A Grammar of Chilliwack Halkomelem

By

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DEGREE CONFERRED, JUNE 18, 1977

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to the Indian people of the Stalo Nation, who have worked to keep their language and culture alive; to my grandmother, Viola, who met an Indian chief on the banks of the Willamette River as a child, whose trip to B.C. showed that it could be made, and whose father was a pioneer of the Pacific Northwest; to my parents, Joan and Quince, whose trip to B.C. in 1969 and support and interest and encouragement made my field work possible and my study enjoyable; and to my wife, Wendy, whose support and encouragement and patience made my writing and typing and completion of this grammar possible.
Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the financial support of the Survey of California and Other Indian Languages, at the University of California at Berkeley, which funded my field work in 1970, 1971, 1972 and 1973, and the moral and financial support of Coqualeetza Education Training Centre at Sardis, B.C., which encouraged my work and supported it especially for the last six months. Without the help of Coqualeetza and the Survey this first grammar of Halkomelem could never have been completed.
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INTRODUCTION

The Halkomelem-speaking people of the Fraser River, B.C. and its tributaries are called the Stalo. Upper Stalo dialects of Halkomelem are spoken along the Fraser River from Yale, B.C. to Chehalis, B.C., Deroche and Chilliwack, B.C. The Upper Stalo dialects share certain phonological and morphological features which allow them to be considered as a unit in contrast to Lower Stalo dialects and Vancouver Island dialects of Halkomelem.

Within the Upper Stalo area are the Tait, Chehalis, and Chilliwack River dialects. Within each of these are microdialects or subdialects whose differences are so far not well documented; Tait may include Yale, Hope-Katz, Seabird Island, Laidlaw-Cheam; Chehalis may include Chehalis and Scowlitz; and Chilliwack River includes Chilliwack Landing (Pilalt), Sardis-Tzeachten, and Soowahlie-Cultus Lake (perhaps). This grammar will only differentiate between Tait, Chehalis (Cheh.), and Chilliwack River (Chill. or Chwk.) dialects. In the Nooksack-Everson-Deming area of Washington, some members of the Nooksack Tribe speak the Chilliwack River dialect (Sardis-Tzeachten) and some speak a dialect of Lower Stalo (Kilgard/Sumas and Matsqui microdialects). Actually the terms Upper and Lower Stalo are not very sat-
isfactory because of connotations of Upper and Lower; perhaps Upriver and Downriver Halkomelem are better. At present there seem to be about 50 to 75 fluent speakers of Upper Stalo or Upriver dialects, almost all over 60 years of age.

My field work on Halkomelem began in August 1970 with Mrs. Mary "Amy" Cooper of the Soohwahlie Reserve. That year I worked with her for one month. In 1971 we worked again, from September to December; in 1972 I had only a week in the area but met the Stalo Heritage Project's Elders Group and worked with some of them twice; in 1973 Amy and I worked together from August to December; during that period I also visited on several occasions Mrs. Mary Charles of Seabird Island and Mrs. Cecilia Thomas of Seabird Island who was able to tell us a number of stories in Halkomelem. I also met with Mrs. Nancy Phillips of Chehalis who was teaching the language in the Chehalis Day School. Amy, her husband Albert and I also made a trip to Yale and visited with Mrs. Margaret Emory of Yale (who speaks only Halkomelem and Thompson). At the end of the year I gave a speech in Halkomelem at a large spirit dance; the speech was in honor of the chief who put on the dance and also encouraged the preservation and revival of the language. Amy had corrected my grammar on the speech and gave me stylistic pointers. Amy was
good to work with, patient, diligent, always willing to work and always willing to travel with me to visit others. She would even call people up to track down particular words she could not remember.

During summer of 1974 I was employed by the Nooksack tribe to work with a group of their elders who were meeting weekly in a Halkomelem Workshop. In January 1975 I was employed by Coqualeetza Education Training Centre at Sardis, B.C. to set up lessons, classes and other Halkomelem language programs. This has involved, among other things, teaching Halkomelem classes on three different reserves and at Coqualeetza and giving a teacher training course to ten Halkomelem speakers, three of whom have now taught their own courses (one, Nancy Phillips, was already teaching Halkomelem).

The Stalo Elders Group was still meeting every week to speak and preserve the language and was now called the Coqualeetza Elders Group. I have been fortunate to work with them for several hours weekly on the language ever since. I also work once a week with the Halkomelem Workshop in Deming, Washington, sometimes eliciting, sometimes teaching Halkomelem spelling, words discovered from the Coqualeetza Elders Group, or Halkomelem grammar.

Through several grants at different times Coqua-
leetza was able to employ Wilfred Charlié, Tillie Gutiérrez, and Edna Bobb to help with language research and file-slipping. Tillie is fluent in the Tait dialect (Katz) and Edna is fluent in the Chehalis dialect; Wilfred knows a little of the Chilliwack (Sardis) dialect. Edna and I especially worked together from November 1975 to October 1976; as a result I recorded and she file-slipped several thousand Chehalis forms from her as well as all the forms from the weekly Elders Meetings since 1975, and we also translated a number of songs and stories. Wilfred and Edna each also helped me transcribe some tapes of Elder's Meetings going back to 1972, though many remain to be transcribed. My work at Coqualeetza is continuing. The Elders Group is our most valuable group in preserving and saving the language and culture. Their talent and dedication and humor make every meeting rewarding and enjoyable.

