cree words.
10. apal-ascocin
apple=hat
'hat with a pompon'

The only native Cree words with /1/ occur in the specialized register of baby talk used by adults towards young children. Baby talk words containing /1/ derive from an underlying $/ \delta / .4$

4 The use of /1/ may have been influenced by child language acquisition. Children do not pronounce $[\delta]$ until late in their childhood. In their earlier years, / / / is realized as [l].

| 11. kâla | 'don't' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\underline{m o ̂ l a}$ | 'no' |

The status of $/ 1 /$ as a phoneme in Woods Cree is problematic and marginal. This phoneme is not investigated further in this study.

### 2.4 CONSONANT SYMBOLISM

In the beginning of this chapter, it is stated that / $t /$ and /c/ are separate phonemes. There is a process called consonant symbolism that merges these two sounds (Pentland 1974). Under consonant symbolism, /t/ changes to [č] in a word to signify something especially close to the speaker. Kinship terms, nicknames and baby talk often contain examples of consonant symbolism. The words in the right hand column illustrate this process.

| 12. nitawâsimis | 'my child' | n(i)cawâsimis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nôhtâwiy | 'my father' | nôhcâwiy |
| kiskwîstikwân | 'crazy head' | $\underline{\text { kiskwiscikwân }}$ |
| mitoni | 'so much' | miconi |

In baby talk, consonant symbolism has wider application. In this register, $/ s /$ also changes to $[\mathbf{c}]$. An example is:
13. kawisimo 'go to bed' kawicimo

Consonant symbolism often occurs in words with the derivational morpheme -hkâso 'pretend' and with the diminutive morphemes $-s$ and - si.

| 14. mâtow | 'he cries' mâcôhkâsow 'he pretends to cry' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pâtimâ 'later' pâcimâs 'a little later' |  |
| atoskiw 'he works' acoskisiw 'he works a little' |  |

Consonant symbolism is represented in the orthography.

### 2.5 PHONOTACTIC RESTRICTIONS IN CONSONANT CLUSTERS

The basic syllable structure of Woods cree is (C) $(w) V(C)(C)$. Vowels and consonants other than $/ h /$ occur at the beginning and at the end of syllables and words. See section 2.7 for details on $/ \mathrm{h} /$.

The only other major phonotactic restriction applies to consonant clusters. There are three basic types of
consonant clusters: /hc/ clusters, /sC/ clusters and /Cw/ clusters. The clusters are exemplified here with /p/ as the consonant.

| 15. mikiwâhp | 'tent' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ispiy | 'when' |
| opwâm | 'his thigh' |

The second member of a /hc/ cluster or a /sc/ cluster can be /p,t,c,k/.5 /hc/ and /sc/ consonant clusters are restricted to inter-vocalic and word final position. The lexical items presented in \#3 illustrate this.
/Cw/ clusters have any consonant other than a semivowel as their initial member. / Cw/ consonant clusters occur as syllable onsets. The following examples contain /tw/ clusters.
16. itwit 'he says'
twâham 'he drills a hole in the ice'

5 The cluster /h $\delta /$ also appears in Woods Cree but has a limited functional load. Only a handful of words exist with this consonant cluster. See Starks 1987 for a list of these lexical items.
/hc/ and /sc/ clusters combine with /w/, creating /hcw/ and /sCw/ clusters. Examples are:

| 17. atihkwak | 'caribou [pl]' |
| :--- | :--- |
| iskwâhtîm | 'door' |

/hCw/ and /sCw/ clusters have the most phonotactic restrictions apply to them. They are restricted to certain sequences of phonemes and they do not occur in word initial or word final position. The syllable structure of words with /hCw/ and /sCw/ clusters is not fully understood. See Greensmith 1985a for further details.

### 2.6 MORPHOPHONEMICS

Some relevant morphophonemic processes also need consideration in order for the reader to recognize the essential forms presented in the discussion to follow. Five of these processes are listed below.
a. When two consonants come together at a morpheme boundary, an epenthetic [i] is inserted between the two morphemes. The few exceptions are listed in Wolfart 1973 and Dahlstrom 1986.

```
18. papâm+kwâskohtîw /papâmikwâskohtîw/
around=jump\AI=3I
'he jumps around'
```

This is represented schematically as:
19. /申/-ー--->[i]/ C $\qquad$ $+C$
b. After a personal prefix, an epenthetic $/ t /$ is added before a vowel initial stem. 6
20. ni+t+atoskân 'I work'
ki+t+atoskân 'you work'
atoskîw 'he works'
21. asâm 'snowshoe'
ni+t+asâm 'my snowshoe'
ki+t+asâm 'your snowshoe'
o+t+asâm+a 'his snowshoe'
c. Distinct morphophonemic processes apply to other morpheme boundaries in which two vowels come together. The processes include vowel coalescence, vowel deletion with and without compensatory lengthening, and glide insertion.

6 Dependent noun stems do not add epenthetic /t/: natay 'my belly'. See section 3.2.2 for details on dependent stems. Speakers also frequently fail to apply this rule, in favour of rule (c), before noun stems beginning with /o/; e.g., nôtâpânâsk 'my vehicle'.

Examples are:

| 22. ka-itohtân 'you will go' | [ketohtân] |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ta-otinîw | 'he will take him' | [tôtinîw] |
| ka-âcimon | 'you will tell (a story)' | [kâcimon] |
| kíotinîw | 'he took him' | [kîyotinîw] |

These morphophonemic processes interact depending on the speaker's style. Using formal style as a basis, the distribution of the vowel processes is as follows. /a/ and /i/ coalesce to [ê] and /a,i/ delete before and after / / . $/ 0 /$ is lengthened in this environment. Sequences of identical short vowels or an identical short and long vowel are realized phonetically as a long vowel. / / and a long vowel and sequences of long vowels are separated by an epenthetic glide.
d. Another morphophonemic process applies to noun stems. When a noun stem ending in a semivowel occurs before an inflection beginning with $/ i /$, the semivowel deletes and the vowel preceding the semivowel is lengthened.

Examples are:
23. a.watay 'belly' +-ink 'locative' watâhk
b.asiniy 'rock' +-is 'diminutive' asinis
c.ota $a p i y-a ~ ' h i s ~ n e t ' ~+-i \delta i w a ~ ' 3 ' p o s s r ' ~ o t a \delta a p i \delta i w a ~$
e. Post-consonantal /w/ deletes in word final position. This rule, $C w-m$, applies, for example, to singular nouns. Contrast the singular and plural forms of the following two nouns. In the singular form, post-consonantal /w/ does not appear.

| 24. ministik | 'island' | ministikwa | 'islands' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wâpos | 'rabbit' | wâposwak | 'rabbits' |

Other less common morphophonemic processes are listed in Dahlstrom 1986.

### 2.7 PHONETIC PROCESSES

There are also a number of low level phonetic rules that affect the output generated by the phonological rules and the morphophonemic processes described in the previous sections. The following discussion summarizes some of the major phonetic rules operating in the community. For a more detailed study see Starks 1987a.

Many of the phonetic rules distinguish the speech of older and younger members of this speech community. one of the most dramatic changes has been the weakening of /hk/
clusters in word final position. Greensmith 1985 a also reports /hk/ weakening in the Pukatawagan area. For South Indian Lake, this rule, hk ---->h /___\#, is phonetic for the oldest speakers. Frequency counts in texts vary from speaker to speaker. For older speakers, the weakening is most frequent when the lexical item is locative. 7

```
25. /ispimihk/ 'up' [ispimih]
```

Among the middle age speakers the change is more widespread. /hk/ weakens to [h] in word final position in almost all textual examples. The weakening is still phonetic since no restructuring has occurred. These speakers reconstruct final /hk/ in elicitation.

| 26.i-wâpahtank 'he sees it' [iwâpahtah] |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| askîhk | 'on the land' | [askîh] |

For some younger speakers, the change of /hk/ to [h] in word final position is an obligatory phonological change.

[^0]A similar phonetic rule causes $/ k /$ to delete word initially and inter-vocalically. This change also correlates with age. Younger speakers delete $/ \mathrm{k} /$ more frequently than older speakers. The following examples illustrate /k/ deletion.
27. kâ-wâpamât [âwâbamât] 'he sees him' piko [pô] 'only'

Arong younger speakers, there is another low level phonetic rule whereby /w/ changes to $[y]$ in the environment of a high front vowel. This rule, with examples, is provided in \#28 and \#29.

29. tâniwâ 'where (3)' [tâniyâ] awina 'who' [ayina]

This assimilation rule applies across morpheme boundaries in rapid speech.

| 30. wiki+wâw | 'their home' | [wîkiyâw] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $k \hat{i}+w a ̂ p a m i ̂ w ~$ | 'he saw him' | $[k \hat{y} y a ̂ b m i w]$ |

Other phonetic processes correlate with style. One such rule affects short vowels. Between consonants, the short vowel /i/ frequently deletes. The phonetic conditioning is not fully understood.

| 31. anima | 'that $(0)$ ' | [anma] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pimi $\delta a ̂ w$ |  |  |
| ta-kî-nipâhtay | 'he could have slept' | [taginpâhtêy] |
| isitisaham | 'he sends it' | [pmimâw]  <br> ma-mícâkanis 'doll' |

When short vowels delete, two consonants come together at a surface level. When the first consonant is a nasal, the nasal may assimilate to the place of articulation of the following consonant. Examples are:

| 32. nika-nikamon | 'I will sing' | [yganigamon] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| i-nipât | 'he sleeps' | [impât] |

The final phonetic rule to be discussed illustrates the complex effect the interaction of the two variables, style and age, have on the phonetic output. Morpheme-internal sequences of a vowel, a semi-vowel and a vowel coalesce at a phonetic level among younger speakers in informal speech.

Examples are:

| 33. Iyako | 'that one' | [iko] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ayamiw | 'he talks' | [âmiw] |
| kawisimow 'he goes to bed' | [kêsimôw] |  |

Among older speakers, the last example would be represented phonemically as /kawisimow/. In informal speech, the phonetic variant [kayisimow] occurs. Among many younger speakers, the phonemic representation of this word is /kayisimow/, the phonetic variant in the speech of the older members of this speech community. For many younger speakers, /w/ is no longer reconstructible in this word. In the informal speech of these younger members of south Indian Lake [kêsimow] occurs as a phonetic variant.

### 2.8 ORTHOGRAPHY

The orthography ignores the phonetic rules described in the previous section. The orthography is essentially phonemic following Wolfart (1973) and Ellis (1983), but Algonquianists should note that the phoneme $/ \delta /$ corresponds to Plains Cree / $y /$ and Moose Cree /1/ when it is a reflex of Proto-Algonquian $* / 1 /$ and vowel length is indicated by a
circumflex over the vowel. The phonemes $/ \hat{1} /$ and $/ \hat{e} /$ in Plains and Moose Cree correspond to the phoneme /i/ in Woods Cree.

The orthography represents the most formal speech style. In a few lexical items, short /i/ deletes between homorganic consonants in even carefully elicited speech, e.g., tan(i)si 'how'. When /i/ rarely occurs even in the most formal speech style of most members of this community, this vowel is written in brackets. Two important variables in the midst of change are final hk and the conjunct marker (k)â-. These forms are written as they occur in discourse.

PARTS OF SPEECH

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the major lexical categories in Woods cree. In addition to nouns, verbs and particles, a pronoun category has been included.

The chapter describes the basic morphological contrasts. Nouns are coded for two genders and may be inflected for person, number and obviation. Nouns may also be inflected for locative case. Pronouns are similarly classified. Verbs are morphologically either transitive or intransitive and occur in several inflectional paradigms which Algonquianists refer to as orders. A particle is not inflected.

The structure of the major phrasal categories is the subject of Chapters IV and $V$.
3.2 NOUNS

### 3.2.1 Gender

Nouns are subcategorized for two grammatical genders, animate and inanimate. ${ }^{1}$ All nouns that denote humans and animals are animate.
34 nâpîw (NA) 'man'
maskwa (NA) 'bear'

A non-living thing may be grammatically animate or grammatically inanimate. The following are some grammatically animate nouns.

| 35. asâm | 'snowshoe' |
| :--- | :--- |
| adapiy | 'net' |
| mitâs | 'pants' |
| cistimâw | 'tobacco' |
| wîhkîs | 'wild ginger' |
| ahcan(i)s | 'ring' |

A few pairs are distinguished solely on the basis of animacy. Three pairs are listed in \#36-\#38.

1 A few grammatically animate nouns vary in gender. One example is pimiy 'grease'. In texts, this noun has been recorded as animate and as inanimate. The gender appears to be context dependent.

| 36. wîcimosa | (NA) | 'lover (3')' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wicimosa | (NI) | 'prairie birds' (type of plant) |
| 37. mistik | (NA) | 'tree' ${ }^{2}$ |
| mistik | (NI) | 'stick' |
| 38. asiniy | (NA) | 'rock/stone' |
| asiniy | (NI) | 'bullet' |

The above pairs differ in their verb agreement. Verbs agree with nouns in grammatical gender where required by the verb stem. The noun asiniy 'rock [an.], bullet [inan.]' is the subject of the following sentences. In \#39, the verb is sub-categorized as taking an animate subject and in \#40 the verb is sub-categorized as taking an inanimate subject.
39. i-mihkosit asiniy.
$I P V=\mathrm{red} \backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$ rock
'The rock is red'
40. i-minkwâk asiniy.
$I P V=r e d \backslash I I=0 C$ bullet
'The bullet is red.'

The same principle applies when a noun is the grammatical object of a verb. The verb â-wâpamak 'I saw

2 mistik 'tree' is gradually being replaced by sihti 'tree (evergreen)'. mistik 'tree' is rarely used among younger speakers.
him' is sub-categorized as taking an animate object and the verb â-wâpahtamân 'I saw it' is sub-categorized as taking an inanimate object.
41. asiniy â-wâpamak.
rock $\quad I P V=s e e \backslash T A=1-3 C$
'I saw the rock.'
42. asiniy â-wâpahtamân.
bullet $I P V=s e e \backslash T I=1-0 C$
'I saw the bullet.'

Natural gender plays a minimal role in the grammar. There are only a few cases where grammatical gender is superceded by natural gender, where nouns denoting humans and animals are distinguished from grammatically animate and inanimate nouns that denote objects. Case is one example of a grammatical category which follows natural gender. The locative suffix, $-\underline{i n(k)}$, may be added to any noun for which the natural gender is inanimate, as in \#43 and \#44. This suffix is not added to most semantically animate nouns. This is illustrated in \#45.

| 43.tihtapiwin NT | 'chair' |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tihtapiwinin(k) | 'on/by the chair' |  |
| 44. asâm | NA | 'snowshoe' |
| asâmin $(k)$ |  | 'on/by the snowshoe' |

45. iskwîw

NA
kisiwâk iskwiw
'woman'
'near the woman'

The possessor noun phrase is also restricted on the basis of natural gender. A grammatically animate noun such as otâpânâsk 'car' would not an acceptable possessor of a possessive noun phrase, such as otihtapiwin 'his chair'. A possessor noun phrase must have a semantically animate referent, as in \#46.

## 46. John otihtapiwin

John 3=chair
'John's chair'

Another example is the pronoun set represented in the following examples by the pronoun forms awina/awisiwa 'who,someone'. 3 This pronoun has an even more restricted use. It denotes a semantically animate noun whose referent is human. 4
47. awina?
who $=3$
'Who is he/she?'

3 The second vowel in awina 'who' is short. The cognate form recorded elsewhere is long (See Wolfart 1973, Ellis 1983).

4 There is no mention of a similar restriction in other variants of Cree.
48.ahpo awisiwa T.B. kâ-ayâdit, kî-nitawihîw.
or someone=3' T.B. IPV=be $\backslash A I=3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ past=heal $\backslash T A=3^{\prime} 3^{\prime} I$
'Or if a someone had T.B., he cured them.'

The pronoun kikway 'what, thing' is used to represent other grammatically animate and inanimate nouns.
49. kîkway anima?
what $=0$ that $=0$
'What is that?' [unknown referent in woods]
50. mistahi mâna kîkway kî-nipahtâw ana lots used-to thing past=kill $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$ that $=3$
kisídiniw.
old-man
"That old man used to kill many things."

### 3.2.2 Person

Animate and inanimate nouns may be possessed. The following examples contain the third person possessive prefix o-. The noun awâsis 'child' is animate in \#51 and the noun môhkomân 'knife' is inanimate in \#52.5

5 In the animate example, the noun stem begins with a vowel. An epenthetic /t/ is inserted before the vowel stem. See section 2.6 for details. Under consonant symbolism, described in section $2.4, / t /$ changes to [c]. The noun is also followed by the suffix -im. See Wolfart (1973:28-29) for details concerning this suffix.
51. tânîh(k)â ocawâsimisa?
where=3' $3=$ child=im=dim=3'
'Where is his child?'
52. tânisiw omôhkomân? ${ }^{6}$
where $=0$ ' $3=$ knife
'Where is his knife?'

Nouns are classified as dependent and independent. Dependent nouns are grammatically inalienable. Dependent nouns include kin terms, body part terms and various miscellaneous items, as for example the word for glasses.
53. niskîsikôhkâna wída î-wâpiwâkîyân.
$1=$ glasses $=0 p \quad$ emp $\quad I P V=s e e=r e l a t=o b j \backslash A I=1 C$
'I see with my glasses.'

Dependent nouns mark indefinite possession by a prefix mi-. See Wolfart (1973:15-16) for further discussion. Two examples are:
54. misit
indf $=$ foot
'foot'

6 The above example was elicited from a younger speaker. Older speakers use the form tânimâ 'where $\left(0^{\prime \prime}\right)$.
55. mitâs
indf=pants
'pants'

Kin terms are a subtype of dependent noun whose possessor is always a first, second or third person. Person is signalled by three possessive prefixes ni-, ki- and o-. Examples are listed below.
56. ni+stis
$1=01 d / b r$
'my older brother' Ki+stis $2=01 d / b r$
'your older brother'
otstista
$3=01 \mathrm{~d} / \mathrm{br}=3$ '
'his older brother'

Nouns which need not be possessed are referred to as independent nouns. Independent nouns may occur without a personal prefix.
57. astotin
nat
'hat'
58. iskwîsis
girl
'girl'

When an independent noun is marked for possession, its person marking is identical to the person marking on a dependent noun. This is illustrated in \#59.
59. ni + cîmân

1=boat
'my boat'
ki+cimân
2=boat
'your boat'
ơcîmân
$3=$ boat
'his/her boat'

A suffix signals number on the possessors of dependent and independent nouns. Woods Cree distinguishes two first person plural possessors. The first person exclusive (1p) 'me and her/him' excludes second person reference and the first inclusive (12) 'me and you' includes second person reference. The two first person plural forms and the second person plural form are cited in \#60-62.
60. nicîmâninân
$1=$ boat $=1 p$
'our boat [mine and his/hers]'
61. kicîmâninânaw
$2=$ boat $=12$
'our boat [mine and yours]'
62. kicîmâniwâw
$2=$ boat $=2$ p
'your [pl] boat'

The third person possessor may be singular, plural or obviative. The singular forms were provided earlier in this section. An example of a third person plural form is given in \#63. The obviative is discussed in section 3.2.4.
63. ocîmâniwâw
$3=$ boat $=3$ p
'their boat'

### 3.2.3 Number

The singular form of a noun is unmarked for number. The plural form is signalled by a suffix. The suffix -ak forms the plural of animate nouns and the suffix -a forms the plural of inanimate nouns.

| 64. nâpîw+ak (NA) 'men' |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cîmân+a | (NI) 'boats' |

Proper nouns also have a plural form; however such forms are infrequent. An example is:
65. Johnak

John=3p
'the [two] Johns'

Mass nouns such as miskwamiy 'ice' are not normally inflected for number. When so inflected, the noun miskwamiy 'ice' denotes 'blocks of ice'.
66. î-o odatahwakwâw

IPV=shape-instr $\backslash T A=1-3 p C$
'I shape iceblocks.'
miskwamiyak.
ice $=3 p$
3.2.4 Obviation

Obviation is "a distinction made between two third persons within a given context" (Todd 1970:19). The contexts for Woods Cree are provided in section 4.6. In a given context, the central third person is referred to in the literature as "proximate" and other third persons are called "obviative".

Most pronouns and verbs distinguish between the proximate and the obviative. The pronominal paradigms are provided in section 3.3 and examples of verbs are provided in Appendix A.

A proximate noun is not marked morphologically. An obviative inanimate noun is morphologically identical to the corresponding proximate noun. Verb inflection and other features on the noun phrase distinguish between the two third persons.

Obviation is signalled grammatically on animate nouns by the suffix -a, as in \#67. The gloss for nâpîwa 'man/men' is ambiguous because obviative nouns are unmarked for number. When a noun is obviative, its number must be distinguished from the context.
67. nâpîwa
$\operatorname{man}=3^{\prime}$
'man/men'

Another obviative suffix occurs on possessed nouns. The obviative suffix -idiwa signals the possessor of a possessed animate noun is itself obviative. Because obviative nouns are unmarked for number, the number of the
obviative possessor is again ambiguous, as illustrated in \#68.
68. onâpîm+íiwa
$3=\operatorname{man}=i m=3$,
'her/their husband/s'7

Inanimate nouns can also be possessed by an animate obviative possessor. A possessed inanimate noun is inflected with a similar obviative suffix, -idiw. The inanimate inflection differs from the animate form in that it allows the possessed noun to be coded for number, as illustrated in \#69.
69. ocimântíiw
$3=$ boat $=0$ "
'his/their boat'
ocîmân+ísiwa
$3=$ boat $=0^{\prime} p$
'his/their boats'

7 The morphophonemic process used to derive the obviative form is described in 2.6d. The suffix -im is obligatory when this noun is possessed.

### 3.2.5 Case

The only other inflectional morphemes that occur on a noun code case. There are two morphological cases in Woods cree: a vocative and a locative.

### 3.2.5.1 Vocative

The vocative has only marginal use. This case occurs on nouns that denote kin. The vocative has a singular and a plural form. The singular form is lexically specific. Most singular vocative nouns are formed by dropping the final consonant and lengthening the final vowel of the first person possessed form, if short. 8
The following examples illustrate singular vocative
nouns. The first person singular form of the noun is
provided for illustration purposes.
70. nikosis
$1=$ son
'my son'
nikosi
$1=$ son=voc
'son"

8 A few vocatives keep the final consonant and add -ín, e.g., nimisi 'my older sister (voc)'. For a complete listing of vocative kin terms see wolfart 1973.
71. niciwâm

1=brother (male-speaking)
'my brother (parallel male cousin)'
niciwâ
$1=\mathrm{br}=\mathrm{voc}$ (male speaking)
'brother (parallel male cousin)'

The vocative plural morpheme tik is also added to the first person singular form of the noun, as in \#73.9 The first person singular form is provided for illustration purposes in \#72.
72. nicânis

1=daughter
'my daughter'
73. nicânisitik

1=daughter=vocpl
'my daughters'

A noun may be syntactically but not morphologically vocative. In many cases, the vocative singular and plural are being replaced by regular first person forms. The vocative forms are no longer used by many of the younger speakers. Among older speakers the two forms appear to be

9 Younger speakers often replace the vocative plural morpheme by the plural suffix -ak.
interchangeable. The following examples were extracted from the same text. In both examples, the noun nimosôm 'my grandfather' is syntactically vocative. In the first example, the kin term is morphologically vocative, in the second example it is not.
74. nimosô,
i-takosinân.
$1=g r / f a=v o c \quad I P V=a r r i v e \backslash A I=1 C$
'Grandfather, I'm home.'
75. nimosôm, kikwân ôma kâ-ôh-mâtowin?
$1=g r / f a \quad$ what $=0$ prt $I P V=$ for $=C r y \backslash A I=2 C$
'Grandfather, why are you crying?'

### 3.2.5.2 Locative

The locative suffix -ih(k) changes a noun to an adverb of place. Examples \#76-78 contain nouns inflected as locative.
76. kahki
all man=3p tent=loc past=be $\backslash A I=3 p I$
'All the men were in the tent.'
77. î-pôsihtâsonâniwahk otâpânâskohk.
$I P V=1$ oad $\backslash I I=0 C \quad$ toboggan=loc
'One loads (things) in a toboggan.'
78. kâ-wîwîkinakint akohpisih.
$I P V=w r a p \backslash T A=1 p-3 C$ blanket=dim=loc
'We wrapped him in the little blanket.'

There are two restrictions on the locative morpheme. Although the locative morpheme may be added to nouns possessed by singular possessors, it is not added to nouns possessed by plural possessors. Contrast the following two examples. In \#79, the third person possessor is plural, in \#80 the third person possessor is singular. Although both examples contain a locative argument, only the singular form contains the locative morpheme.

## 79. akwa kâ-akotâcik okotawâniwâw.

and $I P V=h a n g \backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} C$ 3p=smoke-stand
'And they hung it up in their smokestand.'
80. wihkwâkanih nikî-astâwân.
$3=$ face=loc $\quad 1$ =past=put=rel $\backslash T I 2=1-0 I$
'I put it on her face.'

The locative morpheme -ih(k), the plural inflections -ak and -a, and the obviative morpheme occupy the same inflectional position on the noun. A noun that is overtly marked as locative is not marked as obviative or plural, as in \#81-\#82.
81. oskísikoh î-pâh-pîhci-sîkinamân.
$3=$ eye=loc $I P V=r e d u p=i n s i d e=p o u r \backslash T I=1-0 C$
'I poured (drops) inside his eye(s).'


Although plural and obviation are not overtly marked on locative nouns, these grammatical categories are signalled on other parts of the noun phrase for which the locative noun is the head. See section 4.2.3 for details.

### 3.3 PRONOUNS

A pronoun is a constituent which either modifies or replaces a noun. At a morphological level, pronouns are a closed finite set of forms for which paradigmatic contrasts exist for at least one of the following: gender, person, number or obviation. The main types of pronouns in woods Cree are deictic, personal, whoever/whatever, emphatic, indefinite and interrogative. Although the status of the locative adverbial proforms is problematic, the proforms are also included in this section. Each set of pronouns is described separately.

The deictic paradigms in Table 3.1 consist of two sets, one for each gender. Each set consists of three paradigms distinguished on the basis of distance. Each of these paradigms has three forms: a singular, a plural and an obviative.

TABLE 3.1
Deictic Pronouns
this
that
yonder

## ANIMATE

| 3 | awa | ana | nâha |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 p$ ôko | aniki | nîki |  |
| $3^{\circ}$ oho | anini | nîhi |  |

## INANIMATE

| 0 ôma | anima | nima |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0p ôho | anini | nîhi |
| $0^{\prime}$ ômî $\delta i w$ | animî $\delta i w$ | nimí |

The personal pronouns in Table 3.2 resemble the inflections on $a$ possessed noun. See Appendix $B$ for possessive paradigms. Personal pronouns lack distinct proximate/obviative forms. They are divided into two types: the unmarked [set one] and the emphatic [set two].

TABLE 3.2

## Personal Pronouns

Set I
nifa kî́a wîfa ní $\delta$ anân kî́ anânaw kî $\delta a w a ̂ w$ wî $\delta a w a ̂ w$

Set II
nîsta
kista
wîsta
nîstanân
kistanânaw
kistawâw
wîstawâw

The first person singular pronouns nifa and nista illustrate the unmarked and the emphatic personal pronouns.
83. mwâc îkosi nakî-itwân
neg thus 1 fut=past=say $\backslash A I=1 I$
nî $\delta$ a.
I
'I could not say that (myself).'

```
84. îyakwâdiw pô kîkwân nista î-iskopa\deltaiyân.
    that-one=0' only thing=0 I(-too) IPV=left-over\AI+0=1C
    'That is the only thing I have left over.'
```

The ayahâw 'whoever' and ayinîw 'whatever' paradigms in Table 3.3 end in forms that resemble the corresponding nominal inflections with the exception of the inanimate obviative ayinîdiw 'whatever'. The obviative ending on this

```
morpheme resembles the corresponding form in the deictic
paradigms presented in Table 3.1.
```

ayiniw 'whatever' is the only pronoun that is inflected for case. ayihiw 'whatever' has a locative form ayihink 'wherever', a form otherwise exclusive to nouns. An example is:

```
85. ayihîhk wâskâhikanih
        whatever=loc house=loc
        'wherever in the house'
wâskâhikanin house=10c
'wherever in the house'
```

            TABLE 3.3
                ayahâw and ayihîw Paradigms
    whoever

3
ayahâw ayahâwak ayahâwa

TABLE 3.3
ayahâw and ayihîw Paradigms

| whoever |  | whatever |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | ayahâw | 0 | ayihiw |
| 3p | ayahâwak | Op | ayihîwa |
| 3' | ayahâwa | $0^{\prime \prime}$ | ayihîiw |
|  | loc | ayin |  |

The two emphatic pronoun sets kotak 'other' and iyako 'that one' in Table 3.4 have unique paradigms. The pronominal paradigm for kotak 'other' is morphologically identical to the corresponding nominal paradigm with the exception of the inanimate obviative form. Its inclusion as
a pronoun is justified at a syntactic level in section 4.2.3. The only unusual thing about the pronoun iyako 'that one' is its two animate obviative forms. The form fyakwîiw 'that one' is most notable in the speech of the younger members of the community.

TABLE 3.4
kotak and îyako Paradigms

## ANIMATE

## kotak

kotak
kotakak kotaka
iyako
fyako(ni)
îyakonik
îyakoni/îyakwídiw

## INANTMATE

| 0 | kotak | iyako |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0p | kotaka | iyakoni |
| $0^{\prime}$ | kotakî $\delta i w$ | iyakwî $\delta i w$ |

The indefinite pronouns awina 'someone' and kikwân/kîkway 'something' overlap morphologically with the corresponding interrogative pronouns awina 'who' and kikwân/kikway 'what'. Tables 3.5 and 3.6 list the interrogative and indefinite pronouns for 'who/someone' and 'what/something' in Woods Cree.

TABLE 3.5
awina 'who,someone' Paradigms


TABLE 3.6
kîkwân/kîkway 'what,something' Paradigms

| Type 1 | Type 2 | Type 3 | Type 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 kîkway(i) |  | kîkway | 3 kiko |
| 3p kîkway |  | kîkway | 3p kiko |
| 3' kîkwấdiw |  | kîkwâdiw | 3' kîko |
| 0 kîkway(i) | kîkwân | kikway | 0 kîko |
| Op kîkwaya | kîkwâna | kîkway | Op kîko |
| 0' kîkwấiw | kîkwâdiw | kîkwâdiw |  |

Type 1 forms in Table 3.5 and Table 3.6 form complete interrogative equational sentences. They can occur alone as complete sentences. These pronouns are predominant among older speakers. Type 3 in Table 3.5 is an interrogative particle. It is included here for comparative purposes only. It is the form used by younger speakers. This particle is the predicate in an equational sentence whose
argument is a noun phrase, as in \#86.
86. awina aniki?
who that $=3$ p
'Who are those?'

Type 4 in Table 3.6 is also an interrogative particle. kîko 'what' modifies a following noun, as in \#87.
87. kîko nâpîwak?
which man=3p
'Which men?'

Type 2 forms in Table 3.5 and Types 2 and 3 in Table 3.6 occur in interrogative structures with verbal predicates. The singular forms are exemplified below. When kîkwân 'what' functions as an interrogative pronoun, it often refers to a situation which lacks nominal reference, as in \#90.
88. awina ômî́iw kâ-kî-tôtah? who $=3$ this=0' IPV=past $=$ do $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'Who did this?'
89. kîkway kâ-wî-n(i)tawâpahtaman?
what $=0$ IPV=want $=$ go-to-see $\backslash T I=2-0 C$
'What are you going to see?'
90. "nikosis, kikwân?" nititâw.
$1=$ son $\quad$ what $=0 \quad 1=s a y \backslash T A=1-3 I$
'"My son, what (is wrong)?" I said to him.'

Type 2 forms in Table 3.5 and Type 2 and 3 forms in Table 3.6 also occur as indefinite pronouns. The pronoun kikway 'what, thing' has specific reference; kikwân is more general. Examples are:
91. anima kikway nitawi-otina.
that $=0 \quad$ thing $=0$ go-to $=$ take $\backslash T I=2-0 \mathrm{Imp}$
'Go take that thing.'
92. nakwî-kiskisin kikwân ta-âcimowân
lfut=try=remember $\backslash A I=11$ thing=0 $I P V=$ tell-story $\backslash A I=1 C$
'Let me try to think of something to tell a story about."

The interrogative and indefinite pronouns are distinguished syntactically. The interrogative pronoun in \#93 occurs in clause initial position. The indefinite pronoun does not normally occur in this position. 10 The indefinite/interrogative pronouns also differ in respect to the modifiers they allow. Details of the internal structure of these two types of noun phrases are provided in Chapter IV.

10 one exception is \#131.
93. awina $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-p \hat{i}-m a s i n a h a m a w i t ?$
who $=3$ IPV=past=to=write $\backslash T A=3-1 C$
'Who wrote to me?'
94. î-mâtâhak awina.
$I P V=$ track $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ someone $=3$
'I tracked someone.'

The interrogative pronouns for 'which' and 'where' are divided into two sets, one for each gender. These pronoun sets do not have distinct obviative inanimate forms. The tâna 'which' and the tâniwâ 'where' pronoun sets are listed in Tables 3.7 and 3.8, respectively.

The tana 'which' pronouns are a type of deictic pronoun. They modify a following noun.

> 95. tâna iskwîsis?
> which=3 girl
> 'Which girl?'

The tâna 'which' pronouns usually occur clause initially. When these pronouns occur elsewhere in the clause, they have an indefinite reading, as in \#96.
96. piko tânimâ pinkotîw ki-ati-âpatan.
only all-kind=0 ash past=incp=use $\backslash I I=0 I$
'And just any kind of ash was used.'

TABLE 3.7
tâna 'which" Paradigms

## ANIMATE

3 tâna
3p tâninkâ
3. tân(iw)ihi

INANIMATE

```
O tânimâ / tân(i)
Op tanîhi
```

TABLE 3.8

## tâniwâ 'where' Paradigms

## ANIMATE

3 tâniwâ
$3 p$ tân(iw) îhkâ
3. tân(iw) îhâ

INANIMATE
0 tâniwî
Op tân(iw)îhâ

The tâniwâ 'where' pronouns listed in Table 3.8 are also a type of deictic. This pronoun set forms interrogative equational sentences answered by locative noun phrase, as in \#97. The equational sentences are often qualified by an appositional noun, as in \#97A:
97. A: tâniwâ pôsîs? where $=3$ cat

B: nîtí, sintihk. there tree=loc

A: 'Where is it, the cat?'
B: 'There, in the tree.'

The deictic adverbials listed in \#98 are a set of forms that are differentiated on the basis of distance. Deictic adverbials are not prototypical pronouns. Although these proforms share with the deictic pronouns the category distance, they do not share any grammatical features with nouns. Proforms ending in -a refer to specific areas usually within potential sight, those ending in more distant locations.
98.

| tânta tântî | 'where' |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\underline{\text { ôta }}$ | $\underline{\hat{o} t \hat{i}}$ | 'here'11 |
| $\underline{\text { ita }}$ | $\underline{i t \hat{i}}$ | 'there' |
| $\underline{\text { anta }}$ | $\underline{a n t i}$ | 'over there' |
| $\underline{\hat{i} k o t a ~}$ | $\underline{\hat{i} k o t \hat{i}}$ | 'that place there' |

Examples containing the tânta/tântî 'where' pair are cited for illustration.

11 ôta 'here' is a deictic. Its focal point is the listener, not the speaker.

| 99. tânta â-kî-astât where $I P V=$ past $=$ put $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ | kimaskihkiya? <br> $2=$ medicine $=0 p$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 'Where did he put your medicin |  |
| 100. tântî â-kîotinât | nipâpâ? |
| where $I P V=$ past $=$ take $\backslash T A=3-3{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ | 1=dad |
| 'Where did my dad get them?' |  |

### 3.4 PARTICLES

The short text in example \#97 contains a particle, nitín 'over there'. Bloomfield (1946:94) defined a particle as any uninflected form. Because "particles are the words left over when all the others have been assigned to syntactic categories" (Zwicky 1985:292), particles are a diffuse group. Therefore, any attempt to classify particles will not be exceptionless.

A basic distinction is made in this dissertation between particles that are syntactically restricted and those that are not. The particle macimá 'of course' is an example of a general particle, one which is not syntactically restricted. The particle sipâ 'under' is an example of a syntactic particle. The latter particle modifies locative noun phrases. When the distinction between a general and syntactic particle is not necessary, the unmarked term
'particle' refers to both types.

General particles may be further divided into discourse and semantic particles. Discourse particles are particles that code discourse functions. 12 Discourse particles include the topic particle mâ 'what about/but', the contrastive particle ida and the public information particle isa. Also included in this list are the discourse connectors kwâni 'so,then' and akwa 'and (then)'. Discourse particles occur in initial position, are attached as clitics to the initial constituent in the clause, or occur in sentence final position. Discourse particles are frequent in the texts in Appendix $C$. Two discourse particles, kwâni 'so,then' and isa 'you know', occur in the following example.
101. kwâni isa kayâs pîyak kisîסiniw.
then hrs long-ago one old-man
'And you know, long ago there was an old man.'

Semantic particles occur directly before or directly after the constituent they modify. Most adverbs are semantic particles. The following two sentences taken from a text illustrate the semantic particle píyakwâw 'once'. In

[^1]\#102, pîyakwâw 'once' precedes the verb onci-kiskiyintaman 'I didn't know it' and in \#103, the semantic particle follows the verb.
102. kwâni mwâc pîyakwâw ohci-kiskiyintamân
then neg once negpast=know $\backslash T I=1-0 C$
ta-twâhikâtik anima.
$I P V=d r i l l-h o l e-i n-i c e \backslash I I=0 C \quad$ that $=0$
'And not once did I know of that hole being drilled.'
103. kwâni mwâc i-kî-ohci-kiskîyihtamán pîyakwâw
then neg $I P V=p a s t=n e g p a s t=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 C$ once
ta-twâhikâtik
IPV=drill-hole-in-ice\II=0C that=0
'And I did not know even once of that hole being drilled.'

The remainder of this section is concerned with syntactic particles. Syntactic particles usually occur as the left-most or right-most constituent of a phrase or clause. Syntactic particles include prepositions and interrogative and subordinate clause markers such as tânta 'where' and kisâspin 'if (only)'. Syntactic particles are limited to the syntactic structures they define but they are not always an obligatory part of those structures. The following example contains the particle kisaspin 'if (only)'. This particle is optional in this structure. It is
a syntactic particle because of its limited syntactic distribution.
104. kisâspin wâpamâci, if see $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{S}$
'If he were to see her, he would tell us.'

Three types of syntactic particles referred to in Chapter IV are prepositions, postpositions and quantifiers. A preposition occurs as the initial constituent in a phrase whose head is a locative noun or pronoun.
105. sikoc mistikowatih
between box=10c
'between the box(es)'

A postposition occurs as the final constituent in a phrase whose head is a locative noun or pronoun. The postpositions are isi 'to(wards)' and ohci 'from'.
106. tôhânin isi
ball=loc towards
'towards the ball'
107. ikota ohci
there from
'from there'

The only other type of syntactic particle that serves as a constituent in a noun phrase is a quantifier. ${ }^{13}$ The following examples illustrate the quantifiers atint 'some' and pîyak 'one'.

| 108. atint ômisi | i-isinâkwahki | asisoya. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| some like-this $I P V=r e l=a p p e a r ~$ |  |  |
| 'Some chisels look like this.' | chisel=op |  |

109. kwâni â-kî-wanihiht
then $I P V=$ past $=10 s e \backslash T A=X-3 C$
ana pîyak. that $=3$ one
'Then that one was lost.'

### 3.5 VERBS

### 3.5.1 Verbal orders

The three main verb paradigms, labelled orders, are the independent, the conjunct and the imperative.

There are two types of imperative verbs: the immediate and the delayed. They differ with respect to the urgency of the action. An immediate imperative verb requests an immediate action. A delayed imperative verb requests an

13 A quantifier may be preceded by another constituent in the same phrase. See section 4.2.1 for details.
action that need not be immediate and has a polite reading. The following examples illustrate immediate and delayed imperative verbs.
110. kiwn.
go-home $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=2 \operatorname{Imp}$
'Go home.'
111. kîwîhkan.
go-home $\backslash$ AI $=2$ Del Imp
'Go home (later).'

Imperative inflections are limited to verb stems that are subcategorized as taking an animate subject. The subject of an imperative verb is a second person singular or plural, or a first person inclusive. All imperative inflections are suffixes. Exemplary paradigms illustrating the inflections are listed in Appendix A.

Independent and conjunct verbs occur in non-imperative clauses. 14 Independent verbs are restricted to main clauses; conjunct verbs occur in both main and subordinate clauses. Independent and conjunct inflections are added to any verb stem.

14 An exception is the jussive structure in which the verb takes an independent inflection, e.g., ta-nikamow'let him sing'.

When a verb is inflected as an independent, person is partly coded by a set of prefixes. These prefixes are identical to those found on the corresponding possessed nouns. ni- signals a first person and ki- signals a second person.
112. ni+pimohtâ+n
$1=$ walk $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 I$
'I walk'
113. ki+pimohtâ+n
$2=w a l k \backslash A I=2 I$
'you walk'

A third person prefix o- is used only in the preterit, a sub-type of independent verb found in some irrealis clauses. 15 The following example contains the third person prefix.
114. môda itokí mihcit o-ta-kíihtâhtayak
neg perhaps many $3=f u t=$ past=exist $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3$ ppret $I$
atimwak.
$\operatorname{dog}=3 p$
'Perhaps there wouldn't be many dogs.'
15 There are no corresponding conjunct preterit forms in Woods Cree. The independent preterit forms are not listed in Appendix A. The bilingual speakers who acted as informants for this dissertation were unable to provide complete preterit paradigms. The preterit has only marginal use. The examples in the dissertation containing preterits were all taken from older speakers.

The regular third person independent verb form is signalled by the suffix $-\mathrm{w} .{ }^{16}$

## 115. pimohtî+w

walk $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he walks'

There are also two first person plural inflections, an exclusive and an inclusive, and one second person plural independent form all of which commence with a personal prefix. Number is marked in the suffix.
116. ni + pimohtâ+nân
$1=w a 1 k \backslash A I=1 p I$
'we (1p) walk'
117. ki+pimohtâ+nânaw
$2=$ walk $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12 \mathrm{I}$
'we (12) walk'
118. ki+pimohtâ+nâwâw
$2=w a l k \backslash A I=2 p I$
'you (2p) walk'

16 The form of the verb varies according to stem type. See paradigms in Appendix A for examples.

The third person plural independent and obviative forms are illustrated below.
119. pimohtî+wak
walk $\backslash A I=3 p I$
'they walk'
120. pimohtit
walk $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3^{\prime} \mathrm{I}$
'he/they walk(s)'

Conjunct inflections signal person and number by suffixes. Because the person and number categories of the conjunct are identical to the independent, they are not repeated here. Examples of verbs inflected as conjunct are listed in Appendix A.

There are several basic types of conjunct verbs. One type of conjunct verb begins with a special preverb. 17 Examples \#121 and \#122 contain the special preverbs, $\hat{\mathbf{1}}$ - and (k) â-.
121. misiwî ôtî oskísikosih î-astîik. all-over here $3=e y e=d i m=l o c I P V=p u t \backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$ 'It was put all over his little eye.'

17 In other dialects, this type of conjunct verb is called the changed conjunct. See Chapter IX for details.
122. kwâni itokî kâ-otintinah, ̂̂-pâskiswât
then perhaps $I P V=r e a c h \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C \quad I P V=s h o o t \backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
ôho kwâni îkota ohci sîmâk
this=3' then there from immed
â-ki-ohci-pî-kîwîpadit.
IPV=past=negpast=to=go-home-move $\backslash A I=3 C$
'Then perhaps he grabbed it, shooting him, and then from there he came back home.'

Other conjunct verbs may be simple or subjunctive. The subjunctive differs from the simple conjunct verb by the addition of a final suffix $-\underline{i}$ and in some cases by a distinct inflection. In the following example, the first person inclusive subjunctive inflection -yahki occurs on the verb in the antecedent and the corresponding simple conjunct inflection -yahk occurs on the verb in the consequent. The conjunct and the subjunctive paradigms are listed in Appendix A.
123. Îkâ opônapiwinih kî-itohtîyahki, kwâni pô neg SIL=loc able=go $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12 \mathrm{~S}$ then only

Thompson
Thompson
$\mathrm{IPV}=\mathrm{be} \backslash \mathrm{AI}=12 \mathrm{C}$
'If we can't go to South Indian Lake, will we have to stay in Thompson.'

The simple conjunct may be further divided into verbs which begin with a preverb such as ta- 'future', and verbs which lack a preverb. This distinction is described in Chapter IX.

### 3.5.2 Stem Types And Syntactic Relationships

The independent and conjunct inflections discussed above are added to four types of verbs. Verbs are classified according to the transitivity of the verb and the animacy of its basic nominal arguments, subject and object.

TABLE 3.9
Verb Type

AI Animate Intransitive
II Inanimate Intransitive
TA Transitive Animate
TI Transitive Inanimate

At a morphological level, there are two sets of intransitive verb stems; one for animate subjects (AI), as in \#124 and one for inanimate subjects (II), as in \#125. Impersonal verbs, e.g., kîsikâw 'it is day', are also inflected as II. The AI and II verb stems end in a vowel or -n. The stem types are exemplified in Appendix A.
124. kostâciw atim.
afraid-of $\backslash A I=3 I \operatorname{dog}$
'The dog is afraid of (the dark).'
125. kâsâw môhkomân.
sharp $\backslash I I=0 I$ knife
'The knife is sharp.'

There are also two sets of transitive verb stems. A TA verb requires an animate object and a $T I$ verb takes an inanimate object. The following two examples illustrate the two main types of transitive verbs.

| 126. kwâni | ôko nâpíwak |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| then | this=3p | man=3p |

kâ-ki-nakatâcik
owîkimâkaniwâwa.
$I P V=$ past $=1$ eave-behind $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C} \quad 3 p=$ spouse $=3^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$
'Then these men left behind their wives.'
127. Clarence kâ-ta-tahkopitah omakalakisa.

Clarence $I P V=r e d u p=t i e \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C} \quad 3=m u k l u k=d i m=0 p$
'Clarence was tying up his little mukluks.'

A TA verb is also inflected for the number of its object; the corresponding $T I$ verb is not.
128. nî $\delta$ âsay $\hat{\mathbf{i}-k \hat{i}-p \hat{1}-w a ̂ p a m a k w a ̂ w ~ a t i m w a k . ~}$

I already $I P V=$ past $=$ to $=$ see $\backslash T A=1-3 p C$ dog $=3 p$
'I have seen dogs before.'
129. mwâ na k-ôh-ocisâpahtîn waskwayi-cîmâna?
neg $Q \quad 2=$ negpast=witness $\backslash T I=2-0 I$ birchbark=canoe=0p 'Did you get a chance to see birchbark canoes?'

The subject of a TA verb may be animate, indefinite or inanimate. The terms are those used in traditional Algonquian literature (Wolfart 1973:61-62). Example \#128 is an example of a TA verb with an animate subject. The following examples illustrate $T A$ verbs with an indefinite and inanimate subject, respectively. A clause with an indefinite subject is a type of agentless passive. Although the inanimate subject in \#131 is morphologically inanimate, the subject refers to a semantically animate entity from the cree spiritual world.
130. kwâni nída kâ-kî-mî $\delta i k a w i y a ̂ n . ~$
then I IPV=past=give $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$
'Then he was given to me.'
131. kîkwân nikí Somâhcihikon.
thing $1=$ bother $\backslash T A=0-1 I$
'Something is bothering me.'

TA verbs have theme signs labelled direct and inverse. The theme sign indicates the direction of an action. The direct theme sign - $\underline{\underline{a}}$ signals a first or second person is acting on a third person or a third person is acting on an
obviative. The inverse theme sign -ikw signals a third person is acting on a first or second person, an obviative is acting on a third person or an inanimate is acting on an animate. Contrast the following two examples. In the first example the verb, kâ-otihtinâcik 'they reach him (obv)', has a direct theme sign and in the second example the verb, kâ-otihtinikot 'they (obv) reach him', has an inverse theme sign. The complete paradigms are listed in Appendix A.

| 132. akwa kâ-otihtinâcik | ôho, clarence akwa |
| :--- | :--- |
| and IPV=reach $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ | this=3, C. and |
| kisis Eli. |  |
| $2=\mathrm{mo} / \mathrm{br}$ Eli |  |

'And Clarence and your uncle Eli grabbed this one.'
133. kwâni itokî kâ-otihtinikot ôho mahîkana. and perhaps $I P V=$ reach $\backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$ this $=3^{\prime}$ wolf=3'
'And these wolves attacked him.'

The term local refers to direct and inverse forms that signal first and second persons acting on each other. When a second person acts on a first person, the action is direct, as in \#134, and when a first person acts on a second person, the action is inverse, as in \#135. Local forms have distinct theme signs. The complete paradigms are provided in Appendix A.
134. kwâni âsay kiwanâmin.
then already $2=$ interrupt $\backslash T A=2-11$
'You've already interrupted me.'
135. mwâ ka-wanâmitin.
neg 2 fut=interrupt $\backslash T A=1-2 I$
'I won't interrupt you.'

The direct and inverse theme signs form an animacy hierarchy that may be schematically represented as follows:

$$
2>1>3>3^{\prime}>0
$$

There are also a few syntactic anomalies with respect to the morphological classification. A sub-type of animate intransitive verb, labelled by Goddard (1979:37) as AIto, is morphologically intransitive but can take an object. The object of an AI+O verb can be animate or inanimate. Examples are given in \#136 and \#137.
136. $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-k i m o t i y a ̂ n$

IPV=past=steal $\backslash A I+0=1 C$
'I stole the baby.'
137. kîkway â-kî-kimotiyân
thing $=0 \quad I P V=$ past $=$ steal $\backslash A I+O=1 C$
pîkopasin. break $\backslash \mathrm{II}=0 \mathrm{I}$
'The thing I stole is broken.'

There are also two special types of $T I$ verbs. One type of TI verb need not be followed by a noun phrase, e.g., itiyihtam 'he thinks it'; yet it is treated morphologically as if it has an object. The other type of transitive inanimate verb, labelled TIL, is morphologically intransitive; yet syntactically transitive. TI2 verbs require an inanimate noun phrase as their object. 18 The following two sentences exemplify these two special types of TI verbs.
138. tâpwî mâmaskâc, itîyihtam.
really amazing think $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$
'He thinks it is really amazing.'
139. akwa kâ-ki-osihtâcik
ayinifiw mistikwa.
and IPV=past=make $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} C$ whatev $=0^{\prime}$ stick=0p
'And then they made sticks.'

A TA verb may be sub-categorized to require two objects; one of which must be animate. At a syntactic level, the animate indirect object is the morphological object for which the verb is inflected. These double goal verbs are labelled by Goddard as TA+O (1979:37). The two verbs in example \#140 are TA+O.

[^2]140. ̂̂-âcimostâkawiyân ahpo î-mí $\delta$ ikawiyân

IPV=tell-story $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$ or $\quad I P V=$ give $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$ nimasinahikan.

1=document
'I am told or I am given my statement.'

Chapter IV
THE NOUN PHRASE

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Noun phrases are relatively infrequent in texts. Because the basic arguments are coded on the verb, noun phrases which refer to the subject or the object often have a discourse role. In texts, noun phrases introduce referents into the discourse. An example is:

| 141. kwâni | kâ-nakanâtâcik | nisikosa. | mwâ mâ itokî |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| and | IPV=bring $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ | $1=$ aunt $=3$ c | neg but perhaps |
| wîhkâc | ohci-otinawâsow | ana | nôcokisiw. |
| ever | negpast=take-child | =3I that=3 | old-woman |

'And they went to get my aunt. But perhaps that old woman had never delivered (a baby).'

Noun phrases also have an appositional role. They provide additional information about the participants coded on the verb.
142. mâta na-âcimâw
Martha lfut=tell-story $\backslash T A=1-3 I \quad$ nimis?
'Will I telll her a story about Martha, my older
sister?'

The only obligatory constituent in a noun phrase is the head. The head of a noun phrase is the constituent around which the other components cluster and it is usually a noun. In the following example, the pronoun ana 'that' and the quantifier pîyak 'one' modify the head noun kisífiniw 'old man'.
143. ana piyak kisíiniw
that $=3$ one old-man
'that one old man'

Modifiers generally precede their heads. Free constituent order is possible only when the participants in the clause are clearly identified. When this situation occurs, a modifier is interpreted as modifying the adjacent noun. An example is discussed below. In \#144, the TA verb
kiskis 'cut him' is inflected as an imperative. Since the subject of the imperative verb is a second person which is not realized on the surface, the pronoun ana 'that' modifies the object, manakway 'sleeve', even though the deictic pronoun follows its head.

```
144. [manakway ana] kiskis, nimisî.
    sleeve that=3 cut\TA=2-3Imp 1=0ld-si=voc
    'Cut off that sleeve, my older sister'.
```

In clauses in which there is more than one noun, the possibility for confusion exists and the order of the constituents in the noun phrase tends to be more rigid.

### 4.2 SIMPLE NOUN PHRASES

4.2.1 Constituent Structure

A noun phrase consists of a head which may be modified by up to three different types of pronouns and a quantifier in the order presented below. The third person animate forms of the pronouns represent their pronominal sets.
145.

NP ---> (ana) (kotak) (ayahâw) (Quantifier) Head

Since a simple noun phrase has only one head, two nouns do not occur in a simple noun phrase. Two pronouns may occur as long as the pronouns come from distinct paradigm sets. In \#146, the pronoun head kîkwâna 'things' is preceded by two modifiers one of which is also a pronoun. 1
146. akwa ka-sikinin $\quad$ [ôho kahkidaw kikwâna].
and 2fut=pour $\backslash T I=2-0 I$ this=0p all thing=op
'And then you pour in all these things.'

When more than one pronoun occurs in a simple noun phrase, the pronouns are ordered. The deictic pronoun precedes the alternative pronoun kotak 'other' and the ayahâw 'whoever' pronoun.
147. ana kotak ayahâw
that $=3$ other whoever=3
'that other person'

Quantifiers are divided into quantifiers such as âtint 'some' and nîso 'two' and measurements such as mîwat 'bag' and mistikowat 'box'. A noun phrase may contain one quantifier and one measurement in that order. This is illustrated in \#148.

1 The quantifier kahkidaw 'all' is syntactically irregular. Dahlstrom 1986 and Rhodes 1979 provide details on the equivalent particle in Plains Cree and ottawa.
148. pîhtamawîhkan
[niso mistikowat kinosíwak]
bring $\backslash T A+O=2-1 D e l$ Imp two box fish=3p
'Bring me two boxes of fish (later).'

Although a measurement requires a preceding quantifier, a quantifier does not require a measurement.
149. âskaw [nisto] ki-osihiw.
sometimes three past=make $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$
'Sometimes she made three.'

### 4.2.2 Locative Noun Phrases

A locative noun phrase has the constituent structure of a simple noun phrase. The following locative noun phrase consists of a pronoun, a quantifier and a head noun coded for case.

> 150. anihi $\quad$ niso mistikowatin
> that=0p two box=loc
> 'in/on those two boxes'

Apart from the locative suffix -in(k), there are two types of syntactic particles that occur in a locative noun phrase. These are prepositions and postpositions. Examples
containing the preposition sipâ 'under' and the postposition ohci 'from' are listed in \#151-152.
151. íitwâhtihpisih [sîpâ nipîwinih].

IPV=knock-head $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ under bed=loc
'He knocked his head under the bed.'
152. mốa [iskôlih ohci] anihi kiskinôhamákîwina,
neg school=loc from that=0p teaching=0p
nîsta kâ-isi-pimipasihtâyân.
1-too IPV=rel=along-move-obj\TI2=1-0C
'These teachings are not from school, the way I run things.'

Prepositions are often optional when the head noun occurs with a locative suffix. However, when the head noun is semantically animate, the preposition is obligatory because it is the sole indicator of the locative status of the noun phrase. An example is:
153. kisiwâk ana nâpîw near that $=3$ man
'near the man'

### 4.2.3 Pronouns

A pronoun may replace a noun or function as a modifier. A pronoun can only modify a noun with which it agrees in gender and number. Because the deictic pronoun in \#154 fails to agree with the noun akohpa 'blankets' in number, anima 'that' does not modify the noun akohpa in \#154. This pronoun is either the head of another noun phrase or a modifier of a noun which has deleted under identity.

```
154. niki-otisâpahtîn anima
    \(1=\) past=witness \(\backslash T I=1-0 I \quad\) that \(=0\)
    kâ-kî-ati-wasawi-akotâcik akohpa.
    \(I P V=\) past \(=\) incp \(=\) far=hang \(\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}\) blanket \(=0 \mathrm{p}\)
    'I got a chance to see this - they hung blankets
    outside.'
```

Assuming that the head has not deleted under identity, and that the noun phrase has unmarked constituent order, the following generalization may be made. When a pronoun is the right-most constituent in a noun phrase it is the head. When a pronoun is not the right-most constituent, it is a modifier. In example \#155, kotakak 'others' is a modifier and the pronoun awiniki 'people' is the head. In example \#156, ayihifiw 'whatever' is a modifier and the noun iskotiw 'fire' is the head.

> 155. akwa kotakak isa awiniki and other=3p hrs someone=3p $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-w \hat{i} c a y a m a k i h c i k$.
> $I P V=$ past=with=be $T A=12-3 p C$
'And you know we stayed with the other people.'
156. kwâni ayihî $\delta i w$ iskotîw kâ-pîhci-pahkihtin(i) $\delta i k$
then whatev=0' fire $I P V=i n s i d e=f a l l \backslash I I=0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ oskisikoh.
$3=$ eye $=10 c$
'Then a spark flew inside his eye.'

A few pronouns only appear as heads, e.g., they cannot be followed by a noun belonging to the same noun phrase. The indefinite pronouns, awina 'someone' and kikwân 'something' are examples. Although these pronouns may be preceded by other pronouns and quantifiers as in \#157, they are never followed by a noun belonging to the same noun phrase.

> 157. anihi
> that=op two thing=op
> 'those two things'

Other pronouns replace noun phrases. Ayako 'that one' and the interrogative pronouns awina 'who' and kîkway/kîkwân 'what' are the only possible constituents in
the noun phrases in the following examples. They are therefore the heads of the noun phrases in which they occur.
158. pimâtisiyâhki, kîhtwâm îyako ta-âpacintâyâhk
live $\backslash A I=1 p s$ again that-one $I P V=u s e \backslash T I 2=1 p-0 C$
'If we live, we will use that one again.'
159. awina âsay $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-p \hat{\imath}-a ̂ c i m o t ? ~$
who already IPV=past=to=tell-story $\backslash A I=3 C$
'Who told stories already?'
160. kîkwân mâyída ta-asimotamah?
what but $I P V=t a l k \backslash T I=12-0 C$
'But what shall we talk about?'

The head of a noun phrase can always be substituted by a noun. It can also be substituted by a pronoun functioning as a head. A possessive noun phrase is used to illustrate this point. A possessive noun phrase is a complex noun phrase consisting of two separate noun phrases labelled possessor and possessed respectively. The two component parts of any complex noun phrase have their own head constituents. Details are provided in section 4.4.2. A head constituent in a complex noun phrase cannot delete under identity leaving its modifier behind. 2 When there is only

[^3]one constituent in a possessor noun phrase, it must be the head.

By the above, the pronoun sets represented by ayahâw 'whoever', awina 'who', kotak 'other' and îyako 'that one' and the two sets of personal pronouns may occur as the head in a possessor noun phrase.
161. ayahâw owâskâhikan
whoever 3 =house
'whoever's house'
162. awina owâskâhikan
who $3=$ house
'whose house'
163. kotak owâskâhikan
other $3=$ house
'the other's house'
164. îyako owâskâhikan
that-one $3=$ house
'that one's house'
165. nî (a nicîmân

I $1=$ boat
'my boat'
166. nîsta nicîmân

I $1=$ boat
'my boat too'

A head is the only constituent inflected for case. When ayinîw 'whatever' is a head of a locative noun phrase, it forms a separate locative noun phrase which is in apposition to any other locative noun phrase in the sentence.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 167. kwâni atimwak } & \text { kâ-mâsihitocik } \quad \text { ayihink } \\
\text { then } d o g=3 p \quad I P V=f i g h t=r e c i p ~ \\
\text { doI }=3 p \mathrm{p} \text { whatev }=10 c
\end{array}
$$

[awasipa mîkiwâhpih].
behind tent=10c
'And the dogs were fighting each other behind the tent.'

When ayiniw 'whatever' is a modifier of a locative noun, it is not inflected for locative case.
168. kwâni ati-paskopitîw akwa [ayihîw mîwatin]
then incp=pluck $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ and whatev=0 bag=loc
ati-asiwatáw $\quad$ opîwâma.
incp=put-in $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I \quad 3=$ feather=0p
'Then she plucks (the duck) and puts the feathers
in a bag."

Other criteria are used to determine the status of pronouns such as kotak 'other' in \#169. This example contains a deictic pronoun. The deictic pronoun is
separated from kotak 'other' by a slight pause. In examples such as this, kotak 'other' may be followed by a noun belonging to the same noun phrase.
169. anima kotak nâtamôhkan.
that=0 other=0 fetch $\backslash T I=2$-oDelImp
'Go get that other one."

In \#170, the deictic pronoun that precedes kotak 'other' does not have independent stress. awa 'this' is a proclitic attached to kotak 'other'. A noun may not belong to this noun phrase. In example \#170, kotak 'other' is the head.
170. akwa wîfa awa-kotak, îyakwani nimâmá omâmâwa
then 3 this=other that-one $=3 \quad 1=m o m \quad 3=m o m=3$ '
Caroline, nikwîmîs.
Caroline $\quad$ I=namesake
'And her, the other one, that one is my mom's mom
Caroline, my namesake.'

Proclitics may also attach to deictic pronouns. When a deictic pronoun is preceded by a clitic, the pronoun functions as the head of the noun phrase, as in \#171.

```
171. mîlcîn ôta-awa ayât mâna, "tânika
    Mary-Jane here=this=3 be\AI=3C used-to if-only
    kî-mi\deltawayâyâh" it.
    past=well-be\AI=1pc said
    'Mary Jane - this one here - used to say, "If only we
    were well."
```

In other cases, it is only from the context that deictic pronouns are classified as the heads of the noun phrases in which they occur. This example is taken from the narrative in Appendix $c$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 172. } \frac{\text { kwâni } \quad \text {-nipahicik } \quad \text { ôko. }}{\text { then } \quad \text { IPV=kill } \backslash T A=3 p-1 C \text { this=3p }} \\
& \text { 'They are killing me.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

Three pronoun sets remain to be addressed: the interrogative pronoun tâniwâ 'where', the interrogative/ indefinite pronoun tana 'which/all kinds' and the deictic adverbials.

The tâniwâ 'where' pronouns occur as complete noun phrases, as in \#173. They are the heads of the noun phrases in which they occur.
173. tâniwâ mâyía ana iskwîw anohc?
where $=3$ but that $=3$ woman now
'But where is that woman now?'

The tâna 'which/all kinds' set of pronouns may occur alone, as in \#174 or modify a noun, as in \#175. When tâna 'which/all kinds' occurs alone, either the pronoun is the head or the pronoun is a modifier of a noun phrase in which the head has deleted. Since the tana 'which' pronoun does not occur as a possessor noun phrase; and does not, in other structures, take a locative case or have an attached clitic, there is no structural evidence in support of a tâna 'which' pronoun as a head in \#174, or in similar structures.
174. tâniwîhi mâka wísa omosôma kikosis, nimosô? which=3' but emp $3=g r / f a=3^{\prime} \quad 2=$ son $\quad 1=g r / f a=v o c$
'But which one is the grandfather of your son, grandpa?
175. wida piko tâniwîhi maskihkiya cause only all-kinds=0p herbs $=0 p$
i-kî-micicik pisiskiwak isa
$I P V=$ past=eat $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ animal=3p hrs
kâ-kî-môwihcik.
$I P V=p a s t=e a t \backslash T A=X-3 p C$
'Because the animals that are eaten eat all kinds of herbs.'

A deictic adverbial proform may be a modifier or a head. As a modifier, it may precede a locative noun. An example is:
176. [tânta wâskâhikanih] â-kî-astâyin?
where house=loc IPV=past=put $\backslash T I 2=2-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'Where in the house did you put it?'

In other instances, a deictic adverbial functions as a head. In \#177, the locative adverbial ôtî 'here' is the only constituent in the locative phrase.
177. ka, wîsta [ôtî], ciyi?
excl 3-too here right
'Oh, he is going this way too, right?'

Deictic adverbials, with the exception of the interrogative proforms tântî/tânta 'where', can be preceded by a preposition or followed by a postposition. When a deictic adverbial is preceded by a preposition or followed by a postposition, the interrogative proform serves as the head of the locative phrase.
178. ayihink [awasipa antî] apîhkâ.
wherever behind there sit $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12 \mathrm{DelImp}$
'Let's go sit somewhere behind (the house) there.'
179.
namîstîkwa
mîna $\hat{1}-\mathrm{ki}$-pâniswâcik
[îkota
smoked-fish=0p also IPV=able=smoke $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ there ohci].
from
'They also smoke fish fillets from there.'
180. mitoni mînsa ̂̂-nihtâwikinifiki [ôta isi]
so-much berry=0p IPV=grow $\backslash I I=0 p^{\prime} C$ here to
misiwî ospiskwânih.
all-over 3=back=loc
'There were even berries growing right here, all over his back.'

### 4.2.4 Quantifiers

When a noun phrase ends in a quantifier, either the quantifier is the head of the noun phrase or the head has deleted under identity. Because the argument for the head deleting under identity is based on agreement, I will briefly review it here. A verb agrees with each noun for which it is subcategorized. 3 In example \#181, the noun atimwa 'dog (3')' is the object of a TA verb for which the subject is a third person. The verb agrees with the noun atimwa 'dog' in obviation. There is no overt agreement

3 Pronouns also show agreement. See sections 3.3 and 4.2.3 for relevant details.
between the verb and the quantifier nisto 'three'.
181. akwa [nisto atimwa] kî-ayâwîw.
and three $\operatorname{dog}=3^{\prime}$ past=have $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$
'And he had three dogs.'

When the head noun deletes under identity, the verb continues to show agreement with the underlying noun. In example \#183, the quantifier mitâtaht 'ten' is the sole constituent in the noun phrase. The noun awasisak 'children' in \#182 has deleted under identity in \#183. The verb kâ-ki-nakasicik 'they were left over' agrees with the deleted noun in gender and number. There is no agreement between the quantifier mitâtaht 'ten' and the verb.
182. mitâht-nîsosâp nikî-ayâwâwak ten=two=teen $\quad l=p a s t=h a v e \backslash T A=1=3 p C \quad$ child=3p
'I had twelve children.'
183. kwâni pî́isk kâ-kî-nakasicik mitataht. then finally $I P V=p a s t=l e f t-o v e r \backslash A I=3 p$ ten
'Then finally there were ten left.'

By the same argument, the verb in \#184 is inflected as taking an animate obviative object. The quantifier piyak 'one' is not marked for obviation. Therefore, a missing noun is the head of the noun phrase.
184. [pîyak] mâyi $\delta a$ î-kitamwât. one but $I P V=$ devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
'But he devoured one.'

A few examples are problematic. They contain an argument which may be interpreted as either a direct object in which the quantifier is the head or as an oblique argument in which the head noun has deleted. An example is given in \#185.
nisto 'three' in \#185 refers to the awâsisak 'children' in examples \#182-\#183. Although the reference is to children, the verb is inflected as taking an inanimate object. Since quantifiers are not sub-categorized for gender, the quantifier nisto 'three' may be the head of a noun phrase that functions as the direct object of the verb. 4 nisto 'three' could equally be a modifier in an obligue argument the head of which has deleted under identity. Since examples such as \#185 are problematic, the head status of quantifiers in simple noun phrases will remain unresolved. The role of quantifiers in complex noun phrases is discussed in sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2.

4 The unmarked inanimate form of the verb appears when two nouns differing in gender are coordinated. See section 4.4.1 for details.

```
185. tâpiskôc ôtî [nisto] î-itîyihtamân.
    like here three IPV=think\TI=1-0C
'I really think of it here as three.'
```

The second type of quantifier, the measurement, is slightly more complex. Lexical items which function as measurements also appear as nouns. In the latter instance, they may be inflected. Example \#186 contains one such lexical item. In \#186, the TA verb niki-isi-pakocinâwak 'I gutted them' is inflected as taking an animate plural object. The phrase nisto mistikowat 'three boxes' is the syntactic object of this verb. Since the verb does not agree with mistikowat 'box' in animacy or in number, mistikowat 'box' would appear not to be the head of this noun phrase.

```
186. [nisto mistikowat] nikî-isi-pakocinâwak.
    three box \(\quad 1=p a s t=r e l=g u t \backslash T A=1-3 p I\)
    'I gutted three boxes of them [fish].'
```

However, measurement phrases are unusual in a number of ways which suggest that it, unlike the previous type of quantifier, forms a type of complex noun phrase. The details are provided in section 4.3.1.

### 4.3 MEASUREMENT AND PARTITIVE PHRASES

### 4.3.1 Measurement Phrases

A measurement phrase has the following constituent structure: quantifier + measurement + noun. This type of noun phrase is never preceded by a deictic pronoun and number on the measurement is optional, as in \#188.5
187. nisto imihkwânis ohpicicikan
three spoon=dim baking-powder
'three teaspoons of baking-powder'
188. niso îmihkwânis[ak] sôkâw
two spoon=dim=(3p) sugar
'two teaspoons of sugar'

When a simple noun phrase functions as one of the two basic arguments in a clause, the verb agrees with it in gender, number and obviation, where required. Some measurement phrases follow this rule. ${ }^{6}$ However, a different type of agreement rule operates between other measurement phrases and a verb.

[^4]The verb agreement rule for these measurement phrases is irregular. In the following example, the II verb î-pîkopadikwâw 'they break' agrees with the noun kinosîwak 'fish' in number but not in gender. The only possible gender agreement is between the verb and the measurement mistikowat 'box'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 189. [pîyak mistikowat] kinosîwak]] i-pikopa } \begin{array}{l}
\text { fikwâw. } \\
\text { one box } \\
\text { 'one carton of fish broke.' }
\end{array} \quad \text { IPV=break\II=0pC }
\end{aligned}
$$

This poses a series of problems regarding the structure of measurement phrases, agreement and the status of heads; especially if the measurement noun phrase is considered to be a simple noun phrase.

It will be assumed here, on the basis of the complex nature of the agreement rule that a measurement noun phrase is a type of complex noun phrase consisting of two major constituents, a quantifier phrase and a noun phrase.

Measurement NP ---> [[quantifier measurement] noun phrase]

In simple noun phrases, verbs show agreement with nouns but not quantifiers. Agreement between $a$ verb and a measurement phrase is irregular. A verb may agree in different ways in different examples. In some instances, the verb only partially agrees with the noun. In example \#189, the verb appears to agree, in part, with the quantifier. The verb is reflecting features taken from different elements in the complex noun phrase. The two major constituents, the quantifier and the noun, appear to be sharing the role of head. This however creates a variety of problems since quantifiers are not normally heads, and head-sharing is problematic at best. However, the structure has parallels with the coordinate noun phrases discussed in section 4.4.1. In coordinate noun phrases, the verb shows agreement with both nouns.

### 4.3.2 Partitive Noun Phrases

In section 4.3.1, it is suggested that a measurement noun phrase forms a type of complex noun phrase. Complex noun phrases may also be partitive, possessive, coordinate or relativized. The first four types are covered in this chapter. Relative clauses are discussed in Chapter VII.

A partitive noun phrase consists of two major constituents, a noun phrase and a quantifier phrase. The minor constituents within each of these major constituents have the same ordering restrictions apply to them that apply to the minor constituents in a simple noun phrase. ${ }^{7}$ In \#190 and \#191, the partitive noun phrases contain a deictic pronoun. In both examples, the deictic pronoun precedes the constituent it modifies.
190. [nikosis [awa piyak]] i-ayawak.
$1=$ son this=3 one IPV=have $\backslash T A=1-3 C$
'I had one of my sons.'
191. [pîyak kâ-pîsiwât [ôho wâpisiwa]].
one $I P V=$ bring-back $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ this=3' swan=3'
'He brought back one of these swans.'

The major constituents in a partitive noun phrase do not have the rigid order constraints of the minor constituents. Although the quantifier phrase usually follows the noun phrase, it is not a necessary condition. In \#191, the quantifier pîyak 'one' precedes the modifying noun phrase.

The quantifier phrase in a partitive noun phrase delimits the sub-set of nouns referred to by the noun phrase. In the following examples, the quantifier pîyak

[^5]'one' delimits a set of objects referred to by the noun oskisik 'his eye' and the noun phrase aniki nîw nâpisisak 'those four boys'.
192. pîyakwâw pô, kâ-âhkosit [oskîsik [pîyak]]. once only IPV=sick $\backslash A I=3 C$ 3=eye one
'Only once, one of her eyes was sore.'
193. [aniki nîw nápísisak [pîyak]] î-âhkosit.
that $=3 p$ four boy=3p one $\quad I P V=s i c k \backslash A I=3 C$
'One of those four boys is sick.'

Note that because the numeral piyak 'one' is a sub-set of the nouns referred to by aniki nîw nâpisisak 'those four boys', the noun phrase in \#193 is proximate.

The unmarked position of a quantifier is to the right of the noun phrase, as in \#194. The position of the quantifier is identical to the position of a head in a simple noun phrase.
194. tâsipwâ nikî-otinâw
[nipîpîm [pîyak]] in-fact $\quad 1=$ past=take $\backslash T A=1-3 I \quad 1=b a b y=i m$ one mina.
also
'That is why I delivered one of my babies.'

An unmarked partitive noun phrase is schematically represented as:

Partitive Noun Phrase ---->[[NP [Quantifier Phrase]]

Evidence against the noun phrase being the head of a partitive noun phrase comes from locative structures. When a simple noun phrase refers to a group of objects in a place, the head of the noun phrase occurs with the locative morpheme -ih(k), as in \#195.
195. [ŝkoc anihi nîso mistikowatin]
between that=0p two box=loc
'between those two boxes'

The normal unmarked position of the quantifier suggests that the quantifier may be the head. However, the situation is far from clear. Quantifiers are also uninflected. E.g., a locative suffix does not occur on the quantifier in \#196. The locative status of the noun phrase is indicated by the locative proform anta 'there'.
196. sîkoc anta [anihi niso mistikowata]
between there that=0p two box=0p
'between two of those boxes'

### 4.3.3 Measurements vs.Partitive NPs

Measurement phrases and partitives are semantically related. They also share a number of syntactic features. In order to show the syntactic relationship between measurements and partitives, one must first contrast simple noun phrases with partitive noun phrases.

A major difference between a partitive noun phrase and a simple noun phrase is constituent order. In a simple noun phrase the quantifier precedes the head, as in \#197. Although the order of the major constituents in a partitive noun phrase is not fixed, in most partitive noun phrases, the quantifier phrase follows the noun phrase, as in \#198.
197. [pîyak niciwâkan] kî-sipwîhtîw.
one $1=$ friend past=leave $\backslash A I=3 C$
'My one friend left.'
198. [niciwâkan [pîyak]] kî-sipwîhtîw.
$1=$ friend one past=leave $\backslash A I=3 C$
'One of my friends left.'

The simple noun phrase may also be distinguished from a partitive noun phrase by verb agreement. When the constituent order in a partitive noun phrase is identical to the constituent order in a simple noun phrase, the verb
often shifts to agree in number with the noun phrase, as in \#199.8 However, as noted in \#199, number on the noun is optional; showing once again the complex nature of verb agreement in this type of complex noun phrase.
199. [pîyak [nîciwâkan(ak)]] sipwîhtîwak.
one $\quad 1=$ friend $\quad$ past=leave $\backslash A I=3 p I$
'One of my friends left.'

The constituent order of the partitive noun phrase in \#199 is identical to the constituent order of a measurement noun phrase. Number agreement in the partitive noun phrase in \#199 is an optional rule. It is also an optional rule in the measurement noun phrases described in section 4.3.1.

[^6]Although the two structures share many features, the two complex noun phrases are not identical. In addition to subtle differences in the agreement rules, there are also differing restrictions on the ordering of the major constituents. Rigid constituent order constraints only also apply to partitive noun phrases when grammatical features other than constituent order distinguish a simple noun phrase from a partitive noun phrase.

One example is the locative structure referred to earlier. When the two nouns are marked for locative case, the case morpheme distinguishes the simple noun phrase from the partitive. Here, the noun in a partitive noun phrase follows the quantifier, as in:

```
200. sikoc anta [anihi nîso mistikowata]
    between there that=0p two box=0p
    'between two of those boxes'
```

The equational sentence is another structure in which partitives and simple noun phrases are not distinguished on the basis of constituent order. An equational sentence is formed by predicating a simple noun phrase with a deictic pronoun that agrees with the noun phrase in gender, number
and obviation. 9 An equational sentence containing a partitive noun phrase is not usually predicated in this way. A partitive noun phrase is predicated with the particle iyakwani 'that one'. The partitive noun phrase in the equational sentence has the rigid constituent order of a measurement noun phrase.

```
201. íyakwani [anihi pîyak] otîma]].
    that-one=3' that=3' one 3=dog=3'
    'One of those dogs is his.'
```


### 4.4 OTHER COMPLEX NOUN PHRASES

### 4.4.1 Coordinate Noun Phrases

Noun phrases are coordinated by two coordinating particles: akwa 'and', ahpo 'or'.
202. kwâni â-kî-wîcinak, [cinî akwa nî́a]. and $I P V=p a s t=h e l p \backslash T A=1-3 C J$. and $I$
'And I helped her, Jeannie and I.'
203. akwa [niso ahpo nisto imihkwânis ohpicicikan] and two or three spoon=dim baking-powder
'and two or three teaspoons of baking powder'

9 For details on equational sentences consult section 6.2.1.

When a coordinate noun phrase is the subject or the object of the verb, the verb agrees in number with the combined noun phrases as required by the verb stem. Therefore, the combined noun phrase is considered to be the head. In the following example, the verb kâ-otintinâcik 'they grabbed him' requires the plural subject, clarence akwa kisis Eli 'Clarence and your uncle Eli'.
204. akwa kâ-otintinâcik oho $\quad$ Clarence akwa
and IPV=reach $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ this $=3^{\prime} \quad \mathrm{C} . \quad$ and
kisis Eli].
$2=\mathrm{mo} / \mathrm{br}$ Eli
'And Clarence and your uncle Eli grabbed this one.'

Coordinate noun phrases are equal at a grammatical level. When two noun phrases are coordinated in Woods cree, they usually occur on the same side of the verb and both noun phrases are coded identically with respect to obviation. Two examples for which these constraints apply are:
205. ôma kâ-isi-âpatah [panok piko akwa sôkâw prt $I P V=r e l=u s e \backslash I I=0 C$ bannock only and sugar akwa tiy].
and tea
'Only when bannock is used, and sugar and tea.'
206. awa wîmistikôsiw akwa ana kotak kâ-misikitit. this=3 whiteman and that $=3$ other $I P V=b i g \backslash A I=3 C$
'This whiteman and the other big one.'

When two noun phrases differing in gender are coordinated, the gender signalled on the verb is always inanimate.

```
207. kwâni ayahâwa \hat{q-kî-âpacihtât}
    then whoever=3' IPV=past=use\TI2=3-0'C
    [apisci-sâkwiwwaskosa akwa wîkisa].
        small=lily-root=0p and wild-ginger=3'
    'Then he used lily roots and wild ginger.'
208. kwâni itokî [ômî\deltaiw] k\hat{a}-otinahk [akwa
    then perhaps this=0' IPV=take\TI=3-0'C and
    wâposwâna]
    rabbit=skin=3'
```

'So then perhaps she took this and the rabbitskin.'

A similar set of constraints occur when nouns differing in gender are listed without a coordinating particle, as in \#209.
209. Ayakwani anihi anohc nisto kâ-miskotamân: that-one that $=0$ p now three $\mathrm{IPV}=$ mention $\backslash T I=1-0 \mathrm{C}$ [wisakimina, asôskanak íinimina] mossberry=0 raspberry=3p blueberry=0p 'Those are the three I just mentioned: mossberries, raspberries, blueberries.'

Although coordinate noun phrases are not common in texts, there is one commonly used construction that resembles a coordinate noun phrase. This structure, like many of the complex noun phrases presented in this chapter, appears to violate number agreement. In the following example, the noun kimis 'your older sister' and the unstated pronoun kisa 'you' together form the subject. The combined subject is implied by the lack of agreement between the third person subject noun phrase kimis 'your older sister' and the second person plural AI conjunct verb inflection -yîk.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { 210. kimis } & \text { î-atoskiyik. } \\
2=01 d / s i \quad \text { IPV=work } \backslash A I=2 p C \\
\text { 'You and your older sister are working.' }
\end{array}
$$

Structures having this type of combined subject obey strict word order constraints. The subject noun phrase must precede the verb.
211. nicîmic sôpí îyako
$1=y o / b r-s i$ sophie that-one=3
kâ-kî-atoskawakint nimâmâ.
IPV=past=work-for $\backslash T A=1 p-3 C \quad 1=m o m$
'My younger sister Sophie and I worked for my mother.'

### 4.4.2 Possessive Noun Phrases

A possessive noun phrase consists of two major constituents labelled the possessor and the possessed noun phrase. In the following example, nimis 'my older sister' is the possessor and ocimân 'her boat' is the possessed noun phrase.
212. [nimis] ocîmân

1=old/si 3=boat
'my older sister's boat'

Because the possessor is also coded on the possessed noun by a set of possessive prefixes described in section 3.2.2, the possessor noun phrase may be deleted.
213. ocîmân

3=boat
'his/her boat'

The possessed noun phrase is the obligatory constituent of a possessive noun phrase. A possessed noun phrase can only be deleted at a surface level, under identity, as in \#214.
214. îyakwani anihi Josepwa, [owîmistikôsima] akwa that-one that=3' Joseph=3 3=whiteman=3' and nî $\delta a$ [] kipâpâ.

I $\quad 2=$ dad
'That one is Joseph, her whiteman, and my [whiteman]
is your father."

A possessed noun phrase is the head of a possessive noun phrase. It agrees with the verb as required by the verb stem. In the following example, the possessed noun nipâpâ 'my dad', the subject, agrees with its predicate kâ-takopasit 'he arrives' in gender, number and obviation.


The order of the minor constituents within a possessed noun phrase is rigid. A possessed noun phrase has the constituent order restrictions of a simple noun phrase. Deictic pronouns precede their heads, as in \#216.
216. kwâni mwâc tîpihtin [[ôma nicihciy] nî́a]
then neg fit $\backslash I I=0 I$ this $=0 \quad 1=$ hand $I$
ta-kî-kwâpahamân.
IPV=past=draw-water $\backslash T I=1-0 C$
'So my own hand didn't fit to draw the water.'

The major constituents in a possessive noun phrase have freer order. In the preceding example, the possessed noun phrase ôma nicinciy 'this my hand' precedes the possessor noun phrase nîda 'I'. This major constituent order is marked. Another example in which the possessed noun precedes the possessor is listed below.
217. Bâtis $\quad$ kâ-kî-wîcayamakint
Baptiste IPV=past=with=be $\backslash T A=1 p-3 C \quad$ [ostîsa
[nipâpâ]]
1=dad
'We stayed with Baptiste, my father's older
brother.'

The possessed noun usually occurs as the right-most constituent in a possessive noun phrase, as in \#218.
218. kâ-kî-wanihiht isa akwa, [nipâpâ [omâmâwa]]. IPV=past=lose $\backslash T A=X-3 C \mathrm{hrs}$ and $\quad 1=$ dad $\quad 3=m o m=3^{\prime}$
'And you know she was lost, my dad's mom.'10

Although the order of the major constituents may be reversed, the major constituents are distinguishable. Obviation distinguishes the possessor from the possessed in \#217 and the semantic constraints imposed on the possessor of a possessive noun phrase require $n \hat{1} \delta \mathrm{a}$ ' $I$ ' to be the possessor in \#216.

There is only one constraint on the major constituents in a possessive noun phrase. The possessor noun phrase does not separate the constituents in the possessed noun phrase. The two noun phrases in the possessive noun phrase occur as complete units. Therefore in the following example, the modifier niso 'two' cannot be extracted out of the possessed noun phrase and placed before the possessor noun wîcîwâkana 'his friend' without a change in meaning.
219. [wicîwâkana [nîso omasinahikanifiwa]]
$3=$ friend $=3^{\prime}$ two $3=b o o k=0^{\prime} \mathrm{p}$
'his friend's two books'

10 kâ-kî-wanihint 'something is lost by him' is a euphemism for dying.

This is part of a general constraint on noun phrases. A noun phrase is not separated by all or part of another noun phrase. Two exceptions are discussed in section 4.5. This constraint also applies to a possessive noun phrase when it is the modifying noun phrase of a partitive structure. In \#210, the quantifier niso 'two' occurs outside of the entire possessive noun phrase. The quantifier niso 'two' cannot be inserted between the possessor wiciwakana 'his friends' and its head omasinahikanisiwa 'his/her books' without changing the meaning and structure of the noun phrase.
220. [nîso [wîciwâkana omasinahikan(i) 反iwa]]
two $\quad 3=$ friend $=3$ ' $\quad 3=b o o k=0^{\prime} p$
'two of his friends' books'

### 4.5 DISCONTINUOUS NOUN PHRASES

Although simple noun phrases have rigid constituent order, a noun phrase can be discontinuous. One constituent of a noun phrase may be separated from the other constituents by $a$ verb or particle. In the following example, the quantifier niyânan 'five' is separated from its head atimwa 'dogs' by the verb ki-ayawîw 'he had him'.
221. kwâni M.C., awa [niyânan kî-ayawîw then M.C. this=3 five past=have $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ atimwa].
$\operatorname{dog}=3^{\prime}$
'Then M.C., he had five dogs.'

In example \#222, the modifier mistahi 'lots' is separated from its head kikway 'thing' by the particle mâna 'used to'.

```
222. mistahi mâna kîkway ki-nipahtâw ana
    lots used-to thing past=kill\TII2=3-0'I that=3
    kisi\deltainiw.
    old-man
    'That old man used to kill many things.'
```

The constituents of a simple noun phrase may be separated by another noun phrase by two types of quantifiers. One quantifier is kahkidaw 'all'. This quantifier floats within the sentence. In \#223, the quantifier kahkisaw 'all' modifies maskihkiya 'medicines'. Another discontinuous noun phrase ana nôhtâwiy 'my father' occurs between the modifier kahkidaw 'all' and its head, maskihkiya 'medicines'.
223. kahkiסaw ana ki-kiskîyintam nôhtâwiy
all that $=3$ past $=$ know $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$ father
maskinkiya.
medicine $=0 p$
'My father knew all kinds of medicine.'

The second type of quantifier is coded semantically as the modifier of a particular type of noun. The quantifier may be separated from its head by a noun phrase which lacks the requisite semantic features. The example below contains the quantifier pâh-piyakwâpisk 'one piece each'. This quantifier can only modify a noun which contains the feature, [+metal]. In \#224, the quantifier modifies sôniyâwa 'dollar', and not the intervening noun phrase nôhtâwiy 'my father'. 11
224. kwâni pâh-pîyakwâpisk mâna nikî-mîfikonân then redup=one=metal used-to $1=p a s t=$ give $\backslash T A+0=3-1 p I$ nôhtâwiy sôniyâwa.
$1=$ father money=3'
'Then my father used to give each of us one dollar.'

11 For information on finals see Todd 1970 or Beland 1978.

A discontinuous noun phrase is the result of either grammatical or discourse factors. Examples of grammatically-based discontinuity occur in polar questions with polar question clitics in which a noun phrase consisting of more than one constituent occurs in clause initial position. The noun phrase may be simple or complex.
225. ôko na nisto nâpîsisak kî-itohtîwak?
this=3p $\quad$ o three boy=3p past=go $\backslash A I=3 p I$
'Did these three boys go?'
226. kîpâpâ cî ômîठiw owâskâhikan?

2=dad Q this=0' 3=house
'Is this your father's house?'

Discourse-based discontinuity is the result of emphasis. When part of the noun phrase is emphasized, that part of the noun phrase occurs in pre-verbal position.
227. mitâht-nîsosâp
ten=two=teen
nikî-ayâwâwak
$1=$ past=have $\backslash T A=1-3 p I$
awâsisak.
child=3p
'I had twelve children.'

Although the constituents may be discontinuous, the order of the minor constituents in the noun phrase does not
change. In a simple noun phrase, even discontinuous modifiers precede their heads.


There are only a few examples of discourse-based discontinuity among complex noun phrases in the texts examined for this study. The following is an example of a discontinuous coordinate noun phrase, nâpîsisak akwa nipâpâ 'the boys and my dad'.
230. kâ-pipon(i) $i \mathrm{ik}$ címina nâpîsisak kî-pimohtîwak $I P V=w i n t e r \backslash I I=0^{\prime} C Q$ also boy=3p past=walk $\backslash A I=3 p I$ akwa nipâpâ.
and $1=$ dad
'Did the boys and my dad walk in the winter as well?'

When discourse-based discontinuity occurs between the constituents in a complex noun phrase, it is often accompanied by marked constituent order. In the following example, the possessed noun ocâsikana 'his socks' precedes the possessive noun awâsis 'child'. A similar example of a partitive noun phrase occurs in \#191.

```
231. ocâsikana
3=sock=3! here past=redup=use-to-pin\TA+O=X-3I
awâsis.
child
```

'The child's socks are pinned here.'

The order of the constituents in a simple noun phrase is more rigid than the order of the major constituents in a complex noun phrase. The complex noun phrases are also subject to the constraints described in section 4.4.2. It would be interesting to study if discourse-based continuity among complex noun phrases is restricted because of the relatively free order of the constituents. This type of study is beyond the scope of this work.

### 4.6 OBVIATION

An issue that concerns all types of noun phrases is obviation. Obviation cross-cuts several levels of the grammar. It is conditioned by morpho-syntactic rules, clause internal syntax, sentence level syntax and discourse factors. The basic rules for determining when a third person is obviative are discussed below.

When there are two or more animate third persons in a clause, only one of them may be proximate, the others are obviative. When an animate noun is possessed by a third person, the possessed noun is coded with the obviative morpheme -a. An example is:
232. mâskôc tâpwî kisî́iniwî́iwa opâpâwa.
perhaps really be-an-old-man $\backslash A I=3^{\prime \prime} I \quad 3=$ father $=3^{\prime}$
'His father must have been a really old man.'

When both the subject and the object are animate third persons, the subject is normally proximate and the object is obviative. The obviative is cross-referenced on the appropriate noun phrase, as illustrated in:
233. kwâni [kinosîwa] kî-atoskihîw.
then fish=3' past=work $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$
'Then she filleted the fish.'

When two different animate third person subjects occur in a complex sentence in which one of the clauses is subordinate, one noun phrase will be proximate, the other will be obviative, as in \#234.

```
234. pâtimâ pî-kîwî́ici omisa,
    later to=go-home \(\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3^{\prime} \mathrm{S} 3=01 \mathrm{~d}-\mathrm{si}=3^{\prime}\)
    ta-pî-kîwit.
    IPV=to \(=\) go-home \(\backslash A I=3 C\)
    'She will come home when her older sister comes
    home.'
```

Howver, if either of the third persons is morphologically inanimate, as in \#235, obviation is optional.
235. kwâni pîfisk $\hat{i}$-tipiskak, kwâni
then finally IPV=dark $\backslash I I=0 c$ then
â-pâh-pâskisikicik.
IPV=redup=shoot $\backslash A I=3 p c$
'Then when it was finally dark, then they shot many
times (into the air).'

When two third persons occur in separate sentences, obviation takes on a discourse role. The following discussion refers to animate noun phrases. Here, the
discourse use of obviation in Woods Cree is similar to the discourse use of obviation in Plains Cree. "In narratives, proximate often corresponds to the character whose point of view is being represented" (Dahlstrom 1986:108). One participant is central and is cited with a proximate form and the other non-central third person is cited with the obviative. The following excerpt represents a typical text.

$$
\text { 236.1. } \frac{k \hat{a}-w a p a m a t}{I P V=s e e \backslash T A}=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C} \frac{\text { kisî} \delta i n i w a}{o l d-m a n=3^{\prime}} \frac{\hat{i}-p \hat{1}-n a ̂ s i p \hat{i} \delta i t}{I P V=t o=g o-d o w n} \backslash A I=3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}
$$

2. $\frac{\text { tâpwír }}{\text { really }} \frac{\text { kisífiniwa. }}{\text { old-man }=3^{\prime}}$
3. kwâni isa kâ-ati-nâtât. and hrs $I P V=$ incp=fetch $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
4. askihkosa tahkoníiwa. pail=dim=3' hold\TA=3'-3'I
5. He saw an old man coming down the hill. 2. A really old man. 3. And he went to get him. 4. He is holding a pail.

In the first sentence of this excerpt, the verb takes two animate third persons. One third person is proximate, the other is obviative. The subject, the hunter, referred to only by a verbal suffix is proximate and the object, kisifiniwa 'old man' is obviative. The obviative is signalled on the verb and cross-referenced on the noun kisifiniwa 'old man'. The third person subject of the subordinate clause obtains its obviative status from its role in the main clause.

The only third person in sentence 2 kisídiniwa 'old man' is obviative. This is discourse level obviation. The obviative status of kisifiniwa 'old man' follows from the previous sentence.

The third sentence does not contain a noun phrase. The TA verb kâ-ati-nâtât 'he went to get him' takes a proximate subject and an obviative object. The subject refers to the hunter and the object refers to the old man. The hunter and the old man maintain their original proximate and obviative roles.

The final sentence occurs with the TA verb tahkonifiwa 'he holds him'. The verb takes an animate obviative subject and an animate obviative object. Although kisídiniwa 'old man' is now the subject, it continues to be obviative. This is a discourse use of the obviative. The obviative object marking on the verb agrees with the noun askinkosa 'pail', the object of the verb tahkonisiwa 'he holds him'. This is due to clause internal syntax. In this sentence, there are two distinct animate third persons neither of which refers to the central participant, the hunter.

Discourse level obviation is not grammatically conditioned. When two animate third persons occur in a
discourse span, neither need occur as obviative. 12 Strings of 'proximates', i.e., non-obviative forms, occur in any discourse in which both participants are considered central to the storyline. Dahlstrom (1986) and Goddard (1984) refer to this as "multiple proximates." Examples occur in the following discourse.
237.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { 1. ayahâw } \\ \text { whoev }=3 & \text { but whohâw pô } & \text { c. (3)? 2. kâ-pâhpihakint. }\end{array}$ whoev=3 but whoev=3 only $C$. IPV=1augh $\backslash T A=1 p-3 C$
3. L. (3) isa mîkwâc isa mâ î-ati-pimohtîsit
L. hrs while hrs but IPV=incp=walk=dim $\backslash A I=3 C$
L. (3).
4. C.
(3) isa kâ-ta-tahkopitah
L.
c.
hrs IPV=redup=tie $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
omakalakisa, $\hat{1}-k a ̂ h-k w i ̂ s k o s i ̂ t . ~$
$3=$ mukluk $=$ dim=0p IPV=redup=whistle $\backslash A I=3 C$
5. kîtahtawî§ ôta L. (3) kâ-pimi-cincîkicipáit suddenly here $L$. IPV=along=finger=move $\backslash A I=3 C$
animísiw pakamâkan ( $0^{\prime}$ ) $\hat{\mathrm{i}}$-ta-tahkonah. 6. nôhtâ, that=0' hammer IPV=hold\TI=3-0'C $1=f a=v o c$
kwâni oscîsa (3') kâ-pakamâtinpîhwât. 7. miconi then $3=$ old-br=3' $\quad$ IPV=hit-head $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ so-much
"against the wall" kâ-isi-ispâhkipasit C. (3). against the wall $I P V=r e l=u p=m o v e \backslash A I=3 C$ C.
8. miconi c. (3) ̂̂-kwâ-kwâskohtît $\hat{\mathrm{i}}$-cîcisinah so-much C. $\quad I P V=r e d u p=j u m p \backslash A I=3 C \quad I P V=r u b \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C$
ostikwân ( $0^{\prime \prime}$ ).
$3=$ head

12 Obviation does not occur in certain types of conversation. See section 8.4 for details.

```
9. îyako pô â-ka-kiskisiyân.
    that-one=0 only IPV=redup=remember \AI=1C
```

1. How about C.? 2. When we were laughing at him. 3. L. had just started walking. 4. C. was tying up his mukluks, whistling.
2. All of a sudden L. staggered here, holding that hammer. 6. Oh my God, then he hit his older brother over the head. 7. C. flew up against the wall. 8. C. was jumping up and down a lot, rubbing his head.
3. That is the only thing $I$ was remembering.

The preceding excerpt was narrated by the mother of both participants. The two participants are considered to be equal. Neither participant in the excerpt is more central than the other and both participants are cited with proximate forms. The only obviative forms in this excerpt are the result of morphological coding and clause-internal syntax. The obviative occurs on the third person possessed noun oscisa 'his brother' and on the deictic pronoun animíiw 'that ( $0^{\prime}$ )' when it modifies the inanimate noun pakamâkan 'hammer'. This inanimate noun phrase is the object of a verb whose subject is a third person.

Other issues related to obviation are detailed in Dahlstrom 1986, Ch.4, Goddard 1990a and Wolfart 1973.13

13 The authors discuss changes in the obviative status of participants in discourse, a topic not covered in this chapter.

## Chapter V

THE VERB PHRASE

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the verb and the nominal arguments for which it is sub-categorized. The description of the internal structure of the verb resembles descriptions of other Algonquian languages (Bloomfield 1946). Algonquianists may wish to proceed directly to section 5.3 for a description of the basic arguments and their syntactic constraints.

### 5.2 VERB STEMS

Although a few verbs have stems containing only a root, the majority of stems have at least a root and a final. A verb stem may also include a medial and one or more preverbs. The basic verb stem is schematically represented as follows:

STEM ----> (preverbs) + root $+($ medial $)+$ final

### 5.2.1 Roots and Finals

The root provides the lexical content for the stem. The following verb has a simple stem consisting only of a root. 1
238. miciw
eat $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$
'he eats it'

Most roots are adverbs. The following examples all contain the root sipwî- 'away'.
239. sipwî+pahtâw away $=r u n \backslash A I=3 I$
'he runs away'
240. sipwî+(y)âstan away=blow $\backslash I I=0 I$
'it blows away'
241. sipwî+htîw away=by-foot $\backslash$ AI $=3 I$
'he leaves'

1 An alternative analysis of word morphology is presented in Goddard 1990b.

A special type of root, labelled a relative root, has its antecedent outside of the verb. The most frequent relative root is it- 'thus'. This root mutates to isbefore -i. 1
242. isi+nâkwan

$$
\text { rel=appear } \backslash I I=0 I
$$

'it looks like this'
243. isi+ઈihkâsow
rel=be-called $\backslash A I=3 I$
'he is called so'
244. isittâpîw
$\mathrm{rel}=\mathrm{drag} \backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he drags this way'

The antecedent of the relative root may be a particle, a noun phrase or a clause. In the following example, it is the particle ômisi 'in this way'.
245. ômisi mâna kâ-isímot. this=rel used-to $I P V=$ thus=dance $\backslash A I=3 C$
'This is the way she used to dance.'

1 When /i/ is a reflex of Proto-Algonquian */e/, it'thus' does not mutate. See Pentland 1979 for details.

The other obligatory part of a verb stem is the final. The final marks the verb as belonging to one of the four verb types discussed earlier: AI,II,TI, or TA. Finals may be concrete or abstract in meaning. All of the preceding examples contain concrete verb finals. Abstract finals have very general semantic content. One abstract final, -isi 'state' is illustrated in \#246.2

## 246. maskawisiw

strong=state $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he is strong'

The preceding examples contain only one final. Following Bloomfield (1946), a verb stem with one final is called a primary stem.
247. sipwîhtiw
away=by-foot $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he leaves'

A verb stem with more than one final is called a secondary stem. The last final determines the stem type. In \#248, the secondary TI2 final -htâ 'make' is added to a primary stem ending in the AI final -pasi 'move'. The

2 See Denny 1978b for a semantic analysis of abstract finals in Ojibwa.
resulting verb has a TI2 stem. In \#249, a secondary AI final -hkâso 'pretend' is added to a primary stem ending in the AI final -htî 'by foot'. ${ }^{3}$ The verb stem remains AI.
248. pimipaঠintâw
along=move $\backslash A I=$ make $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$
'he runs (a household)'
249. sipwîhcîhkâsow
away=by-foot $\backslash A I=$ pretend $\backslash A I=3 I$
'he pretends to leave'

### 5.2.2 Medials

A medial occurs between the root and the final. Medials denote body parts, clothes, objects of certain shapes and consistencies and a number of other categories all of which have nominal reference. Illustrations are provided in \#250-\#254. The medials in these examples are incorporated nouns. The glosses for the medials are underlined.
250. pîm+âpit+îw crooked=teeth $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he has crooked teeth'

[^7]251. post+astis+îw
put-on=mitt $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 I$
'he puts on mitts'
252. pahkinti+wat+î+pahtâw
drop $=$ bag $=r u n \backslash A I=3 I$
'she drops her bag running'
253. nitawi+min+iw
go-to=berry $\backslash A I=3 I$
'he looks for berries'
254. nât+a $\delta a p \hat{1}+w$
fetch=net $\backslash$ AI $=3 I$
'he lifts nets'

Other medials function as classifiers. The following example contains the classifier -âpisk 'metal'.
255. kis+âpisk+itîw
hot=metal=by-heat $\backslash I I=0 I$
'it (metal) is not'

In the preceding example, the classifier refers to the the subject of the sentence. Classifiers may also refer to a noun in an oblique argument. In \#256, the Woods Cree classifier -asko 'body' is modified by the locative noun phrase oskatink 'on her/his leg'.
256. kwâni kâ-kâhcitaskosit
oskâtink.
then $I P V=c a t c h=b o d y=b y-h e a t \backslash A I=3 C \quad 3=1 \mathrm{eg}=10 c$
'Then her leg caught on fire.'

### 5.2.3 Reduplication


#### Abstract

The initial syllable of a root or preverb may also reduplicate. The following examples have all undergone reduplication.


```
257. âh-akopitîw TA 'he ties him'
    câh-cimatâw TI2 'he stands up sticks'
    na-nahîyihtam TI 'he listens well'
    pâh-pâskiswîw TA 'he shoots at him'
```

There are at least two types of reduplication. In a detailed study of Plains Cree reduplication, Ahenakew and Wolfart (1983) label the two major types: light reduplication and heavy reduplication. This terminology is used in this study.

In both types of reduplication, the initial consonant of the root or preverb reduplicates. The difference between light and heavy reduplication lies in the quality of the vowel. For light reduplication, the initial consonant is followed by a short /a/ and for heavy reduplication, this


#### Abstract

consonant is followed by a long /âh/. Before a vowel, reduplication is signalled by the syllable ay- if light, and âh-, if heavy.


Ahenakew and Wolfart's analysis of Plains Cree distinguished the two types of reduplication semantically. 4 The distinctions noted in this work apply to Woods Cree. Ahenakew and Wolfart demonstrate that light reduplication marks an "ongoing action or state" and that heavy reduplication marks "an action or state that is in some way discontinuous or intermittent" (Ahenakew and Wolfart 1983:370). Examples from Woods Cree are:
258. LIGHT REDUPLICATION
i-ma-mícit.
$I P V=$ redup $=$ eat $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
'He keeps on eating.'
259. HEAVY REDUPLICATION
kâ-tâh-tâskipanât.
$I P V=r e d u p=s p l i t \backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'He split (the tree) with an axe.'

4 Ahenakew and wolfart (1983) discuss reduplication on verbs. Numerals can also undergo heavy reduplication. When reduplicated, the numerals translate as distributives, e.g., nâh-nisto 'three each'.
5.2.4 Preverbs

Preverbs are divided into syntactic-semantic markers, tense morphemes, grammatical markers, and adverbs. The more abstract morphemes occur further from the verb root.

This information is schematically represented as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Preverb ----> } & \text { (syntactic-semantic marker) (tense) } \\
& \text { (grammatical markers) (adverbs) }
\end{aligned}
$$

The syntactic-(semantic) preverbs (k) $\hat{\mathbf{a}}-, \underline{\hat{\mathbf{1}}-, ~ \underline{k}-1 \text { and }}$ ta- occur in word initial position, one per verb and code tense and aspect. Because the tense/aspect system is complex, the discussion of the syntactic-semantic preverbs is postponed until Chapter IX.

The preverb wâ- 'past supposition' is the only preverb that may not be preceded by a syntactic-semantic marker but may be preceded by a personal prefix. In some instances wâfunctions as if it is a syntactic-semantic marker, in other instances it functions as if it is a tense morpheme. This morpheme is discussed in greater detail in Chapter IX. Examples containing the preverb wâ- 'past supposition' are listed in \#260-261.
260. kisâspin otâkosih wâ-pî-itohtîci...
if yesterday $s u p p=t o=g o \backslash A I=3 S$
'If he had come yesterday,....'
261. niwâ-itohtân.
$1=s u p p=g o \backslash A I=1 I$
'I would have gone.'

The second set of preverbs are tense morphemes. The present tense is not signalled morphologically and refers to a length of time which includes recent past events, as in \#262.
262. kwâni âsay kiwanâmin.
then already $2=$ interrupt $\backslash T A=2-1 I$
'You've already interrupted me.'

Past tense is signalled by the tense preverbs, kî- and ohci-. 5 ki- 'past' usually occurs in an affirmative clause, ${ }^{6}$ ohci- 'past' occurs in a negative clause. ${ }^{7}$

5 The preverb (k)â- may also signal past tense. See Chapter IX for details.

6 kí- 'past' also occurs as an optional variant when a proposition is negated with a main clause negator.

7 There is also the negative past tense preverb ôhwhich has slightly different connotations. This preverb tends to occur with independent verbs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mwâ n-ôh-iskôliwîn. } \\
& \text { neg } 1=\text { negpast }=\text { school } \backslash A I=1 I \\
& \text { 'I didn't (bother) to go to school.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

263. âsay wida ki-misikitiw.
already emp past=big $\backslash A I=3 I$
'She was big already.'
264. mwâc pîyakwâw nôhtâwiy ohci-nikohtîw. neg once $1=$ father negpast=chop-wood $\backslash A I=3 I$
'Not once did my father chop wood.'

The preverb kí- 'past tense' co-occurs with the negative past tense morpheme ohci- when the verb in a negative clause refers to an event or state in the distant past, as in \#265. There is no corresponding distant past form for an affirmative clause.
265. mwâc awina ikota ki-ohci-ayâw.
neg someone there past=negpast=be $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'Nobody was there.'

The forms of the future morpheme are dependent on verb inflection. The future form of an independent verb is nikafor first person, 8 ka- for second person and ta- for third person. 9 The following examples contain the three future forms.

8 nika- has a shorter variant na-, frequent among younger speakers.

9 The prefix ka- occasionally occurs on verbs inflected as third person.
266. nika-wâpahtifâwak
$1 \mathrm{fut}=\mathrm{show} \backslash \mathrm{TA}+0=1-3 \mathrm{pI}$
'I will show it to them'
267. mwâc kapî ka-ki-pa-pamihitinâwâw.
neg always 2 fut=able=redup=care-for $\backslash T A=1-2 p I$
'I will not always be able to look after you.'
268. kwâni ta-midosiw.
then 3 fut $=$ good $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 I$
'He will be good.'

When the verb in a main clause occurs with a conjunct inflection, the future tense morpheme is ta- for all persons. The examples below contain first and second person future forms of the verb.
269. ta-itohtîyân
fut $=g 0 \backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{C}$
'I will go'
270. kisâspin sôniyâs nitawísimaci, ta-atoskíyin pô.
if money want $\backslash T A=2-3 S$ fut=work $\backslash A I=2 C$ only
'If you want the money, you will work for
it.'

Grammatical markers follow the syntactic-semantic preverbs and the tense morphemes. The grammatical markers isi- 'relative' and ati- 'inceptive' occur in the following examples.
271. tân(i)si kâ-kíisi-wâpahtaman?
how $\quad I P V=p a s t=r e l=$ see $\backslash T I=2-0 C$
'What did you see?'
272. kwâni ispiy î-ati-apit kôna,
then when $I P V=$ incp $=$ sit $\backslash A I=3 C$ snow
kâ-kî-itohtîyân.
$I P V=p a s t=g o \backslash A I=1 C$
'Then when the snow was starting to lie on the ground, I left.'

Several grammatical markers can occur on the same verb. In the following example, the two grammatical preverbs, pi'to(wards)' and isi- 'relative', follow the syntacticsemantic marker ( $k$ ) â- and the tense morpheme, ki- 'past'.
273. kwâni nîsta kâ-kî-pî-ohpikiyân, then I-too IPV=past=to=grow-up $\backslash A I=1 C$
kâ-kî-pî-isi-ohpinikawiyân.
IPV=past=to=rel=grow-up $\backslash T A=X-1 C$
'I grew up the way I was raised."

The preverb slot directly adjacent to the verb root is reserved for lexical adverbs. These preverbs modify the verb. Examples are:
274. nîhci-pahkisin
below=fall $\backslash$ AI $=3 I$
'he falls from it'
275. nihtâ-kifâskiw
know=lie $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he knows how to tell lies'
276. nôhtî-minihkwîw
need=drink $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'he needs to drink'
277. mosci-mî $\delta \hat{i} w$
free $=$ give $\backslash T A+0=3-3$ I $I$
'he gives it to him for nothing'

A lexical adverb is the only type of preverb which regularly undergoes reduplication. In \#278, the preverb piyako- 'once' is reduplicated. When the verb does not contain a lexical adverb, reduplication usually occurs on the verb root, as in \#279. 10

10 Reduplication on the verb root is possible when the verb stem contains a lexical adverb, however such instances are extremely rare. One such example is provided below:
kâ-matwî-pâh-pahkihtih!
IPV=audibly=redup=fall $\backslash I I=0 C$
'Something fell (and bounced).'

# 278. îtoka mîna wîposkâhk perhaps also wipos=loc 

 kâ-kî-pa-pîyako-sîkwanisiyân. $I P V=$ past $=$ redup=one=spring $\backslash A I=1 C$'Also at Wiposâhk I was alone in the spring.'
279. kwâni âta î-kíkiskiyihtah ita
then although $I P V=$ past=know $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ there kâ-kî-ati-ay-itohtit.
$I P V=$ past $=$ incp $=$ redup $=g o \backslash A I=3 C$
'Yet he knew where she was going.'

### 5.3 WORD ORDER AND GRAMMATICAL RELATIONS

### 5.3.1 Subjects and objects

The syntactic relationships between the basic arguments are distinguished by a combination of verb inflection, the obviative marking on the noun phrase, clause order, particles and context. In \#280, the verb inflection signals that a third person is acting on an obviative. The obviative suffix -a indicates that nôhkom 'my grandmother' is the object and the proximate form of the deictic pronoun indicates that awa kisidiniw 'this old man' is the subject in the context in which this sentence occurred.
280. awa kisîठiniw nôhcimih â-kî-itohtahât this=3 old-man woods IPV=past $=g o \backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ nôhkoma.
$1=$ grandmother $=3^{\prime}$
'This old man took my grandmother into the woods.'

Word order is relatively free. In \#280, the subject precedes the verb and in \#281 the subject follows. In \#280, the object follows the verb and in \#282 it precedes the verb.
281. wîsâ mistahi î-pî-tipwâsiyamiht nipâpâ.
so-much lots $I P V=$ to $=$ yell $\backslash T A=3-1 \mathrm{pC}$ 1=dad
'My dad yells at us a lot.'
282. Îmihkwâna kî-âpacihîw.
spoon=3' past=use $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$
'He used a spoon.'

Although word order is to a large extent pragmatically conditioned, verbs generally precede any syntactic object having a benefactive or associative role, as in \#283 and \#284.
283. î-kî-atoskawât IPV $=$ past $=$ work - for $\backslash T A=3-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
opâpâwa.
$3=\mathrm{dad}=3^{\prime}$
'He worked for his dad.'
284. $\hat{\imath}-\mathrm{k} \hat{\imath}-w \hat{1} c i-a t o s k i ̂ m a ̂ t$ ociwâma.

IPV=past=with=work $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
$3=$ brother $=3$ *
'He worked with his brother.'
vo order is also frequent when one of the noun phrases is the patient of a TA+O verb. When a noun such as wiyâs 'meat' occurs as the patient of a TA+O verb, it usually occurs after the verb.
285. mwâ mâna îkosi nî́a nititiyintin
neg used-to thus I 1=think $\backslash T I=1-O I$
[kâ-pi-míit awina wîyâs].
IPV=to $=$ give $\backslash T A+O=3-1 C$ someone meat
'I didn't think that way when someone gave me meat.'

The unmarked Vo word order is also frequent when one or more of the arguments consist of several constituents, as in \#286.
286. kahkiסaw nâpîwak â-kî-nitawi-pakitinâcik
all man=3p IPV=past=go-to=set-down $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
okinosîmiwâwa.
$3^{\prime \prime}=f i s h=3 p$
'All the men were taking care of their fish.'

As a result, the word order of a sentence in which one of the arguments is a relativized noun is typically vo, as in \#287.
287. îyakwî́iw kâ-wî-isitisahamawât anini
that-one=3' IPV=want=send $\backslash T A+O=3-3^{\prime} C$ that $=3^{\prime}$
awisiwa [â-kî-p̂-isitisahwât anihi
someone=3' $\mathrm{IPV}=$ past=to=send $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ that $=3^{\prime}$
mahîkana ta-nipahikot].
wolf=3' $\quad I P V=k i l l \backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$
'He wanted to send that one to the person who sent the wolves to kill him."

### 5.3.2 Oblique Arguments

Oblique noun phrases in Woods cree include instrument, benefactive, constructive and locative noun phrases. Unlike subjects and objects, oblique arguments are not signalled on the verb inflections. For example, the verb inflection in \#288 does not indicate the presence of the following locative noun phrase.
288. ̂̂-wa awîpinât niyânan íiniwa kîkinâh ohci. IPV=throw-out $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ five person=3' $12=$ home=loc from
'He threw five people out of our home.'

However, verbs may be sub-categorized for their oblique arguments. For example, the verb astâw 'he puts it' requires a locative noun phrase.

```
289. ayihîw pimiy kâ-astât sâsîskihkwânih.
    whatev=0 grease IPV=put\TI2=3-0'C frying-pan=loc
    'She put grease in the frying pan.'
```

The sub-categorization may be signalled morphologically. In \#290, the concrete final -îs 'by cutting' indicates an instrumental argument and in \#291, the relative root is'thus' indicates a locative argument.
290. kâ-kí-patwîtawîsamân
môhkomân ohci. IPV=past=cut-hair-off $\backslash T I=1-0 C$ knife with 'I cut the hair off with a knife.'
291. mîcisowinâhtikohk $\hat{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{ki}$-isipinah. table=loc $\quad I P V=p a s t=r e l-t h r o w \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'He threw it towards the table.'

Oblique noun phrases are often followed by a grammatical particle ohci. 11 In the following examples, ohci signals

11 This particle may occur as a preverb, as in:
îkota kâ-ohci-pâniswâcik.
there $I P V=$ from $=$ smoke $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'They smoked them from there.'
three distinct types of oblique noun phrases: an instrument, a benefactive and a constructive noun phrase respectively.
292. akwa ispiy kâ- iôskâk, kwâni
then when $I P V=s o f t \backslash I I=0 C$ then
kâ-ati-kaskikahamân mânihtowâsk ohci.
$T P V=$ incp=cut-by-metal $\backslash T I=1-0 C$ metal-scraper with
'And when it is soft, then I scrape it with a metal scraper.'
293. ohcitaw $\hat{\imath}-k \hat{\imath}-s o ̂ p i h k i ̂ y a ̂ n ~ \hat{\imath}-k \hat{\imath}-m i \delta o p a \delta i t$ anyway $I P V=p a s t=m a k e-s o a p \backslash A I=1 C$ IPV=past=well $\backslash A I=3 C$ ana akohpa ohci, piko isa kikwân.
that=3 blanket=0p for only hrs thing
'I still made soap because it was good for blankets, or anything.'
294. nîso mâna â-kî-osintât cîmâna two used-to IPV=past=make $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ boat $=0 \mathrm{p}$ waskway ohci.
birchbark out-of(from)
'He used to make two canoes out of birchbark.'

Two other gramatical particles that signal oblique noun phrases are isi 'to' and isko 'until'. 12 These two particles introduce abstract locative noun phrases.

12 These particles also occur as preverbs.

I $\quad 1=$ past=like $\backslash T I=1-0 I \quad 1=$ mom
kâ-kî-pi-isi-kiskinôhamawit
$I P V=$ past $=$ to $=$ rel $=$ teach $\backslash T A+O=3-1 C$
ta-wîcihisowân nômakis
IPV=help=reflex $\backslash A T=1 C \quad$ short-while
pimatisiyâni [nitatoskîwinink isi].
live $\backslash A I=1 \mathrm{~S} \quad 1=$ work $=10 c \quad$ to
'I appreciate that my mother taught me how to help myself if I live doing my work.'
296. pâtimâ [isko nipowinihk] kâ-kî-kiskinôhamawiyamint after until death=10c IPV=past=teach $\backslash T A+O=3-1 p C$ ta-ayamihâyâh.
$I P V=t a l k \backslash T A=1 p-3 C$
'Until death, he taught us to pray.'

When the clause contains an object and an oblique noun phrase, the oblique noun phrase usually follows the object, as in \#297-299. An exception is the locative, discussed below.
297. $\hat{\text { i-tahkopitah }}$
$I P V=$ tie $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
iskwâhtim pisâkanâpiy ohci.
door rope with
'He tied the door with a rope.'

```
298. akwa kî-osihtâw
mîna akohp wâposwâna and past=make\TI2=3-0I also blanket rabbitskin=3' ohci.
from
```

'And she also made blankets out of rabbitskin.'
299.kwâni piko i-ki-kiskiyihtamân kîkwân mamâhtâwisiwin then only $I P V=$ past=know $\backslash T I=1-0 C$ thing amazing-thing kâ-icikâtîk kayâs isiniwak ohci. IPV=be-called $\backslash I I=0 C$ long-ago person=3p from
'So I only know about those incredible things from the old people."

A locative noun phrase has relatively free word order. In the following examples, the locative noun phrases are pîwâpiskoh 'in the can' and miwatin 'in the bag'. The locative noun phrase in \#300 occurs between the verb and its object and the locative noun phrase in \#301 occurs before the verb and its object.
300. akwa $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-a t i-a s i w a t a ̂ t$ pîwâpiskoh ayihîsiw and $I P V=$ past=incp=put-in $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ can=loc whatev=10c kinosî-pimiy.
fish=grease
'And then she put the fish fat in a can.'
301. akwa ayihîw mîwatih ati-asiwatâw and whatev=0 bag=loc incp=put-in $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$ opîwâma.
$3=$ feather $=0 p$
'And she puts the feathers in a bag.'

### 5.3.3 Manner Adverbs

The manner adverb is a special type of oblique noun phrase introduced by pîyakwan 'like' or tâskôc 'like' and contains a relative root or preverb, as in \#302-303.
302. nipiy pîyakwan ispwakan. water like rel-taste $\backslash I I=0 I$
'It tastes just like water.'
303. nîkân ayihîw tâskôc awa pahkwîsikan
first whatev=0 like this=3 bread
kâ-isi-osihiht.
$T P V=r e l=$ make $\backslash T A=x-3 C$
'First of all, this thing, it is made just like bread.'

Manner adverbs contrast one noun phrase with another. Both phrases are equal and are coded as proximate, as in \#304 and \#305.
304. pîyakwan wâposwân ostikwân.
like rabbitskin $3=$ head
'His head is just like a rabbitskin.'
305. tâskôc awa atink tâskôc awa môswa
like this=3 caribou like this=3 moose
kâ-tôtawat.
$I P V=d o \backslash T A=2-3 C$
'You do the same for the caribou as for the moose.'

Chapter VI
TYPES OF MAIN CLAUSES

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes main clause types. In Woods Cree, a main clause is either verbless or contains a verb which is inflected as independent, conjunct or imperative. Usually, verb inflection is considered in a discussion of main clauses. However, because of the complex nature of verb inflection in Woods Cree, Chapters VIII and IX are devoted to the topic.

This chapter provides a basic description of simple clauses and complex structures in which neither clause is subordinate. Simple clauses are examined in sections 6.2 and 6.3. Section 6.2 discusses word order constraints in both verbless and verbal clauses. Declarative, interrogative and imperative moods are covered in section 6.3. The last section outlines complex structures. Coordinate structure and structures containing verbs of saying and thinking are examined here.

### 6.2 SIMPLE CLAUSES

### 6.2.1 Verbless clauses

Most of the information presented in sections 6.2 and 6.3 may be represented by the following rules.

S---------> focus topic
Topic ----> $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\mathrm{NP} \\ \mathrm{VP}\end{array}\right\}$
Focus ----> $\left\{\begin{array}{l}N P \\ \text { VP }\end{array}\right\}$

In a verbless clause, the focus and the topic are NPs. There are four types of verbless sentences that follow the pattern outlined above. They are deictic equationals, iyako equationals, negative existentials and interrogative equationals.

The deictic equational may contain two noun phrases one of which is a deictic pronoun. The other noun phrase in a deictic equational sentence is either a common or proper noun as in \#306 and \#307, or it is a personal pronoun or a possessive noun phrase, as in \#308 and \#309.
306. pinkotîw anima.

$$
\text { ash } \quad \text { that }=0
$$

'That's ash.'

```
307. Palisa ana.
    Paula=dim that=3
    'That's Paula.'
308. wî\deltaa ana.
    3 that=3
    'That's him.'
309. niciwâm ocîmân anima.
    1=brother 3=boat that=0
    'That's my brother's boat.'
```

In a deictic equational with a common or proper noun, the noun functions as the predicate and occurs in clause initial position as exemplified by:
310. asikis ana.
frog that $=3$
'That's a frog.'

The order of the argument and the predicate cannot be reversed. If the deictic pronoun were to precede a common or proper noun, it would form a simple noun phrase. This is illustrated in \#311 and \#312.

> 311. ana asikis
> that=3 frog
> 'that frog'
312. awa Alis
this=3 Alice
'this Alice'

A personal pronoun can function as the predicate or the argument of the deictic equational sentence. When a personal pronoun functions as the predicate, it occurs clause initially and answers a 'whose is this' question, as in \#313. In this example the personal pronoun is part of a possessive noun phrase, the head of which has deleted under identity. When the personal pronoun is the argument of the deictic equational sentence, it follows the predicate and answers a 'which one' question as in \#314.
313. kî $\delta \mathrm{a}$ ôma.
you this=0
'This is you(rs).'
314. ôma kî́a.
this=0 you
'You (have) this one.'

When an entire possessive noun phrase occurs in a deictic equational sentence, the order of the noun phrases is pragmatically-based with the predicate in clause initial position. This is illustrated in \#315 and \#316.
315. [nipâpâ otapwiya] anihi.
$1=$ dad 3 =paddle $=3^{\prime} \quad$ that $=3^{\prime}$
'Those are my dad's paddles.'
316. anihi [nipâpâ otapwiya].
that=3' $1=$ dad $3=$ paddle $=3^{\prime}$
'My dad's paddles are those ones.'

When a possessive noun phrase is the predicate of a deictic equational sentence, it may form a discontinuous constituent. In example \#317, the discontinuous predicate is nipâpâ otapwiya 'my father's paddles'.

```
317. [nipâpâ] anihi [otapwiya].
    1=dad that=3' 3=paddle=3'
    'It is my father who owns those paddles.'
```

The word order difference between \#315, \#316 and \#317 reflects a general tendency for focussed information to occur clause initially in Woods Cree. Example \#315 answers the question 'what are those?', example \#316 answers the question 'which paddles are my dad's?' and example \#317 answers the question 'whose paddles are those?'. Examples
\#315 to \#317 are illustrated diagrammatically in \#318. 1




A second type of verbless sentence begins with i(ya)kwani 'that one'. In this type of sentence, the noun phrase has previously been identified. In most examples, $\hat{i}(y a) k w a n i$ is a particle. Example \#319 taken from a text recorded by an older male is an exception. Here, f(ya)kwanik 'those ones' is inflected for number.

1 Example \#317 is ambiguous. It can also be a complex noun phrase. The two interpretations are diagrammed below:
[nipâpâ] [anihi otapwiya] 'my dad's paddles' [nipâpâ anihi] [otapwiya] 'those are my dad's paddles.'

Native speakers are aware of the ambiguity. Example \#316 is similarly ambiguous.
319. 全(ya)kwanik [aniki wîtikôwak].
that-one=3p that=3p crazy-person=3p
'Those are the wihtikow.'
f(ya)kwani normally precedes the noun phrase with which it forms an equational sentence. Any type of noun phrase may follow this particle although, in most cases, the noun phrase consists of a noun preceded by one or more modifiers.
320. í(ya)kwani [nistam pâskisikana].
that-one first gun=0p
'Those were the first guns.'
321. í(ya)kwani [anihi anohc nisto
that-one that $=0 \mathrm{p}$ now three
kâ-ki-miskotamân].
IPV=past=mention $\backslash T I=1-0 \mathrm{C}$
'Those are the three $I$ just mentioned.'
322. î(ya)kwani [ôho ayahâwa osâwaskwâpîsa
that-one this=3' whoever=3' jackfish=3'
â-kíitât]
IPV=past=say $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'That was the jackfish he was talking about.'

The negative existential is a third type of verbless sentence. Negative existential sentences are introduced by
the negative indefinite noun phrase mwâc kîkwân 'nothing'. The negative phrase may precede an animate or inanimate noun phrase and is not inflected for number.
323. mwâc kîkwân [ômatowa wâskâhikan].
neg thing like=this house
'There was no such thing as a house like this.'
324. mwâc kikwân [wîmistikôsiw] kayâs.
neg thing whiteman long-ago
'There was no whiteman long ago.'

A final type of equational sentence is the interrogative. Interrogative equationals contain a form of one of the following interrogative pronouns: awina 'who', kîkwân/kîkway 'what', tâna 'which one(3)' or tâniwâ 'where is'. Interrogative equational sentences consist of an interrogative pronoun followed by an optional nominal complement, as in \#325:
325. awina kipâpâ?
who $\quad 2=$ dad
'Who is your dad?'

The only obligatory constituent in a verbal clause is the verb. Nouns and particles are optional. When particles occur, they tend to be placed before the verb, as in \#326.

> 326. anohc pô mwâ tâpwî nimi $\delta$ wîyihtinân. now only neg really l=like\TI=1p-oI
> 'We really don't like it now.'

Since the core arguments are identified by obligatory pronominal affixes on the verb, the verb inflection may provide the only indication of the participants in the clause, as in \#327.
327. mốda mâka ôta ciskwa takosin.
neg but here yet arrive $\backslash A I=3 I$
'But he hasn't arrived here yet.'

When a nominal argument occurs in a clause, it is often emphasized and precedes the verb. Example \#328 has a preverbal object and in example \#329, the subject occurs in pre-verbal position.
328. akwa mîna nimâmâ niwîcayamâw îkota.
and also $1=$ mom $1=$ with-be $\backslash T A=1-3 I$ there
'And I also went there with my mom.'
329. nîkimâkan piko pîhtokamik ki-ayâw.

1=spouse only inside past=be $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'Only my spouse was inside.'

As a general rule, no more than one noun phrase occurs per clause. Post-verbal noun phrases occur most often when the noun phrase contains a deictic pronoun. The gender of the post-verbal noun may be inanimate, as in \#330, or animate, as in \#331. Inanimate nouns are rarely salient enough to be emphasized or in focus. A deictic pronoun indicates that the noun phrase represents old information. When not emphasized or in focus, a noun phrase that contains old information follows the verb.
330. $\hat{i} k o t a ~ k \hat{a}-k \hat{\imath}-a s t a ̂ c i k ~$
there $I P V=$ past $=$ put $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} C$ ômíiw.
'They put this there.'
but past=be-amazing $\backslash A I=3 I$ that $=3$
nimosôm.
1=grandfather
'My grandfather did amazing deeds.'
6.3 MOOD

### 6.3.1 Declarative Clauses

Most sentences that occur in natural language are declarative. There is no special marking for a declarative clause in Woods Cree. The verb in a main clause declarative can be inflected as an independent as in \#332 or as a conjunct as in \#333. The declarative clause can also be affirmative or negative. A negative statement is made by adding a negative particle before the verb or before a constituent which occurs in pre-verbal position. In example \#332, the negative particle is mwâ.
332. anohc pô mwâ tâpwî nimi $\delta$ wî $\delta$ intînân.
now only neg really $1=1$ ike $\backslash T I=1 p-0 I$
'At this time, we are not really happy.'
333. kahkiסaw awâsisak î-wîmiscikôsimocik.
all child=3p IPV=speak-whiteman $\backslash A I=3 p C$
'All the children speak English.'

Declarative clauses are also negated by the particles mwâc, mô
334. mwâc $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}$-ayamit $\quad$ ídikoh $\hat{i}$-wîsakîyintahk
neg $I P V=a b l e=t a l k \backslash A I=3 C$ so-long-as $I P V=h u r t \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ oskîsik.
$3=$ eye
'He couldn't talk because his eye hurt so. ${ }^{2}$
335. mốa n-ôh-misikitin.
neg $1=n e g p a s t=b i g \backslash A I=1 I$
'I wasn't that big.'
336. ̂̂kâ kata-pônihtâcik.
neg should=stop\TI2-3p-0'C
'They should not give up.'

The verb in a clause negated by mwâ, mwâc, or môda may be inflected as independent or conjunct. The verb in a clause negated by îkâ is always conjunct. A parallel situation exists between main and subordinate clauses. Although main clauses allow independent or conjunct verbs, subordinate clauses permit only conjunct verbs. This overlap, illustrated in Table 6.1, is discussed in greater detail in Chapter VIII.

2 The transitive inanimate verb wîsakîyintam 'he hurts (it)' is an unusual verb. It has an experiencer as its grammatical subject but a body part as its syntactic subject.

TABLE 6.1

## 'Negative Particles'

| NEGATIVE PARTICLE | CLAUSE | INFLECTION |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mwâ/mwâc/mốa | main | independent/conjunct |
| îkâ | (main)/subordinate | conjunct |

### 6.3.2 Interrogative Clauses

Interrogative clauses bear structural similarities to their corresponding declarative clauses. There are two types of main clause interrogatives: yes-no questions and content questions. In both types of questions, clause initial constituents are in focus.
337. kîkwân na $\hat{\imath}-\mathrm{k} \hat{\imath}-\mathrm{p} \hat{\imath}-n a ̂ t a m a n ?$
thing $=0$ Q IPV=past=to=fetch $\backslash T I=2-0 C$
'Did you come here for something?'
338. awina wîkiwâh kâ-kî-kimotinâniwah?
who=3 $3=$ home $=3 p=10 c$ IPV=past=steal $\backslash I I=0 C$
'Whose place was there a theft at?'
6.3.2.1 Yes-No Questions

Of the two types of questions, the yes-no question shows the most similarities to the corresponding declarative clause. Yes-no questions are divided into four main types: intonation questions, na questions, cî questions and ciyi questions. A minor type of question, the mâ question, is also covered in this section. Yes-no questions are negated by a clause initial negative particle, as in \#339.
339. mwâ na kimiskîn?
neg $Q \quad 2=$ find $\backslash T I=2-0 I$
'You can't find it?'

Intonation questions are identical to declarative clauses with the exception of the rising intonation on the clause final syllable. Intonation questions are infrequent and usually consist of a single verb.
340. kinintâ-âca $\delta o ̂ h k a ̂ n ? ~$
$2=k n o w=t e l l-l$ egends $\backslash A I=2 I$
'Do you know how to tell legends?'

The three other main types of yes-no questions are signalled by a grammatical particle in addition to the final rising intonation. The question particles na and cír
cliticize to the initial word in the clause. The question particles may occur after any type of constituent. In the following examples, they occur after the particles kiyapic 'still' and îkotî 'there'.
341. kiyâpic na anihi wîcayamîw?
still $Q$ that=3' with-be $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$
'Is she still living with him?'
342. îkotî cî ayâyin?
there $Q$ be $\backslash A I=2 C$
'Is that where you live?'

An unmarked polar question occurs with the polar clitic na and is answered affirmatively by the particle ihî 'yes'. The clitic cif occurs when a speaker expects an answer which confirms his/her expectations. The affirmative answer to a ci question is normally ya. The two question types are exemplified in \#343 and \#344.
343. i-âhkosit na?
$I P V=\operatorname{sick} \backslash A I=3 C Q$
'Is he sick?' (feel head for temperature)
344. ̂̂-âhkosit cî?
$I P V=$ sick $\backslash A I=3 C \quad Q$
'He's sick, isn't he?'

The ci question is related to a fourth type of question: the tag question. The tag, ciyi occurs in sentence final position. It requests verification of the preceding proposition. Examples are:
345. mâmaskâc ciyi?
amazing right
'It's amazing, isn't it?'
346. kiyâpic Margaret kînitawîסimîw anihi, ciyi? still Margaret past=want $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ that=3' right
'Margaret still wanted that one, right?'

Although the clitic $\underline{\underline{i}}$ and the tag ciyi are similar at a phonetic and a semantic level, they are structurally distinct. ciyi usually follows clauses in which the verb is an independent. If cî is preceded by a verb, that verb is almost always a conjunct.

Another type of yes-no question is the mâ question. mâ questions are formed by attaching the clitic mâ to the first word in the clause. The affirmative answer to a mâ question is ya. Unlike other types of questions, mâ questions may not occur in a clause with an independent verb or be negated with a main clause negative morpheme. mâ questions are negated with the subordinate negative particle îkâ, as in \#347.
347. îkâ mâ î-apit?
neg but IPV=sit(be-home) $\backslash A I=3 C$
'What if he's [not] home?'

Although any type of constituent may occur before mâ, usually a noun or pronoun occurs in this position.
348. îyako mâ?
that $=3$ but?
'What about that one (previously identified)?'

The particle mâ provides a means for a referent to be introduced into an established discourse context. The following telephone conversation illustrates this point. In this excerpt, Speaker A introduces the topic of the father's gifts and their recipients. The particle mâ in the following sentence introduces nîda 'I' as a referent into this discourse context.
349.

A: tânispiy kâ-wî-pî-kîwîyin?
when $\quad I P V=w a n t=t o=$ go-home $\backslash A I=2 C$
B: pâtimâ, Saturday.
later Saturday
A: kipâpânaw kí-takosin.
$2=$ dad=12 past=arrive $\backslash A I=3 I$
B: That's what I wanted to know. (switched to English) ${ }^{3}$

A: ni-kî-atâwîstamâkonân maskosisak, nî IPV=past=buy $\backslash T A+O=3-1 p I$ bear=dim=3p I and Heather
akwa Ecâc.
and Edith
B: nî $\delta$ a mâ?
I but
A: mwâc. (laughter)
A: 'When are you coming home?'
B: 'Not till Saturday.'
A: 'Our dad arrived.'
B: 'That's what I wanted to know."
A: 'He brought us little bears -me, Heather and Edith.'
B: 'What about me?'
A: 'Nothing.'

3 The excerpt is taken from a conversation between two younger speakers. Younger speakers frequently switch to English to signal important information.

Content questions are signalled by a content question word with rising intonation on its first syllable. Content question words come in two types: interrogative pronouns and interrogative particles. There are four sets of interrogative pronouns and a number of interrogative particles consisting of tân 'which' and a relative particle. The two types of interrogative words are listed in Table 6.2. Interrogative pronouns are represented by their third singular animate forms. The pronominal paradigms are given in section 3.3.

TABLE 6.2
'Content Question Words'

| awina | 'who' |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kîkway/kîkwân | 'what/ 4 |  |  |
| tâna | 'which' |  |  |
| tâniwâ | 'where' |  |  |
| tân(i)tî | 'where' | $=$ tân+ití | 'thither' |
| tân(i)ta | 'where' | = tân+ita | 'there' |
| tanispiy | 'when' | = tân+ispiy | 'when' |
| tânisikoh(k) | 'how much' | $=$ tân+ísikohk | 'so far/long' |
| tântahto | 'how many' | = tân+tahto | 'many' |
| tan(i)si | 'how' | = tân+isi | 'thus' |
| tântôwihkan tântôwi | 'what kind' <br> 'what kind of' | = tân+tôwihkan | 'such a kind' |

[^8]Most content questions contain one clause initial content question word. Examples are:
350. tân(i)si ispasihikawiyin, nôcokîsiw?
how happen $\backslash T A=X-2 C$ old-woman
'What happened to you, old woman?'
351. kikwân patos ôma akwa anima?
what difference this $=0$ and that $=0$
'What is the difference between this and that?'

When two content question words occur in the same clause, if one of the content question words is the subject of the sentence, it occurs in clause initial position.
352. awina atâwît kîkwâdiw?
who buy $\backslash A I+O=3 C$ what $=0^{\prime}$
'Who buys what?'

A content question shares characteristics with both main and subordinate clauses. Although most content questions contain a verb inflected as conjunct, a content question that contains a verb with a relative root or relative preverb may be inflected as independent. The inflection on the verb in a content question with a relative root or preverb is conditioned by discourse factors described in Chapter VIII. Example \#353 contains an independent verb.

It is a possible response to the following statement: nôcânisin mîna. 'I also have a daughter.' Example \#354 in which the verb is inflected as conjunct could not occur in this context.
353. tân(i)si isi§ihkâsow?
how be-called $\backslash A I=3 I$
'What is she called?'
354. tân(i)sî isisihkâsot?
how be-called $\backslash A I=3 C$
'What is she called?'

In a typical content question, the content question word codes new information and the verb and other elements in the clause represent old information, as in \#355. The old information is represented by a conjunct verb and negated with the subordinate clause negator ikâ, as in \#356.
355. tânispiy ocîmân â-kî-ayât? when $\quad 3=$ boat $\quad I P V=$ past $=$ get $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'When did he get his boat?'
356. kîkwân ikâ kâ-ohci-tôtaman?
what neg $I P V=$ for $=d o \backslash T I=2-0 C$
'Why didn't you do it?'

The word order of the old elements in a content question is free. Differences in word order reflect differences in emphasis.
357. kîkwâdiw â-nitawiyihtah ana iskwîw?
what $=0^{\prime}$ IPV=want $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ that $=3$ woman
'What does the woman want?' [Deaf man asking
question]
358. kikwấiw ana iskwîw â-nitawîyintah?
what $=0$ that $=3$ woman $I P V=$ want $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'What does that woman want?' [as opposed to this
woman]

### 6.3.3 Imperative clauses

Imperative clauses contain a special type of verb and have clause final lowering intonation. An example of imperative verb is given in \#359. Imperative clauses may be affirmative or negative, and if negative the verb is preceded by the particle kâda, as in \#360.

```
359. otinamawin côs.
    take\TA+O=2-1Imp juice
    'Buy me some juice.'
```

360. kâda wanikiskisi ôho.
don't forget $\backslash A I+O=2$ Imp this=0p
'Don't forget these.'

Imperative verbs may be used as requests, as in \#361. Requests are answered by ya or mwâc.
361. A: Lisa, awihin $\quad$ kimaskisina.
Lisa lend $\backslash \mathrm{TA}+0=2-1$ Imp $2=$ shoe $=0 \mathrm{p}$
'Lisa, lend me your shoes.'
B: ya.
Yes.

### 6.4 COMPLEX STRUCTURES

### 6.4.1 Coordination

6.4.1.1 Symmetrical Coordination

Coordinate structures contain more than one main clause. The verb in each clause can be inflected as independent, as in \#362. Coordinate structures are either symmetrical or asymmetrical. In a symmetrical structure, neither clause is dependent on the other. A frequent type of symmetrical coordinate structure in Woods Cree consists of two or more juxtaposed clauses. The verbs in a juxtaposed structure are morphologically symmetrical in their inflectional order
and preverb structure. In example \#362, all three verbs are inflected as independents, are unmarked for tense and contain the preverb ki- 'able'.
362. kí-pakâsimâw, k̂̀-sâ-sâpiskatâw, kî-cîpwatahwâw. able=boil $\backslash T A=X-3 I$ able=fry $\backslash T A=X-3 I$ able=roast $\backslash T A=X-3 I$
' It can be boiled, it can be fried, it can be baked over a fire on a stick.'

If the verbs in a juxtaposed structure are conjuncts, the same type of conjunct verb occurs in both clauses. In \#363, the two juxtaposed verbs are $\hat{i}$-conjunct.

> 363. mâyida mîna $\hat{\imath}-k \hat{i}-m i s i k i t i t ~$ but also $I P V=$ past=big $\backslash A I=3 C$-tahcipôt.
> 'And=past=fat $\backslash A I=3 C$

Clauses are also conjoined by coordinating particles. 5 The next three examples illustrate symmetrical coordinate clauses conjoined with mâyisa 'but', ahpo 'or' and akwa

5 The coordinating particles also occur sentence initially as discourse connectors, as in \#363.
'and' respectively. 6 In this type of coordinate structure, the verbs often have the same tense, the verbs begin with a similar set of preverbs and their inflections come from the same inflectional order.
364. môda-ída tâpwî îkota î-kî-ohci-pîhtokît neg=emp really there $I P V=p a s t=f r o m=e n t e r \backslash A I=3 C$ ôta mâyida îkosi $\hat{1}-k \hat{\imath}-i s i-p a w a ̂ m i t . ~$ here but thus $I P V=$ past $=$ rel $=d r e a m \backslash A I=3 C$ 'He really didn't enter there from here, (but) he just dreamt like that."
365. môsak $\quad$ kâ-ki-kitôtitân ahpo
always $\quad$ IPV=past=rebuke $\backslash T A=1-2 C$ or kâ-kî-pakamahotân
$I P V=p a s t=h i t \backslash T A=1-2 C$
'I always talked back at you and/or I hit you.'
366. ̂̂-cîpwatahoht akwa $\hat{1}$-pakâsimint.
$I P V=$ roast-with-stick $\backslash T A=X-3 C$ and $\quad I P V=$ boil $\backslash T A=X-3 C$
'It [anim] is cooked over a fire and it [anim] is boiled.'

6 mayida 'but' can also occur sentence finally, as in:
$\frac{\text { ata }}{\text { although }} \frac{\text { kwayask }}{\text { right }} \frac{\text { niki-pîhtin }}{1=p a s t=h e a r} \backslash T I=1-0 I \frac{\text { mwâ }}{\text { neg }} \frac{\text { nikiskisin }}{1=r e m e m b e r ~}$ although right $\quad 1=$ past $=$ hear $\backslash T I=1-0 I$ neg $\quad$ i=remember $\backslash A I=1 I$ mayida. but
'I've heard a lot, but I still don't remember.'

In a symmetrical coordinate structure, both clauses may be negated with a main clause negative particle, as in \#367.
367. akwa mốa nikíi and neg $1=a b l e=$ Indian=read $\backslash A I=1 I$ or neg nikíwîmistikôsî-ayamihcikân ikospiy.
$1=$ able=whiteman=read= $\backslash A I=1 I$ then
'And I wasn't able to read Cree or English then.'

Example \#368 illustrates another fact about symmetrically coordinate clauses. In rare instances in which overt noun phrases occur in this type of coordinate structure, the clauses have similar word orders. In example \#368, the overt noun phrases precede the AI+O verb in both clauses.
368. doctora wîsta $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-p \hat{i}-i s k o r t \hat{i} t$ isa akwa
doctor=3' 3-too IPV=past=to=escort $\backslash A I+O=3 \mathrm{Chrs}$ and
wista Vi $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-p \hat{i}-i s k o r t i t$.
3-too Vi IPV=past=to=escort $\backslash A I+O=3 C$
'She escorted him to the doctor and vi escorted him too."

The morphological symmetry also pertains to obviation. When two distinct third persons in any coordinate structure
bear similar grammatical roles, they are assigned the same obviative status. 7 In example \#368, the third person animate subject of the first clause, indicated only through verb inflection, and the different third person subject of the second clause, vi, are both proximate.

### 6.4.1.2 Asymmetrical Coordination

In an asymmetrical coordinate structure, the second clause is dependent on the first clause. That dependency can be temporal or causal.

If both clauses in a temporally asymmetrical coordinate structure have the same subject, the verbs in the structure may be morphologically symmetrical as in \#369 or morphologically asymmetrical, as in \#370. In the former example, both clauses contain a conjunct verb. In the latter example, the first clause has an independent verb and the second clause has a conjunct verb.
369. kâ-tâh-tâskipahât

IPV=redup=split $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ and $\mathrm{IPV}=\mathrm{dry} \backslash \mathrm{TA}=3-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
'He split it and then he dried it.'

7 This fact has also been reported in Fox (Goddard 1984:277).
370. kî-cimatâwak akwa
past $=$ stand $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} I$ and
â-kí-pimâskwamotâcik.
$I P V=p a s t=$ put-across $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'They stood them up and they put (logs) across.'

When the subjects of the two clauses are different, the verbs in this type of structure are usually also morphologically different. The verbs in the two clauses take different types of changed conjunct preverbs or the verbs differ in inflectional orders. In example \#371, the verbs in the two clauses differ with respect to the type of changed preverb that precedes the stem. In example \#372, the first verb is an independent, the second verb is a conjunct.

then used-to IPV=past=go-to=redup=stand $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
mistikwa akwa îkota mâna
stick $=0 \mathrm{p}$ and there used-to
kâ-kî-wîpiskâcikîyâh.
IPV=past=throw-by-body $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{pC}$
'Then she stuck the sticks [in the ground] and we used to throw [a ball] around there."

```
372. kwâni kitakotân ôho askiya akwa miconi
    then 2=hang\TI2=2-0I this=0p moss=0p and so-much
    î-pastîkwâw.
    IPV=dry/II=0pC
    'Then you hang these pieces of moss and they dry
    thoroughly.'
```

Causal clauses represent a second type of asymmetrical structure. Causal clauses begin with the particle wida 'because'. As in other coordinate structures, the verb following the conjunction may be inflected as independent or as conjunct. In \#373, the clause following wida 'because' has its verb inflected as independent, while in \#374, the verb following the particle is inflected as conjunct.
373. kwâni mâyida íiniw ifôh $\hat{1}$-kakîhtasit wi then but person so-much $I P V=s m a r t \backslash A I=3 C$ cause îyakwîdiw wîda kî-pî-wâpahtam pí-otânahk. that-one $=0^{\prime}$ he-too past=to=see $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ to=behind=loc
'A person is smart because he has seen it in the past.'
374. î-kî-kisiwâsit isa ikâ wida
$I P V=$ past=angry $\backslash A I=3 C$ hrs neg cause
i-ki-ohci-pi-mícisot.
$I P V=$ past $=$ negpast $=$ to $=$ eat $\backslash A I=3 C$
'She was angry because she didn't come to eat.'

If both clauses in a causal structure have the same subject, the verbs may be morphologically symmetrical as in \#374, or morphologically asymmetrical as in \#375.


When a causally asymmetrical structure has two different subjects, the verbs often differ. In example \#376, the verbs in the two clauses differ with respect to the type of changed conjunct preverb that precedes the stem.
376. kîkwân itokî kâ-pî-nâh-ninci-pimosiniht
thing perhaps $I P V=$ to=redup=below=throw $\backslash T A=x-3 C$
wída $\hat{\text { I-câh-cistipitikot. }}$
cause $\quad I P V=$ redup $=$ scratch $\backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$
'Perhaps someone threw the thing down because it was scratching him.'

Asymmetrical structures differ from symmetrical structures with respect to negation. The second clause in an asymmetrical coordinate structure is negated with the
subordinate clause negative morpheme $\hat{1 k} \hat{a}$, as in \#374. The two types of coordinate structures are similar in their use of multiple proximates and independent verbs. These features distinguish them from the subordinate clauses in Chapter VII.

### 6.4.2 Structures with Verbs of Thinking and Saying

Another type of structure containing more than one clause is the comment clause. A comment clause consists of a discourse verb and an antecedent. The discourse verb contains a relative root or preverb, as in itîyintam 'he thinks so', itwîw 'he says' or isi-tipwîw 'he yells so'. The discourse verb is sometimes replaced by the particle it 'said'. The antecedent of the discourse verb has no restrictions. In the following examples, the antecedent is an imperative, a declarative and an interrogative clause, respectively.
377. "kwâni wîcihin," nitisi-tîpwâtik.
then help/TA=2-1Imp 1=rel=yell $\backslash T A=3-1 I$
"Help me," she yelled.'
378. "kwâni mwâc nitîpipa $\delta i n, "$ î-itak.
then neg $1=e n o u g h / A I=1 I \quad I P V=s a y / T A=1-3 C$
'So I said to her, "I don't have enough".'
379. "tânîhkâ nikosisak?" î-isi-tîpwît.
where $=3 p \quad 1=$ son=3p $\quad I P V=r e l=y e l l \backslash A I=3 C$
'"Where are my sons?" she yelled.'


#### Abstract

The antecedent can also be a sentence fragment, for example the particle kiyâpic 'still', as in \#380 or it can be in English, as in \#381.


380. "kiyâpic, kiyâpic," nitik.

$$
\text { still still } 1=\text { say } \backslash T A=3-1 I
$$

" "More, more," she said to me."
381. "We wanted somebody to run from South Indian Lake," kâ-ki-itwît.
$I P V=$ past $=s a y / A I=3 C$
" "We wanted somebody to run from South Indian Lake," he said.'

The use of the independent on both the discourse verb and on the verb in its antecedent indicates the nonsubordinate status of both clauses in the comment structure in \#382.
382. "mwâc takosin," itwîw.
neg arrive $\backslash A I=3 I$ say $\backslash A I=3 I$
'"She didn't arrive," he said.'

The use of multiple proximates in comment clauses also shows the equal status of both clauses. If a discourse verb has a third person animate subject and another third person occurs in the antecedent, both verbs are coded as taking proximate subjects, as in \#383. A sequence of proximates is only possible when all clauses are non-subordinate. In the subordinate structures, the third person animate subject of the subordinate clause is inflected as obviative, if a different third person animate subject occurs in the main clause. An example of this accurs in \#234.
383. "kwâni i-ati-wanihtât ômísiw then $I P V=$ incp $=10 s e \backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} C$ this $=0^{\prime}$ okiskinôhamowin," itwîw. 3=learning
say $\backslash \overline{A I}=3 I$
""And he loses his education," he says.'

## Chapter VII <br> SUBORDINATE CLAUSE TYPES

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

All subordinate clauses in Woods Cree contain a conjunct verb and when negated take the negative particle îkâ. Example \#384 contains a typical subordinate clause.
384. kwâni wîsâ $\hat{\imath}$-ma-mawîhkî $\delta$ imak then so-much IPV=redup=apprehensive $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ [îkâ $\hat{\imath}-w \hat{\imath}-n i p a t]$.
neg $I P V=$ want $=$ sleep $\backslash A I=3 C$
'I was getting very apprehensive when he didn't want to sleep.'

The chapter divides subordinate clauses into complements, adverbial clauses and relative clauses. The subordinate clause types are distinguished from each other by a combination of syntactic features. The features are outlined in Table 7.1 and discussed in detail in the sections that follow.

Table 7.1
Subordinate Clause Types

|  | SUBJ-COPYING | CLAUSE ORDER TENSE SEQUENCING |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Complements | yes | fixed |
| Adverbial clauses no | fixed/free relative/absolute |  |
| Relative clauses no | free | relative |

### 7.2. COMPLEMENTS

Complements include indirect content questions, indirect yes-no questions and declarative sentential complements. The complement clauses differ in their verb morphology and their introductory particle, or absence thereof. The details are listed in Tables 7.2 and 7.3.1 Rare verb forms are noted in parenthesis. Examples of the three types of respective complements are:
385. mwâ na kikiskîyintîn [tân(i)si isi-ayât]?
neg Q $2=k n o w \backslash T I=2-0 I$ how rel=be $\backslash A I=3 C$
'Do you know how he is feeling?'

1 The verb morphology is described in greater detail in Chapter IX.

```
386. nikakwîcimâw [mahti sipwintit].
    1=ask\TA=1-3I IQ leave\AI=3C
'I am asking him whether he is leaving.' 387. pîסisk nikiskîyihtîn [î-iskwâtahtamân].
finally \(1=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 I \quad I P V=\) short-breath \(\backslash T I=1-0 C\)
'Finally I knew that I was out of breath.'
```

TABLE 7.2
Introductory Particles

| PARTICLE | UNMARKED PARTICLE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| indir. c.q. yes | content question word <br> relative particle <br> relative preverb |
| indir. y-n mahti | yes ahpo/kisaspin |
| decl. compl. no |  |

TABLE 7.3
Verbs in Complement Clauses

REALIZED
(k) â-

1-
unchanged
UNREALIZED



Table 7.1 states that complements are defined syntactically on the basis of three syntactic features, the first of which is subject copying. Subject copying results in the object of the main clause being co-referential with the subject of the complement clause. At a morphological level, subject copying means the verb in the main clause changes from a TI verb to a TA verb. In \#388, the subject of the verb in the complement clause $\hat{1}$-ayat 'he is' is coreferential with the object of the main clause verb nikiskísimâw 'I know him'. Example \#389 is the same structure without subject copying. Further details are available in Dahlstrom (1986:79-90).
388. nikiskî́imâw [îkota î-ayât].
$1=k n o w \backslash T A=1-3 I$ there $I P V=b e \backslash A I=3 C$
'I know he's there.'
389. nikiskífihtîn [îkota î-ayât].
$1=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 I \quad$ there $I P V=b e \backslash A I=3 C$
'I know he's there.'

A second feature, clause order, distinguishes complement structures from relative clauses and most types of adverbial clauses. Complements, as the above examples illustrate, always follow their main clause.

Tense sequencing is illustrated in \#390. In complement structures, the tense of the complement clause is marked for time relative to the time of the situation in the main clause.

```
390. mâyi\deltaa \hat{\imath}-k\hat{\imath}-kiskî\deltaimint
    but IPV=past=know\TA=X-3C IPV=be-glutton\AI=3C
    'But it was known he was a glutton.'
```


### 7.3. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses modify sentences. Apart from the lack of subject copying, few generalizations may be made about adverbial clauses. Adverbial clauses are divided into five basic types:

Type I purpose clauses, descriptive adverbials Type II iteratives

Type III hypothetical conditionals, counterfactuals
Type IV universal conditionals, time adverbials Type V concessives

The adverbial clauses in Type $I$, purpose clauses and descriptive adverbial clauses, are identified by their invariant verb forms. Purpose clauses require ta-conjunct
verbs, as in \#391, and descriptive adverbial clauses require $\hat{i}$-conjunct verbs, as in \#392. Purpose clauses and descriptive adverbials differ from other types of adverbial clauses in their strict clause order. The subordinate clause always follows the main clause.



#### Abstract

Purpose and descriptive adverbial clauses also have relative tense sequencing. The tense of the subordinate clause is marked relative to the time in the main clause, as in \#393.


393. Helen isa $\hat{i}-k \hat{\imath}-n a ̂ t a h ~$ otayâna

Helen hrs IPV=past=fetch $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C$ 3=thing=0p
[ta-sîpîkinamâh].
$I P V=w a s h \backslash T I=1 p-0 C$
'Helen took her things so that we could wash them.'

The adverbial clauses listed under Type II include iteratives. Iterative clauses contain the particle ôma 'whenever' and a conjunct verb with a (k)â- preverb. The tense of the iterative clause is determined relative to the time of the main clause, as in \#394.
394. [akwa mîna ôma ̂̂kâ kâ-waniskât] kwâni and also when neg $I P V=g e t-u p \backslash A I=3 C$ then i-ki-nitawi-pônamawak.

IPV=past=go-to=light-fire $\backslash T A+O=1-3 C$
'And also whenever she didn't get up then I went and lit a fire for her.'

Iteratives share with the class of adverbial clauses listed under Type $I$, relative tense sequencing and invariant conjunct verb morphology. They differ from the above in the position of the adverbial clause. In Type II clauses, the adverbial clause precedes the main clause.

Hypothetical and counterfactual conditionals form a third type of adverbial clause. Type 3 adverbial clauses may precede or follow the main clause. The order of the adverbial clause is determined by its role in linking the main clause to the preceding discourse. Type III adverbial clauses also have invariant verb morphology. A hypothetical clause takes a subjunctive verb, as in \#395.

The verb in a counterfactual is the simple unchanged conjunct form, as in \#396. Unlike most other types of adverbial clauses, the tense of the conditional clause is determined relative to the time of speaking.
395. [ôho pî-pimitisihoyamihci] î-wî-pâskiswât.
this=3' to=follow $\backslash T A=3-1 \mathrm{ps} \quad$ IPV=want $=$ shoot $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'If she follows us, she is going to shoot her.'
396. ahpwîtokî nântaw nakî-tôtâkonân [îkâ
or-perhaps about 1 fut=past=do\TA=3-1pI neg ohci-nakatakiht].
negpast=leave-behind $\backslash T A=1 p-3 C$
'Maybe she could have done something to us if we hadn't left her behind."

While a particular type of verb is required for each type of adverbial clause included under Types I to III, any type of conjunct verb may occur in a Type IV adverbial clause. Type IV adverbial clauses include the universal conditional and the time adverbial. The universal conditional is introduced by a question word or a relative particle and often occurs with the adverb piko/pô 'only', as in \#397. The universal condition clause may appear before or after the main clause and tense is determined relative to the time of the main clause.
397. [pô tânsi î-itâspinîбit awiסiwa]
only how $I P V=f e l l-i l l \backslash A I=3^{\prime} C$ someone $=3^{\prime}$
kî-akopitawîw mâna waskway. past=cure $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ used-to birchbark
'No matter what kind of sickness a person had, he used to cure them with birchbark.'

A time adverbial clause may be introduced by a temporal adverb such as mikwâc 'while' in \#398 or occur without a temporal adverb, as in \#399. When the time adverbial clause follows its main clause, the temporal adverb has an important role. It distinguishes a time adverbial structure from an asymmetrically coordinate structure.
398. mâyía îkâ ohci-pa-pîskîסimak [mîkwâc
but neg negpast=redup=attention $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ while
î-pâh-pîhtosikîyân].
$I P V=r e d u p=s k i n \backslash A I=1 C$
'I wasn't paying attention while $I$ was skinning.'
399. [kâ-ocawâsimisit] nawac anima maskihkiy IPV=be-pregnant $\backslash A I=3 C$ best that $=0$ medicine kâ-ohtîk.
boil $\backslash I I=0 C$
'When someone is pregnant, the medicine is best when it is boiled.'

Although in most time adverbial clauses, tense is determined relative to the tense in the main clause, tense in a time adverbial clause may also be determined relative to the time of speaking, as in \#400. No explanation for this can be provided at the present time. ${ }^{2}$

| 400. [ mawâc | kâ-kî-itâsiyâhk] | âsay |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| as-soon-as | $I P V=p a s t=c o u n t-a s \backslash A I=1 p C$ | already |
| nikî-tâpakwânân. |  |  |
| $1=$ past $=$ snare $\backslash$ AI $=1 \mathrm{pC}$ |  |  |
| 'As soon as snares.' | we were old enough, we we | setting |

Concessive clauses form a fifth group. These clauses begin with an introductory particle, kiyâm or âta 'even if, although', and contain a verb inflected as either $\hat{\underline{i}}$-conjunct or subjunctive. ${ }^{3}$ Concessive clauses differ from the adverbial clauses in Type IV in the way they mark tense. Concessive clauses always mark tense relative to the time of speaking, as in \#401. This feature makes this clause type distinct from most other adverbial clauses.

2 A similar situation occasionally occurs in Moose Cree when a time adverbial clause occurs in clause initial position (Jame 1992, personal communication).

3 The subjunctive occurs when the proposition in the main clause is unfulfilled. Among older speakers, clauses beginning with kiyâm 'enough' signal hypothetical 'even if' clauses. For younger speakers, the particles kiyâm and âta are often inter-changeable.

401

| [kiyâm | ikâ | mistah |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| although neg | lots |  |

̂-kî-ohci-tîpipahîkâsot kinosiw]
$I P V=p a s t=n e g p a s t=b e-$ enough $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ fish
kwâni ohcitaw kwayask niki-kaskincikânân.
then surely right $\quad 1=p a s t=e a r n \backslash A I=1 p I$
'Even though the fish wasn't worth it, we were able to earn enough. *
402. [kwâni âta
i-ki-kiskiyintan ita
then although $I P V=p a s t=k n o w \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ where
â-itohtî́it, kwâni mâka mwâc wista
IPV=go $\backslash A I=3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ then but neg 3-too
ohci-miskawîw.
negpast=find $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime \prime} I$
'Although he knew where she went, he too couldn't find her."

### 7.4 RELATIVE CLAUSES

A relative clause together with its head forms a complex noun phrase. The relative clause typically follows the head noun phrase and contains a (k)â-conjunct verb.

'And also my younger brother Ken who I raised now looks after lots of children.'

Like other complex noun phrases, the order of the major constituents may be reversed, as in \#404 and the head of the noun phrase may delete under identity, as in \#405.

$$
404
$$

## ta-wâpamîw

[kâ-âcimak]
ôho
IPV=see $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ IPV=tell-story $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ this=3'
wâpisiwa. ${ }^{4}$
swan=3'
'(S)he will see the swans I am talking about.'

4 In other dialects, the morpheme -im would occur on the verb kâ-acimak 'I am talking about them' in this context. See Ellis 1983:653-655.
405. awa wîmistikôsiw akwa ana kotak...
this $=3$ white-man and that=3 other
[kâ-misikitit].
$I P V=b i g \backslash A I=3 C$
'This whiteman and the other big one.'

When the relativized noun phrase functions as the subject or the object of the relative clause verb as in \#403 and \#404, the relative clause is attached directly to its head. When the relativized noun phrase functions as an oblique argument of the relative clause, the relative clause begins with a relative particle, as in \#406.

```
406. îyako mîkiwâhp [ita â-nipât].
        that-one tent where IPV=sleep\AI=3C
    'That is the tent he is sleeping in.'
```

The relative order of the main clause and the relative clause is also conditioned by the role of the relativized noun in the main clause. When the relativized noun is the subject of the main clause, it precedes the main clause verb, as in \#407. When the relativized noun phrase has a different role, it usually follows the main clause verb, as in \#408.
407. anima mâyi $\delta a$ [kâ-mihkwâk] mwâc mi $\delta$ wâsin. that $=0$ but $I P V=r e d \backslash I I=0 C$ neg good $\backslash I I=0 I$
'But that red one is no good.'
Another feature of the relative clause is its relative
tense marking. The tense of the relative clause is
determined relative to the time of speaking. This is
illustrated in \#408.
408. îyako î-kiskisiyân sîmâk îkota isa that $=0$ IPV=remember $\backslash A I=1 C$ immed there hrs anima [kâ-kî-wâpahtamân nîtî]. that $=0$ IPV=past=see $\backslash T I=1-0 C \quad$ there
'Right away $I$ am reminded of what I saw over there.'

## Chapter VIII

INDEPENDENT AND CONJUNCT VERBS

### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter VII, conjunct verbs link subordinate clauses to main clauses. This chapter attempts to show how conjunct verbs link main clauses to each other. Although the different types of conjunct verbs play different roles, they all link information between clauses. As a result, the conjunct plays an important cohesive role in a variety of monologic texts and conversational exchanges.

Because there is no clearly unmarked category of the conjunct, a number of conjunct verbs must be considered. The chapter will focus on the analysis of the three most common types of conjunct verbs: (k) $\hat{a}-, \hat{i}-$ and ta-. Discussion will be limited to how the various forms contrast with the independent. The various types of conjunct verbs are described in detail in Chapter IX.

### 8.2 NARRATIVE DISCOURSE

The most detailed analysis of Cree discourse, is based on the narrative (Dahlstrom 1986, James 1986) defined by Labov as 'a sequence of events' (Labov 1972). Published work on Cree discourse discusses the occurrence of large numbers of conjunct verbs in the main clauses of narrative texts (Goddard 1984, Dahlstrom 1986, Wolfart 1973). In Woods Cree, the main sequence of events is represented by a series of (k)â-conjunct verbs. In the following short narrative text, the three main events are all in main clauses which contain a verb beginning with the preverb (k)â- (sentences $1,8,9$ ). To aid the reader, the schematized structure of the narrative is presented at the end of the text.

## 409.

1. akwa awa nicîmic W., kwâni ayihî́iw and this=3 1=yo-br/si W., then whatev=0'
iskotîw kâ-pîhci-pahkihtin(i) $i$ ik oskîsikoh. fire/spark IPV=inside=fall $\backslash I I=0^{\prime} C \quad 3=e y e=10 c$
2. kotawânih înôcincikîyâh. 3. aspin pô smoke-stand=loc IPV=work-at $\backslash A I=1 p C \quad$ gone only
î-mâyimot, ômisi î-tôtah. 4. "nôhtâ IPV=cry-pain $\backslash A I=3 C$ this=rel $I P V=d o \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C \quad 1=f a$
nicîmic, tân(i)si ihtiyin?" it. 5. niwâpahtîn $1=y o-b r / s i$ how $\quad$ ail $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=2 \mathrm{C}$ said $1=\mathrm{see} \backslash T \mathrm{I}=1-0 \mathrm{I}$

```
    but fire/spark IPV=jump\II=0C neg
    î-kî-ayamit i\deltaôh íwissakîyihtah
    IPV=able=talk\AI=3C so-long-as IPV=hurt\TI=3-0'C
    oskisik. 7. "âw, pimisini ôta," nititâw.
    3=eye excl lie\AI=2Imp here l=say\TA=1-3I
8. â-pimisih. 9. kwâni wâpisîpimiy
IPV=lie\AI=3C then swan=grease
kâ-pîhci-sîkinamawak. 10. nômakîs
IPV=inside=pour\TA+O=1-3C short-while
kî-pa-pimisin. 11. kwâni mwâc osôma nântaw
past=redup=lie\AI=3I then neg odd=this=0 about
ohci-intiw.
negpast=ail\AI=3I
```

1. And this younger brother of mine $W$., a spark went into his eye. 2. We were working (hides) at the smokestand. 3. He was yelling in pain, and doing like this. 4. "My god, my younger brother, what is wrong with you?" (I) said. 5. But I saw (had seen) the spark jump. 6. He couldn't talk [because] his eye hurt so. 7. "Come on, lie down here," I said to him. 8. He laid down. 9. Then I poured swan grease in [his eye]. 10. He laid down for a while. 11. Then nothing unusual happened to him.
(k) â- independent $\hat{\underline{i}}-$
2. a spark falls
3. I see
4. I say
unchanged
imperative
5. we are working
6. he is yelling
7. you ail
8. he ca[n't] speak
7.1ie down
9. he lies down
10. I pour it
11. he lay down
12. he did[n't] ail

The (k) $\mathfrak{a}$-preverb provides a grammatical indication of a narrative in much the same way that Schiffrin 1981 describes the use of the historic present in English. In both instances, the verb is almost wholly confined to the complicating action. Woods cree verbs outside of the storyline are almost never (k) â-conjunct. All of the (k)âconjunct verbs in the text in this section occur in the
 narrative in Appendix $C$ also occur in the storyline. The only exceptions are one-line summaries, which may occur either in the abstract at the beginning of the narrative or in the coda at the end. An example of a one-line summary statement occurs in the coda in sentence 63 in the text in Appendix $C$, repeated below.
410. kwâni piyak kâ-kitamwât $\quad$ ana kisî́iniw
then one $\quad$ IPV=devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} C$ that $=3$ old-man
pîyakwâw $\hat{\imath}-$ mîcisot.
once $\quad$ IPV=eat $\backslash A I=3 C$
'So that is the one that old man devoured in one meal.'

Other types of conjunct verbs do not show the complicating action of a narrative and occur more frequently outside of the storyline. They are, however, similar to the (k)â-conjunct in containing information particularly important to the narrative. Consider, for example, the ta-conjunct containing the future marker ta-. This type of conjunct verb occurs less frequently than the (k)â-conjunct. There are no instances of the ta-conjunct in the preceding text, and only four ta-conjunct verbs in the main clauses in the narrative text in Appendix $C$. One of the examples of the ta-conjunct occurs in a direct quote (sentence 25). In the other three instances, the taconjunct verb occurs in the orientation section of the text (sentences 12-13,42) where it foreshadows important information. The future tense morpheme ta- indicates future relative to the tense of the text, the conjunct can be argued to signal the relative importance of the information. In sentences 12 and 13, repeated below, the ta-conjunct verbs signal major events in the story.
411. kwâni mâyí a mwâc ta-kîwîhtahât.
then but neg $I P V=$ bring-home $\backslash T A=3-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
piko ta-kitamwât.
only IPV=devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'But he would not take them home. He would just devour them.'

The ta-conjunct verb in sentence 42 in Appendix $C$, repeated in \#412 below, signals a second major dilemma in the story. Here, the ta-conjunct is used to foreshadow the next episode in the narrative. The ta-conjunct, like the (k) $\hat{a}$-conjunct, is a cohesive devise which links important information in the text with subsequent events in the storyline.
412. kwâni itokî $\hat{\text { i-kísi-piminawâsonâniwik }}$
then perhaps $I P V=$ complete $=$ cook $\backslash I I=0 C$
ta-ati-mîcisonâniwik.
$I P V=$ incp $=e a t \backslash I I=0 C$
'So after the cooking was done, the eating started.'

Before discussing a third type of conjunct verb occurring in main clauses, the $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$-conjunct, it is necessary to comment on the use of independent verbs. Independent verbs are not used to sequence or summarize events or to foreshadow important events. Independent verbs tend to convey less important information, which may appear to be disjointed. In narrative texts such as the one in \#409, independent verbs occur outside of the narrative ${ }^{1}$ where

1 While the verb meaning 'I said' in \#7, which is independent, does in one sense describe a narrative eventthe event of speaking - it is parenthetical in force; it is backgrounded in importance relative to the main piece of information in the sentence, i.e., what the narrator said. It is proposed here that this verb is independent because it denotes parenthetical, less important information.
they frequently contain a past tense morpheme, ki- or ohci-. 2 In \#409, the last two sentences, repeated below, contain past tense morphemes. Both sentences contain an independent verb. A similar situation occurs in the narrative text in Appendix C. ${ }^{3}$
413. 10. nômakís ki-pa-pimisin.
short-while past=redup=1ie $\backslash A I=3 I$
'He laid down for a little while.'
11. kwâni mwâc osôma nântaw ohci-intiw.
then neg odd=this=0 about negpast=ail $\backslash A I=3 I$
'Then nothing unusual happened to him.'

Within the narrative in Appendix $C$, independent verbs tend to provide background or secondary information which enables the listener to fully understand the text. Independent verbs often convey the general message of the narrative as either a result (sentences $30,31,34,49-50$ ) or as an evaluation (sentences $39,41,51-54$ ). Because of this, independent verbs are usual but not obligatory in

2 Within the complicating action of the narrative, (k)â- occurs without the past tense morpheme kî-. The temporal orientation of the events is indicated through their presentation order.

3 In the narrative text in Appendix $c$, independent verbs occur in the abstract (sentences 2,4,5), in narrator's asides (sentences 58-60) and in the coda (sentence 64).
clauses which are, in the sense of Hopper and Thompson 1980, low in transitivity. They frequently occur in clauses which contain either a verb of saying, thinking or seeing, or a negative. Because the examples rely on discourse factors, the rules are not absolute, as the facts below show.

Within the narrative, independent inflections frequently occur on verbs such as itiyintam 'he thinks so', wâpahtam 'he sees (it)' and itwiw 'he says'. A verb of seeing occurs in sentence 5 and as noted in footnote 1 , a verb of saying occurs in sentence 7 of the text in \#409, both of which are inflected as independent. The verbs provide background information which is related but not central to the storyline.

Although most of the examples of verbs of saying, thinking and seeing occur with independent inflections in the narrative text in Appendix $C$, there are two exceptions where a verb of saying inflects as (k)â-conjunct. They occur in sentences 9 and 54. In both instances, the utterances are an important part of the storyline. 4 The uttering of the verb (k)a-itwit 'he said' is important in sentence 9 because it not only emphasizes the individual's greed, but also initiates the sequences of events which

4 Cyr 1991 describes a similar situation in Montagnais.
follow. In sentence 54, the utterance emphasizes that the old man was lying, thereby providing the end of the complicating action and making (k)â-itwît 'he said' a vital part of the storyline. This use of the (k)â-conjunct parallels its use earlier in this section.

Clauses which contain a main clause negative morpheme also tend to be inflected as independent. Because negated clauses are not as likely as the corresponding affirmative clauses to provide continuity to the storyline (Talmy 1978, Hopper and Thompson 1980), they often occur outside of the storyline, either in the orientation (e.g., sentence 5 in the narrative text in Appendix $C$ ) or in the coda (e.g., sentence 11 in \#409). When negated main clauses occur inside of the storyline, they are often part of the evaluation and the verb in the clause usually inflects as independent (Appendix C. 1, sentences $30,34,49,50,53$ ).

Having discussed the independent, the $\hat{1}$-conjunct is now considered. The $\hat{i}$-conjunct is very similar to the independent. Both verbs are used to provide background details which enable the listener to fully understand the text. Although there are cases where the independent and the conjunct occur in sentences with related meanings where there is no obvious reason for the difference (sentence 31 and 32 in the narrative text in Appendix $C$ ), the verbs
generally appear to differ in how they convey information. The i-conjunct shows a tendency to occur whenever the speaker believes a situation provides an important link. The corresponding independent verbs fail to do this. Therefore in the text in \#409, i-nôcincikiyâh 'we were working hides' (sentence 2) provides important information as to why the accident took place. The other two $\hat{i}$ conjunct verbs i-mâyimot 'he [was] yelling in pain' (sentence 3) and $\hat{i}-\mathrm{ki}$-ayamit 'he could $\left.{ }^{\prime} n^{\prime} t\right]$ talk' (sentence $6)^{5}$ emphasize the degree of suffering related to the accident and justify the subsequent action. Independent verbs in the same narrative have a less cohesive role. They describe what the author, a secondary participant, saw and said (sentences 5,7 ).

Thus it can be argued that there is a strong tendency in narrative texts for the conjunct to function primarily to indicate that the information given is relatively important, either because it forms a piece of the sequential action of the story or because it constitutes particularly important background information.

5 This example is an exception to the previousiymentioned tendency of negative clauses to have independent verbs. I argue this is because of the degree of importance of the information. Sentence 12 in the narrative text in Appendix $C$ provides another similar example involving a negative clause.

## 8.3 <br> DESCRIPTIVE TEXTS

Descriptive texts contrast with the narrative. They lack the dramatic action of the former text type and consequently contain only rare occurrences of the (k) $\hat{\mathbf{a}}-$ conjunct and even less of the ta-conjunct. The main clauses of descriptive texts consist primarily of either $\hat{\underline{i}}$ conjunct or independent verbs.

In descriptive texts with sequences of i-conjunct verbs, the texts are relatively cohesive. After the initial introduction of the topic, by either a (k)â-conjunct or an independent verb, sequences of $\hat{i}$-conjunct verbs elaborate on the information. The information in the text provides supporting evidence for the topic sentence. In the following example, the speaker uses the sequence of $\hat{1}$ conjunct verbs to elaborate how she is still able to afford to look after her children.
414.

1. mâka ohcitaw nikaskihtânân $\frac{\text { kiyâpic }}{\text { but }} \frac{\hat{i}-m i ́ \delta a k i h c i k}{\text { anyway }} \frac{\text { mable\TI2=1p-0I }}{\text { still }} \frac{\text { give } \backslash T A=1 p-3 p c}{}$
kîkwân nicawâsimisinânak. 2. îttipipahikistamâsowâhk thing $1 p=c h i l d=3 p \quad$ IPV=pay-for=reflex $\backslash A I=1 p C$
$\frac{\text { mina }}{\text { also }} \frac{k i k w a ̂ n}{\text { thing }} \frac{\text { kâpacintâyâhk }}{\text { IPV=use } 1 T 2=1 p-0 C} \frac{\text { wâstiw }}{\text { light }}, \frac{\text { nipiy }}{\text { water }} \frac{-k a h k i \delta a w}{a l l}$ $\frac{\text { kîkwân }}{\text { thing }}$. 3. $\frac{\text { i-kiskiyihtaman }}{I P V=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 C} \frac{\text { nista }}{I-t o o} \frac{\text { ita }}{\text { where }} \frac{\text { ta-otinak }}{I P V=t a k e \backslash T A=1-3 C}$
sôniyâs. 4. î-kaskikwâsowân. 5. î-mîkisistahikîyân. money IPV=sew $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{C}$
IPV=beadwork $\backslash A I=1 C$
2. ̂̂-nanâhkawikwâsoyân akwa mîna ̂̂-acâwâkîsiyân IPV=patchwork $\backslash A I=1 C$ and also IPV=sell-dim $\backslash A I=1 C$ $\frac{\text { kîkwân }}{\text { thing }} \frac{\hat{i}-t a h t o-t i ̂ p a h a m a ̂ n ~}{I P V=e v e r y=p a y-f o r ~} \backslash T I=1-0 C \frac{\text { wâstîw }}{\text { light }}$.
3. We are still able of giving our children something. 2. We pay for the things we use -like light, water everything. 3. I know where I can get money. 4. I sew. 5. I do beadwork. 6. I do patchwork and I sell little things to pay the light.

Descriptions which are more disjointed contain sequences of independent verbs. The following is a description of a man in a picture. The verbs are independent and the clauses, although related to a central theme, are not linked to one another. The clauses are also separated by pauses longer than those in the preceding text. This is a common feature of discourses containing sequences of independent verbs.
415. mîdawistwîw, mistahi pîmikotîw, beard $\backslash A I=3 I$ lots crooked=nose $\backslash A I=3 I$
pîmâpitîw, $\quad$ ma-mahkihtwâkîw, crooked-teeth $\backslash A I=3 I$ redup=big=ear $\backslash A I=3 I$

रô ôwâpîw,
mâcinâkosiw. slanted=eyes $\backslash A I=3 I$ bad=look $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
'He has a beard. He has a big crooked nose. He has crooked teeth. He has big ears. He has slanted eyes. He looks bad.'

A descriptive text that falls somewhere between the two examples discussed above is the reminiscence text. Although reminiscence texts are concerned with the past, they, like other descriptive texts, do not have the dramatic action found in most narratives. There are therefore very few (k) $\hat{a}-$ conjunct verbs. The text in \#416 contains only two (k)â-conjunct verbs, used to create a mini-narrative (sentences 4 and 6). To aid the reader, the main clauses are represented in schematic form at the end of the text.

A reminiscence text relates to the generic rather than the specific and invokes a partial image rather than a detailed account (Horvath 1987:218). Although the verbs in the text in \#416 are linked by a common macro-topic 'life in the past', the sentences are only loosely linked and are separated by pauses similar to those in the discourse in \#415. As in \#415, the reminiscence text consists of a series of sentences with independent verbs which are more disjointed or random in terms of topic than in a text which contains a sequence of $\hat{\underline{i}}-$ conjunct verbs. The initial section of a reminiscence text in Appendix $C$ titled 'A Description of Long Ago' shows a similar pattern of partially connected facts about the past (sentences 1-15). It also contains sequences of independent verbs. However, although there is a clear tendency for sequences of
independent verbs to appear in texts in which the topics are not set up explicitly enough, where the clauses simply present information as a series of partially connected facts about the past, not all examples fit into the pattern, e.g. why is the verb in the last clause in sentence 1 in \#416 not $\hat{\text { - }}$-conjunct? There is clearly either more than one conditioning factor at work, or alternatively, simply some degree of overlap between the use of the independent and the $\hat{1}$-conjunct.

Conjunct verbs in descriptive texts, then, tend to occur when there is an important link between the ideas. In the text in \#416, the two (k) $\hat{a}$-conjunct verbs (sentences 4 and 6) signal a link between the events, while the only iconjunct verbs (both in sentence 12) elaborate on information in the previous sentence (sentence 11). They explain what the father did instead of cutting wood; $\hat{1}-\mathrm{k} \hat{\mathrm{i}}=$ wa-wanihikît 'he went trapping' and $\hat{\mathrm{i}-k \hat{i}-m a c \hat{i} t}$ 'he went hunting'.
416.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. akwa nî } \delta \text { anân kâ-kî-isi-pî-ohpikiyâh, } \\
& \text { and we(1p) IPV=past=rel=to=grow-up } \backslash A I=1 p c \\
& \\
& \text { nikî-mincîtinân, } 19 \text { nikî-itâsinân. } \\
& \text { l=past=many } \backslash A I=1 p I \quad 19 \text { 1=past=count-as } \backslash A I=1 p I \quad \text { 2. mô } \quad \text { neg }
\end{aligned}
$$

mâyifa kahki $\delta a w$ nipimâtisinân. 3. mwâ kîkwân but all $1=1 i v e \backslash A I=1 p I \quad$ neg thing
n-ôh-mî $\delta i k a w i n a ̂ n ~ a s a h t o ̂ w i n ~ k a ̂-i c i k a t i ̂ k . ~$ $1=$ negpast=give $\backslash T A=X-1 p I$ ration $\quad I P V=c a l l \backslash I I=0 C$
4. pâtimâ itokî, sîmâk mâyída, sîmâk nâh-niyânanwâpisk after perhaps immed but immed redup=five=metal
kâ-kî-mî $\delta i k a w i y a ̂ h k$. IPV=past=give $\backslash T A=X=1 p C$
5. kwâni pâh-pîyakwâpisk mâna nikî-mî ikonân then redup=one=metal used-to $1=p a s t=g i v e \backslash T A=3-1 p I$
nôhtâwiy sôniyâwa ta-otinamâh isa orange. l=father money=3' IPV=take $\backslash T I=1 p-0 C$ hrs orange
6. îkospiy pâtimâ mîna î-kî-sôniyâ-kisîkâk then after also $I P V=$ past=money=day $\backslash I I=0 C$

```
kâ-kî-mîciyâhk orange. 7. mwâc kîkwân
IPV=past=eat\TI2=1p-0C orange neg thing
```

n-ôh-mikoskâcîyihtamân nî́anân. 8. pakwanta kîkwân. $1=$ negpast=concern $\backslash T I=1 p-0 I$ we(1p) anything thing
9. kâ-kî-isi-ohpikihikawiyâh, IPV=past=rel=grow-up $\backslash T A=X-1 p C$
kwâni
then
10. mawac
as-soon-as
î-ati-kî-itâsiyâhk âsay $I P V=i n c p=a b l e=c o u n t-a s \backslash A I=1 p C$ already

> nikítâpakwânân 1=past=snare $\backslash A I=1 p I$ akwa mina also
î-kî-ati-nâta ${ }^{2}$ apîyâhk isa akwa î-ati-wanihikîyâh.
$I P V=$ incp=fetch=net $\backslash A I=1 p C \quad h r s$ and $I P V=i n c p=t r a p \backslash A I=1 p C$
11.mwâc pîyakwâw nôhtâwiy ohci-nikohtîw neg once $1=$ father negpast=chop-wood $\backslash A I=3 I$
ifikoh kâ-kî-wîcayamakint.
so-long-as IPV=past=with=be\TA=1p-3C

```
12. kwâni pô î-kî-wa-wanihikît akwa mîna then only IPV=past=redup=trap \(\backslash A I=3 C\) and also
î-kî-mâcît ta-mîcisowâhk. 13. pô nîdanân. IPV=past=hunt \(\backslash A I=3 C\) IPV=eat \(\backslash A I=1 p C \quad\) only we(1p)
```

```
14.kî-mi\deltaopa\deltainik kâ-pí-ohpikiyâhk.
    past=good-move\TA=0-3I IPV=to=grow-up\AI=1pC
```

```
15.tâsipwâ kiyâpic nitatoskân 77 î-tahtwaskîwiniyân.
    in-fact still \(1=\) work \(\backslash A I=1 I 77\) IPV=so-many-years \(\backslash A I=1 C\)
```

1. And the way we were brought up, we were many; we were counted as 19. 2. But not all of us are living. 3. We were given nothing called rations. 4. Perhaps later- but right away, right away we were given five dollars each.
2. Then my father used to give each of us one dollar so we could buy an orange. 6. We ate an orange again the [next] Treaty Day. 7. We were concerned about nothing. 8. Not a thing.
3. The way we were raised, that was the way we lived. 10. As soon as we were able to be counted, we set snares and checked nets and went trapping. 11. Not once did my father cut wood as long as we lived with him. 12. He just went trapping and hunting so we could eat. 13. Just us. 14. He was lucky when we were growing up.
4. In fact $I$ am still working at 77 years of age.
(k) â- independent $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-$
5. we were many
6. we counted
7. we lived
8. it was given to us
9. we were given
10. he gave us
11. we ate
12. we weren't concerned
(8) no verb
13. we lived thus
14. we set snares
15. he didn't cut wood

12a. he went trapping 12b. he went hunting
(13) no verb
14. it made him happy
15. I work

Reminiscence texts also contain occasional $\hat{i}$-conjunct verbs which do not fit into the above pattern. An example occurs in the 'Description of Long Ago' text in Appendix $C$. In this text, the narrator appears to be using the $\hat{1}$ conjunct to make linkages between paragraphs (sentences 16,30 ) to create the impression of continuity in order to allow her to continue her turn. Because of the lack of evidence in support of this, this fact will only be mentioned here. A similar phenomenon occurs in conversational exchanges.

### 8.4 CONVERSATIONAL EXCHANGES

Independent verbs are more common in conversational exchanges than in texts partly due to the fact that conversations are more disjointed and the topics shift more readily. The most common type of conjunct verb in conversational exchanges is the $\hat{\mathbf{l}}$-conjunct. The (k)âconjunct is rare in conversations, as it is in descriptive texts, because it is used primarily to indicate sequential events. The role of the $\hat{i}$-conjunct in conversations is similar to its role in texts; it tends to appear whenever the speaker views the information as providing an important link. It is often used to elaborate on a topic and appears in structures which are cohesive.

Conversational exchanges consisting of a content question and a response are usually cohesive and coherent. The response to the content question continues on the topic initiated by the question and the verb in the response is often an $\hat{\mathbf{1}}$-conjunct, as in \#417.

## 417. A: kîkwân? <br> what $=0$

B: $\frac{\hat{i}-\text { kostak }}{\text { IPV }=\text { fear } \backslash T A=1-3 C \quad \frac{\text { awa }}{\text { this }}=3} \frac{\text { Alice }}{\text { Alice }}$.
A: 'What is it?'
B: 'I'm afraid of Alice.'

A similar pattern emerges with exchanges involving a yes-no question. The verb in a yes-no question may be independent or conjunct, yet the verb usually inflects as conjunct because the yes-no question usually asks for elaboration on information in the previous utterance. In \#418, B's second question requests information about the topic previously introduced. The response to the yes-no question in \#418 expands on the topic and the verb in the response is also $\hat{\underline{i}}$-conjunct.
418. A: kwâni â-kî-masinahamawakiht. then IPV=past=write $\backslash T A+0=1 p-3 C$

B: kîda akwa awina? you and who

A: nî $\delta$ a akwa H . $I$ and $H$.

B: îkota na $H$ î-ayât?
there $Q$ H. $I P V=b e \backslash A I=3 C$
A: ya, wi
yes cause 0. IPV=past=throw-out $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
A: 'So we wrote to her.'
B: 'You and who?'
A: 'Me and H.'
B: 'H. is there?'
A: 'Yes, because 0. threw her out.'

Pairs of declarative sentences show a similar pattern. The i-conjunct is often used when one interlocutor wishes to elaborate on a previously established topic, as in
\#419.6 In addition to the $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$-conjunct, the sentence contains the connecting particle mâyida 'but'. This particle frequently occurs in structures containing $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ conjunct verbs.
419. A: tânsi ôma, kwâni nîyo sôniyâsa piko how this=0 then four dollar=3 only kâ-mísisk. IPV=give $\backslash T A+0=3-2 C$

B: mâskô[c] mâyída nântaw niyânan namî ik perhaps but about five $1=f u t=g i v e \backslash T A+0=3-1 I$ î-itíyintamân.
IPV=think $\backslash T=1-0 C$
A: 'So she only gave you four dollars.'
B: 'But I thought she would give me about five dollars.'

Although independent verbs also occur in response to both content and yes-no questions, conversational exchanges containing independent verbs are often less cohesive. When the answer to a content question contains a verb inflected as independent, the response is often indirect. One means of introducing an indirect response is with the particle manâ '[you] realize'. This particle together with an independent verb signal the indirect response in \#420.

6 Because the verb is used to elaborate on the previous statement (and is not parenthetical and backgrounded in role), the verb of thinking is inflected as î-conjunct.
420. A: tântî mâ î-kî-nitawi-iskôliwît?
where but $I P V=a b l e=$ go-to $=$ school $\backslash A I=3 C$
B: manâ ta-kî-sipwîhtîw. realize $I P V=$ past $=$ leave $\backslash A I=3 I$

A: 'But where can she go to school?'
B: 'You realize she could leave [the community].'

A similar process occurs in adjacency pairs consisting of two yes-no questions. The second member of the pair can either request clarification of the previous topic or indicate a partial shift in topic. In the latter case, the verb in the question is usually independent, as in \#421. In this example, the response to the response also contains an independent verb. Although the main clause negative morpheme may influence the choice of inflection, it is more likely that speaker $C$, by choosing an independent verb is indicating her wish to background the topic introduced by speaker $B$ in order to proceed with Speaker's A question. The (k)â-conjunct in the last sentence starts a narrative text.
421. A: ôta na kisiwâk awa K.?
here $Q$ near this $=3 \mathrm{~K}$.
B: kiskîdimiw na anihi?
know $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ Q that=3'
C: mwâ nikiskîyihtîn. ahpo pâham. A. îkotî neg $1=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 I$ or perhaps $A$ there
kâ-kîyokawât.
IPV=visit $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
A: 'Is K. nearby?'
B: 'Does she know her?'
C: 'I don't know. I think so. She's visiting A.

In non-narrative contexts, speakers often use independent verbs to introduce new topics. An example occurs in part of the conversation in Appendix $C$, repeated in \#422 (D's first utterance). This example contains the particle mina 'in addition, also'; a particle found in many clauses with independent verbs.
422. $\mathrm{C}: \quad \frac{\mathrm{V} .}{\mathrm{V}} \frac{\text { ana. }}{\text { that }=3}$

A: V? ôta na? kîko $\underline{v}$ ?
V ? here Q which V
C: V.M.
V.M.

D: nôhkom mîna ôta ayâw.
$1=g r-m o$ also here be $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
A: ôta na?
here $Q$
D: ya. akwa kiyokitân.
yes now visit $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12$ Imp
C: It's V.
A: V? Here? V. who?
C: V.M.
D: My grandmother is also here.
A: Here?
D: Yes. Let's go visit her.

The above discussion claims two factors plays a role in the use of the conjunct: one is cohesion, the other is importance. The two often inter-relate. Although the above provides an explanation for the use of the conjunct the author is not making the claim that the above accounts for all examples. There is only a strong tendency for conjunct verbs to show important links between situations and a
similar tendency for independent verbs to appear when there are no such linkages. Independent verbs tend to occur when new topics are introduced, 7 and when speakers do not wish to elaborate on a topic under discussion. The following conversational exchange illustrates the complexity of this process. The first speaker introduces the topic of 'A.'s location' and asks if she is baby-sitting. The verb in the question is independent. ${ }^{8}$ Speaker $B$ answers with a verb inflected as independent. Speaker $B$ uses this verb to introduce another topic. Speaker $A$ then responds using an independent verb. Although the response provides a direct answer to the question, the speaker indicates she does not wish to elaborate (believing it is just a case of homesickness). This information as in the narrative texts, is not viewed as important. Speaker B, having introduced the topic of A's leaving in her previous utterance, proceeds to elaborate on the topic. She uses an $\hat{\text {-conjunct }}$ verb to do this.

7 When the verb introduces a narrative, the (k)âconjunct introduces the topic as in the last sentence in \#421.

8 one could argue that the verb here should also be $\frac{1}{}-$ conjunct since it elaborates on the possible location of $A$. An $\hat{i}$-conjunct verb is possible here but would signal that the baby-sitting is important. The independent verb indicates that this information is not important.
423.

A: tâniwâ A.? kiyâpic na kanawawâsow?
where A.? still $Q$ baby-sit $\backslash A I=3 I$
B: ya. wî-nôhtî-kîwîw.
yes want=need=home $\backslash A I=3 I$
A: ya, nikiskîyihtîn.
yes $1=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 I$
B: ayihîw, ôtî î-nôhtî-kîwît funeral whatev=0 here IPV=need=go-home $\backslash A I=3 C$ funeral
î-nôhtí-itohtít. $I P V=$ need $=g o \backslash A I=3 C$

A: Where is A.? Is she still baby-sitting?
B: Yes. She wants to go home.
A: Yes, I know.
B: Ahmn, she wants to go home because she wants to go to a. funeral.

The following conversation provides another illustration of the process. The text consists of an initial query followed by a number of responses. To aid the reader, the main clauses are presented in schematic form at the end of the text.
424.

A: 1. mwâ na kinintâ-íbiniwasinahikân?
neg $Q$ 2=know=Indian=write\AI=2I
B: 2. mwâc. kôhcâwiy wioa. 3. apiw neg $2=f a-b r$ emp $\quad$ sit(be-home) $\backslash A I=3 I$ perhaps

A: 4. mwâc apiw.
neg sit(be-home) $\backslash A I=3 I$
B: 5. îyako mîna î-nîhî $\delta a w i-a y a m i h c i k i t . ~$
that-one also IPV=Cree-read $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$
B: 6. Lita ida akwa Samuel.
Lita emp and Samuel

B: 7. kípa-pî-itohtîw ôma anohc. 8. kôhcâwiy ana past=redup=to=go $\backslash A I=3 I$ prt now $2=f a-b r$ that=3
kâ-itak.
$I P V=s a y \backslash T A=1-3 C$
A: 9. ka, sipwîhtîw itokî.
excl leave $\backslash A I=3 I$ perhaps
B:10. îhî, ôtî itokî tâwinihk itohtîw.
yes here perhaps town=10c go $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
[nod at old man lying on couch]
B:11. awa nintâ-âca this=3 know=tell-legends $\backslash A I=3 I$ old-man but
îkâ i-pîhtahk. 12. kwâni pô îtipwâtak. neg $I P V=h e a r \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C$ then only IPV=yell\TA=1-3C
13. kwâni ôma kâ-nakatak, kwâni
then prt IPV=leave-behind $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ then
î-nipât. IPV=sleep $\backslash A I$

A: 1. Do you know how to write in Cree?
B: 2. No. But your uncle can. 3. He may be home.
A: 4. He's not home.
B: 5. That one knows how to read in cree too.
B: 6. Lita is rumored to, and Samuel.
B: 7. He just came here. 8. Your uncle is the one I am talking about.
A: 9. Oh, he may have left.
B: 10. Yes. He must have left to town.
[nod at old man lying on couch]
B: 11. This old man knows how to tell legends but he is hard of hearing. 12. I have to yell at him. 13. When I leave him, he sleeps.
independent $\hat{\imath}$ - no verb

1. you know how to write
2. no verb
3. he is home
4. he is not home
5. he knows how to read
6. no verb
7. no verb
8. he leaves
9. he goes

11a. he knows legends
11b. he can't hear
12. I yell at him
13. he sleeps

The text contains six third person forms, representing three distinct third person referents, all of which are proximate. The three distinct third persons are Lita (sentence 6), Samuel (sentence 2,6,8) and kisídiniw 'the old man' (sentence 11,12,13).9 The speaker, by using proximate forms presents each referent as an equal alternative. Neither referent has a more central role than any other. 10

The main clauses in the preceding conversational text contain a series of independent verbs. The main clauses in

9 Samuel is referred to four times; first as kôhcâwiy 'your uncle' (sentence 2), then as iyako 'that one' (sentence 2), and as Samuel (sentence 6) and finally by the kin term kohcâwiy 'your uncle' (sentence 8).

10 For a discussion of multiple proximates see section 4.6 for details.
this conversation are similar to the main clauses in the reminiscence text. In both text types, the sentences fail to elaborate on a central issue.

The independent verbs in the conversation indicate the disjoint nature of the conversation. Although the verbs relate to the macro topic, "someone that knows how to write in Cree", the speakers tend not to elaborate on what was previously said. Independent verbs may serve to introduce a new topic; e.g., kinihtâ-iסiniwasinahikân 'you know how to write in Cree' (sentence 1), or they may signal a shift at the micro topic level, e.g., apiw 'he is home' (sentence 3), kî-pa-pî-pimohtîw 'he just came here' (sentence 7), and nihtâ-âcasôhkîw 'he knows legends' (sentence 11a) or they may present information which is secondary to the macro topic, e.g., apiw 'he is [not] home' (sentence 4), sipwihtiw 'he leaves' (sentence 9), itohtiw 'he goes' (sentence 10). The latter instance is more problematic and in need of further investigation.

The ri-conjunct shows the relationship between ideas. An example occurs in sentence 5: íyako mína i-nîhídawi-ayamihcikit 'that one also knows how to read in Cree'. In this sentence, the speaker continues the topic established in sentence 2; 'your uncle's knowledge of syllabics'. Sentence 5 also contains îyako 'that one', a
pronoun which must have an antecedent. The speaker elaborates on the topic and the verb in the sentence inflects as conjunct.

The only other main clause conjunct verbs occur after the clause awa nihtâ-âcadôhkîw kisîdiniw 'this old man knows how to tell legends' in sentence 11. In this clause, the speaker starts a turn by introducing a new micro topic and a new referent. This is reflected morphologically by the presence of an independent verb in sentence 11 nintâ-âcadôhkîw 'he knows how to tell legends' (sentence 11a) and a proximate noun, kisifiniw 'old man'. The next three clauses continue on the same topic. The verbs in the clauses are inflected as $\hat{i}$-conjunct. The three clauses explain why the old man cannot tell a story. In 11b, the reason for why he would not be suitable is stated: i-pîhtahk 'he ca[n't] hear'. The next sentence expands on why he cannot help î-tipwâtak 'I yell at him' (sentence 12) and the final sentence provides additional supporting evidence î-nipât 'he sleeps' (sentence 13). The sentences elaborate on the old man's unsuitability and the verbs in the sentences are $\hat{\underline{\imath}}$-conjunct.

Chapter IX
CONJUNCT VERBS AND INITIAL CHANGE

### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter divides the conjunct into five basic groups. The first group begins with one of three preverbs commonly referred to as changed conjunct forms; kî-1, wâand kâ-. A second group has ta-, wí- or kí- $\underline{\text { ta }}$ as the initial morpheme on the verb. The latter preverbs represent the unchanged counterparts of the former. A combination of preverbs beginning with either (k)â- or $\hat{i}$ - form the third group, also labelled as changed conjunct forms. A fourth group does not begin with any of the above preverbs. The verbs in this group are unchanged. The subjunctive, a fifth group, differs from the conjunct by the addition of a final suffix -i, and in some cases by a distinct inflection.

The data suggests that the type of conjunct verb depends on a number of factors which include focus and the realization of the event. The final section of this chapter compares the present analysis with analyses of the conjunct in other Algonquian languages.

### 9.2 TYPES OF CONJUNCT VERBS

Although a preverb is an optional part of any verb, several preverbs have important roles in the verbal system. Three preverbs listed under Type 1 in Table $9.1, \underline{k i}-1$, (k)ầ and wâ- have a special relationship to the conjunct. The first two preverbs, kî-1 and (k)Â-, only appear on verbs inflected as conjunct. wâ- may appear on verbs inflected as independent or as conjunct. 1 The relationship between the preverb wâ- 'supposition' and the conjunct is based on the fact that wâ- has a corresponding preverb wî'desirative'. $k \hat{1}-1$ and (k) â- also have corresponding preverbs, listed under Type 2 in Table 9.1.

The three corresponding preverbs listed under Type 2 in Table 9.1 are the future ta-, the desirative wi- and the past kî-2. ${ }^{2}$ The latter two preverbs may be preceded by the preverbs (k) â- and $\hat{\underline{i}}-$. The preverbs (k) $\hat{a}-$ and $\hat{i}-$ and their preverb combinations are listed under Type 3. A conjunct verb may also occur without an introductory preverb (Type 4 ) or end in a subjunctive inflection (Type 5). The various

[^9]conjunct types are summarized in Table 9.1. The preverb (k)â- occurs twice in the table. This reflects the fact that (k)â- has two entirely different functions.

Table 9.1
Confunct Types in Woods Cree

Type1 Type2 Type3A Type 3B

| future | kî-1 | ta- | kâ-wî- | íw $\mathbf{i}$ | future |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| supposition | wâ- |  |  | 1. | resent |
| past/unreal | kâ- | ki-2 | kâ-kí-2 | i-kî-2 | past |



The analysis which follows divides the Woods Cree preverbs into three semantic categories: forms which refer to the future, forms which refer to the present and past, and forms which refer to events which are not marked for their realization (Types 4 and 5). The latter category is covered in sections 9.2.3 and 9.2.4.

### 9.2.1 Future Forms

There are several ways to indicate the future on a conjunct verb. There is the preverb pair ki-1/ta-, the preverb wí- 'want' and the preverb combination kâ-wi-. Although they are not future forms, because of their pairing with wî- and kâ-wî-, wâ- and $\hat{\underline{i}-w \hat{1}-~ a r e ~ a l s o ~}$ covered in this section.
9.2.1.1 ki-1/ta-
$\underline{k \hat{i}-1}$ is frequent in content questions, but rare elsewhere. This morpheme often denotes a situation which implies intent, as in \#425.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 425. tânispiy kî-âpacintâyin } \quad \text { nimaskisina? } \\
& \text { when fut=use } \backslash T I 2=2-0 C \quad 1=\text { shoe= } 0 \text { p } \\
& \text { 'When are you going to use my shoes?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

In many instances, the preverb kî-1 'future' indicates that an event is possible because of its regular occurrence in the past, as in \#426. The future preverb marks the event as habitual or generic, as in \#427.
426. tântî kî-nitawi-atâwîyân
where fut=go-to=buy $\backslash A I+0=1 c$
anima?
that $=0$
'Where do I go to buy that?'
427. tânispiy kicîkim kî-takopáik?
when $\quad 2=$ check $=$ im $I P V=$ arrive $\backslash I I=0 C$
'When does your check arrive?'
kî-1 'future' also appears in the procedural section of recipe texts where it signals the procedure as habitual. The procedural section of a recipe text is contained in the second paragraph of \#428 (sentences 5-9).
428.

1. ka-isi-ahoâw pahkwîsikan pânihk isikohk 2fut=rel=put $\backslash T A=2-3 I$ flour pan=loc so-long-as
ta-tîpipasiyin nîso pahkwisikanak. 2. akwa nîso $I P V=e n o u g h \backslash A I+O=2 C$ two bread=3p and two
ahpo nisto ímihkwânis ohpicicikan. 3. ka-astân or three spoon=dim baking-powder 2 fut=put $\backslash T 12=2-01$ akwa mîna sîhtâkan apisîs, akwa pimiy. 4. akwa and also salt little and grease and $\begin{array}{lll}\text { ka-sîkinîn } & \text { ôho } & \text { kahki } \delta a w \text { kikwâna isko } \\ \text { 2fut=pour } \backslash T I=2-0 I & \text { this=0p all } & \text { thing=0p until }\end{array}$
namatakwahkwâw. neg-exist(disappear) $\backslash I I=0 p$
2. akwa kî-ayâyin kî-wấinat kipankwîsikanim and fut=be $\backslash A I=2 C$ fut=hollow $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ 2=flour=im ita nipiy ta-sîkinaman. 6. akwa kî-itinwat where water $I P V=p o u r \backslash T I=2-O C$ and fut=stir $\backslash T A=2-3 C$
isko kispakisit. 7. akwa kicihciya kî-âpacintâyin until thick $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ and $2=$ hand $=0 p$ fut=use $\backslash T I 2=2-0 C$
ta-ofatinat kipahkwîsikanim. 8. akwa pânink $I P V=$ shape $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ 2=bread=im and pan=loc
kî-pôsihat. 9. kícâh-cahkatawat akwa fut=place-in $\backslash T A=2-3 C \quad$ fut=redup=stab $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ and
kî-pôsihat pihtâpiskahikanihk ta-kîsisot. fut=place-in $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ oven=loc $\quad I P V=\operatorname{cook} \backslash A I=3 C$
10.kwâni.
that's-all
3. You put the flour in the pan, enough to make two loaves of bread. 2. And two or three teaspoons of baking powder. 3. And you also put in a little salt, and lard. 4. And then you sift all these things together until they are well mixed.
4. And then you make a hollow in your flour where you pour in the water. 6. And you stir until it's thick. 7. And then you use your hands to shape the dough. 8. And then you put it in the pan. 9. And then you stab it [with a fork] and put it in the oven to cook. 10. That's all.

The unchanged counterpart of $k \hat{i}-1$ is ta-. In the narrative text in Appendix $C$, ta- foreshadows events. In other main clause declaratives, the preverb signals the certainty of the event.
429. "1̂kâ ta-nisiwanâtah kihpama," â-isit.
neg $I P V=s p o i l \backslash I I=0 C 2=1 u n g=0 p \quad I P V=$ say-thus $\backslash A I=3 C$
'He said "Your lungs will not decay."'
ta- is also common in subordinate clauses where it signals an event as unfulfilled at the time of the main clause, as in \#430 and \#431.
430. kâ-pônihwikot
ta-kaskâpahtifik.
IPV=light-fire=by-instr $\backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$ IPV=smoke $\backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$
'They lit a fire for him to make smoke.'
431. kwâni kâ-pônahkwâw
i-tipiskâdik
then $I P V=1$ ight-fire $\backslash T I=3 p-0^{\prime} C \quad I P V=\operatorname{dark} \backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$
wasawîtimihk pí-itohtici [ta-wâpahtahk].
outside $\quad t o=g o \backslash A I=3 S \quad I P V=s e e \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'Then they lit a fire outside at night so if she were to come out she could see.'

### 9.2.1.2 wâ-/wî-

A second pair wâ-/wí- is distinguished on the basis of tense. wâ- occurs in clauses which refer to a supposition about the past, ${ }^{3}$ wh-occurs in clauses which refer to a desire. The distinction is illustrated in \#432 and \#433.
432. nikî-kakwîcimâw mahti wâ-itohtît.
$1=p a s t=a s k \backslash T A=1-3 I$ IQ $\quad s u p p=g o \backslash A I=3 C$
'I asked him whether he had gone.'

3 wâ- is described in more detail in section 5.2.4.
433. nikakwicimâw mahti wî-itohtit.
$1=a s k \backslash T A=1-3 I \quad$ IQ want=go $\backslash A I=3 C$
'I asked him whether he wants to go.'

The two pairs wâ-/wî- and ki-1/ta- have one similarity. The first member of each pair may make an inference to a past situation, the second member does not. The second member of each pair refers to a situation viewed only as unfulfilled.

### 9.2.1.3 Preverb Combinations

The future may also be indicated by the preverb combination (k)â-wî-. In the previous chapter, (k)âdenotes the main sequence of events in a narrative. When (k)â- combines with the desirative morpheme wî- 'want', as in \#434 and \#435, the preverb combination denotes a future situation. (k)â-wî- typically occurs in structures in which one argument receives special focus, i.e., content questions and relative clauses.

```
434. tânispiy kâ-wî-intât kipîpîm?
    when \(\quad I P V=\) want \(=\) exist \(\backslash A I=3 C \quad 2=b a b y=i m\)
    'When is your baby due?'
```

435. tânispiy kâ-wî-wadawîpiciyin?
when $\quad I P V=$ want $=$ out-move $\backslash A I=2 C$
'When are you moving out?'

A second preverb combination, $\hat{\underline{i}-w \hat{i}-}$ begins with the preverb $\hat{i}-$. In Chapter VIII, $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-$ occurs in cohesive structures used to elaborate or indicate important information. When combined with the desirative morpheme Wi-, a main clause verb having the above preverb combination refers to a present desire, as in \#436; the fulfillment of which may be completed in the future. Of all future preverbs, $\hat{1}-w \hat{1}-$ denotes $a$ situation which is least likely to be fulfilled. In the texts collected for this work, verbs containing the above preverb combination appear most often in the consequent of a time clause referring to the future. An example of this occurs in \#459. In conversational data, the preverb combination is frequent in yes-no questions and main clause declaratives, but rarely occurs in content questions. The following example is an exception.
436. tân(i)si $\hat{i}-w \hat{i}-t o ̂ t a h ? ~$
how $\quad I P V=$ want $=d o \backslash T I=3-0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$
'How does he want to do it?'

The unchanged counterpart of $(k) \hat{a}-w \hat{i}-$ and $\hat{i}-w \hat{1}-$ is a conjunct verb beginning with the preverb wî-, as in \#437. My sample does not contain any main clause declaratives containing conjunct verbs beginning with the preverb wiand only a few examples in other types of clauses, as in \#433. Due to limited data, no further analysis of conjunct verbs beginning with wi- is attempted here.

## 437. tân(i)si wî-tôtah?

how want $=\mathrm{do} \backslash \mathrm{TI}=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'What will he do?'

### 9.2.1.4 Summary

The above discussion describes three types of conjunct verbs which refer to the future. The first two types consist of the conjunct pairs ki-1/ta- and wâ-/wî-. The first member of each pair (Type 1) may make reference to a past situation. The second member of each pair marks the event as unfulfilled (Type 2). A third type of conjunct verb, labelled as Type 3 in Table 9.1, has the preverbs (k) â- or $\hat{\underline{\imath}}$ - as its initial member. Although these preverbs represent changed forms, the preverb combinations (k) $\hat{a}-w \hat{1}-$ and $\hat{1}-w \hat{1}-$ do not make reference to a past situation.

### 9.2.2 Past And Present Forms

The analysis presented above is explored here with reference to the present and past tense. The present tense is morphologically unmarked. The past tense of an affirmative conjunct verb is signalled by either the changed preverb (k)â-, its corresponding unchanged preverb kín-2 or the preverb combination (k) $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-2$ or $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-2$.

There is also a special negative past tense preverb, ohci- which occurs alone or as part of the preverb combination (k)â-ohci- or $\hat{\text { i-ohci-. Because of the }}$ infrequent occurrence of the non-affirmative preverb in Woods Cree, the discussion focusses on the affirmative structures. The negative forms are not discussed in any detail.

### 9.2.2.1 (k) $\hat{a}-/ k \hat{i}-2$

In the main clauses of narrative texts, (k)â- denotes the main sequence of past events most of which also are perfective. Examples and details are provided in Chapter VIII. Although there are some problems accounting for the full range of (k)â- in time adverbial clauses, in many examples, (k)â- signals a past event as perfective, as in \#438, or signals the general repetitive nature of an event
in the past, as in \#439. In both instances the preverb makes reference to a past event, patterning like the Type 1 preverbs.
438. î-ati-kospâhtawîyân [kwâni kâ-nihtâwikit nipîpî] $I P V=i n c p=c l i m b \backslash A I=1 C$ then $I P V=b e-b o r n \backslash A I=3 C$ 1=baby
'I was about to climb up [into bed], when the baby came.'
439. maskihkiya $\hat{\mathbf{i}-k \hat{i}-m \hat{i} \delta a ̂ t ~}$
ídiniwa
medicine $=3^{\prime}$ IPV=past=give $\backslash T A+O=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ person=3'
kâ-nâtikot ôtífa.
$I P V=f e t c h \backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$ here $=e m p$
'He gave people medicine when they went to see him.

The counterpart to (k)â- is the past tense morpheme kí2. In Woods Cree, ki-2 indicates past tense on any affirmative verb inflected as independent. The details are provided in section 5.2.4. When not preceded by the preverbs kâ- or $\hat{\imath}-$, the past tense morpheme on a conjunct verb may signal present irreality. 4 The past tense morpheme changes from a signal of the past to a signal of the unreal, a phenomenon reported elsewhere (James 1982, Steele 1975).

[^10]440. tânika ki-mi $\delta$ wayâyâhk. ${ }^{5}$
if only past=be-well $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{pc}$
'If only we were well.'

The past tense morpheme $\mathrm{ki}^{\mathrm{i}}-2$ also occurs alone in subordinate clauses where it is again a signal of present irreality, as in the present counterfactual in \#441:
441. "kî-mi $\delta w a y a ̂ y a h k, " ~ n i t i t a ̂ w ~$ past=be-well $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12 \mathrm{C} \quad 1=s a y \backslash T A=1-3 \mathrm{I}$
"ka-ki-osihtânaw asiskiwi-kotawânâpisk.
2fut=past=make\TI2=12I mud=stove
'If we were well," I said, "we would make a mud stove."

In \#440 and \#441, the past tense morpheme kî-2 makes reference to an unreal situation. In this respect, it resembles the Type 2 forms of the conjunct, ta- and wi-. In all three instances, the unchanged form marks the situation as unrealized at some point in time.

5 Debbie James has suggested that the irrealis function in this example may be related to the preceding irrealis marker.
9.2.2.2 Evidence For Two kâ- Conjunct Preverbs

In conversational texts, the (k)â- conjunct often refers to a present situation where it signals the situation as having special focus, as in \#442.
442. kiyâm kâ-sâkihak!
anyway $I P V=$ love $\backslash T A=1-3 C$
'Big deal, I love him!'

In content questions and relative clauses, the (k)âconjunct is the unmarked verb. In both cases, one argument is in special focus and the clause refers to a situation which has present reference, as in:
443. awina otâsa kâ-ikiskamat?
who=3 3=pants=3' IPV=wear $\backslash T A=2-3 C$
'Whose pants are you wearing?'
444. niyânano-mitanaw askiy ôta kâ-kí-ayâyâh
five=ten year here $I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$
Pakitawâkanih [awa ita P. kâ-ayât].
Pakitawakan=loc this=3 where $P$. $I P V=b e \backslash A I=3 C$
'We were for fifty years at Pukatawakan where $P$ is staying.'

As a marker of special focus, (k)â- does not have past tense reference. Past tense is indicated through the addition of a past tense morpheme. ${ }^{6}$ As a marker of present tense, (k)â- differs semantically from the other preverbs listed in Type 1, suggesting the possibility of two (k)âconjunct preverbs.

Several facts about the preverb kâ- have suggested the presence of two kâ-conjunct verbs in Woods Cree. In the main clauses of narrative texts (k)â- functions as a form of the past perfective morpheme $\mathrm{ki}_{\mathrm{i}}-2$. The two forms are mutually exclusive. However, in relative clauses, in content questions, and in certain types of main clauses kâis unmarked for tense. It may be followed by the past tense preverb $k \hat{\hat{i}}-2$, the morpheme wî-, or occur alone, where it signals present tense.

Phonological evidence within woods Cree provides additional support for two kâ- morphemes. In Woods Cree, kâ- weakens to $\hat{a}-$. At first glance, the weakening appears to be purely phonological. It occurs in subordinate clauses, in content questions and in main clauses in narrative discourse. However, the weakening is not possible when the kâ- morpheme occurs in main clauses in conversational texts where it is a marker of present tense

[^11]constructions which involve special focus on a participant or the event. 7 A frequent example of this occurs in conjunction with the particle mâ, as in \#445.
445. kâ-sipwîhtît mâ?

IPV $=$ leave $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$ but
'What about his leaving?'

### 9.2.2.3 (k) â- and $\hat{\mathbf{i}-}$ and Their Preverb Combinations

The preverb combinations, kâ-kî-2, kâ-ohci-, $\hat{i}-k \hat{i}-2$ and i-ohci-, are the primary means of signalling the past tense of a verb inflected as conjunct. Due to the infrequence of kâ-ohci-, the preverb combination is not covered here.

The (k) $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-$ forms occur in structures which, like (k)â-, represent the main sequence of events. (k) $\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-$ forms report past events rather than narrate about them. 8 The initial question in the report about the religious meeting (Appendix C) asks: tânsi kâ-kí-isi-wâpaman? 'What

7 kâ- may weaken to $\hat{a}-$ when followed by the desirative morpheme wi- or the past tense morphemes $\mathrm{ki}_{2}$ or ohci-.

8 The (k) $\hat{a}-k \hat{1}-2$ combination is frequent in reports, in reminiscence texts and in the parts of the narrative that frame the main events. It is often used to denote the main events of a narrative in which the narrator is the protagonist. I have no explanation for this latter use.
did you see?' (sentence 3). The answer to the question is provided in the clauses which contain a verb beginning with the preverb combination (k)â-kī- (sentences $4,5,8,9,20,21$, 24,36,44). These sentences report the main happenings. Subsequent narration about each of these events is provided in main clauses with (k)â-conjunct verbs. An example of (k) a-ki-2 occurs in \#446, taken from the report of a religious meeting in Appendix C.

```
446.akwa kâ-kî-ati-pônipa\deltaik ôma o\deltaasowîwin akwa
    and IPV=past=incp=stop\II=OC this=0 meeting and
    kâ-kî-sîkintitâniwah ayânisa.
    IPV=past=throw-away\II=0C clothes=0p
    'And the meeting ended and then clothes were thrown
    away.'
```

In structures which usually require a (k)â-content verb, the (k) â-ki-2 preverb combination serves simply as a marker of past tense. Two such structures are content questions and relative clauses. Examples occur in \#447 and \#448.
447. tân(i)si $\frac{\hat{a}-k \hat{i}-i s i \delta i h k a ̂ s o t ~}{\text { now }}$ IPV=past=be-called $\backslash A I=3 C$ that=3 old-woman
'What was that old woman's name?'
448. misiwî $\hat{1}-k \hat{1}$-papâmohtîyâh anima isa
all-over $I P V=p a s t=a r o u n d-w a l k \backslash A I=1 p C$ that $=0 \mathrm{hrs}$ ministik [â-kî-ayâyâhk].
island $\quad I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$
'We walked all over that island where we used to live.'

A second preverb combination begins with the preverb $\hat{i}-$. Among the preverbs listed under Type 1, $\hat{\underline{i}-}$ is unique in that it does not have a corresponding unchanged form. $\hat{1}$ and its past counterparts $\hat{\underline{\imath}-k \hat{i}-}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{\imath}-o h c i-}$ occur in main clauses where they have a number of varied and seemingly unrelated functions. In Chapter VIII, $\hat{\mathbf{i}}$ - marks an event as related to other events. It typically occurs in answers to questions and it is often used to emphasize a point. The $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-\mathrm{ki}-2$ combination occurs in similar situations about the past, as in:

$$
\text { 449. A: } \frac{\text { kwâni }}{\text { then }} \frac{\text { mîna }}{\text { also }} \frac{\text { ocîmicisa, }}{3=\mathrm{dog}=\mathrm{dim}=3} \text {, } \frac{\text { tân(i)si }}{\text { how }} \frac{\text { ôma? }}{\text { this }}=0
$$

B: ocimicisa î-kî-nipahấsit pâham 3=dog=dim=3' IPV=past=kill\TA=3'-3' C possibly
awisiwa. nôhtâ, wîsâ mistahi someone $=3$, $1=\mathrm{fa}=\mathrm{voc}$ so-much lots
î-kî-mâtot!
IPV=past=cry $\backslash A I=3 C$
A: 'And his puppy, what happened [to it]?'
B: 'Someone probably killed his puppy. My god, did he ever cry!'

In negative clauses the $\hat{\underline{\imath}}$-conjunct is the most commonly occuring form of the conjunct. The i-conjunct signals the relationship or relevance of the non-event to the rest of the text. When referring to a past event, $\hat{1}-$ occurs in combination with the negative past tense preverb ohci-.
450. kwâni mwâc awina î-ohci-itohtît.
so/then neg someone $I P V=n e g p a s t=g o \backslash A I=3 C$
'So nobody went there [because of this].'

The $\hat{\underline{i}}$-conjunct also occurs in concessive clauses. In this structure it signals the present or past relevance of the situation in the subordinate clause to the situation in the main clause. An example occurs in \#451.
451. âta $\hat{\text { i-kî-kawacit, mwâc ohci-postiskam }}$
conc $I P V=$ past=be-cold $\backslash A I=3 C$ neg negpast=put-on $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$ oskotakay.

3=coat
'Even though he was cold, he didn't put on his coat.'

In other structures, $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-$ and $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-\mathrm{k} \hat{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{occur}$ less often and have a slightly different function. In content questions, the conjunct verb rarely contains the preverb i-. When an $\hat{\text { i-conjunct }}$ verb appears in this structure, the preverb has an aspectual role. It marks the event as on-
going or imperfective, as in \#452.
452. awina tâskôc i-isi-pimohtit?
who=3 like $\quad$ IPV=rel=walk $\backslash A I=3 C$
'Who is he walking like [now]?'

The r-conjunct has a similar function in time adverbial clauses, as in \#453, where it again signals the on-going or imperfective nature of the event. Because of the multiple functions of the $\hat{\underline{\imath}}$-conjunct, further research is needed to fully understand the preverb.

> 453. [î-pî-ohci-nintâwikit] $\quad$ îkâ ohci-wâpit. IPV=to=from=be-born $\backslash A I=3 C$ neg negpast=see $\backslash A I=3 C$
> 'Since birth, she has been blind.'
9.2.3 Conjunct Verbs With No Tense/Aspect Markers

A conjunct verb may also occur without any of the tense/aspect preverbs mentioned in the preceding sections. The preverbs excluded are kî-1, wâ- and (k)â- (Type 1), their corresponding preverbs ta-, wî- and kín (Type 2) and the preverbs (k) â- and $\hat{i}-$ and their preverb combinations
 structure which contains a conjunct verb lacking the above
preverbs or preverb combinations refers to a situation which does not focus on any particular point in time, as in \#454 and \#455. It often marks the situation as habitual or general. ${ }^{9}$
454. kîkwâßiw mícit?
what $=0^{\prime}$ eat $\backslash \mathrm{TI} 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
'What does he eat?'
455. awina nihtâ-i $\delta$ inimot?
who know=speak=by-mouth $\backslash A I=3 C$
'Who knows how to speak Cree?'

In declarative main clauses, a conjunct verb without an introductory tense/aspect preverb is rare. The following informing text is an exception. In this text the majority of verbs have impersonal subjects. Most of the verbs in the procedural section of the text (sentences 4-12) do not contain a tense or aspect morpheme. 10 These conjunct verbs signal the general nature of the procedure.

9 There are a couple of exceptions where the unchanged conjunct has a slightly different role. tânsi tôtaman? 'What are you doing?' is one of them.

10 The three exceptions (sentences $6,7,8$ ) begin with the particle akwa 'and (then)'. The verbs in these sentences contain $a(k) \hat{a}-$ conjunct verb.
456.

```
1. kâ-nipahint môswa, kâ-pahkonint, akwa
    TPV=kill\TA=X-3C moose IPV=skin\TA=X-3C and
    kâ-minkicikâtîk pahkîkin.
    IPV=scrape-flesh\II=0C hide
2. paskwatâwisikâtîk. 3. pakastawîhikâtîk.
    cut-hair-off\II=0C set-to-water\II=0C
```

4. sîkahpicikâtîk. 5. mâtahikâtîk. lace $\backslash I I=0 C$ scrape-by-tool $\backslash I I=0 C$
5. akwa and
$I P V=u n t i e-b y-h e a t \backslash I I=0 C$
î-kicistinikâtîk. 8. akwa kâ-kâskikahikâtîk. $I P V=c l e a n \backslash I I=0 C$
6. akwa kâ-pakastawîhikâtîk and $I P V=$ set-in-water $\backslash I I=0 C$
```
9. sîpokwâcikâtîk. 10. kaskâpasikâtîk. stretch-by-sewing \(\backslash I I=0 C \quad\) smoke \(\backslash I I=0 C\)
```

11. [That's the moose hide]
12.akwa kâ-maskisinihkâniwik. 13. ka-óisîn
and $I P V=s h o e-m a k e \backslash I I=0 C \quad 2 f u t=$ shape-by-cut $\backslash T I=2-0 I$
maskisinihkin, akwa asîson. shoe=pattern and vamp
12. ka-ocîhkwîhîn. 15. ka-sîpîhanikwâtîn. 2fut=gather-together $\backslash T I=2-0 I \quad$ 2fut=string $\backslash T I=2-0 I$
13. akwa amiskwayân ka-ah âw.
and beaver=skin 2 fut $=$ put $\backslash T A=2-3 I$
14. A moose is killed, it is skinned and then the flesh is scraped off the hide.
15. The hair is cut off. 3. It's soaked. 4. It is laced on a frame. 5. It [The hide] is scraped by tool. 6. And then it is hung up to smoke. 7. And then it is soaked and scrubbed. 8. And then it is scraped with a metal object. 9. It is sewn together. 10. It is smoked. 11. [That's the moose hide].
16. And then the moccasins are made. 13. You will cut a moccasin pattern, and the vamp. 14. You will gather [the pattern and vamp] together. 15. You will put the string around [the edge]. 16. And then you will place the beaver skin on.

In a subordinate clause, the conjunct verb almost always occurs with a tense/aspect preverb. The few examples which lack a tense/aspect preverb tend to occur in structures which contain a preverb which has future reference, as in \#457 and \#458. In these examples, the structures refer to a state of affairs which is not yet fulfilled but whose fulfillment is viewed as imminent.
457.ana nâpîw [îkâ cîskwa kiskîjimat] maci-nâpîw ana.
that $=3$ man neg yet know $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ bad-man that=3
'That man you have yet to meet is a crook.'
458. [pâtimâ pî-kîwît] mwâ na-nipân.
after $t o=g o-h o m e \backslash A I=3 C$ neg $1 f u t=s l e e p \backslash A I=1 I$
'Until he arrives home, I will not sleep.'

A conjunct verb which does not have a tense/aspect preverb usually indicates a general state of affairs in
which there is no time specification. Tense and aspect are indicated by the preverbs presented in the preceding sections.

### 9.2.4 Subjunctive

The subjunctive is a special type of conjunct verb which falls outside of the conjunct proper. It differs from the conjunct by the addition of the final suffix -i, and in some cases by a distinct inflection. The subjunctive occurs in a clause denoting a condition which needs to be met in order for the proposition in the main clause to hold. It denotes an event on which a future event is dependent, as in \#459 or a hypothetical state of affairs, as in \#460.
459. pôni-mícisowâni ôtî $\hat{i}$-wî-itohtîyân
stop=eat $\backslash A I=1 S$ here $I P V=$ want $=g O \backslash A I=1 C$
î-wî-nâtamân nitâpiskâkan.
IPV=want=fetch $\backslash T I=1-0 C \quad 1=s c a r f$
'When I finish eating, I want to go and get my scarf.'
460. sikitahki ahpo kikwân ta-pihcipowak
urinate $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} S$ or thing $I P V=b e-p o i s o n e d \backslash A I=3 p I$
awâsisak.
child=3p
'or if he [a dog] urinates on something, children will get poisoned.'

The subjunctive does not take the affirmative tense preverbs ta- and $\mathrm{ki}_{2}$. I expect the reason for their exclusion is related to their meaning. A future preverb is necessarily hypothetical. When not preceded by (k) $\mathrm{a}-$ or $\hat{\mathrm{i}}-$, the past tense morpheme $k \hat{i}-2$ usually signals an event as unreal. This was illustrated in \#441. The subjunctive morphology makes these preverbs redundant.

Only three of the special preverbs listed in Table 9.1 occur on a subjunctive verb. One of these is the morpheme wî- 'want'. When attached to a subjunctive verb, wífocusses on present circumstances.
461. kisâspin wî-sipwîhtîci, wîcîw.
if want=leave $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{~S}$ accompany $\backslash \mathrm{TA}=2-3$ Imp
'If he wants to leave, go with him.'

The only tense morpheme to occur on a subjunctive verb is the negative past tense morpheme ohci-, illustrated in \#462.
462. mwâc ôta nawâ-ayâhtay, [kisâspin îkâ kiscîs neg here 1 fut=supp=be $\backslash A I=1$ pretI if $\quad$ neg $2=o l d-b r$ ohci-kâhcitinici].
negpast=catch $\backslash T A=3-1 S$
'I would not be here if your older brother didn't catch me."

The corresponding affirmative structure, illustrated in \#463, contains the preverb wâ-, the counterpart of wî-. In both \#462 and \#463, the preterit morphology marks the structure as past.
463.wâ-kimotici sôniyâsa, na-wâ-nipahâhtay.
supp=steal $\backslash A I+0=3 S$ money=3' 1 fut=supp=kill $\backslash T A=1-3 p r e t I$
'If he had stolen the money, I would have killed him.'

### 9.3 CLAIMS ABOUT INITIAL CHANGE

In many Algonquian languages, there is a productive process whereby the initial vowel of the verb inflected as conjunct changes. Table 9.1 illustrates initial change as it applies to Swampy Cree.

Table 9.2
Initial Change in Swampy Cree
vowel change example

| 1 | ê | nipat | > nêpât | 'he sleeps' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a | ê | mawâpit | > mêwâpit | 'he visits' |
| 0 | wê | ohcît | $>$ wêhcît | 'he comes from' |
| i | â | wî-nipât | > wâ-nipât | 'he wants to sleep' |
| ô | wâ | pôsit | > pwasit | 'he departs' |
| ê | iyê | mêtawet | > miyêtawet | 'he plays' |
| a | iyâ | âhkosit | > iyâhkosit | 'he is sick' |

*adapted from Ellis 1983:450-451

Initial change is also signalled by the changed conjunct preverbs $\hat{e}-$, kâ-, kê-, and wâ-. ${ }^{11}$ The corresponding preverbs in Woods Cree are $\hat{\underline{i}}-,(k) \hat{a}-, \underline{\hat{i}}-1$ and wâ-. It is here that we see the morphological similarity between Woods Cree and other Algonquian languages.

Although comparative data is available, the literature is hard to compare because Algonquian languages vary with respect to the productivity of initial change. In the Parry Island variety of Ojibwa described by Rogers 1978, initial change is a productive process. It is also a productive process in certain Ojibwa and Ottawa dialects (Rhodes 1979) and in a North Shore variety of Montagnais (Cyr 1991). In these varieties, initial change results in a regular change in the quality of a vowel.

In most variants of Cree, initial change is not entirely productive. Wolfart (1973:46) notes an apparent tendency to use the changed preverb $\hat{\underline{e}}-$ instead of productive initial change in Plains Cree. Initial change is only semiproductive in the version of Swampy Cree described by Ellis 1983. Although some verbs undergo initial change, most verbs that require initial change use the changed preverbs, êe, kầ-, and kî-1. In Moose Cree, the data base for James

11 Because of the phonological merger of $\hat{e}$ with $\hat{i}$, the preverbs $\underline{\underline{\hat{e}}-}$ and kê- are realized in woods Cree as $\hat{\underline{1}}-$ and kî-1 respectively.

1983, productive initial change is a marginal process. It is restricted to the changed conjunct preverbs kâ-, êe, and kê-, and the frozen form of the verb têpiskâk 'in the evening' and the question word kêkân wêhci 'why' (James 1983:147-148). 12

The Algonquian languages also differ in their interpretation of the conjunct. Rhodes (1979) notes that the function of the conjunct is not uniform across all Ojibwa dialects. Rhodes (1979:197) shows that unchanged conjunct verbs in Ottawa pattern differently from unchanged conjunct verbs in other variants of Ojibwa. Differences also exist in the role of the changed conjunct. In the North Shore variety of Montagnais, the main sequence of events is represented by a series of verbs exhibiting productive initial change (Cyr 1991), in woods Cree the main events are represented by ( $k$ ) â-conjunct forms.

Despite the differences, there is a general belief that the changed conjunct is often used for focus (Ellis 1971:81). According to Ellis (1983:475-476), kâ- "restricts the focus of the verbal act to a point in time,... to a point in space ... [or] to a specific subject or object." Comments on the relationship between changed conjunct verbs

[^12]and focus have been made about other varieties of Cree. For example, an association has been noted between the changed conjunct and focus in Plains Cree (Wolfart 1973:46); in Moose Cree, according to James 1983, the changed conjunct is required in clause types which involve inherent focus on one constituent, e.g., content questions and relative clauses; and Rogers 1978 claims that in Parry Island Ojibwa changed conjunct verbs containing relative preverbs or relative roots focus on circumstances, changed participles, for which there is no corresponding structure in woods Cree, focus on participants and other changed conjunct verbs focus on events.

James 1983 also argues that in Moose Cree, the distinction between actual and hypothetical events affects whether a changed or unchanged conjunct verb is used. According to James, in time and conditional clauses, and also in any type of clause in which there is no inherent special focus (e.g. complement clause), a changed conjunct verb signals an actual event, while an unchanged conjunct signals a hypothetical event.

In Woods Cree, initial change is no longer a productive process and the semantic categories denoted by the different types of conjunct verbs are not absolute. Despite the above limitations, two types of initial change can be
distinguished. One type of initial change is represented by a series of preverbs (Type 1) which have corresponding unchanged conjunct forms (Type 2). Another type of initial change is formed by affixing changed preverbs to the position directly before the tense preverbs (Type 3).

The two types of initial change have slightly different functions. The three preverbs which represent relics of productive initial change, kî-1, wâ- and in some cases, (k)â-, differ from their unchanged counterparts ta, wî- and $\mathrm{ki}^{-2}$ in a way reflecting the distinction between the actual and the hypothetical noted by James 1983 as relevant in Moose Cree; while kî-1, wâ- and (k)â- have the ability to make reference to the past, ta, wi- and ki-2 signal the situation as unfulfilled.

A second type of initial change begin with the preverbs (k)â- and î-. These preverbs may be followed by a past tense morpheme or the preverb wî- want' or occur alone where they have present reference. Although the evidence is far from clear, this type of initial change appears, as in other Algonquian languages, to be associated with special focus. In this use, (k) $\hat{\mathrm{a}}$ - tends either to mark a series of events as foregrounded or occurs in structures in which one argument receives special focus. $\hat{\underline{i}}$ - shows a tendency to signal the importance of the situation. (k)â- and $\hat{\underline{1}}-$ also
have an additional function. In certain types of clauses, (k) â- marks an event as perfective or repetitive and $\hat{\text { in }}$ indicates the on-going or imperfective nature of the event. Further research is needed to fully understand the complex functions of these preverbs.

A conjunct verb may also be unchanged. The preverbs, wí-, ta- and $\underline{k i}-2$ when not preceded by the preverbs (k)âor $\mathrm{I}^{-}$, indicate that the state of affairs denoted by the conjunct verb is unrealized. Their use is similar to James's (1983) description of the use of the unchanged conjunct in temporal and conditional clauses in Moose Cree. Unchanged conjunct verbs, lacking the above preverbs, are unmarked. Unless preceded by a future particle, they do normally not focus on any particular point in time.

Chapter X
SUMMARY. AND CONCLUSIONS

### 10.1 DISCOURSE AND VERB INFLECTION: A SUMMARY

The general objective of this study was to provide a description of the syntax of the Woods Cree spoken in South Indian Lake. The focus of the present analysis was on the effects of the verbal morphology on the syntactic component of the grammar.

Before proceeding with a syntactic or discourse analysis in any language, an understanding of (1) the basic lexical categories, (2) the structure of noun and verb phrases and (3) the characteristics of main and subordinate clauses is essential. However, to date very little research has been completed on Woods Cree. Consequently, in order to provide the bases for further analysis of the language, the first task involved a detailed description of the grammatical features of Woods Cree.

The study shows that syntactic constraints are primarily at the phrase level. Minor constituents within the noun phrase have strict ordering constraints with modifiers generally preceding their heads. Major constituents within
complex noun phrases have much freer word order. The order of constituents at the clause level is also relatively free with focus being a primary factor that conditions clause order.

The basic participants in the clause are signalled by verb inflection. The verbal morphology is also used to structure information flow in discourse. In narrative texts, independent verbs occur in main clauses which contain parenthetical or background information. In descriptive texts, they tend to appear when the information is disjointed in topic, and in conversations; independent verbs often occur when there is a change in topic or a new referent is introduced.

The conjunct appears in both main clauses and subordinate clauses. In subordinate clauses, a conjunct is an obligatory part of the clause. In main clauses, conjunct verbs provide a linking function. They occur when the information contained in the clause is felt to be an integral part of the discourse, either because the clause forms a piece of the sequential action or because it constitutes particularly important or relevant information.

Conjunct verbs are further classified into changed and unchanged conjunct forms. Unchanged conjunct verbs may be
preceded by one of a series of unchanged preverbs which marks the situation as unfulfilled. When not preceded by one of these preverbs, unchanged conjunct verbs are unmarked for time.

Most verbs in Woods Cree are changed forms. The changed conjunct may begin with the changed preverbs (k)â- and $\hat{\mathbf{i}}-$ or begin with a changed tense/aspect preverb. The changed preverbs (k) $\hat{a}-$ and $\hat{i}-$ focus on various aspects of the situation denoted by the verb and occasionally have an aspectual role. The (k)â- preverb also has a second function as the changed form of the past tense morpheme. This preverb, as well as others with unchanged counterparts, makes reference to a past event.

The latter half of the study claims that the primary role of the changed conjunct is a combination of focus and reality. This study supports and strengthens Rogers' claim that changed conjunct verbs focus on some aspect of the event. It also supports James (1983) hypothesis that realis/irrealis distinction is tied to the changed/ unchanged conjunct.

### 10.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the major objectives of this study were fulfilled, many questions regarding the grammatical features of Woods Cree remain unanswered. Other questions relate to Algonquian languages in general and are beyond the scope of the present study. However, it should be constructive for further research to explore these areas which hopefully will shed more light on the working of Algonquian languages. The areas identified for further research are:
(1) Closely related varieties of Algonquian differ at a morphological level. It has been noted by James (1982) that indirect polar questions require changed conjunct verbs in Moose Cree. In Woods Cree, simple unchanged conjunct verbs occur in this construction.
(2) Similarities between the Algonquian languages represent another area for investigation. In this study it has been shown that in Woods Cree most modifiers precede their heads. This is precisely what Sherwood (1986), Boling (1981) and Todd (1970) have demonstrated in Maliseet, Shawnee and Ojibwa respectively and raises the question of other syntactic similarities between the Algonquian languages.
(3) Another area that is worth investigating relates to language change within the South Indian Lake speech community. Evidence from the data shows that the constituent order of noun phrases among some older speakers differs from the pattern prevailing in the community in general. The pattern prevalent among older speakers resembles more closely to the pattern described by Ahenakew (1984) for Plains Cree. This suggests language change within the community of South Indian Lake and it should be interesting to identify the factors responsible for the language change.

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APPENDIX

## APPENDIX A

SOUTH INDIAN LAKE VERBAL MORPHOLOGY

Appendix A is organized as follows:

1. AI Verb Stems
[â-/ī-, i-, â-, o-, n-, ô-, $\hat{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{stems}]$
Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive
Imperative
2. TI2 Verb Stems

Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive Imperative
3. II Verb Stems
[â-, i-, $\hat{\mathbf{1}}-\mathrm{n}$ - stems]
Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive Imperative
4. TI Verb Stems

Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive Imperative
5.

TA Verb Stems
Independent [singular object]
Independent [plural object]
Conjunct [singular object] Conjunct [plural object]

Subjunctive [singular object] Subjunctive [plural object]

Imperative
Inanimate Actor
Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive
Indefinite Actor
Independent, Conjunct, Subjunctive

## AI VERB STEMS

| 1] $\hat{\underline{\hat{a}}-/ \underline{\hat{\mathbf{r}}}-\mathrm{verb}}$ stem |  | atoskî- 'to work' |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Conjunct | Subjunctive |
| 1 | nitatoskân | atoskîyân | atoskîyâni |
| 2 | kitatoskân | atoskîyin ${ }^{1}$ | atoskîyini ${ }^{1}$ |
| 3 | atoskîw | atoskît | atoskîci |
| $1 p$ | nitatoskânân | atoskîyâh[k] | atoskîyâhki |
| 12 | kitatoskân[ân]aw | atoskîyan[k] | atoskiyanki |
| 2p | kitatoskânâwâw | atoskîyîk | atoskîyîko |
| 3p | atoskîwak | atoskicik | atoskîtwâwi ${ }^{2}$ |
| $3^{\prime}$ | atoskíiwa | atoskîit | atoskifici |

Alternate inflections:
1 2C/2S -yan/-yani
2 2ps -twây(i) [younger speakers]

2] i- verb stem kimoti- 'to steal', nimi- 'to dance' âhkosi- 'to be sick'

Independent

1 nikimotin
2 kikimotin
3 kimotiw

1p nikimotinân
12 kikimotin[ân]aw
2p kikimotinâwâw
3p kimotiwak
3' kimotisiwa

Conjunct
nîmiyân
nîmiyin
nîmit
nimiyâh[k]
nîmiyah[k]
nîmiyîk
nimicik
nîmisit

Subjunctive
âhkosiyâni
âhkosiyini
âhkosici
âhkosiyâhki
âhkosiyahki
âhkosiyîko
âhkositwâwi
âhkosifici

3] $\hat{a}-\mathrm{verb}$ stem pimi $\delta \hat{a ̂-}$ 'to fly', nipâ- 'to sleep'

## Independent

1 nipimisân
2 kipimi 1 ân
3 pimiðâw

1p nipimi $\delta a ̂ n a ̂ n$
12 kipimi $\delta a ̂ n[a ̂ n] a w$
2p kipimi $\delta a ̂ n a ̂ w a ̂ w ~$
3p pimi ${ }^{\text {âwak }}$
3' pimídásiwa

Conjunct
nipâyân
nipâyin
nipât
nipâyâh [k]
nipâyah[k]
nipâyîk
nipâcik
nipấit

Subjunctive
nipâyâni
nipâyini
nipâci
nipâyâhki
nipâyahki
nipâyîko
nipâtwâwi
nipâ $i c i$

|  | o- verb stem | mâto- 'to cry' <br> isiठihkâso- 'to be ca | lled' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Independent | Conjunct | Subjunctive |
| 1 | nimâton | isidihkâsowân | mâtowâni |
| 2 | kimâton | isidihkâsowin | mâtowini |
| 3 | mâtow | isifihkâsot | mâtoci |
| 1 p | nimâtonân | isisinkâsowâh[k] | mâtowâhki |
| 12 | kimâton[ân]aw | isidihkâsowah[k] | mâtowahki |
| 2p | kimâtonâwâw | isidinkâsowîk | mâtowiyîko |
| 3p | mâtowak | isifihkâsocik | mâtotwâwi |
| 31 | mâto ${ }^{\text {iwa }}$ | isidihkâsofit | mâtosici |

$\begin{aligned} &5] \text { n- verb stem pimisin- 'to lie down' } \\ & \text { pahkisin- 'to fall down' }\end{aligned}$

Independent Conjunct Subjunctive

| 1 | nipimisin ${ }^{1}$ | pahkisinân | pimisinâni |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | kipimisin | pahkisinan | pimisinani |
| 3 | pimisin | pahkisin[k] | pimisihki |
| 1 p | nipimisinân | pahkisinâh[k] | pimisinâhki |
| 12 | kipimisin [ân]aw | pahkisinah[k] | pimisinahki |
| 2p | kipimisinâwâw | pahkisinîk | pimisinîko |
| 3p | pimisinwak | pahkisinkwâw | pimisihkwâwi |
| $3{ }^{\prime}$ | pimisindiwa | pahkisindit | pimisin [ ${ }^{\text {]ici }}$ |

1 Younger speakers sometimes convert n-stems to i-stems

6] $\hat{\text { ô- verb stem }}$

## Independent

1 nipasikôn
2 kipasikôn
3 pasikôw
1p nipasikônân
12 kipasikôn[ân]aw
2p kipasikônâwâw
3p pasikôwak
3' pasikô§iwa
pasikô- 'to stand up'

Conjunct
pasikôwân
pasikôwin
pasikôt
pasikôwâh [k]
pasikôwah[k]
pasikôwiyîk
pasikôcik
pasikô\&it

Subjunctive
pasikôwâni
pasikôwini
pasikôci
pasikôwâhki pasikôwahki pasikôwîko pasikôtwâwi pasikốici
$7]$ î- verb stem kwîskî- 'to turn one's head mâcî- 'to hunt'

Independent Conjunct Subjunctive

| 1 | nikwîskân ${ }^{1}$ | mâcîyân | kwîskîyâni |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | kikwîskân | mâcîyîn | kwîskîyinni |
| 3 | kwîskîw | mâcît | kwîskíci |


| 1 p | nikwîskânân | mâcîyâh[k] | kwîskîyâhki |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 12 | kikwîskâ[ân]naw | mâcîyah[k] | kwîskîyahki |
| 2p | kikwîskânâwâw | mâcîk | kwîskîyîko |
| 3p | kwîskîwak | mâcitcik | kwîskîtwâwi |
| $3 \prime$ | kwiskî́iwa | mâcîfit | kwîskí8ici |

1 Younger speakers often merge $\hat{1}-$ stems with $\hat{a}-1 \hat{1}-$ stems

## AI VERB STEMS

IMPERATIVE

## IMMEDIATE

1] $\hat{a}-/ \hat{\underline{i}}-$ verb stem atoskî- 'to work'

2p atoskîk
12 atoskîtân

2] i- verb stem

2 api
2p apik
12 apitân

3] $\mathfrak{a}-$ verb stem

2 waniskâ
2p waniskâk
12 waniskâtân
api- 'to sit', nîmi- 'to dance'
pâtimâ nîmîhkan
pâtimâ nîmîhkîk pâtimâ nîmîhkâ
waniskâ- 'to get up, to wake up'
pâtimâ waniskâhkan
pâtimâ waniskâhkîk
pâtimâ waniskâhkâ

| $4]$ | ō- verb stem | nikamo- 'to sing' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | nikamo | pâtimâ nikamôhkan |
| $2 p$ | nikamok | pâtimâ nikamôhkîk |
| 12 | nikamotân | pâtimâ |

5] n- verb stem

2 pimisini
2p pimisinik
12 pimisinitân
pimisin- 'to lie down'
pâtimâ pimisinîhkan
pâtimâ pimisinîhkîk
pâtimâ pimisinîhkâ ${ }^{1}$
1 12DelImp pimisinôhkâ
6] i- verb stem
kwîskî- 'to turn one's head'
2 kwîskî
2p kwîskîk
12 kwîskîtân
pâtimâ kwîskîhkîk
pâtimâ kwîskîhkâ

71 ô- stem pasikô- 'to stand up'

2 pasikô
2p pasikôk
12 pasikôtân
pâtimâ pasikôhkan
pâtimâ pasikôhkîk
pâtimâ pasikôhkâ

## TI2 VERB STEMS

```
kôcihtâ- 'to try it', kîsihtâ- 'to finish it'
osintâw 'to make it'
```

Independent

1 nôsintân ${ }^{1}$
2 kôsintân
3 osihtâw

| $1 p$ | nôsintânân |
| :--- | :--- |
| 12 | kôsihtânaw |
| $2 p$ | kôsintânâwâw |
| $3 p$ | osintâwak |
| $3^{\prime}$ | osintâdiwa |

Conjunct
kîsintâyân
kîsintâyin ${ }^{2}$
kîsihtât
kîsintâyâh [k]
kisintâyah[k]
kîsintâyîk
kísihtâcik
kîsihtấit

Subjunctive
osintâyâni
osintâyini ${ }^{2}$
osintâci
osintâyâhki
osintâyahki
osintâyîko
osintâtwâwi ${ }^{3}$
osintâdici

1 nit or n -(plus length), kit- or k - (plus length) before vowel initial stems

2 2C/2S -yan(i)
3 3ps -twây(i) [younger speakers]

## TI2 VERB STEMS

## IMPERATIVE

## Immediate

2 kôcintâ
2p kôcintâk
12 kôcintâtân

Delayed pâtimâ kôcintâhkan pâtimâ kôcintâhkîk pâtimâ kôcintâhkâ

```
II VERB STEMS
```



Independent

| 0 | $\delta o ̂ s k a ̂ w$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0 p$ | $\delta o ̂ s k a ̂ w a ~$ |
| $0 \prime$ | $\delta o ̂ s k a ̂ \delta i w$ |
| $0 p^{\prime}$ | $\delta o ̂ s k a ̂ \delta i w a$ |

2] i- verb stem

## Independent

| 0 | mâcipasiw |
| :--- | :--- |
| $0 p$ | mâcipa $i w a$ |
| $0^{\prime}$ | mâcipa $\delta i \delta i w$ |
| $0 p^{\prime}$ | mâcipa $\delta i \delta i w a ~$ |

mâcipasi- 'to start, to begin'
misâk
misâkwâw ${ }^{1}$
misâfik
misâ ${ }^{\text {ikwâw }}{ }^{1}$

Conjunct
mâcipasik
mâcipa ${ }^{i k w a ̂ w^{1}}$
mâcipasisik mâcipasisikwâw ${ }^{1}$
Conjunct

Subjunctive
misâki
misâkwâwi ${ }^{2}$
misấiki
misâ $\delta i k w a ̂ w i^{2}$

Subjunctive
mâcipasiki
mâcipa ${ }^{i k w a ̂ w i}{ }^{2}$
mâcipadisiki
mâcipa $\delta i \delta i k w a ̂ w i{ }^{2}$

3] $\hat{\imath}$ - verb stem sâpopî- 'to be wet'

Independent Conjunct

| 0 | sâpopîw | sâpopîk | sâpôpîki |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Op | sâpopíwa | sâpopîkwâw ${ }^{1}$ | sâpopîkwâwi ${ }^{2}$ |
| 0' | sâpopî¢iw | sâpopîdik | sâpopîfiki |
| Op' | sâpopísiwa | sâpopî ${ }^{\text {ikwâw }}{ }^{1}$ | sâpopí ikwâwi $^{2}$ |

4) n- verb stem âpatan- 'to be useful"

Independent Conjunct

0 âpatan
op âpatanwa
0' âpatańiw
op' âpatandiwa
âpatah[k]
âpatahki
âpatansik
âpatansiki
âpatahki
âpatahkwâwi ${ }^{2}$
âpatansiki
âpatan inkwâwi $^{2}$

1 op/Op' -ki [older speakers]
2 ops/Op' -kwây(i) [younger speakers]

|  | Independent | Conjunct | Subjunctive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | niwâpahtîn | wâpahtamân | mâmitonîyintamâni |
| 2 | kiwâpahtin | wâpahtaman | mâmitonîyihtamani |
| 3 | wâpahtam | wâpahtah[k] | mâmitonîyihtahki |
| 1 p | niwâpahtinân | wâpahtamâh[k] | mâmitonîyihtamâhki |
| 12 | kiwâpahti[nâ]naw | wâpahtaman[k] | mâmitonîyihtamahki |
| 2p | kiwâpahtînâwâw | wâpantamî $\left.\mathrm{Y}^{\mathbf{i}}\right] \mathrm{k}$ | mâmitonîyihtamîko |
| 3p | wâpahtamwak | wâpahtahkwâw | mâmitonîyihtahkwâwi |
| 31 | wâpahtami ${ }^{\text {iwa }}$ | wâpahtamisit | mâmitonîyihtamifici |

TI VERB STEMS

IMPERATIVE

## Immediate

2 mâmitonîyinta[h]
2p mâmitonîyihtamok
12 mâmitonîyihtahtân

Delayed
pâtimâ mâmitonîyintamôhkan
pâtimâ mâmitonîyintamôhkîk
pâtimâ mâmitonîyintamôhkâ

## TA VERB STEMS

## INDEPENDENT

wâpamîw 'to see s.o.'

DIRECT

1 niwâpamâw
2 kiwâpamâw
3 wâpamîw

1p niwâpamânân
12 kiwâpamânaw
2p kiwâpamâwâw
3p wâpamîwak
3' wâpamî§iwa

INVERSE
niwâpamik
kiwâpamik
wâpamik
niwâpamikonân
kiwâpamikonânaw
kiwâpamik[o]wâw
wâpamikwak
wâpamikodiwa

DIRECT
2-1 kiwâpamin
2-1p kiwâpaminân
2p-1 kiwâpaminâwâw
2p-1p kiwâpaminân

INVERSE
1-2 kiwâpamitin
1p-2 kiwâpamitinân
1-2p kiwâpamitinâwâw 1p-2p kiwâpamitinân

TA VERB STEMS
INDEPENDENT
[plural object]

## DIRECT

1 niwâpamâwak
2 kiwâpamâwak
3 wâpamîw

1p niwâpamânânak
12 kiwâpamânawak
2p kiwâpamâwâwak
3p wâpamîwak
3' wâpamîסiwa

## INVERSE

niwâpamikwak
kiwâpamikwak
wâpamik
niwâpamikonânak
kiwâpamikonânawak
kiwâpamikowâwak wâpamikwak
wâpamiko iwa

TA VERB STEMS

## CONJUNCT

## DIRECT

1 wâpamak
2 wâpamat
3 wâpamât

1p wâpamakint/wâpamâyâh [k]
12 wâpamâyah[k]/wâpamah[k]
$2 p$ wâpamâyîk
3p wâpamâcik
3' wâpamâdit

DIRECT
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { 2-1 } & \text { wâpamiyan } & 1-2 \\ \text { wâpamitân } \\ 2-1 p & \text { wâpamiyâh[k] } & 1 p-2 \text { wâpamitâh[k] } \\ 2 p-1 \text { wâpamiyîk } & 1-2 p \text { wâpamitakwâw } \\ 2 p-1 p \text { wâpamiyâh[k] } & 1 p-2 p \text { wâpamitâh[k] }\end{array}$

# TA VERB STEMS 

## CONJUNCT

```
[plural object]
```


## DIRECT

1 wâpamakwâw ${ }^{1}$
2 wâpamacik
3 wâpamât

1p wâpamakihcik
12 wâpamâyahkwâw/wâpamahkwâw
2p wâpamâyîkok
3p wâpamâcik
3' wâpamâ§it

INVERSE
wâpamicik
wâpamiskwâw
wâpamikot
wâpamiyamihcik
wâpamitahkwâw
wâpamitîkwâw
wâpamikocik
wâpamikosit

1 wâpamaki [older speakers]

TA VERB STEMS

## SUBJUNCTIVE

DIRECT

1 wâpamaki
2 wâpamaci
3 wâpamâci

1p wâpamakinci
12 wâpamahki
2p wâpamâyîko
3p wâpamâtwâwi ${ }^{1}$
3. wâpamấici


INVERSE
wâpamici
wâpamiski
wâpamikoci
wâpamiyamihci
wâpamitahki
wâpamitîko
wâpamikotwâwi
wâpamikosici

LOCAL FORMS

DIRECT
2-1 wâpamiyani
2-1p wâpamîyâhki
2p-1 wâpamiyîko
2p-1p wâpamiyîko

INVERSE
1-2 wâpamitâni
1p-2 wâpamitâhki
1-2p wâpamitankwâwi
1p-2p wâpamitahkwâwi

# TA VERB STEMS <br> SUBJUNCTIVE <br> [plural object] 

## DIRECT

1 wâpamakwâwi
2 wâpamatwâwi
3 wâpamâci

1p wâpamakihci
12 wâpamahkwayak
2p wâpamayîko
3p wâpamâtwâwi
3' wâpamâ ${ }^{3}$ ici

INVERSE
wâpamitwâwi
wâpamiskwâwi
wâpamikoci
wâpamitahkwâwi
wâpamitahkwâwi
wâpamitîko
wâpamikotwâwi
wâpamikodici

TA VERB STEMS
IMPERATIVE
míiw 'to give it to s.o."

IMMEDIATE

| $2-3$ | $m \hat{i} \delta(a)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $2-3 p$ | $m \hat{i} \delta i k$ |
| $2-3^{\prime}$ | $m \hat{i} \delta[i m]$ |

$\begin{array}{ll}2 p-3 & m \hat{i} \delta i h k \\ 2 p-3 p & m \hat{i} \delta i k / m \hat{i} \delta i h k w a ̂ w\end{array}$
2p-3. mísink

12-3 mídâtân
12-3p mî́âtânik
12-3' mî $\delta$ âtân

LOCAL FORMS

2-1 mí $\delta$
2-1p mî́inân
2p-1 mî $\mathbf{~ i k}$
2p-1p mî $\delta$ inân
mî $\delta \hat{i} h k a \hat{a}$
mî $\delta$ îhkâ

DELAYED
mî $\delta$ âhkan
mî $\delta$ âhkanik
mî $\delta$ âhkan
mî $\delta$ âhkîk
mífahkik
mî $\delta$ âhkik
mî $\delta$ âhka
mî $\delta$ âhkanik
mî $\delta$ âhkâhk
mísinkan
mídinkîk

TA VERB STEMS
INANIMATE ACTOR

nipahîw "to kill s.o."

## Independent

1 ninipahikon
2 kinipahikon
3 nipahik[ôw]

1p ninipahikonân
12 kinipahikonânaw
2p kinipahikonâwâw
3p nipahikowak
3' [ ]

Conjunct
nipahikowân
nipahikowin
nipahikot
nipahikowâh[k]
nipahikowah[k]
nipahikowîk
nipahikocik
nipahikowâdit

Subjunctive
nipahikowâni nipahikowini nipahikoci
nipahikowâhki nipahikowahki nipahikowîko nipahikotwâwi [ ]

TA VERB STEMS
INDEFINITE ACTOR
wâpamîw 'to see s.o.'

Independent

1 niwâpamikawin
2 kiwâpamikawin
3 wâpamâw

Conjunct
wâpamikawiyân
wâpamikawiyin
wâpamint
wâpamikawiyâh[k]
wâpamikawiyah[k]
wâpamikawiyîk
wâpamihcik

Subjunctive
wâpamikawiyâni
wâpamikawiyini wâpaminci
wâpamikawiyâhki wâpamikawiyahki wâpamîkawiyîko wâpamintwâwi

## APPENDIX B

```
NOUN POSSESSION
```


## INDEPENDENT NOUNS

## awâsis 'child'

1 nicawâsimis
2 kicawâsimis
3 ocawâsimisa

1p nicawâsimisinân
12 kicawâsimisinânaw
2p kicawâsimisiwâw
3p ocawâsimisiwâw
3' ocawâsimisiठiwa
adapiy 'net'

1 nitadapiy
2 kitadapiy
3 ota反apiya

1p nita ${ }^{\text {apînân }}$
12 kita apînânaw
2p kita $\begin{gathered}a p i ̂ w a ̂ w ~\end{gathered}$
3p ota $\delta$ apîwâw
3' ota反apî§iwa

## DEPENDENT NOUNS

-kosis 'son'

1 nikosis
2 kikosis
3 okosisa

1p nikosisinân
12 kikosisinânaw
2p kikosisiwâw
3p okosisiwâw
3' okosisifiwa
-tâs 'pants'

1 nitâs
2 kitâs
3 otâsa

1p nitâsinân
12 kitâsinânaw
2p kitâsiwâw
3p otâsiwâw
3' otâsidiwa
indf mitâs

## APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEXTS

Appendix $C$ contains nine texts covering topics of interest within the community of South Indian Lake. The texts are taken from individuals from different age groups. The most noteable features of the texts collected from younger speakers include borrowing, code-switching, stricter word order and introductory temporal particles.

The texts included here are also representative of a number of types of discourse. The different texts favour different types of verbs and different tense marking within the text.

Appendix $C$ includes the following text types:

1. A Legend (by an older man)
2. A Description of Long Ago (by an older woman)
3. A Report About a Religious Meeting (by an older woman)
4. A Social Commentary (by a middle aged man)
5. An Account of a Childbirth (by an older woman)
6. A Discussion About Shamanism (by a middle aged woman)
7. A Story About Epilepsy (by a middle aged woman)
8. A Casual Chat (by a mixed group of younger speakers)
9. A Conversation About Language Use (by a mixed group of younger speakers)

## ******

A Legend

1. kwâni itokî kayâs pîyak kisî́iniw. then perhaps long-ago one old-man.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 2. Opîhkihcawâsiw } & \text { kî-isiठinkâsow. } \\ \text { Opîhkihcawâsiw } & \text { past=be-called } \backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}\end{array}$
2. i-kî-mistahtît. 4. âha, kî-nihtâ-mícisow. $I P V=$ past=be-glutton $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ excl past=know=eat $\backslash A I=3 I$
3. kwâni ôma kîkwâ $\delta$ îw kâ-nipahtât pakwan n(i)tîtî, then prt thing $=3^{\prime}$ IPV=kill $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ anything there
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { kwâni mwâc kíta-pî-kîwîhtatâw } & \text { kahki } \delta a w . \\ \text { then neg could=to=bring-home\TI2=3-0 } I & \text { all }\end{array}$
4. pita î-kakwî-kitât. 7. kwâni itokî pîyakwâw first $I P V=t r y=d e v o u r \backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$ then perhaps once
ômisísi.
this=like
5. kwâni ̂̂-ati-otâkosiníik kâ-âcimint then $I P V=$ incp=evening $\backslash I I=0^{\prime} C \quad I P V=t e l l-s t o r y \backslash T A=X-3 C$

```
kâ-itwît isa awa. 10. kwâni itokí
IPV=say\AI=3C hrs this=3 then perhaps
kâ-nâci\deltaostawât.
IPV=sneak\TA=3-3'C
```

11. kwâni kahkísaw then all
```
kâ-nipahât ôho wâpisiwa, niso. 12. kwâni IPV=kill \(\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}\) this=3' swan=3' two then
```

mâyía mwâc ta-kîwîhtahât. 13. piko but neg IPV=bring-home $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ only
ta-kitamwât.
IPV=devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
14.kwâni itokî îkota î-ati-otâkosindik, then perhaps there IPV=incp=evening $\backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$
kâ-nawacihisot. $I P V=$ snack $\backslash A I=3 C$
15. mistikohk kâ-kîsiswât, stick=1oc $\quad I P V=$ cook $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
ohci apwânâskwa. 16. kwâni kâ-mîcisot. from roast-stick then $I P V=e a t \backslash A I=3 C$
kâ-kitamwât ôho pîyak pîyakwâw IPV=devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ this=3' one once
i-mícisot.
IPV=eat $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$
19.mâka wía î-kî-cîpâtanwât mistikoh[k]. but emp IPV=past=roast $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ stick=loc
20.akwa ôma kâ-pâh-pahkikawansik pimiy, awina and prt IPV=redup=fall-drip $\backslash I I=0 C$ grease person
mihtatam $\hat{\text { i-wanihcikît. 21. kwâni }}$ regret $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$ IPV=10se-obj $\backslash A I=3 C$ then
itokî kâ-osihciwîpinahk waskway-odâkan. perhaps IPV=make-throw $\backslash T \mathrm{I}=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ birchbark=dish
22.kwâni îkota kâ-pahkikawipahtahk then there $I P V=f a l l-d r i p \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
pimiy. grease.

```
23.kwâni itokî ispiy kâ-kitamwât
ôho
then perhaps when IPV=devour\TA=3-3'C this=3'
owâpisîma î-akwa-tipiskâ\deltaik. 24. akwa iskwayâc
3=swan=3' IPV=now=dark\II=0'C and final
Ômî\deltaiw opimîm. 25. "îho, tâpwî pô
this=0' 3=grease excl really just
ta-kitâyân," itîyintam. 26. kwâni itokí
IPV=devour\TI2=1-0C
```

itîyintam. think $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$
26. kwâni itokí then perhaps

```
kâ-minihkwît ômîdiw opimîm. IPV=drink \(\backslash A I=3 C\) this \(=0\) * \(3=\) grease
```

27.âw, akwa kâ-kawisimot $\quad$ pita. 28. akwa IPV=wake-up $\backslash A I=3 C$
29. aci $\delta a w$
piko for-a-while only

```
kîkawisimow wida î-kî-odipadidik
IPV=go-to-bed \(\backslash A I=3 I\) emp \(I P V=\) past=digest \(\backslash I I=0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}\)
```

ôma kâ-kî-micisot.
this=0 $I P V=$ past $=$ eat $\backslash A I=3 C$

| 30. âh tâpwî | mwâc mi momâhcinow. | 31. tâpwî |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| excl really neg good-feel $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 I$ | really |  |

âhkosiw. 32. ̂-âhkosit watay sick $\backslash A I=3 I \quad I P V=s i c k \backslash A I=3 C$ 3=belly
î-maciskoठot. 33. kwâni itokî îkota IPV=bad-stomach $\backslash A I=3 C$ then perhaps there
â-kî-pimisink kapî-kîsik. 34. kwâni mwâc IPV=past=lie-down $\backslash A I=3 C$ all=day then neg
nanatonawâw. 35. akwa $\hat{\imath}-k \hat{\imath}-s i p w \hat{\imath}-n a ̂ c i \delta o s c i k i ̂ t . ~$ search $\backslash T A=X-3 I$ now $I P V=p a s t=a w a y=s n e a k-u p \backslash A I=3 C$
36.îh, pî́isk mîna î-otâkosinsik kîhtwâm, excl finally also $I P V=e v e n i n g \backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$ again
kâ-takosin.

IPV=arrive $\backslash A I=3 C$$\quad$ 37. pîyak \begin{tabular}{l}
kâ-pisiwât <br>
one

$\quad$

IPV=bring-back $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
\end{tabular}

```
ôho wâpisiwa. 38. kwâni ôho mîna
this=3' swan=3' then this=3' also
```

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { otahtahkwanisiwa kahki } \delta \text { aw } & \text { kín-nawacîw. } \\ 3=\text { wing }=3^{\prime} p & \text { all } & \text { past=snack } \backslash A I=3 I & \text { 39. ah, } \\ \text { excl }\end{array}$
tâpwî isa wî́a mi
really hrs 3(he) like $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} I$ swan=3'
î-pîsiwât.
IPV=bring-back $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
40.kwâni itokî kâ-ati-piminawâsonâniwik awa then perhaps $I P V=i n c p=c o o k \backslash I I=0 C \quad$ this=3
wâpisiw. 41. tâpwî âhkosiw, wîsâ mistahi swan really sick $\backslash A I=3 I$ so-much lots
î-kímícisot.
$I P V=p a s t=e a t \backslash A I=3 C$
42.kwâni itokî î-kîsi-piminawâsonâniwik then perhaps $I P V=$ complete $=$ cook $\backslash I I=0 C$
ta-ati-mîcisonâniwik. $I P V=i n c p=e a t \backslash I I=0 C$
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 43. mâyi } \delta \text { a } & \hat{1}-k \hat{1}-k i s k i ̂ \\ \text { but imint } & \text { IPV=past }=k n o w \backslash T A=X-3 C\end{array}$
44. "tân§ikoh kî§a
how-much you

| kâ-wî-môwat | itâw | itokî. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| IPV=want=eat $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ | say $\backslash T A=X-3 I$ | perhaps |


| 45. "âw, mwâc | kiyâm. | 46. kî $\delta$ awâw môwihk. |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| excl no | enough | $2 p$ | eat $\backslash T A=2 p I m p ~$ |


| 47.asay | nî́a | ocahcahkwanisa | ni-nawacin". |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| already | I | 3=wing=dim=3' | $1=$ snack $\backslash A I=1 I$ |

48. pîyak mâyi $\delta a$ î-kî-kitamwât.
one but $\quad$ IPV=past=devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
49. kwâni itok̂̂ kwâni môda asamâw.
then perhaps then neg feed $\backslash T A=x-3 I \quad$ mwâc
neg
50. pîsâkosiw kî-itwîw. 52. kwâni ôho wâpisiwa. fleshy $\backslash A I=3 I$ past=say $\backslash A I=3 I$ then this=3' swan=3'
```
53.awa pîyak wi\deltaa amiskwa, kihci-amiskwa, mwâc
    this=3 one emp beaver big beaver neg
```



```
wâpisiw îyako pîsâkosiw kâ-kî-itwît isa.
swan that-one fleshy\AI=3I IPV=past=say\AI=3C hrs
```

55.ayihî́iw mâka kâ-kî-ohci-kitimanikot. whatev=3* but IPV=past=from=make-poor $\backslash T A=3^{\prime \prime}-3 C$
56.opimîm animî́iw kâ-kî-kitimahikot.
$3=$ grease that=0' $I P V=p a s t=p o o r \backslash T A=3^{\prime \prime}-3 C$
57. [mâcikôstân, pitah
let-see
58.nika-wâpahti $\delta$ âwak. 59. ta-wâpamîwak
$1 \mathrm{fut}=$ show $\backslash \mathrm{TA}+\mathrm{O}=1-3 \mathrm{pI}$ $I P V=s e e \backslash T A=3 p-3 I$
60.ta-wâpamîw awa Boy, Kâ-âcimak

IPV=see $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} I$ this=3 boy IPV=tell-story $\backslash T A=1-3 C$

îyakwâni kâ-kî-kitamwât].
that-one $I P V=p a s t=d e v o u r \backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
63.kwâni pîyak kâ-kitamwât ana kisífiniw then one $I P V=$ devour $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} C$ that $=3$ old-man
piyakwâw î-mîcisot. 64. îh, kî-nihtâ-mîcisow once $\quad I P V=e a t \backslash A I=3 C$ excl past=know=eat $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
itoki. perhaps

```
65.kwâni isikohk î-iskwâk mîna pîyak then so-long-as \(I P V=10 n g \backslash I I=0 C\) also one
```

n(i)tâcimowin. 66. ̂̂-kî-âcimostâkawiyân 1=story

IPV=past=tell-story $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$
kayâs-âcimowin anima. long-ago=story that=0

1. Long ago there was an old man. 2. He was called Opîhkihcawâsiw. 3. He was a glutton. 4. Yes, he knew how to eat. 5. Whenever he killed something, someplace out there, he could not bring it all home. 6. He tried to devour it first. 7. And so it was once like this.
2. And so one evening, he was told swans were heard landing. 9. "Me, me, me," this [old man] said. 10. So he sneaked up to [the swans]. 11. And he killed the swans, two of them. 12. But he would not take them home. 13. He would just devour them.
3. So towards evening, he cooked himself something to eat. 15. He cooked it on a stick, a roasting stick. 16. And then he ate. 17. Then finally it was late at night. 18. He devoured one [of the swans] all at once.
4. But he was roasting it on a stick. 20. And when the grease was dripping, this person felt bad about losing it. 21. So he threw together a birchbark cup. 22. And then he caught the grease [drippings] in there.
5. When he was devouring his swan, it was late at night. 24. And then finally his grease. 25. "Look, I really should devour it," he thought. 26. So he drank his grease.
6. Then first he lay down. 28. And then got up. 29. He just lay down for a little while to digest what he ate.
7. Oh, he really wasn't feeling good. 31. He was sick. 32. His stomach didn't agree with [what he ate]. 33. And so he laid there all day. 34. And nobody looked for him. 35. Now, he was the one who sneaked out.
8. Finally when it was evening again, he arrived home. 37. He brought home one of the swans. 38. He had also snacked on all of the wings [of this one]. 39. But he was really glad because he brought back a swan.
9. And so the people started to cook this swan. 41. He was really sick, he ate too much.
10. And so after the cooking was done, the eating started. 43. But it was known he was a glutton. 44. And so it was asked, "How much do you want to eat?"
45."Aw, nothing, [I've had] enough. 46. You eat him. 47. I already snacked on the wings". 48. But [really] he had devoured one [swan].
11. And so he wasn't fed. 50. He wasn't fed because he had devoured a whole one. 51. He said [the wings of] this one had lots of meat on him. 52. [He meant] the swan. 53. [But] one time he wasn't full when he ate a beaver, a big beaver. 54. And [yet] he said that swan had lots of meat on him. 55. He was in bad shape from this thing. 56. The grease was the thing that made him in bad shape.
12. [Let me show you, bring that here. 58. I will show him to them. 59. They will see them. 60. She will see them, boy, the swans $I$ am talking about in the story. 61. Show him to her. 62. That's the one he devoured].
13. So that is the one that old man devoured in one [meal]. 64. Oh, he really knew how to eat.
14. And so that's how long one of my stories is. 66. That was the old time story that was told to me.

## A Description of Long Ago

```
1. nôsisim, nika-âcimon
    1=gr-child 1fut=tell-story\AI=1I
```

```
kâ-k\hat{\imath}-p\hat{\imath}-nihtâwikihit isa nimâmâ. 2. kahki\deltaaw
IPV=past=to=raise\TA=3-1C hrs 1=mom
all
```

kîkwân kwayask nikî-kiskinôhamâkonân itî thing right $1=p a s t=t e a c h \backslash T A=3-1 p I$ there

```
kâ-kî-itâsiyâhk ta-isi-atoskîyâhk.
```

IPV=past=count-as $\backslash A I=1 p C \quad I P V=r e l=w o r k \backslash A I=1 p C$
3. kwâni kâ-kî-kisîpâyâk, âsay nikî-itikonân then $I P V=p a s t=m o r n i n g \backslash I I=0 C$ already $1=p a s t=s a y \backslash T A=3-1 p I$

```
ta-waniskâyâhk. 4. ômisî nikî-itikonân "mwâc
IPV=wake\AI=1pC this-thus 1=past=say\TA=3-1pI neg
kapî ka-kî-pa-pamihitinâwâw".
always 2fut=able=redup=care-for\TA=2-1pI
```

5. nikî-itikonân $1=p a s t=s a y \backslash T A=3-1 p I$
"kiskinôhamâsok teach-refl $\backslash$ AI=2pImp
```
ta-pimâcinisowîk kâ-kî-itâsiyîko,"
IPV=live-make-refl\AI=2pC IPV=past=count-as \AI=2pS
nikî-itikonân.
1=past=say\TA=3-1pI
```

6. akwa nôhtâwîpan kî-ati-sipwîhtîw and $1=$ father $=1$ ate past=incp=leave $\backslash A I=3 I$
̂̂-natawîyihtah kîkway ta-ohci-pimâtisiyâhk. $I P V=$ need $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} C$ thing $I P V=$ from=live $\backslash A I=1 \mathrm{pC}$
7. wîpac kî-pîtâw. soon past=bring $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I$
8. mwâc kîkwân wîmistikôsiw-mîcisowin. neg thing white-man=food
9. mwâc kîkwân. not thing
10.kwâni piko íinînto kîkwân. 11. ôma then only person=emp thing prt
kâ-isi-âpatah $\quad$-panok piko akwa sôkâw akwa
IPV=rel=be-used $\backslash I I=0 C \quad$ bannock only and sugar and
tiy.
tea

| 12. $\hat{\text { íyakwani }}$ | kî-pimâcihisowak | i $\delta i n i w a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that-one $=0$ | past=live-make $\backslash A I=3 p-1 p I$ person=3p |  |

wîסawâw îkosîsi nikî-pimâcihikonânak. (3p)they thus=rel $1=p a s t=1 i v e-m a k e \backslash T A=3 p-1 p I$
13. ahpo mwâc kîkwân ômatowa wâskâhikan.
or neg thing this=like house
14.kî-osintâwak wîstawâw owâskâhikan. past=make\TI2=3p-0'I (3p)they 3=house
15.kî-osihtâwak nôhtâwiy owâskâhikan ita past=make $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} I$ 1=father $3=$ house there
kâ-kî-ayâyâh, îkota î-nihtâwikihikawiyâhk. $I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$ there $I P V=$ raise $\backslash T A=X-1 p C$
16. kwâni pô î-kî-papâmî-ayâyâhk. then only $I P V=p a s t=a r o u n d=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$
17. tântî where

```
kâ-nitawi-ayâyâhk, âsay kî-osintâw
IPV=go-to=be\AI=1pC already past=make\TI2=3-0'I
```

wâskâhikan, îkotî nîtî $\hat{1}$-ayâyâhk. house there there $I P V=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$
18. ahpo mwâc kotawânâpisk - ayihîw piko asiskiy.
or neg stove whatev=0 only clay
19.kâ-kî-osihtâcik isa, asiskiy-kotawânâpisk. IPV=past=make $\backslash T I 2=3 p-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ hrs clay-stove
20.kwâni îyako piko. then that-one only
21. mwâ mîna kîkwân wâstaskotînikan. 22. ayihíw piko neg also thing light whatev=0 only
pimiy î-osihtât kôhkom. 23. îyakwî́iw grease $I P V=m a k e \backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} C 2=$ grandmother that-one $=0$ '
î-wâstaskotînikâkît. 24. îkota kî-ohci-wâstîk. IPV=light-thing $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ there past=from=light $\backslash I I=0 C$

```
25.kwâni ispiy kâ-kî-itâsiyâhk, pí\deltaisk
    kâ-kî-ati-wâpahtamâh ômisi kâ-tôcikâtîk,
IPV=past=incp=see\TI=1p-0C this=thus IPV=do\II=0C
nanâtohk kîkwân kâ-tôcikâtîk. 26. kwâni
all-kinds thing IPV=do\II=0C then
kâ-kî-isiyamiht "kâ\deltaa kiskinôhâpahtamok".
IPV=past=say\TA=3-1pC neg learn=see\TI=2p-0Imp
27."kâ\deltaa wanikiskisik kâ-kî-isi-kiskinôhamâtakwâw
    neg forget\AI=2pImp IPV=past=rel=teach\TA=1-2pC
    la-isi-pimâcihisowik,",
    nôhtâwîpan. 28. kwâni tâpwî nikî-tôtînân.
    l=father=late then really 1=past=do\TI=1p-0I
29."atoskîk".
    work\AI=2pImp
```

30. kwâni î-ati-kîh-kisîpâyâk, then $I P V=$ incp=redup=morning $\backslash I I=0 C$
î-kî-nitawi-nikohtîyâhk C. mîna akwa IPV=past=go-to=chop-wood $\backslash A I=1 p C$ C. also and
C. 31. ̂̂-awatâwatîyâhk minta. 32. mwâ
C. IPV=carry-bag $\backslash A I=1 p C$ wood neg
kîkwân otâpânâsk.
thing toboggan

kâ-kî-isi-awatâwatîyâhk, nikâwînân
$I P V=$ past=rel=carry-bag $\backslash A I=1 p C \quad 1=$ mother $=1 p$
î-nihkotît.
IPV=chop-wood $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$
$\begin{array}{cll}\text { 34. kwâni } & \text { î-kî-ati-sipwîhtîyahk } & \text { î-natadapît. } \\ \text { then } & \text { IPV=past=incp=leave } \backslash A I=1 p C & \text { IPV=fetch-net } \backslash A I=3 C\end{array}$
31. ̂̂-pakitahwâyâhk. $I P V=f i s h \backslash A I=1 p C$
32. nimâmâ $\hat{1}-w i ̂ c i ̂ w a k i n t ~$ $1=m o m \quad I P V=a c c o m p a n y \backslash T A=1 p-3 C$
ôta isi piko ôma kâ-matwî-wâsâk. here to only prt $I P V=a u d i b l y=b a y \backslash I I=0 C$
33. îkota there
37.kâ-kî-ayâyâhk. $I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=1 p C$
34. kwâni mâna îkota nôhtâwîpan then used-to there $1=$ father=late
$\hat{\imath}-k \hat{\imath}$-wanihikit.
IPV=past=trap $\backslash A I=3 C$
35. pîyak pîsim one month
î-kî-itâpicît. 40. kwâni
$I P V=p a s t=f a r-a w a y \backslash A I=3 C \quad$ then
̂̂-kî-pimâcihiyamiht IPV=past=live-make $\backslash T A=3-1 p C$
kôhkom.
$2=$ grandmother
41.kwâni pîyakwâw ôtî î-pôsiyâhk pakitahwâkanink then one-time here $I P V=$ depart $\backslash A I=1 p C$ Pakitahwakan=loc
icikâtîw. 42. kwâni mwâc kotawânâpisk akwa call $\backslash I I=0 I$ then neg stove and
nôhtâwîpan $\hat{i}$-sipwîhtît. 43. kwâni kâ-itwît
$1=$ father=late $I P V=$ leave $\backslash A I=3 C$
then $I P V=s a y \backslash A I=3 C$
kôhkom "nicânis, nikakotawânâpiskohkân". $2=$ grandmother $1=$ daughter 1 fut=stove $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{I}$
44.kwâni kâ-kî-kotawânâpiskohkît asiskiy-kotawânâpisk then IPV=past=stove\AI=3C clay-stove

| ̂̂-kî-osihtât. | 45. $\hat{1}-$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| IPV=past=make\TI | IPV=past=help $\backslash T A=1$ |

# 46.nimâmâ kwâni î-kî-kaskintât $\hat{1}$-wîcihakint. $1=m o m$ then $I P V=p a s t=c a n \backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} C \quad I P V=h e l p \backslash T A=1 p-3 C$ 

47.kwâni kimosôm ̂̂-pî-takosihk, âsay then $2=$ grandfather $I P V=$ to=arrive $\backslash A I=3 C$ already
kâ-pônahk.
IPV=light-fire $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
48. wâskâhikan house
kî-osintâw, kâ-napakastîki isa.
$I P V=$ máke $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} I \quad I P V=f l a t-p u t \backslash I I=0 p C \mathrm{hrs}$
49.kâ-kî-osihtâniwahki wâskâhikana. IPV=past=make $\backslash I I=0 p C$ house=0p
50. kwâni, kwâni nî danân that's-all then we(1p)
kâ-kî-pí-isi-pimâcihikawiyâhk.
IPV=past=to=rel=live-make $\backslash T A=X-1 p C$ 51. mistahi
kîkwân nikî-pî-wâpahtîn, nôsisim, thing $\quad 1=p a s t=s e e \backslash T I=1-O I \quad 1=$ grandchild
ta-kî-âcimowân.
IPV=able=tell-story $\backslash$ AI=1C
52. [kwâni na?]
that's-all $Q$
53. kwâni pita. that's-all now

1. My grandchild, I'll tell you a story about how I was brought up by my mother. 2. She taught us everything when we were old enough to work.
2. In the morning, she told us to get up. 4. She told us like this: "I will not always be able to look after you". 5. She told us, "Teach yourselves how to live when you are old enough".
3. My late father searched for things from which we could live. 7. He soon brought something back.
4. We did not [have] whiteman's food. 9. Nothing. 10. Only Indian-made things. 11. Only bannock, sugar and tea were used.
5. People made themselves live so that they could keep us alive.
6. And there were no houses like this one. 14. They made their own house. 15. They made my father's house where we lived, where we were raised.
7. We just moved around. 17. Wherever we stayed, [my father] made a house and we lived there.
8. And no stove -only the clay [kind]. 19. You know the kind they made - clay stoves. 20. That's the only thing.
9. And also no lamp. 22. Your grandmother just made grease. 23. That's what she used for light. 24. That's where light came from.
10. When we were older, we finally saw the way things were done, the way all kinds of things were done. 26. Then our mother said to us, "Don't learn from watching". 27. Our late father told us, "Don't forget what I have taught you how to look after yourselves". 28. We really did things. 29. "Work!"
11. In the morning, we went to chop wood, [myself], C. and also C. 31. We carried the wood in bags. 32. There was no toboggan.
12. And when my late father was away, we did the hauling of the bags and our mother cut it.
13. Then we left and she lifted nets. 35. We fished too.
14. We accompanied my mother over here in the bay. 37. That's where we lived.
15. My late father used to trap over there. 39. He went for one month. 40. Then your grandmother looked after us.
16. Once we went by boat to [a place] called Pakitahwâkan. 42. There was no stove and my late father was away. 43. So your grandmother said, "My daughter, I will make a stove". 44. So she made a stove, she made a stove out of clay. 45. We helped her [make it]. 46. My mother was able to do it with our help.
17. When your grandfather came home, he made a fire. 48. He also made a house, you know the flat kind. 49. The kind of houses that were made.
18. That's all, that's how we were brought up. 51. I saw a lot of things in life, my grandchild, that $I$ can talk about.
19. [Is that all?]
20. That's all for the first [session].

## A Report About a Religious Meeting

$\begin{array}{lll}\text { 1. }[\text { âsay } & \text { kipîhtakosin } & \text { ôta]. } \\ \text { already } & 2=\text { be-heard } \backslash A I=2 I \text { here }\end{array}$
2. kâ-kî-oסasowâniwah na?
$I P V=$ past=be-arranged $\backslash I I=0 C \quad Q$
[mmmm]
3. [tânsi kâ-kî-isi-wâpahtaman]? how $\quad I P V=$ past $=r e l=$ see $\backslash T I=2-0 C$
4. kâ-kî-o asowâniwah í kayâsih kîkwân $I P V=$ past=be-arranged $\backslash I I=0 C$ emp long-ago=loc thing
kâ-kî-o asowâsikâtîk. $I P V=$ past=be-arranged $\backslash I I=0 C$
5. kayâs isa long-old hrs
kâ-kî-pî-isi-pimâcihocik íiniwak. IPV=past=to=rel=survive $\backslash A I=3 p C$ person=3p

```
[mmmm] 6. îkâ kata-pônintâcik. 7. kiyâpic
    neg should=stop \(\backslash T 12=3 p-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}\) still
```

îkosi takwî-isi-pimâcihisocik
thus try=rel=survive-refl\AI=3pC
kâ-kî-pî-isi-pimâcihocik.
IPV=past=to=rel=survive $\backslash A I=3 p C$
[mmmm]
8. akwa mina kotak awa awina kâ-kî-ayamit. and also other this=3 someone $I P V=p a s t=t a l k \backslash A I=3 C$
9. iskôl ifa îyako kâ-kî-a $i m o t a h$ school emp that-one=0 IPV=past=talk-about $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
[mmma] 10. kâ-kîsintât awina iskôl, IPV=finish $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ someone school
itwîw, akwa ôtî kâ-ati-sipwîhtît isa patos say $\backslash A I=3 I$ and here $I P V=i n c p=1$ eave $\backslash A I=3 C$ hrs different
askîh, kwâni î-ati-wanihtât animî́iw land=loc then $I P V=$ incp=lose $\backslash T I 2=3-0^{\prime} C$ that $=0^{\prime}$
okiskinôhamâkowin itwîw ahpo
3=learning say $\backslash A I=3 I$ or

```
i-ati-wanikiskisit
IPV=incp=forget \AI+O=3C
animî\deltaiw okiskinôhamâkowin.
that=0' 3=learning
```

[hmmm]

| 11. akwa kotak and other | awina, someone | ayamîkimâw, minister | kata-ayaminâcik <br> should=pray $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| isiniwak person=3p | $\begin{aligned} & \text { itwîw. } \\ & \text { say } \backslash A I=3 I \end{aligned}$ | 12. kwayask right | tâ-ayaminâcik should=pray $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ |
| isiniwak. person=3p | 13. pîya like | wan kwâni then |  |

```
kâ-ati-isi-wanikiskisicik otayaminâwiniwâwa.
IPV=incp=rel=forget\AI+O=3pC 3=religion=3p
```


opimâcihiwîw tân(i)si ta-isi-nakiskawâcik
savior
how $\quad I P V=r e l=$ meet $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
îkâ ayamihâtwâwi mintatamowinin
neg pray $\backslash T A=3 p-3 ' S$ regret=loc

# ahpo ta-isinakiskawîwak <br> or $\quad I P V=r e l=$ meet $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} I$ <br> ahpo mâtowinih itwîw <br> or crying=loc say $\backslash A I=3 I$ 

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { îkâ ayaminâtwâwi } & \text { i } \delta \text { iniwak } \\ \text { neg pray } & \text { kwayask }\end{array}$
neg pray $\backslash T A=3 p-3 \prime S$ person=3p neg right
isi-pimâtisitwâwi itwîw ana ayamîhkimâw. rel=live $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{pS} \quad$ say $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$ that=3 minister

nikî-itohtân.
$1=p a s t=g o \backslash A I=1 I$

# 16. pô mîna mô ${ }^{\text {a }}$ n-ôh-nisitohtawâwak <br> atint only also neg $1=$ negpast=understand $\backslash T A=1-3 p I$ some 

íiniwak. 17. îmayakwîcik isa. person=3p $\quad I P V=s p e a k-d i f f e r e n t \backslash A I=3 p C$ hrs
18.patos itî ohci wâhoaw isiniwak, different there from far-away person=3p
nahkawî-íiniwak mîna. 19. mwâ
Saulteaux=person=3p also neg
n-ôhci-nisitohtawâwak.
$1=$ negpast=understand $\backslash T A=1-3 p I$
20. akwa kâ-ki-ati-pônipasik ôma odasowîwin
and $I P V=p a s t=i n c p=s t o p \backslash I I=0 C \quad$ this=0 meeting
akwa kâ-kî-sîkintitâniwah ayânisa. and $I P V=$ past=pour-out $\backslash I I=0 C$ clothes=0p
21.mincîtin $\hat{\mathbf{1}}$-kî-cipwaskitîki
be-lots $\backslash I I=0 I$ $I P V=p a s t=p e a k \backslash I I=0 p C$
akwa kwâni kâ-kî-mî́ihcik isiniwak.
and then $I P V$-past=give $\backslash T A+O=X-3 p C$ person=3p
22.nîsta isa poko nikî-mîdikawin.

I-too hrs only $1=$ past=give $\backslash T A+0=X-1 I$
23.akwa iskopasinwa anihi ayânisa. and remain $\backslash I I=0 p I$ that $=0$ p clothes $=0 p$


```
kâ-kî-pimohtatâcik piko awi\deltaiwa
IPV=past=walk\TI2=3p-0'C
only someone=3*
```

i-sípinamawâcik,

IPV=throw $\backslash T A+O=3 p-3^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | kiyâm awâsisak. 25. atiht |
| :--- |
| even child=3p |$\quad$ some

nisto anihi swîcarîsa ̂̂-sîpinamawâcik
three that=0p sweater=dim=0p IPV=throw $\backslash T A+O=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
isko mîstinahkwâw anihi.
until used-up $\backslash I I=0 p C \quad$ that $=0 p$

ofâkana isa tâskôc anima kâ-pakitinikâniwah ofâkan plate $=0 p$ hrs like that $=0$ IPV=set-down $\backslash I I=0 C$ plate
̂̂-asiwáihcik ayahâwa cistîmâw. 28. kwâni IPV=put-in $\backslash T A=X-3 p C$ whatev=3' tobacco then
î-kwâpinât awina. 29. kahki ${ }^{\text {aw }}$
$I P V=s c o o p-u p \backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ someone all

```
i\deltainiwak î-kwâpinâcik anihi.
person=3p IPV=scoop-up\TA=3p-3'C that=3'
```

30.akwa animî́iw â-pônahkwâw ayinî́iw iskotîw and that=0' IPV=light-fire $\backslash T I=3 p-0^{\prime} C$ whatev=0' fire
îkota kâ-wâsakâmi-isîmocik. 31. kâ-nîmicik
there $I P V=$ around=rel-dance $\backslash A I=3 p C \quad I P V=$ dance $\backslash A I=3 p C$
isa kâ-pakamahocik anihi. 32. tahto-tipiskâw
hrs IPV=hit $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} C$ that=3' every=night
î-nîmicik. $33.7 \mathrm{kwâni} \mathrm{nôcokîsiwak} \mathrm{akwa}$
$I P V=$ dance $\backslash A I=3 p C$
then old-woman=3p now
ta-nîmiwak," kâ-itwânik. 34. kwâni
$I P V=$ dance $\backslash A I=3 p I \quad I P V=s a y \backslash I I=0 C$ then
kâ-kî-kayâmowân.
IPV=past=leave-quietly $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=1 \mathrm{C}$
$\begin{array}{cllll}\text { 35. akwa anima } \\ \text { and } & \text { iskotîw } & \text { anima } \begin{array}{l}\text { ôta } \\ \text { that }=0\end{array} & \text { fire } & \text { that }=0\end{array}$ here

î-macostîhocik anihi cistîmâwa
IPV=throw-in-fire $\backslash T A=3 p-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ that $=3^{\prime}$ tobacco
akwa kâ-kî-ati-mîconâniwah. 37. kwâni and $I P V=p a s t=i n c p=e a t \backslash I I=0 C$ then
î-ati-pônihtâcik. IPV-incp=stop $\backslash T$ I $2=3 p-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
38. [mwâ na isa ôho maskihkiya? neg $Q$ hrs this=0p medicine=0p
39. mwâ na îkotôya neg $Q$ that-kind
ohci-ayâwak]?
negpast-be $\backslash A I=3 p I$
40.tâpwî, maskihkî $\delta i n i w ~ i ̂ k o t a ~ k i ̂-a y a ̂ w . ~$ true medicine-man there past=be $\backslash A I=3 I$

```
41.kî-takosin. 42. maskihkiya \hat{i}-kî-mî\deltaât
    past=arrive\AI=3I medicine=0p IPV=past=give\TA+O=3-3'C
```

```
i\deltainiwa kâ-nâtikot ôtí\deltaa.
person=3' IPV=fetch\TA=3'-3C here-emp
```

43. tipân
away
kiyokîwak cîpokîwâhpin. 44. îkota kâ-kî-ayât. visit $\backslash A I=3$ pI pointed-tent=loc there $I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=3 C$
45.kâ-nâtikot awi $\delta$ iwa, kî-mî́îw $I P V=$ fetch $\backslash T A+O=3^{\prime}-3 C$ someone $=3^{\prime \prime}$ past=give $\backslash T A+O=3-3^{\prime} I$
maskihkiya înitawihât. 46. mitoni medicine=0p $I P V=$ cure $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ so-much
î-pî-pohtinikît anihi maskinkiyâhtikwa
$I P V=t o=c o n j u r e \backslash A I=3 C$ that $=0 p$ medicine-stick=0p
ôma kâ-macostîhah.
prt IPV=throw-in-fire $\backslash T \mathrm{~T}=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
47.nîsta isa pô nikî-nâtâw. $\mathrm{I}=$ too hrs only $1=$ past=fetch $\backslash \mathrm{TA}=1-3 \mathrm{I}$
44. nikî-mî $6 i k$
maskihkiyâhtikwa.
$1=$ past=give $\backslash T A+0=3-1 C$ medicine=stick=0p
49.kâ-nôhtîtahtamân IPV=lack-breath $\backslash T I=1-0 C$
îkâ kâ-kî-pimohtîyân.
neg IPV=able=walk $\backslash A I=1 C$
50.ayihîw mâka-ifa ayihîw pawâsînikan isôma whatev=0 but-emp whatev=0 hallucination(?) hrs=this=0
cigaret kâ-pîhtwâtît. cigarette $I P V=s m o k e \backslash A I=3 C$
45. îkota there
ta-pi-pohtîk. 52. akwa akohp ta-akonikawiyin $I P V=$ to $=$ smoke $\backslash I I=0 C$ and blanket $I P V=$ cover $\backslash T A=X-2 C$
ta-pasôwin anima pâstîw ta-iskôtâmowin IPV=smell\TI2=2-0C that=0 dryness IPV=inhale\AI=2C
kwâni kâ-ati-misôyan.
then $I P V=$ incp $=$ do-well $\backslash A I=2 C$
53."îkâ ta-n(i)siwanâtah kihpama," â-isit.
neg IPV=spoil $\backslash I I=0 C \quad 2=1 u n g=0 p \quad I P V=s a y-t h u s \backslash A I=3 C$
46. îyako anima k-ôh-nôhtîtahtamowin. 55. mô $\delta$ a that-one=0 that=0 IPV=from=lack-breath $\backslash A I=2 C \quad$ neg
```
i\deltaa sîmâk kami\deltaôn mâ ohcitaw
emp immed 2fut=do-well\AI=2I but surely
```

kika-ati-mi $\delta$ ôn. 56. kikami $\delta$ ôwin
2fut=incp=$\backslash$ AI=2I
56. kikami $\delta$ ôwin 2fut=do-well $\backslash$ AI $=2 I$
kâ-âhkosîyin.
IPV=sick $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=2 \mathrm{C}$

## ******

1. [Your voice is being recorded now].
2. The meeting?
[agreement]
3. [What did you see?]
4. The meeting was about how things were done in the past. 5. You know, about how people survived a long time ago. [go on] 6. They should not give that up. [go on] 7. They should still try to help themselves survive, the way they survived [in the past].
[go on]
5. And also this other person spoke. 9. He spoke about school. [go on] 10. When a person finishes school, he said, [go on] and he leaves here for a different land, he loses what he has learned, he said, or else he forgets what he has learned.
[oh really]
6. And another person, a minister said, people should pray (turn to religion). 12. And people should pray to him right (they should live a Christian life). 13. [People] forgot their religion the same way [as their education]. [agreement] 14. They will always remember when the savior comes how they will meet him in regret if they do not pray and he said they will meet him in tears if people do not pray and if they do not live right, that minister said.
7. I wasn't there alot, I only went once in a while.
[go on]
8. And I also really didn't understand some people.
9. They speak differently, you know. 18. The people were from a different place far away, the Saulteaux. 19. I didn't understand them.
10. And then the meeting ended and clothes were given out. 21. There were so many [clothes] that they were piled in a heap and then given to people. 22. I was given some too.
11. And there were [still] clothes left over. 24. There were so many people they were walking around [with the clothes], throwing them at anybody, even children. 25. They threw three of the small sweaters to them [the Children] until they were all used up.
12. And then they ended the meeting. 27. And then tobacco was put in a plate similar to the plate that things are put in [in church]. 28. And then someone scooped up some [tobacco]. 29. Everybody scooped it [tobacco].
30.Then they lit a fire and they danced around there. 31. They danced and they hit them [the drums]. 32. They danced every night. 33. And then it was announced "Let the old women dance now". 34. So I left quietly.
13. And then they walked around here in front of that fire. 36. They all threw the tobacco in the fire and then the eating started. 37. And so they ended [the meeting].
14. [Did [they have] medicine? 39. Were there other kinds (animate)]?
15. Of course, a medicine man was there. 41. He came in [for the meeting]. 42. He gave medicine to people when they went to him. 43. They visited in an away spot, in a pointed tent. 44. That's where he stayed.
16. When someone went to him, he gave them medicine and cured them. 46. He made smoke when he threw the medicine sticks in the fire.
17. I went to see him too. 48. He gave me medicine sticks. 49. I get short of breath and I can't walk. 50. He smoked
this thing, a cigarette. 51. [The medicine man] said "You put a little [ashes] in there," and it will smoke. 52. You will be covered with a blanket so that you smell the dry smoke and inhale it and then you will get better.
18. He said "Your lungs don't want decay." 54. It's from that you have shortness of breath. 55. You will not get better right away but you will get better. 56. Your sickness will go away.

## A Social Commentary

```
1. kahki\deltaaw isa kîkwân î-namatakwahk. 2. mitoni ôtî
    all hrs thing IPV=disappear\II=0C so-much here
    kahki\deltaaw kîkwân î-kwîtawîyihtamân. 3. îh,
    all thing IPV=miss\TI=1-0C excl
    tâskôc isa ôko ayahâwak pisiskisîsak- ôho tâskôc
    like hrs this=3p whoev=3p animal=dim=3p this=3' like
    sîsîpak, môswak. 4. tân(i)\deltaôh wâh\deltaaw nôhcimihk
    duck=3p moose=3p so-long far-away woods
    kâ-ayât kâ-n(i)tawî\deltaimiht isa. 5. mwâ nôkosiw.
    IPV=be\AI=3C IPV=want\TA=X-3C hrs neg appear\AI=3I
```

6. kâ-kî-pimâtakât pô îkota piko kâ-kâhcitiniht. IPV=past=swim $\backslash A I=3 C$ only there only $I P V=$ catch $\backslash T A=X-3 C$
7. kâ-wâpamint, mốa mîna kapî mânimâ nipahâw $I P V=$ see $\backslash T A=X-3 C$ neg also always of-course kill $\backslash T A=X-3 I$
môswa. 8. mitoni pâtimâ îtakwâkink. moose so-much later autumn $\backslash I I=0 \mathrm{C}$
```
9. akwa mîna ayihîw pakitahwâwin, mwâc tâskôc and also whatev=0 fishing neg like
```

kâ-kî-ispaठik. 10. mwâc îkosi ihkin.
$I P V=$ past=so-happen $\backslash I I=0 C$
neg thus function $\backslash I I=0 I$

13.mwâc tîpipasin ta-sâkaskinahtâyân 3 tubs, nisto neg enough $\backslash I I=0 I$ IPV=fill\TI2=1-0C 3 tubs three
mahkahk kâ-itwânik. tub $I P V=s a y \backslash I I=0 C$
14.akwa before the flood nistam kâ-ohci-pakitahwâniwah, and before the flood first IPV=from=fish $\backslash I I=0 C$
kwâni osâm. 15. piko 3 nets 5, nikî-âpacihâwak, then too-much only 3 nets 5 1=past=use $\backslash T A=1-3 I$
ôma nîsta kâ-pakitahwâyân. 16. kiyâm îkâ mistahi
prt I-too IPV=fish $\backslash A I=1 C$ although neg lots
î-kî-ohci-tîpipahikâsot kinosîw, kwâni IPV=past=negpast=be-enough $\backslash A I=3 C$ fish then
ohcitaw kwayask nikî-kaskihcikânân. 17. mốa nî $\delta a$ surely really $1=p a s t=e a r n \backslash A I=1 p I \quad$ neg $I$
piko kwâni kahkíaw nâpîwak. 18.kwâni mitoni only then all man=3p then so-much
mâna ômisi kî-itastîwa nitayânâna used-to this=rel past=thus-put $\backslash I I=0 p I \quad 1 p=t h i n g=0 p$
nîstanân ôma kâ-pôni-pakitahwîyâhk.
we(13) this=0 IPV=stop=fish $\backslash A I=1 p C$

```
19.akwa anohc kâ-kîsi-pakitahwât, awina kwâni pô and now \(I P V=c o m p l e t e=f i s h \backslash A I=3 C\) someone then only
wîhtamawâw, "îyakwấiw kî-pihcipa \(\mathrm{in}_{\mathrm{in}}\).
tell \(\backslash T A+0=X-3 I\) that-one=0' IPV=owe\II=0I
```

20.kwâni îyako pô anohc î-kiskîyintamân nîsta. then that-one only now $I P V=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 C \quad$ I-too
21."îyakwấiw pô kîkwân nîsta î-iskopaסiyan" that-one=0' only thing I-too IPV=left-over $\backslash A I=2 C$
̂-âcimostâkawiyân $\hat{\text { infîfikawiyân ahpo nimasinahikan. }}$ IPV=tell $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$ IPV=give $\backslash T A+O=X-1 C$ or $1=$ book
22."âw, îyakwấiw kipihcipáin". excl that=0' $2=0 w e \backslash A I=2 I$
23.akwa mîna ayihîw mîna mwâc nâspic ayâw atink. and also whatev=0 also neg so-good be $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$ caribou
24. îyakwî 8 âc anohc mânimâ kâ-kî-ihtât atihk finally now of-course IPV=past=exist $\backslash A I=3 C$ caribou

```
kâ-pipohk. 25. kayâs mâna ôtî mâna
IPV=winter\II=0C long-ago used-to here used-to
```

The Other End kâ-kî-ayâyâhk, ôtî kâ-pî-itohtîyâhk, the other end IPV=past $\backslash b e=1 p C$ here $I P V=t o=g o \backslash A I=1 p C$
kwâni misiwî mâna nikî-wâpamânânak atihkwak then all-over used-to. 1=past=see $\backslash T A=1 p-3 p I$ caribou
ôta ̂̂-papâmohtîcik.
here $I P V=$ around-walk $\backslash A I=3 p C$

```
26. ahpo anta or (even) there
```

Hudson Bay anta between the Island ôma Clee's isa Hudson Bay there between the Island this=0 Clee's hrs
ôko kâ-kî-ayâcik, ̂̂kota mîna this=3p $I P V=p a s t=b e \backslash A I=3 p C$ there also
nikî-wâpamâwak atihkwak ̂̂-pimohtícik.
$1=$ past $=$ see $\backslash T A=1-3 p I$ caribou=3p $I P V=w a l k \backslash A I=3 p C$

# 27.kwâni iskwayâc the last year î-wâpamak atink. then final the last year IPV=see $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ caribou 

| 28.1952 | îkospiy | îkín-wâpamakwâw |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1952 then | IPV=past=see $\backslash T A=1-3 p C$ | atihkwak |
| caribou=3p |  |  |


| iskwayâc | $\hat{\mathrm{I}}$-mincîticik. | 29. misiwî |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| final | IPV=be-many $\backslash A I=3 p c$ | all-over |

nikî-wâpamâwak kâ-ispîhcâk ôma sâkahikan.
$1=p a s t=s e e \backslash T A=1-3 p I$ IPV=rel-long $\backslash I I=0 C$ this=0 lake
30.î-sâkiskwatacicik ayahâwak otîskanak IPV=stick-out-head=by-cold $\backslash A I=3 p C$ whoev=3p $3=a n t l e r=3 p$
isa ôko. 31. kwâni after that kwâni mwâc hrs this=3p then after that then neg

```
ohci-intâw atink.
negpast=exist\AI=3I caribou
```

32. kwâni pâtima ayinîw mina anohe ôma last
then after whatev=0 also now this=0 last

cîskwa takosin. 34. wâhoaw
yet arrive $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
kâ-kî-nâtint $I P V=a b l e=f e t c h \backslash T A=X-3 C$
atink. caribou
33. Everything is disappearing. 2. I really miss all these things here. 3. Look, just like these animals, just like these ducks, moose. 4. [The moose] is so far in the bush when it is needed. 5. He is not visible. 6. Only when he is in the water, he is caught. 7. When he is seen, of course, the moose is not always killed. 8. [They are] mostly [caught] in the late fall.
34. And also the fishing, it's not the same as it was.
35. It doesn't work that way. 11. When $I$ fish now, $I$ am only supposed to use 15 nets. 12. Sometimes I set 30 nets in the water. 13. That's not enough to fill 3 tubs, three tubs as it is said [in Cree].
36. And before the flood, when fishing first started, there was too much. 15. I only used 3 to 5 nets when I fished [then]. 16. Even if a fish wasn't worth much, we were able to earn enough. 17. [This was] not only myself, [it was the same] for the other men too. 18. After fishing, our stuff used to be this high.
37. Today when fishing is over, a person is told, "You owe this". 20. That is all I know [that happens] now. 21. "That's all you have left over" I am told or I am given my statement. 22. "Ok, you owe this".
38. And also there are not many caribou. 24. This was the first winter [in a long time] when there were caribou. 25. A long time ago, when we used to live here at the other end, coming towards here, we used to see caribou all over walking around here. 26. Even over there between the Hudson Bay and the island where the Clee's used to live, I also saw caribou walking there.
39. That was last year I saw caribou. 28. In 1952, that was the last time $I$ saw the caribou, when they were plentiful. 29. I saw them all over the length of this lake. 30. The antlers stuck out of the cold [snow] [after caribou were killed]. 31. Then after that there were no caribou.
40. It is only now this last year that there were caribou. 33. But [they haven't come] here yet. 34. One has to go far away to get caribou.

## An Account of a Childbirth

1. [kikî-otinawâson
na?]
$2=$ past=deliver-child $\backslash A I=2 I$ Q
2. îhî. 3. kâ-kî-otinawâsonâniwik mîna
yes $\quad I P V=p a s t=d e l i v e r-c h i l d \backslash I I=0 C$ also
nikî-kaskihtân wî́a nôcokîsiw mâna $1=$ past=can\TI2=1-OI cause old-woman used-to
î-kî-wîcihakiht $\hat{\mathrm{n}}$-otinawâsot.
IPV=past=help $\backslash T A=1 p-3 C$

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 4. tâsipwâ } & \text { nikî-otinâw } \\ \text { in-fact } \\ \text { l=past=take(deliver) } \backslash T A=1-3 I ~ & \text { nipipim pîyak } \\ \text { l=baby one }\end{array}$
mîna. 5. nipîpîm nikî-otinâw
also $\quad 1=b a b y \quad 1=p a s t=t a k e \backslash T A=1-3 I$
î-kî-pîyakwapiyân. $I P V=p a s t=a l o n e \backslash A I=1 C$
3. ̂̂-nihtâwikit ôta IPV=be-born $\backslash A I=3 C$ here

Wîposâhk.
wiposâw=loc

```
7. six months i-ki-ayawak
six months IPV=past=have\TA=1-3C baby
```

8. mistahi lots
í-kî-nikohtîyân, kwâni kâ-kî-ocipitikoyân. $I P V=$ past=chop-wood $\backslash A I=1 C$ then $I P V=p a s t=c r a m p \backslash T A=0-1 C$
9. kwâni kâ-kî-ihtât!
then $I P V=$ past $=$ exist $\backslash A I=3 C$
10.kî-apiw wî§a îkospiy kisî́iniw. past=sit(be-home) $\backslash A I=3 I$ (he) then old-man

kâ-kî-pimâcinât osîma. 12. wî $\delta \mathrm{a}$ îkâ IPV=past=make-live $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ 3=yo-br/yo-si $\quad 3$ (he) neg
wida ana kisî́iniw kîkwân tâpwî
emp that=3 old-man thing really
î-ohci-kiskiyihtah. 13. kî-nihtâ-nitaminahow IPV=negpast=know $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C} \quad$ past=know=hunt(?) $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{I}$
wi $\delta a$, mâyi $\delta a$ ômisîsi. 14. kâ-ma-mi $\delta w i ̂ \delta i m o n a ̂ n i w a h . ~$ emp but this=rel $I P V=r e d u p=g o o d \backslash I I=0 C$
10. pakwanta pô î-kî-itahkamikisit. 16. tâsipwâ anything only IPV=past=be-occupied $\backslash A I=3 C$ in-fact
písisk ninisiwanâtisin. 17. isikohk mistahi pakwanta finally $1=$ spoil-life $\backslash A I=1 I$ so-much lots anything
î-kî-itahkamikisit.
IPV=past=be-occupied $\backslash A I=3 C$
11. kwâni îkosi kâ-itak
then thus $\mathrm{L} .$, "mâhca, kicîmis". then thus $I P V=s a y \backslash T A=1-3 C \mathrm{~L}$. go-on $2=y o-b r$
19.kwâni î-nahapiyân. 20. î-ati-kospâhtawîyân, then $I P V=$ good-sit $\backslash A I=1 C \quad I P V=i n c p=c l i m b \backslash A I=1 C$
kwâni kâ-nihtâwikit nipîpî. 21.kwâni L. then $I P V=b e-b o r n \backslash A I=3 C$ 1=baby then $L$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { îkosi kâ-itak, } & \text { "mâhca, nitawi-wîhtah } \\
\text { thus IPV=say } \mathrm{TA}=1-3 \mathrm{C} & \text { go-on go-to=tell } \backslash \mathrm{TI}=2-0 \text { Imp }
\end{array}
$$

kicîmic osawa î-ihtât," nititâw.
yo-br/yo-si odd-this=3 IPV=exist $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$ 1=say $\backslash \mathrm{TA}=1-3 \mathrm{I}$
22. kwâni kâ-waniskâyân.
then $I P V=g e t-u p \backslash A I=1 C \quad$ 23. kâ-wa-waskawît $\quad$ IPV=redup=move $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ nipîpîm.
1=baby
24.mwâc ohci-paskâpikinak.
neg negpast=break=string=by-hand $\backslash T A=1-3 C$
25. kwâni
then
kâ-ifipîsimak,
kwâni kâ-akoninak. IPV=turn-side=1ie\TA=1-3C
then IPV=cover=by-hand $\backslash T A=1-3 C$
26. kwâni kâ-pî-pîhtokît M. 27. "kwâni kayâs then $I P V=$ to=enter $\backslash A I=3 C$ M. then long-ago
IPV=spoil-life\AI=3C
28. mwâ nakî-nôcikawâw,"
neg 1fut=able=handle(?) $\backslash T A=1-3 I$
itwîw.
say $\backslash$ AI=3I
29.kwâni S. kâ-kî-itint,
then S. IPV=past=be-named $\backslash T A=X-3 C$
nicímic.
$1=y o-s i / y o-b r$
30."kwâni âstam, ôta pî-isisim. 31. pimâtisiw
then come-here here to=rel=lay $\backslash T A=2-3$ Imp live $\backslash A I=3 I$
ana. 32. ka-wîcihitin".
that=3 $\quad 2 f u t=h e l p \backslash T A=1-2 I$
33.kapî ôta wída kî́anânaw î-otinawâsoyâh. always here emp 12 (we) $\quad$ IPV=deliver-child $\backslash A I=1 p C$
34.nôcokîsiw î-kiskinôhamawiyamint, S. old-woman $I P V=$ teach $\backslash T A+O=3-1 p C \quad S$.

```
ka-kî-itiht,
S.M. IPV=past=be-named \(\backslash T A=X-3 C\) S.M.
```


kwayask kâ-isi-ayât, kî-apisîsisiw mâka. right $\quad I P V=r e l=b e \backslash A I=3 C$ past=small $\backslash A I=3 I$ but
37.nî 6 â-kî-otinak ispiy $\hat{1}-k \hat{1}-k i s k i ̂ \delta i h t a m a ̂ n ~$ I IPV=past=take $\backslash T A=1-3 C$ when $I P V=p a s t=k n o w \backslash T I=1-0 C$
ta-ihtât.
IPV=exist $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$

1. [Did you deliver babies?]
2. Yes. 3. I was able to do a delivery because we used to help an old woman when she delivered.
3. In fact $I$ also delivered one of my [own] babies. 5. I delivered my baby when $I$ was by myself. 6 . He was born here at Wîposkâhk.
4. I was 6 months [pregnant]. 8. I had chopped lots of wood and then $I$ had a cramp. 9. And there he was!
5. The old man was home at that time. 11. You realize, L. saved his younger sister that way. 12. That old man really didn't know how [to deliver a baby]. 13. He knew how to hunt for things, but [not] in this way. 14. It was good moral support. 15. He was busy with trivial things. 16. That's why I finally had a premature labour. 17. He was busy with trivial things.
6. So $I$ said to L., "Go on, your younger sister [is here]". 19. Then [I went] to sit down. 20. I was about to climb [on the bed] when my baby was born. 21. Then I said to L., "Go and tell [people] that your younger sister is [born]".
7. Then I got up. 23. My baby moved. 24. I had not cut the [umbilical] cord. 25. So I turned him over on his side and covered him up.
8. Then M. came in. 27. "It died a time ago. 28. I cannot handle it," she said.
9. My younger sister was called S. 30. [She said], "Come here, lie him down over here. 31. He is alive. 32. I will help you."
10. We have always delivered babies here. 34. An old woman called S. taught us, S.M.
11. We looked after my baby. 36. He was normal, but he was small. 37. I delivered him when I knew he was about to be born.

## A Discussion About Shamanism


$1=$ mom long-ago IPV=past=tell-story $\backslash T A+0=3-1 C$
nôhkompan kayâs $\hat{1}$-apisîsit $\hat{1}$-pîpîwît.
l=gr-mo=late long-ago $I P V=1 i t t l e \backslash A I=3 C \quad I P V=b a b y \backslash A I=3 C$
2. kwâni atimwak kâ-mâsihitocik ayinink awâsipa
then dog=3p IPV=fight-recip $\backslash A I=3 p C$ whatev=loc behind
mîkiwâhpih. 3. mâyi $\delta a$ î-kî-môscihkwâmicik tent=loc but $\quad I P V=p a s t=g r o u n d-s l e e p \backslash A I=3 p c$
mîkiwâhpih ísiniwak. 4. kiyâpic isa pô. 5. mô $a$ sîmâk tent=loc person=3p still hrs only neg immed
awina kînipîwininkîw nântaw ita person past=bed-make $\backslash A I=3 I$ about where
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 6. kwâni kâ-âcimostawit } & \text { nimâmâ nôhkom } \\ \text { then } I P V=t e l l-s t o r y \backslash T A+O=3-1 C & \text { l=mom } \\ \text { l=gr-mo }\end{array}$
î-kímâkwîpamikot 7. miconi ôtî
IPV=past=bite(?) $\backslash T A=3^{\prime}-3 C$
so-much here
î-kî-isi-tâskipitikot.
IPV=past=rel=split=by-pulling $\backslash T A=3^{\prime \prime}-3 C$
8. kwâni itwî pîyak ayahâw kisî́iniw. 9. mâyi $\delta$ a kayâs then said one whoev=3 old-man but long-ago
î-kî-mamâhtâwisicik isiniwak. 10. îyako $I P V=$ past=be-amazing $\backslash A I=3 p C$ person=3p that-one=3
mânimâ kâ-nihtawi-kiskîyihtaman kîkwân of-course IPV=go-to=know $\backslash T I=2-0 C$ thing

```
mamâhtâwisiwin kâ-icikâtîk kayâs i\deltainiwak
amazing-thing IPV=called\II=OC long-ago person=3p
```

ohci.
from

```
11. kwâni piko \hat{i}-kî-kiskîyihtamân kîkwân
then only IPV=past=know\TI=1-0C
```

mamâhtâwisiwin kâ-icikâtîk awa

```
mamâhtâwisiwin kâ-icikâtîk awa
amazing-thing
amazing-thing
IPV=called \II=0C this=3
IPV=called \II=0C this=3
kisî\deltainiw ohci. 12. kwâni piko nîsta
kisî\deltainiw ohci. 12. kwâni piko nîsta
old-man from then only I-too
old-man from then only I-too
i-kî-pîhtamân kikwwân mamâhtâwi-kîkwân
i-kî-pîhtamân kikwwân mamâhtâwi-kîkwân
IPV=past=hear\TI=1-OC thing amazing=thing
IPV=past=hear\TI=1-OC thing amazing=thing
awa kisî\deltainiw nôhcimih â-kî-itohtahât
this=3 old-man woods IPV=past=go\TA=3-3'C
nôhkoma. 13. akwa î-kî-pî-kîhtahât,
1=gr-mo=3' and IPV=past=to=take-back\TA=3-3'C
tâskôc piko \hat{1}-kî-mâtiswât awa pîpî
like only IPV=past=cut-open\TA=3-3'C this=3 baby
```

i-isinâkosit.
IPV=rel-appear $\backslash A I=3 C$
14. mwâc înto neg thing
̂̂-nisiwanâtinâkwanifik ita atimwa IPV=spoil-appear $\backslash I I=0^{\prime} C$ where dog=3'
â-kî-sâpo-tâskâtihpîpitikot.
IPV=past=through=split=head=by-pulling\TA=3/-3C

1. My mother told me a story a long time ago about my late grandmother when she was little, when she was a baby.
2. The dogs were fighting behind the tent. 3. People slept on the ground in a tent. 4. They still [do]. 5. Nobody can just make a bed anywhere they make camp.
3. My mother told me that my grandmother had been bitten. 7. She was ripped open here [by the dogs].
4. Then there was one old man. 9. There were famous people [medicine men] long ago. 10. That's what you are looking for, what is called by people long ago "amazing thing".
5. That's all I know about this thing called shamanism from this old man. 12. I only heard about shamanism [I never saw it], when this old man took my grandmother in the woods. 13. When he brought her home, the baby looked like
he cut her open. 14. There was no scar where [the dogs] ripped open her head.

## A Story About Epilepsy

1. kwâni mîna pîyakwâw îyako pîpon akwa - mô $\begin{aligned} & \text { na } \\ & \text { then also once }\end{aligned}$ that-one $=0$ winter $I I=0 I$ now neg
i-sîkwah îkospiy pâham ̂̂-sîkwah. $I P V=$ spring $\backslash I I=0 C$ then possibly $I P V=$ spring $\backslash I I=0 C$
```
2. kâ-wîciwak. 3. nipâpâ î-o ofatahwât IPV=accompany \(\backslash T A=1-3 \mathrm{C} 1=\) dad \(\quad \mathrm{IPV}=\) shape-by-instr \(\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}\)
```

miskwamiya înto ayihîw ice=3p thing whatev=0
î-kâh-kawitahwât tâskôc isa ômisîsi. IPV=redup=cut=by-metal $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ like hrs this=rel
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { 4. kwâni îyakwanik } & \text { kâ-o } \text { atahwihcik, } & \text { kwâni } \\ \text { then that-one=3p } & I P V=s h a p e-b y-i n s t r ~ \\ \text { tA } & =X-3 p c & \text { so }\end{array}$
nimâmâ ta-nipiyinkît. 5. tâypô outside $1=$ mom $\quad I P V=$ water-make $\backslash A I=3 C \quad$ so(?) outside
ta-otinât ta-tinkîswât.
IPV=take $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ IPV=melt $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
6. kwâni kâ-pâh-pakitinamawak ocincîhk ômisi then $I P V=r e d u p=s e t-d o w n \backslash T A+O=1-3 C \quad 3=h a n d=10 c$ this=thus
isa îtôtah. 7. kwâni pî§isk ômîfiw
hrs so-do $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ then finally this=0'
nitispasimâw ômî́iw. 8. "kiyâpic, kiyâpic," $1=r e l-h i g h \backslash T A=1-3 I$ this=0' still still
nitik wî a $\hat{\mathrm{I}}$-mahkicincît
$1=$ say $\backslash T A=3-1 I$ cause $I P V=$ big=hand $\backslash A I=3 C$
ta-kítahtinât isa ômisisi.
IPV=past=wrap-around $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ hrs this=rel
9. kwâni tâpwî nôhtâ aspin kîtahtawî $\delta$ then really $1=$ god=voc gone suddenly
kâ-sakícipáit $\hat{\mathrm{\imath}}$-ocipitikot. 10. kwâni IPV=have-seizure $\backslash A I=3 C \quad I P V=c r a m p \backslash T A=0-3 C$
then
kâ-tîpwîyân $\hat{\imath}$-mâyimowân, $\hat{1}$-mâtowân, $I P V=y e l l \backslash A I=1 C \quad I P V=s c r e a m \backslash A I=1 C \quad I P V=c r y \backslash A I=1 C$
î-kospâmowân.
$I P V=c l i m b-f l e e \backslash A I=1 C$
11."kîkwân?" what=0
12."íkostak awa A." $I P V=f e a r \backslash T A=1-3 C$ this=3 $A$.
13.âsay mîna ana nôcokîsíw kâ-nâsipîpahtât already also that=3 old-woman $I P V=d e s c e n d-r u n \backslash A I=3 C$
wîsâ mîna î-kî-nakacîhtât nîpisiy. so-much also IPV=past=know-how-do\TI2=3-0'C willow
14. ̂̂-nâtwâpahah, $\hat{\imath}$-pâh-pasistîhwât, IPV=break-run $\backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ IPV=redup=beat-by-stick $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
kwâni kâ-pônipasidit.
then $I P V=s t o p \backslash A I=3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$
15. iyako anima a-kî-ititân $\quad$ "nimâmâ that-one=0 that=0 IPV=past=say $\backslash T A=1-2 C \quad 1=m o m$
n-ocipitikon" isiht isa kâ-isiyin.
$1=$ cramp $\backslash T A=0-1 I$ thus-say $\backslash T A=X-3 C$ hrs IPV=thus-say $\backslash A I=2 C$

```
16.kâ-pakamahotân íôh kâ-ispîncîyân.
IPV=hit \(\backslash T A=1-2 C\)
so-much \(I P V=r e l-l o n g \backslash A I=1 C\)
```

17. ̂́yako ana $\hat{1}-k \hat{i}-i s i-w a ̂ p a m a k$. that-one $=3$ that=3 IPV=past=rel=see $\backslash T A=1-3 C$
18. And also once one winter, no spring - I think it was in the spring. 2. I went with her. 3. My father was making square blocks of ice by cutting them up like this. 4. They were shaped so my mother could make water. 5. She could just take them from outside and melt them.
19. So I started laying [the ice blocks] on her hands by doing it in this way. 7. I finally piled them up this high. 8. She kept saying to me "more, more" because she had big hands so she could wrap them around like this.
20. Then my god, all of a sudden she went into a [epileptic] seizure and cramped up. 10. So I yelled, I screamed and I cried and I fled up the hill.
21. "What is it?"
22. "I'm scared of A."
23. [So] that old woman again ran down the bank who was so good at doing [breaking] willow branches. 14. So she ran and broke [one] off and started beating [the woman having the seizure] with a stick and then she stopped.
24. That's what I told you when it was said that you said "Mom, I have a cramp". 16. Then I hit you as hard as I could.
25. That's what I saw.

## A Casual Chat

A: kîkwân ôma kâ-matwîhtih?
what=0 this=3 IPV=ring $\backslash I I=0 C$

B: manâ tîlîhpôn.
you-realize telephone

A: tîlîhpôn!
telephone

C: L., phone!
L. , phone!

B: ahpwîtokî kitôtîm. or-perhaps 2=relative

A: ahpwîtokî ana iskwîw kâ-wîcayamat. or-perhaps that $=3$ woman $I P V=$ with-be $\backslash T A=2-3 C$

B: mwâc ôtî! neg here

C: V. ana.
v. that=3

A: V.? ôta na? kîko V.?
V. here $Q$ which $V$.

```
C: V. M.
    V. M.
```

```
D: nôhkom mîna ôta ayâw.
    1=gr-mo also here be\AI=3I
```

A: ôta na?
here Q

D: ya. akwa kiyokîtân.
yes now visit $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=12$ Imp

A: ka, kiyâpic na?
oh still Q

D: ya.
Yes

A: tânta? ôta na kisiwâk? where here $Q$ near

C: ya.
yes

A: What is ringing?

B: It must be the telephone.

A: Telephone!

C: L., phone!

B: It could be a relative.

A: It could be the woman you stay with.

B: Not here!

C: It's V.

A: V.? Here? V. who?

C: V. M.

D: My grandmother is here too.

A: Here?

D: Yes. Let's go visit her now.

A: Oh, still here?

D: Yes.

A: Where? Here nearby?

C: Yes.

## ******

## A Conversation About Language Use

A: M. awa ta-kî-pî-n(i)tomat. îyako
M. this=3 IPV=able=to=invite $\backslash T A=2-3 C$ that-one=3
ta-kî-íinîmot íôh wî
IPV=able=Indian-by-mouth $\backslash A I=3 C$ so-much cause
ínihtâ-i $\delta$ inîmot.
IPV=know=Indian-by-mouth $\backslash \mathrm{AI}=3 \mathrm{C}$

B: mâyía nisicawayâsîh ohci.
but Nelson-House=loc from

A: ka.
oh

B: And Donna does things on South Indian or South Indian and Donna does things on South Indian or South Indian

Cree.
Cree

A: Oh yeah.
on yeah

D: mâyísa ifôh ̂̂-wawiyakwîskîyâh.
but so-much $I P V=s w e a r=h a b i t \backslash A I=1 p C$

opônapiwinih. ciyi? kikiskîyihtîn na? âtiht isa poko. $S I L=10 c$ right $2=k n o w \backslash T I=2-0 I Q$ some hrs only

B: kahkifaw awâsisak î-miscikôsimocik.
all child=3p IPV=whiteman-speak $\backslash A I=3 p C$

E: âha.
yes
$\begin{array}{ll}B: & \text { ta-kî- } \\ \text { IPV=able- } & \text { ta-ki- } \\ \text { IPV }=a b l e-~\end{array}$

D: kídanaw pô ôma our generation.

A: our generation. our generation

awâsisak i $\delta$ ôh isa kâ-îmistikôsîhkâsocik. child=3p so-much hrs IPV=whiteman=pretend $\backslash A I=3 p C$
îyakwânik nawac kâ-nihtâ-ifinîmocik. that-one=3p best $I P V=k n o w=$ Indian-by-mouth $\backslash A I=3 p C$

A: mhhm.
yes

D: I think one of the brightest kids is C. C. isa
I think one of the brightest kids is C. C. isa
K. isa, that little kid.

K's hrs that little kid

E: Oh yeah, wîda ifa she grew up with her granny. Oh yeah cause emp she grew up with her granny

```
A: \hat{i-nihta-i\deltainîmot}
    na?
    IPV=know=Indian-by-mouth\AI=3C Q
```

D: That's all- she- they hardly know how to talk English. that's all she- they hardly know how to talk English
$A:$ Oh really. Oh really

D: only a few words like 'the' 'and'. only a few words like the and

E: ita C. acidaw isa Nelson House there $C$. for-a-while hrs Nelson House
kâ-kî-nitawi-ayâcik. kwâni first time IPV=past=go-to=be $\backslash A I=3 p C$ then first time
kâ-pî-kiyokicik isa South Indian, kwâni $I P V=t o=v i s i t \backslash A I=3 p C$ hrs South Indian then
kâ-wâ-wîci-mîtawîmât ocîmica H. isa. IPV=supp=with=play $\backslash T A=3-3^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ 3=yo-si=3 H. hrs

B: âha.
yes

E: paper kâ-miciminah 'âw H., nâh' it.
paper $I P V=h o l d=b y-h a n d \backslash T I=3-0^{\prime} \mathrm{C}$ excl H., here said


E: Four.
four

B: n(i)cîyá! nôhtâ H. akwa C. akwa awina? holy-smokes $1=f a=v o c$ H. and $C$. and who

E: akwa ... and

D: D. akwa K.
D. and K.

E: mwâc manâ îkosi mâyi neg realize thus but D. $-S$.

B: Oh, I didn't know. ya, nôhtâ. Four girls! oh I didn't know. Yes 1=fa=voc Four girls

E: Four girls. four girls

A: You should invite M. to come. He's the one who should speak in Cree because he knows how to speak Cree so well.

B: But [he's] from Nelson House.

A: Oh.

B: And Donna does things on South Indian or South Indian Cree.

A: On yeah.

D: But we swear so much.

A: But no one knows how to speak Cree at South Indian Lake now. Right? Do you know that? Only a few.

B: All the children speak English.

E: I agree.

B: [we] should...[we] should...

D: It's only our generation [that speaks Cree].
A: Our generation.

E: I admire $P$. The children here act like they are white. It's those children [P.'s] that really know how to speak Cree.

A: Yes

D: I think one of the brightest kids is C. You know C., you know K.'s, that little kid.

E: Oh yeah, [that's] because she grew up with her granny.

A: She knows know to speak Cree?

D: That's all- she -they hardly know how to talk English.
$A:$ Oh really.

D: Only a few words like 'the' 'and'.

E: [Then] there's c. They went to live in Nelson House for a while. So the first time they came to visit South Indian, she was supposed to be playing with her younger sister H .

B: go on.

E: She was holding some paper. "âw H., nâh!" she said.

B: How many kids does Maggie have?

E: Four.

B: Holy Smokes! My god, H. and C. and who [else]?

E: and ....

D: D. and K.

E: No, that's D.'s - [it's] S.

B: Oh, I didn't know. Yes, my god. Four girls!

E: Four girls.

APPENDIX D
LEXICON

The lexical items included here are those found only in the dissertation.

## DRM/DNI

| -atay | DNI | belly, stomach |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -cahcahkwan | DNA | wing [cf. tahtahkwan] |
| -cânis | DNA | daughter |
| -cinciy | DNI | finger, hand |
| -ciwâm | DNA | brother, parallel cousin |
|  |  | [male speaker], holy smokes |
| -cîmic | DNA | younger brother, younger |
|  |  | sister |
| -cîmicis | DNA | pup (dim.) [cf. -tîm] |
| -hkwâkan | DNI | face |
| -hpam | DNI | lung |
| -îcimos | DNA | lover |
| -îciwâkan | DNA | friend |
| -îki | DNI | home |
| -îkimâkan | DNA | spouse |
| -îpit | DNI | tooth |
| -kâwiy | DNA | mother [older speaker] |
| -kosis | DNA | son |
| -kwîmîs | DNA | namesake |


| -mâmâ | DNA | mom |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -mis | DNA | older sister |
| -mosôm | DNA | grandfather |
| -ôhcâwiy | DNA | father's brother |
| -ôhkom | DNA | grandmother |
| -ôhkompan | DNA | late grandmother |
| -ôhtâwiy | DNA | male elder, god, father [older speaker] |
| -ôhtâwîpan | DNA | late father |
| -ôsisim | DNA | grandchild |
| -pâpâ | DNA | dad |
| -piskwân | DNI | back |
| -pîway | DNA | feather, body hair |
| -pwâm | DNI | thigh |
| -sikos | DNA | aunt [father's sister] |
| -sis | DNA | uncle [mother's brother] |
| -sit | DNI | foot |
| -sîm | DNA | younger brother, younger sister [cf. nicîmic] |
| -skîsik | DNI | eye |
| -skîsikos | DNI | eye (dim.) |
| -skîsikôhkan[a] | DNI | glasses [pl.only] |
| -skotâkay | DNI | coat |
| -stikwân | DNI | head |
| -stis | DNA | older brother |

-tahtahkwan
-tâs
-tîm
-tôsis
-tôtîm

DNA wing [cf. cahcahkwan]
DNA pants
DNA dog [cf. cîmicis]
DNA aunt [mother's sister]
DNA friend, relative
a


AI to sell (diminutive)
NA puppy
AI to work a little
NA net
NA frog
TI to talk about it
TA+O to talk to s.o. about it
NA raspberry
TA to put s.o. [+NPloc]
PRT or, even
PRT or perhaps
NI blanket
TA to cover s.o. by hand
TA to cover s.o.
TA to cure s.o. [cf. nitawihîw]

| akopitîw | TA | to tie s.o. up |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| akotâw | TI2 | to hang it |
| akwa | PRT | and |
| akwa | PRT | now |
| akwa- | PRV | now |
| amiskwa | NA | beaver |
| amiskwayân | NA | beaverskin |
| ana | PR | that (3) |
| anihi | PR | that(3') |
| anihi | PR | that (0p) |
| aniki | PR | that (3p) |
| anima | PR | that(0) |
| animîfiw | PR | that(0') |
| anohe | PRT | now |
| anta | PRT | over there |
| antî | PRT | over there |
| apal-ascocin | NI | type of hat |
| apiscî- | PRV | small |
| apisîs | PRT | little |
| apisîsis | PRT | little (dim.) |
| apisisisiw | AI | to be small, to be little, to be young |
| apiw | AI | to sit, to be home |
| apwânâskwa | NA | roasting stick |
| apwiy | NA | paddle |


| asahtôwin | NI | rations, welfare |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| asamîw | TA | to feed s.o. |
| asâm | NA | snowshoe |
| asiniy | NA | rock |
| asiniy | NI | bullet |
| asinîs | NA | rock (dim.) |
| asiskiy | NI | clay, mud |
| asiskiy-kotawânâpisk | NA | clay stove |
| asisoy | NI | chisel |
| asiwadîw | TA | to put s.o. [+NPloc] |
| asiwatâw | TI2 | to put it [+NPloc] |
| asîson | NI | vamp |
| askihk | NA | pail, bucket |
| askiy | NI | land |
| askiy[a] | NI | moss [pl.form only] |
| aspin | PRT | gone |
| astâw | TI2 | to put it |
| astis | NA | mitt |
| astîw | II | to be put [+NPloc] |
| astotin | NI | hat |
| atâwîstamawîw | TA+O | to buy it for s.o. |
| atâwîw | AI+0 | to buy |
| ati- | PRV | inceptive |
| atihk | NA | caribou |
| atim | NA | dog |


| atoskawîw | TA | to work for s.o. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| atoskiniw | TA | to work an animate obj. |
| atoskîmîw | TA | to work with s.o. |
| atoskîw | AI | to work |
| atoskîwin | NI | work |
| awa | PR | this(3) |
| awa-kotak | PR | this other one |
| awasipa | PRT | behind [house] |
| awatâwatîw | AI | to carry a bag |
| awâsis | NA | child |
| awisiwa | PR | who (3') |
| awi§iwa | PR | someone ( $3^{\circ}$ ) |
| awinîw | TA+O | to lend it to s.o. |
| awina | PR | who (3) |
| awina | PR | someone (3) |
| awinihi | PR | who (3') |
| awiniki | PR | who (3p) |
| ayahâw | PR | whoever (3) |
| ayahâwa | PR | whoever (3') |
| ayanâwak | PR | whoever (3p) |
| ayamihâwin | NI | religion |
| ayamincikiw | AI | to read |
| ayamihîw | TA | to talk to s.o., to pray |
| ayamiw | AI | to talk |
| ayamîkimâw | NA | priest |


| ayawîw | TA | to have s.o. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ayân | NI | thing |
| ayânis[a] | NI | thing (dim.), clothes |
| ayâw | AI | to be |
| ayâw | TI2 | to have it, to get it |
| ayihink | PR | wherever |
| ayihisiw | PR | whatever ( $0^{\prime}$ ) |
| ayihîw | PR | whatever (0) |
| ayihîwa | PR | whatever (0p) |

a
âca $\delta$ ôhkîw
âcimîw
âcimostawîw
âcimow
âcimowin
ấiman
âh
âha
âhcans
âhkosiw
âhkosîkamik
AI to tell legends
TA to tell s.o. a story
TA+O to tell a story to s.o.
AI to tell a story
NI story
II to be difficult
INT yes, I see, oh!
INT yes
NA ring
AI to be sick
NI hospital

ci
)

| cimatâw | TI2 to stand up sticks |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cistîmâw | NA tobacco |
| ciyi | PRT right?, isn't that so? |

ci
cî
cîcisinam
cîk
cîmân
cîpâtahwîw
cîpokiwâhp
cîpwaskitîw
ciskwa
cîstipitîw

PRT
TI to rub it in
NI check [English borr.]
NI boat, canoe
TA to roast [an animal]
NI pointed tent
II to form a peak
PRT yet
TA to scratch s.o.
có
côs NI juice [English borr.]
$\boldsymbol{\delta \delta}$
$\delta$ ôskâw
II to be soft
i

| icikâtîw | II | to be called |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i $\delta \mathrm{a}$ | PRT | emphatic enclitic |
| isikohk | PRT | so much [cf. isôh] |
| i $\delta$ inimin[a] | NI | blueberry (?) |
| i $\delta$ iniw | NA | person, Indian, Cree |
| ifiniwasinahikîw | AI | to write in syllabics |
| ifiniwi-ayamihcikîw | AI | to read syllabics |
| ifinîmow | AI | to speak Indian [Cree] |


| ifipîsimîw | TA | to turn s.o. on one's side |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| inkin | II | to function |
| intâw | AI | to exist |
| intiw | AI | to ail, to be sick |
| ikiskam | TI | to wear it [cf. kikiskam] |
| isa | PRT | you know |
| isi | PRT | towards [+NPloc] |
| isi- | PRV | towards [relative particle] |
| isidihkâsow | AI | to be called, to be named |
| isinâkosiw | AI | to appear thus |
| isinâkwan | II | to appear thus |
| isisimîw | TA | to lay s.o. thus |
| isitâpîw | AI | to drag thus |
| isitisaham | TI | to send it |
| isitisahamawîw | TA+O | to send it to s.o. |
| isitisahwîw | TA | to send s.o. |
| isiw | AI | to say thus |
| isîmow | AI | to dance thus |
| isîpinam | TI | to throw it thus |
| isko | PRT | until |
| iskopa ${ }^{\text {in }}$ | II | to be left over |
| iskopasiw | AI | to have left over |
| iskortio | AI+O | to escort [English borr.] |
| iskotîw | NI | fire, spark |
| iskôl | NI | school [English borr.] |


| iskôliwîw | AI | to go to school |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| iskôtâmow | AI | to inhale |
| iskwayâc | PRT | final, at last |
| iskwâhtîm | NT | door |
| iskwâtahtam | TI | to be out of breath |
| iskwâw | II | to be long |
| iskwîsis | NA | girl |
| iskwîw | NA | woman |
| ispadihîw | TA | to happen to s.o. |
| ispasiw | AI | to happen thus |
| ispakwan | II | to taste thus |
| ispâhkipasiw | AI | to fly upward |
| ispimihk | PRT | upward, up |
| ispiy | PRT | when, first |
| ispîhcâw | II | to be such a size |
| ispîhcîw | AI | to be so long |
| it | PRT | it is said |
| ita | PRT | there, where |
| itahkamikisiw | AI | to do unimportant things |
| itastîw | II | to be put so [+NPloc] |
| itâhpicîw | AI | to be far away |
| itâsiw | AI | to be counted, to be so old |
| itâspinîw | AI | to fall ill |
| itî | PRT | there, thither |
| itîfintam | TI | to think [cf. itîyintam] |


| itîhwîw | TA | to stir an animate object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| itîw | TA | to be named by s.o. |
| itîw | TA | to say to s.o. |
| itîyihtam | TI | to think [cf. itísihtam] |
| itohtahîw | TA to take s.o.[+NPloc] |  |
| itohtîw | AI to go |  |
| itokî | PRT perhaps |  |
| itwâhtihpîsin | AI | to knock one's head |
| itwî | PRT | it is said |
| itwîw | AI | to say |

## i

i-
îh
îhî
îho
̂̂kâ
îkosâni
îkosi

PRV
INT
PRT
INT
PRT
PRT
PRT
conjunct marker oh!, look! yes oh! negative morpheme that's the way thus

| îkosisi | PRT | like thus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ikospiy | PRT | then, at that time |
| îkota | PRT | there, that place there |
| îkotî | PRT | there, that place there |
| îkotôya | PRT | that kind |
| ímihkwân | NA | spoon, tablespoon |
| îmihkwânis | NA | spoon (dim.), teaspoon |
| into | PRT | thing |
| iskan | NA | antler, horn |
| îtoka | PRT | perhaps |
| îtôtam | TI | to do it thus |
| îwako | PR | that one (0) [cf. îyako] |
| íyako | PR | that one (3) |
| íyako | PR | that one (0) [cf. îwako] |
| îyakwani | PR | that one [equational] |
| îyakwanik | PR | that one (3p) |
| îyakwî ${ }_{\text {âc }}$ | PRT | finally |
| Îyakwî $\mathrm{i}^{\text {in }}$ | PR | that one ( $0^{\prime}$ ) |

ka

| ka | INT | oh, you don't say! |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ka- | PRV | 2future [cf. kika-] |
| kahki atw $^{\text {a }}$ | PRT | all |
| kakwî- | PRV | try |
| kakwîcimîw | TA | to ask s.o. |
| kapî | PRT | always |
| kapi-kisik | PRT | all day |
| kaskâpahtîw | II | to be smoked |
| kaskâpasam | TI | to smoke it |
| kaskihcikíw | AI | to earn |
| kaskintâw | TI2 | to be able to do it |
| kaskikaham | TI | to cut it with a metal obj. |
| kaskikwâsow | AI | to sew |
| kata- | PRV | should |
| kawaciw | AI | to be cold |
| kawisimow | AI | to go to bed, to go to sleep |
| kawitahwîw | TA | to cut s.o. out with a metal |
|  |  | object |
| kayâmow | AI | to flee quietly |
| kayâs | PRT | long ago |
| kayâs-âcimowin | NI | old time story |


| kâ- | PRV conjunct marker |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kấa | PRV | negative mopheme, don't |
| kâh-kawitahwîw | TA | to cut s.o. out with a metal |
|  |  | object |
| kâhcitaskosiw | AI | to catch one's leg on fire |
| kâhcitinîw | TA | to catch s.o. |
| kâla | PRT don't [baby talk] |  |
| kâsâw | II | to be sharp |

## ki

kicistinam
ki $\delta a ̂ s k i w ~$
ki
kipâw
kikisi-amiskwa
kimotiw
kinosîpimiy

TI to wash it
AI to tell lies
AI to be quick
NA big beaver
TI to wear it [cf. ikiskam]
AI+O to steal
NI/NA fish grease

| kinosîw | NA | fish |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kisâspin | PRT | if, even if |
| kisiwâk | PRT | near, nearby |
| kisiwâsiw | AI | to be angry |
| kisîfiniw | NA | old man |
| kisî§iniwîw | AI | to be an old man |
| kisîpâyâw | II | to be morning |
| kiskinôhamawîw | TA+O | to teach it to s.o. |
| kiskinôhamâkîwin | NI | teachings |
| kiskinôhamâkowin | NI | learning |
| kiskinôhamowin | NI | learning |
| kiskinôhâpahtamawîw | TA+O | to learn it by watching s.o. |
| kiskisiw | AI | to remember |
| kiskîfimîw | TA | to know s.o. |
| kiskîyihtam | TI | to know it |
| kispakisiw | AI | to be thick |
| kitamwîw | TA | to devour s.o. |
| kitâw | TI2 | to devour it |
| kitimahîw | TA | to make s.o. poor |
| kitôtîw | TA | to rebuke s.o. |
| kiyâm | PRT | enough, anyway, although even if |
| kiyâpic | PRT | still |
| kiyokawîw | TA | to visit s.o. |
| kiyokîw | AI | to visit |


| kî-1 | PRV | future [frozen changed form] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| k $\hat{1}^{-}$ | PRV | past tense [affirmative] |
| kî-3 | PRV | able |
| kífa | PR | you sg. |
| kî $\delta$ anânaw | PR | we inclusive [me and you] |
| kî§awâw | PR | you [2p] |
| kíSomâhcihîw | TA | to bother s.o. |
| kîhtahîw | TA | to take s.o. back |
| kîhtatâw | TI2 | to take it back |
| kîhtwâm | PRT | again |
| kik | NA | cake [English borr.] |
| kîko | PRT | which |
| kîkway | PR | thing (0,0p) |
| kîkway(i) | PR | what (0) |
| kîkwâdiw | PR | what (0') |
| kîkwâdiw | PR | thing ( $0^{\prime \prime}$ ) |
| kîkwấiw ohci | PR | what for, why |
| kîkwân | PR | what |
| kîkwân | PR | thing (0) |
| kîkwân ohci | PR | what for, why |
| kîkwâna | PR | thing ( 0 ) |


| kîsâpiskitîw | II | to be a hot metal |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kîsintâw | TI2 | to finish it |
| kîsikâw | II | to be day |
| kîsisow | AI | to cook [bread] |
| kîsiswîw | TA | to cook s.o. [animate obj.] |
| kîskisam | TI | to cut it |
| kîskiswîw | TA | to cut s.o. |
| kîskwîstikwân | NI | crazy head [person] |
| kîspow | AI | to be full |
| kîsta | PR | you too [sg] |
| kîstanânaw | PR | we too [incl] |
| kîstawâw | PR | you too [pl] |
| kîta- | PRV | could |
| kîtahtawî | PRT | suddenly |
| kîwîhtahîw | TA | to bring s.o. back [home] |
| kîwîhtatâw | TI2 | to bring it back [home] |
| kîwîpa | AI | to run home |
| kîwîw | AI | to go home |

ko

| kospâhtawîw | AI to climb |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kospâmow | AI | to flee [up a bank] |
| kospintahtâw | TI2 | to carry it up a bank [away |
| kostâciw |  | from water] |
| kostîw | AI | to be afraid [of] |
| kotak | TA | to be afraid of s.o. |
| kotak | PR other (3) |  |
| kotaka | PR other (0) |  |
| kotaka | PR other (3') |  |
| kotakak | PR | other (0p) |
| kotawân | PR | other (3p) |
| kotawânâpisk | NI | smokestand, campfire |
| kotawânâpiskohkîw | AI | stove |

## k6

kôcihtâw
kôna
TI2 to try it
NA snow [sg. only]

## kwa

kwayask PRT right
kwa
kwâni
kwâni
kwâpaham
kwâpinîw
kwâskohtîw
kwâskohtîw
kwif
kwîskîw
kwîskosîw
kwîtawîyintam

PRT and, and then, so
PRT that's all
TI to scoop it, to draw water
TA to scoop [anim. obj] by hand
AI to jump
II to jump [a spark]

AI to turn one's head
AI to whistle
TI to miss

## ma

| ma-mîcâkanis | NA | doll |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| macima | PRT | of course |
| maciskodow | AI | to have an upset stomach |
| macostîham | TI | to throw it in the fire |
| macostîhwîw | TA | to throw [anim. obj.] in the |
|  |  | fire |
| mahîkan | NA | wolf |
| mahkahk | NA | tub, crate |
| mahkicincîw | AI | to have big hands |
| mahkihtwâkîw | AI | to have big ears |
| mahti | PRT | whether, if, let's see |
| makalakis[a] | NI | mukluks [pl. only] |
| mamâhtâwi-kîkwân | NI | amazing deed |
| mamâhtâwisiw | AI | to be amazing, to be a shaman |
| mamâhtâwisiwin | NI | shamanism |
| manakway | NA | sleeve |
| manaskosîw | AI | to collect moss |
| manâ | PRT | [you] realize |
| masinahamawîw | TA+O | to write to s.o. |
| masinahikan | NI | book, ledger |
| maskawisiw | AI | to be strong |


| maskihkiy | NI | medicine, herb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| maskihkiyâhtik | NI | medicine stick |
| maskihkîסiniw | NA | medicine man |
| maskisin | NI | shoe, mocassin |
| maskisinihkîw | AI | to make mocassins |
| maskisinîhkin | NI | mocassin pattern |
| maskosis | NA | bear cub |
| maskwa | NA | bear |
| matâwisiw | AI | to come to a clearing |
| matwî- | PRV | audibly, noisy |
| matwîhtin | II | to ring |
| mawâc | PRT | as soon as |
| mawîhkî $\delta i m \hat{h}$ | TA | to be apprehensive of s.o. |

mán
mâ
mâcikostân
mâcinâkosiw
mâcipasiw
mâcîw
mâcohkâsow

PRT
PRT
AI
II
AI to hunt
AI to pretend to cry

| mâhca | PRT | go on! get out of here! |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mâka | PRT | but [cf. mâ, mâyida] |
| mâkwîpamîw | TA | to bite s.o. |
| mâmaskâc | PRT | amazing |
| mâmitonîyihtam | TI | to think about it |
| mâna | PRT | used to |
| mânihtowâsk | NA | metal scraper |
| mânimâ | PRT | of course [cf. macima] |
| mâsihisow | AI | to fight one another |
| mâsihîw | TA | to fight s.o., to rut [animal] |
| mâskôc | PRT | perhaps |
| mâtaham | TI | to scrape it by tool |
| mâtâhíw | TA | to track s.o. |
| mâtiswîw | TA | to cut s.o. open |
| mâtow | AI | to cry |
| matowin | NI | crying |
| mâwac | PRT | better, best [cf. nawac] |
| mâyakwîw | AI | to speak differently, to have an accent |
| mâyifa | PRT | but, and [cf. mâ, mâka] |
| mâyimow | AI | to cry in pain |

mi

| mi- | PRV | indefinite personal prefix |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| miciminam | TI | to hold it |
| miconi | PRT | so much |
| mi omâhcihow | AI | to feel good |
| mi ${ }^{\text {opa }}$ inîw | TA | to make s.o. lucky |
| midopasiw | AI | to do well |
| midosiw | AI | to be good [cf. mi [wâsiw] |
| mi $\delta$ ôw | AI | to be better |
| midwasiw | AI | to be good [cf. midosiw] |
| mi $\delta$ wayâw | AI | to be well |
| mi Wîíimow | AI | to think well of oneself |
| mi $\delta$ wîyihtam | TI | to like it |
| mihcît | PRT | many, lots |
| mihcîtin | II | to be many, to be numerous |
| mihcîtiw | AI | to be many, to be numerous |
| minkitam | TI | to scrape flesh |
| minkosiw | AI | to be red |
| mihkwâw | II | to be red |
| mihta | NI | wood [pl.] |
| mintatam | TI | to regret it |
| mintatamowin | NI | regret |
| mikoskâcîyintam | TI | to be concerned |
| minahik | NA | pine |


| mininkwîw | AI | to drink |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ministik | NI | island |
| misâw | II | to be big |
| misikitiw | AI | to be big |
| misiwî | PRT | all over, everywhere |
| miskam | TI | to find it |
| miskawîw | TA | to find s.o. |
| miskotam | TI | to mention it |
| miskwamiy | NA | ice |
| mistahi | PRT | lots |
| mistahiwâw | PRT | lots of times |
| mistahtîw | AI | to be a glutton |
| mistik | NA | tree [older speakers only] |
| mistik | NI | stick |
| mistikowat | NI | box |
| mitâht-nîsosâp | PRT | twelve |
| mitâtaht | PRT | ten |
| mitoni | PRT | so much [cf. miconi] |

mí
mîcisow
mîcisowin
mîcisowinâhtik
mîciw
mî́îw
mîkisistahikîw
mîkiwâhp
mîkwâc
mîlcîn
mîna
mînohkîw
mînsa
mîscinam
mîstinam
mîstinan
mîwat

AI to eat
NI food
NI table
TI2 to eat it
TA+O to give it to s.o.
AI to do beadwork
NI tent
PRT while
NA Mary Jane [nickname]
PRT also
AI to make a camp
NI berry [pl.form]
TI to use it up [cf. mistinam]
TI to use it up [cf. mîscinam]
II to be used up
NI box
mo
m6
mốa
môhkomân
môla
môsak
môscihkwâmiw
môswa
môwîw

PRT
NI
PRT

PRT
AI
NA
TA
man
mwâ
mwâc

PRT
PRT negative particle [cf. mwâ]
na
na
nahapiw
nahîyihtam
PRT

AI
TI
negative
knife
negative particle [baby talk]
always
to sleep on the ground
moose
to eat [an animal]
na
nakacîhtâw
nakanâtîw
nakasiw
nakatîw
nakiskawîw
nakwî-
namatakwan
namîstîk
nanâtohk
napakastîw
natawîyintam
natonawîw
nawac
nawacihisow
nawacîw

TI2 to know how to do it
TA to bring s.o.
AI to be left over
TA to leave s.o. behind
TA to meet s.o.
PRV try [1st person]
II to disappear
NI smoked fish
PRT all kinds
II to be put flat
TI to need it
TA to search for s.o.
PRT best [cf. mâwac]
AI to snack
AI+O to snack

## na

nâci $\delta o s c i k i ̂ w ~$
nâci $\delta o s t a w i ̂ w ~$
nâh
nâha
nântaw

AI to sneak up
TA to sneak up on s.o.
INT here, take it!
PR yonder one (3)
PRT about
nâpîsis
nâpîw
nâsipîpahtâw
nâsipîw
nâspic
nâtáapîw
nâtam
nâtîw
nâtwâpaham

NA boy
NA man
AI to run down [a bank]
AI to go down [a bank]
PRT forever
AI to lift nets
TI to fetch it
TA to fetch s.o.
TI to break it while running
ni
nintâ-
nintâwikihîw
nintâwikin
nihtâwikiw
nika-
nikamow
nikohtîw
nipahîw
nipantâw
nipâw

PRV know
TA to raise s.o., to bear s.o.
II to grow
AI to be born
PRV 1st person future prefix
AI to sing
AI to chop wood
TA to kill s.o.
TI2 to kill it [animal]
AI to sleep

| nipiw | AI | to die |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nipiy | NI | water |
| nipiyihkîw | AI | to make water |
| nipîwin | NI | bed |
| nipîwinihkîw | AI | to make a bed |
| nipowin | NI | death |
| nisicawayâsink | PRT | Nelson House [loc.] |
| nisitohtawîw | TA | to understand s.o. |
| nisiwanâtan | II | to be spoiled, to decay |
| nisiwanâtinâkwan | II | to look spoiled |
| nisiwanâtisiw | AI | to be ruined, to have |
|  |  | miscarriage or premature |
|  |  | labour |
| nistam | PRT | first |
| nisto | PRT | three |
| nisto-mitanaw | PRT | thirteen |
| nitaminahow | AI | to hunt (?) |
| nitawi- | PRV | go to, search for |
| nitawihîw | TA | to cure s.o. [cf. |
|  |  | akopitawîw] |
| nitawiminîw | AI | to look for berries |
| nitawiskwîw | AI | to look for spruce gum |
| nitawiwâpahtam | TI | to go to see it |
| nitawîfimiw | TA | to want s.o. |
| nitawîyintam | TI | to want it |


| nitith | PRT | there |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nitomîw | TA | to ask s.o. |
| niyânan | PRT | five |
| niyânanâpisk | NA | five dollars |

nf
nî $\delta a$
nî $\delta$ anân
nîhci-
nîhi
nîhi
nîhídaw
ninî $\delta$ awi-
nîkân
nîkânohtîw
nîki
nîmiw
nîmî́iw
nipisiy
nîso
nîsowîkan
nîsta
PR I, me
PR we exclusive [me and s.o.]
PRV below
PR that yonder ( $3^{\prime}$ )
PR that yonder (Op)
NA Cree
PRV Cree
PRT first of all
AI to walk in front
PR that yonder (3p)
AI to dance
PR that yonder ( $0^{\prime}$ )
NI willow, willow branch
PRT two
PRT two pair
PR I-too

| nîstanân | PR | we-too exclusive [me and |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | s.o.] |
| nîtî | PRT | there |
| nîw | PRT | four [cf. nîyo] |
| nîyo | PRT | four [cf. nîw] |

## nô

| nôcihcikîw | AI | to work at things [+NPloc] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nôcinkawîw | TA | to handle s.o. (?) |
| nôcikîsiw | NA | old woman [cf. nôcokîsiw] |
| nôcokîsiw | NA | old woman [cf. nôcikîsiw] |
| nôhcimink | PRT | woods, bush [loc.] |
| nôhtâ | INT | my god! [voc.] |
| nôhti- | PRV | need |
| nôhtîhkatîw | AI | to be hungry |
| nôhtisiw | AI | to be weak |
| nôhtîtahtam | TI | to have shortness of breath |
| nôhtîtahtamow | AI | to be short of breath [cf. |
|  |  | nôhtitamow] |
| nôhtîtamow | AI | to be short of breath [cf. |
|  |  | nôhtîtahtamow] |
| nôkosiw | AI | to appear |
| nômakîs | PRT | short while |

ocawâsimisiw
ocânisiw
ocipitikow
ocisâpantam
ocîhkwîham
óahîw
ofasowâtam

O $\quad$ asowîw
odasowîwin
o $\delta$ atahwîw
odatinîw
ofâkan
odipasiw
ofisam
ohci
ohci-
ohci-

AI to be pregnant
AI to have a daughter
TA to have a cramp
TI to witness it [cf.
otisâpahtam]
TI to sew it by gathering it together

TA to shape an animate object
TI to arange it, to have a meeting to arrange, to have a meeting

NI meeting
TA to shape [anim.obj.] with an instrument

TA to form [anim. obj.] by hand
NT dish, plate
II to digest
TI to shape by cutting
PRT from, with, for, out of
PRV negative past tense marker
PRV from

| ohcitaw | PRT | anyway, surely |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ohpicicikan | NI | baking powder |
| ohpikihîw | TA | to raise s.o. [cf. |
|  |  | nihtâwîkihîw] |
| ohpikiw | AI | to grow up |
| ohtîw | II | to boil |
| opimâcihiwîw | NA | saviour |
| opîhkîcawîsiw | NA | name of trickster |
| opônapiwinihk | PRT | South Indian Lake [loc.] |
| osawa | PR | this odd one (3) |
| osâm | PRT | too much |
| osâwaskwâpîs | NA | jackfish, northern pike |
| osihciwîpinam | TI | to throw it together |
| osihîw | TA | to make an animate object |
| osintâw | TI2 | to make it |
| osôma | PR | this odd one (0) |
| otâkosihk | PRT | yesterday |
| otâkosin | II | to be evening |
| otâpânâsk | NA | toboggan, vehicle |
| otintinam | TI | to reach it |
| otintinîw | TA | to reach s.o., to grab s.o. |
| otinam | TI | to take it |
| otinamawîw | TA+O | to take it to s.o. |
| otinawâsow | AI | to deliver children |

otinîw
otisâpantam
TA to take s.o.
TI to witness it [cf. ocisâpahtam]

## 6

| ôh- | PRV | past negative morpheme |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | [usually with independent |
| ôh- | verb] |  |
| ôho | PRV for [kîkwân ôh-] |  |
| ôho | PR | this (3') |
| ôhô | PR | this (Op) |
| ôko | NA | owl |
| ôma | PR | this (3p) |
| ôma | PR | this (0) |
| ômatowa | PRT | whenever [ôma kâ- ] |
| ômisi | PRT | this way |
| ômisîsi | PRT | like this |
| ômî $\delta i w ~$ | PRT | like this |
| ôta | PR | this (0') |
| ôta-awa | PRT | here |
| ôtî | PR | this one here (3) |
| ôtî $\delta a$ | PRT | here |
| $l$ | PRT | here emphatic |

pa

| pahkaci | PRT | sometimes |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pahkintin | II | to fall, drop |
| pahkihtiwatîpahtâw | AI | to drop one's bag running |
| pahkikawan | II | to have grease falling |
| pahkikawipahtam | TI | to move the falling grease |
| pahkisin | AI | to fall |
| pahkîkin | NI | hide, animal skin |
| pahkonîw | TA | to skin an animal |
| pahkwîsikan | NA | bread, flour, dough |
| pakamahwîw | TA | to hit s.o. |
| pakamâkan | NI | hammer |
| pakamâtihpîhwîw | TA | to hit s.o. with an instr. |
| pakastawîham | TI | to set it in water |
| pakastawîhwîw | TA | to set [anim.obj.] in water |
| pakâsimîw | TA | to boil [anim. obj.] |
| pakitahwâwin | NI | [net] fishing |
| pakitahwîw | AI | to fish [with a net] |
| pakitinamawîw | TA+0 | to place it on s.o. |
| pakitinikîw | AI | to set things down |
| pakitinîw | TA | to set s.o. down |
| pakocînîw | TA | to gut a fish or animal |
| pakwan | PRT | anything |


| pakwanta | PRT anything |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pamihîw | TA to take care of s.o. |  |
| panok | NA bannock |  |
| papâmi- | PRV around |  |
| papâmikwâskohtîw | AI | to jump around |
| papâmohtîw | AI | to walk around |
| pasikôw | AI | to stand up |
| pasistîhwîw | TA | to beat s.o. with a stick |
| paskâpîkinîw | TA | to cut s.o.'s string or |
| paskopitîw | TA | to pluck s.o. |
| paskwatâwisam | TI | to cut hair off it |
| pasôw | TI2 | to smell it |
| patiskam | TI | to miss it |
| patos | PRT | different |
| patwîtawîsam | TI | to cut hair |
| pawâmiw | AI | to dream |
| pawâsinikan | nallucination (?) |  |

pa

| pâcimâs | PRT | a little later (dim.) [cf. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pâtimâ] |  |  |
| pâham | PRT possibly |  |
| pâhpihîw | TA | to laugh at s.o. |
| pân | NI | pan [English borr.] |
| pâniswîw | TA | to smoke an animal or fish |
| pâpapîw | AI | to immerse in water |
| pâpâ | NA | dad [younger speaker] |
| pâskisikan | NI | gun |
| pâskisikîw | AI | to shoot |
| pâskiswîw | TA | to shoot at s.o. |
| pâsohwîw | TA | to dry an animate object |
| pâstîw | NI | dry smoke |
| pâstîw | II | to dry |
| pâtimâ | PRT later, after [cf. pâcimâs] |  |

pi

| pincipasin | II | to be owing |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pihcipasiw | TI2 | to owe it |
| pincipow | AI | to be poisoned |
| pinkotîw | NI | ash |
| piko | PRT | only, just [cf. pô, poko] |
| pimâcihisow | AI | to make oneself live |
| pimâcinîw | TA | to make s.o. live |
| pimâcinow | AI | to survive |
| pimâskwamotâw | TI2 | to put it across |
| pimâtakâw | AI | to swim, to wade |
| pimâtisiw | AI | to live |
| pimicihcîkicipasiw | AI | to stagger, to crawl (?) |
| pimisâw | AI | to fly |
| pimihkan | NI | pemmican |
| piminawâsow | AI | to cook |
| pimipasihtâw | TI2 | to run things |
| pimisin | AI | to lie down |
| pimitisihwîw | TA | to follow s.o. |
| pimiy | NI/NA | grease, lard |
| pimohtatâw | TI2 | to walk with it |
| pimohtîsiw | AI | to walk a little (dim.) |
| pimohtîw | AI | to walk |


| pimosiniw | TA+O to throw it at s.o. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pipon | II | to be winter |
| piscí- | PRV by mistake |  |
| pisiskisîs | NA | little animal (dim.) |
| pisiskiw | NA | animal |
| pita | PRT | first |

pi

| pî- | PRV towards |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pî́isk | PRT | finally |
| pîhci- | PRV | inside |
| pîhtakosiw | AI | to be heard |
| pîhtam | TI | to hear it |
| pîhtamawîw | TAto to bring it to s.o. |  |
| pîhtawîw | TA | to hear s.o. |
| pîhtâpiskahikan | NA oven |  |
| pîhtokamik | PRT | inside |
| pîhtokîw | AI | to enter |
| pîhtosikîw | AI | to skin |
| pîhtwâtîw | TA | to smoke s.o. (?) |
| pîkopa |  | II |
| pîkopa | to break |  |


| pîmâpitîw | AI | to have crooked teeth |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pîmikotîw | AI | to have a crooked nose |
| pîpî | NA baby |  |
| pîpîwîw | AI | to be a baby, to be young |
| pîsâkanâpiy | NI | rope |
| pîsâkosiw | AI | to be fleshy |
| pîsim | NI | month |
| pîsiwîw | TA | to bring s.o. back |
| pîskî́imîw | TA | to pay attention to s.o. |
| pîtâw | TI2 | to bring it back |
| pîwâpisk | NA | can |
| pîyak | PRT | one |
| pîyako- | PRV | alone |
| pîyakwan | PRT | like |
| pîyakwapiw | AI | to be alone |
| pîyakwâpisk | NA | one piece of metal, one |
| pîyakwâw | PRT once |  |

po
pohtinikîw
pohtíw
poko
AI to conjure (?)
II to smoke (?)
PRT only, just [cf. piko, pô]
postaskisîw
postiskam
pô
pônam
pônamawîw
pôni-
pônintâw
pônihwîw
pônipasin
pôsihîw
pôsihtâsow
pôsiw

AI to put on mitts
TI to put it
PRT only, just [cf. piko, poko]
TI to light a fire
TA to make a fire for s.o.
PRV stop
TI2 to stop it
TA to light a fire for s.o.
II to stop
TA to place s.o. [+NPloc]
AI to load
AI to depart

## sa

| sakaskihâpatamawîw | TA to use it to pin to s.o. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sakîcipadiw | AI to have a seizure (?) |  |
| sakwîwaskos | NI | water lily |

sat

| sâ-sâpiskiswatîw | TA | to fry an animal or fish |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sâkahikan | NI | lake |
| sâkaskinahtâw | TI2 | to fill it |
| sâkihîw | TA | to love s.o. |
| sâkiskwataciw | AI | to have one's head stick out |
|  |  | of the cold |
| sâpo-taskâtihpîpitîw | TA | to spit open s.o.'s head by |
|  |  | pulling |
| sâpopîw | II | to be wet |
| sâsiskihkwân | NA | frying pan |

## si

sihti
sikitam
sipwî-
sipwîhcîhkâsow
sipwîhtîw
sipwîpasiw

NA tree, evergreen
TI to urinate on it
PRV away
AI to pretend to leave
AI to leave
AI to be on one's way

```
sipwîpahtâw
sipwîyâstan
```

si
sîhtâkan
sîkahpitam
sîkihtitâw
sîkinam
sîkinamawîw
sîkoc
sîkwan
sîkwanisiw
sîmâk
sîpâ
sîpinamawîw
sîpîhanikwâtam
sîpokwâtam
sîsip
AI to run away
II to blow away

NI salt
TI to lace it
TI2 to pour it out
TI to pour it
TA+O to pour it on s.o.
PRT between
II to be spring
AI to be in spring
PRT immediately
PRT under
TA+O to throw it at s.o.
TI to string it together by
sewing it
TI to brace it by sewing
NA duck
só

```
sôkâw
sôniyâs
sôniyâw
sôniyâwi-kîsikâw
sôpinkîw
```

spo
sponsorihwîw
TA to sponser s.o. [English
borr.]
swî
swîcarîs

NA sugar
NA money (dim.)
NA money
II to be treaty day
AI to make soap
spo
sponsorihwîw
TA to sponser s.o. [English borr.]

NI sweater (dim.) [English borr.]

```
ta
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
ta- & PRV & future morpheme \\
tahkonam & TI & to hold it \\
tahkonîw & TA & to hold s.o. \\
tahkopitam & TI & to tie it \\
tahtinîw & TA & to wrap s.o. around \\
tahto & PRT & every, many \\
tahtwaskîwinîw & AI & to be so many years old \\
takahkî \(\delta i m i ̂ w ~\) & TA & to admire s.o. \\
takopa \(\delta i n\) & II & to arrive \\
takopitam & TI & to tie it \\
takosin & AI & to arrive \\
takwâkin & II & to be [late] autumn \\
takwî- & PRV & try
\end{tabular}
```

ta
tâ-
tâhcipôw
tân
tâna

PRV
AI
PRT
PR
should
to be fat
which
which (3)

| tânisikoh(k) | PRT | how much |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tânisikoh(k) | PRT | so long |
| tânifiw | PR | where ( $0^{\prime \prime}$ ) |
| tânihâ | PR | which one (Op) |
| tânika | PRT | if only |
| tânimâ | PR | where (0) |
| tânimâ | PR | all kinds (0) |
| tân(i)si | PRT | how |
| tân(i)spiy | PRT | when |
| tâniwâ | PR | where (3) |
| tâniwîhi | PR | which (3') |
| tâniwîhi | PR | all kinds (0p) |
| tâniwîhkâ | PR | where (3p) |
| tânîhâ | PR | where ( $3^{\prime}$ ) |
| tânîhkâ | PR | which (3p) |
| tântâ | PRT | where |
| tântahto | PRT | how many |
| tântî | PRT | where, there |
| tântôwi | PRT | what kind of |
| tântôwihkan | PRT | what kind |
| tâpakwîw | AI | to snare |
| tâpiskâkan | NI | scarf |
| tâpiskôc | PRT | like [cf. taskôc] |
| tâpwî | PRT | really |
| tâsipwâ | PRT | in fact, that is why |


| tâskipahîw | TA | to split [anim.obj.] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tâskipitîw | TA | to split s.o. by pulling |
| tâskitihpîmîw | TA | to split s.o.'s head open |
| tâskôc | PRT | like [cf. tâpiskôc] |
| tâwin | NI | town [English borr.] |
| tâypo | PRT so (?) |  |

## ti

| tihkîsiw | TA to melt an animate object |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tipân | PRT away |  |
| tipiskâw | II | to be dark, to be night |
| tiy | NI | tea [English borr.] |

## ti

tintapiwin
tîlîhpôn
tîpintin
tipipasin
tipipasiw

NI
NI
II to fit
II to be enough
AI to be enough

| tîpipaham | TI | to pay for it |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tîpipahikâsow | AI | to pay enough, be worth it |
| tîpipahikîstamâsow | AI | to pay for it oneself |
| tîpwâtîw | TA | to yell at s.o. |
| tîpwîw | AI | to yell |

to
tôhân
tôhtôsâpwiy
tôtam
tôtawîw
tôwi
tôwihkan

NA ball
NI milk
TI to do it
TA to do it to s.o.
PRT kind [comparing two objects]
PRT such a kind
twa
twâham
TI to drill a hole in ice
twi
twîhow
AI to land
wa

| wadawi- | PRV | far |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wadawîpiciw | AI | to move out |
| wasawîpinîw | TA | to throw s.o. one |
| wasawîtimink | PRT | outside |
| wanâmîw | TA | to interrupt s.o. |
| wanihcikîw | AI | to lose things |
| wanihikîw | AI | to trap |
| wanihîw | TA | to lose s.o. |
| wanintâw | TI2 | to lose it |
| wanikiskisiw | AItO | to forget |
| waniskâw | AI | to wake up, to get up |
| waskawîw | AI | to move |
| waskway | NI | birchbark |
| waskway-odâkan | NI | birchbark cup |
| waskwayi-cîmân | NI | birchbark canoe |
| watapiy | NI | root |
| wawiyakwîskîw | AI | to swear habitually |

wa

| wâ- | PRV supposition |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wấinîw | TA | to make a hollow in [bread] |
| wâhסaw | PRT | far away |
| wâpahtam | TI | to see it |
| wâpahtíîw | TA+o to show it to s.o. |  |
| wâpamîw | TA | to see s.o. |
| wâpisiw | NA | swan |
| wâpisîpimiy | NA | swan grease |
| wâpiw | AI | to see |
| wâpiwâkîw | AI | to see things |
| wâpos | NA | rabbit |
| wâposwân | NA | rabbitskin |
| wâsakâmi- | PRV | around |
| wâsâw | II | to be a bay |
| wâskâhikan | NI | house |
| wâstaskotînikan | NI | light |
| wâstaskotînikâkîw | AI | to light things |
| wâstîw | II | to be light |
| wâstîw | NI | light |

wi

| wi $\delta a$ | PRT | because [cf. wî $\delta$ ] |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wi $\delta a$ | PRT | emphatic, contrastive |

wi

| wí- | PRV want, going to |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wîcayamîw | TA | to be with s.o. |
| wîci- | PRV with, accompany |  |
| wîci-mîtawîmîw | TA | to play with s.o. |
| wîcinisow | AI | to help oneself |
| wîcinîw | TA | to help s.o. |
| wîcimos | NA lover |  |
| wîcimos | NI prairie bird [type of plant] |  |
| wîcîwîw | TA | to accompany s.o. |
| wî $\delta a$ | PR | he/she [personal pronoun] |
| wî $\delta a w a ̂ w ~$ | PRT | they [personal pronoun] |
| wîhkâc | NA | wild ginger |
| wîhkîs | TI | to tell it |
| wîhtam | TA | to tell it to s.o. |
| wîhtamawîw | NA | wihtikow [legend], cannibal, |
| wîhtikôw |  | crazy person |


| wîkimîw | TA | to marry s.o. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wîmistikôsimow | AI | to speak English |
| wîmistikôsiw | NA | whiteman |
| wîmistikôsî- | PRV | whiteman |
| wîmistikôsîhkâsow | AI | to pretend to be a white |
|  |  | person, to forsake Indian |
|  |  | values |
| wîpac | TA | soon to throw s.o. away |
| wîpinawîw | AI | to throw your body |
| wîpiskâcikîw | PRT | name of place [loc.] |
| wîpiskâhk | NI | mossberry [pl. only] |
| wîsakimin[a] | TI | something hurts s.o. |
| wîsakîyintam | PRT | so much |
| wîsâ | PR | he/she [personal pronoun] |
| wîsta | PR | they [personal pronoun] |
| wîstawâw | TA | to wrap s.o. |
| wîwîkinîw | meat |  |
| wîyâs |  |  |

ya


[^0]:    7 Text counts revealed a significant difference between the older men and women with respect to this variable. The older women have more weakening.

[^1]:    12 These particles have also been referred to as discourse markers (zwicky 1985).

[^2]:    18 These two types of $T I$ verbs take optional sentential complements.

[^3]:    2 However, the entire noun phrase may delete under identity. See section 4.4.2 for details.

[^4]:    5 If the noun in the measurement phrase is a mass noun, it is not coded for number.

    6 When a measurement is preceded by a deictic pronoun, the resulting phrase is a simple noun phrase with normal verb agreement. When the noun deletes under identity, the verb also shows agreement with the underlying noun. see example \#186.

[^5]:    7 See section 4.2.1 for details.

[^6]:    8 Further complications arise when a partitive noun phrase functions as the head of a relative clause; where it has rigid word order. When a partitive noun phrase introduces a relative clause, the verb in the main clause agrees with the noun in gender but the quantifier in number, as the example below indicates. The verb in the relative clause in this and other examples, is marked as taking an animate plural subject. However, the subject noun phrase, although animate, is unmarked for number; suggesting once again that agreement is somehow shared. More research is needed to fully understand the agreement rules.
    piyak iskwîw [ôta kâ-ayâcik] tâhcipow. one woman here $I P V=b e \backslash A I=3 p C$ fat $\backslash A I=3 I$ 'One of the women here is fat.'

[^7]:    3 The form -hci 'by foot' is the result of consonant symbolism.

[^8]:    4 There is also the combination kîkwân oh[ci] 'what for, why'.

[^9]:    1 The verb in \#261 contains a verb inflected as independent.

    2 The literature classifies the forms in Table 9.1 as follows. The forms listed under Type 2 and the forms with no tense/aspect preverb (Type 4) are "simple conjunct" forms, Type 1 and 3 are as "changed conjunct" forms. The subjunctive is analyzed as a separate category (Wolfart 1973:45). Further details are provided in section 9.3.

[^10]:    4 In my corpus, there is one example where a conjunct verb beginning with the preverb ki-2 refers to a past event. It occurs in the Description of Long Ago in Appendix C (sentence 24).

[^11]:    6 See section 9.2.2.3 for examples.

[^12]:    12 There are no recorded examples of frozen initial change in Woods Cree.