Through the help and kindness of Casey Wells I was able also to copy tapes which his late brother, Oliver Wells, had made with two of the best speakers of Sardis Halkomelem alive between 1962 and 1965, Bob Joe (1884-1970) and Daniel Milo (1867-1967), as well as with a number of other speakers. I was able to transcribe several of the tapes with Bob Joe and Dan Milo, and they provided a good balance and perspective
on the dialects of Halkomelem. This grammar is based on Chilliwack Halkomelem but has considerable data and comparisons from Tait and Chehalis dialects as well.

A number of people have worked with me, sharing their knowledge of Halkomelem (they are identified by their initials in the grammar):

**Chilliwack dialect:** Amy (Mary Laurencetto) Cooper (1886-1975)(Vedder Crossing, Soochwahlie Reserve)(AC), Nancy Phillips (Sardis, now of Chehalis)(NP), Lawrence James (Chilliwack Landing), Danny Charlie (Chilliwack Landing), Susan Jimmie (Sardis, now of Everson, Wash.) (SJ), Marie Villanueva (Sardis, now of Everson), Namie Cooper (Sardis, now of Everson area)(MC), Roy Point (Sardis)(RP), Richard Malloway (Sardis)(RM), Philomena Solomon (of Everson area, now deceased), (I have only worked with tapes of Dan Milo (Sardis, Scowkale Reserve) (DM) and Bob Joe (Sardis, Tzecchten Reserve)(BJ)).

**Chehalis dialect:** Ed Leon Sr. (Chehalis)(EL), Dolly Felix (Scowlitz, now of Chehalis), Hank and Maggie Pennier (Scowlitz and Chehalis respectively)(HP, MP), Lizzie Johnson (now of Seabird Island), Edna Bobb (Chehalis, now of Seabird Island)(EB), Teresa Michell (now of Cheam Reserve), Philomena Kelly (Deroche).

**Tait dialect:** Cecilia and Henry Thomas (Cheam, now of Seabird Island)(CT, HT), Susan (Josh) Peters (Union
Bar or Yale, now of Seabird Island (SP), Amelia Douglas (Cheam Reserve) (AD), Tillie and Al Gutierrez (Katz) (TG, AG), Agnes Kelly (Laidlaw) (AK), Joe Laurencetto (Laidlaw, now of Boston Bar) (JL), Mary Peters (now of Chilliwack and Seabird Island) (MP), Philomena Seymour (now of Seabird Island), Maggie Emery (Yale), Stanley Jones (Laidlaw, deceased).

Sumas/Kilgard dialect: Jeanne Silver (now of Vedder Crossing), Peter "Speedy" Bolan, Ella Reid (Kilgard, now of Everson area), Alice Hunt (Matsqui, now of Everson area).

All but RM, DM, and BJ are or were members of the Coqualeetza Elders Group or the Halkomelem Workshop at Deming. All of those listed are fluent speakers, but this is not a complete list of the members of the two groups, nor of all the fluent speakers. It is a list of those from whom I have had specific forms or interviews.

One other use of initials should be mentioned.

University of Washington (unpublished). To have used footnotes every time I mentioned these two sources would have made Chapter 1 too complex and difficult to read.

The name Halkomelem, /h̓elq̓'em̓eylem/, derives from the Upriver pronunciation of the name of Nicomen Island, /leq'émól/ with the addition of the continuative prefix hs-, the -î:l -sky suffix 'go, come, get' (which replaces any preceding əl), and -əm 'middle voice'. Although the derivation of leq'émól is less certain, it seems to have root leq' 'level' and -á:mel 'member, part' (see Chapter 5); this would give it a meaning like 'level part', which is a good description of Nicomen Island in the Fraser River. /h̓elq̓'em̓eylem/ would then have come from a meaning like 'going/coming/getting to a level part' or 'going/coming/getting to Nicomen Island'.

There is also a tradition that the people of the Chilliwack River (before 1800 according to Captain John Suali in Hill-Tout (1902)) used to speak the Nooksack language, ʔəčəlesəm. Some time around 1800 or before, the people of the Chilliwack River began to adopt the language of Nicomen Island. Some ʔəčəlesəm place names in the Chilliwack River Valley are quoted by Amy Cooper in evidence, st'ept'əp '(perhaps Ryder Lake Creek or a ridge nearby)' and səl'ísi or syəl'ísi 'Mt. Slesse' (said
to mean 'fang' in ḥēḵelēseqm). This deserves further research from a linguistic viewpoint.

Chilliwack, /sc'elxʷyeqʷ - sc'elxʷiqʷ/ derives from sc'elxʷ 'quieter water, backwater, slough' + -iqʷ 'on top of the head, hair'? (possibly metaphor for a delta or many twisting channels). In canoes, upriver or downriver travellers could take a rest by going through Hope Slough or some of the other sloughs which had quieter water than the Fraser and were connected to the Chilliwack River. In the days before 1875 when a great logjam changed its course, the Chilliwack River flowed west from Chilliwack Lake, then north to the Fraser River through what is now Vedder Crossing, Sardis (by the present Chilliwack River Road), and Chilliwack Landing. At first the villages were on the upper reaches of the Chilliwack River, but as landslides wiped out villages there and enemy slaving raids decreased with the influence of the white man on the Fraser River spreading, new villages were established further down the Chilliwack River, eventually including several in the Sardis area and at Chilliwack by the 1850's. That brings us to the time of the first white settlement in the area.

Finally, I should mention that the chapters were written in the order presented, the first chapter being written several years before the last. Thus although
I have done some revision on the early chapters, a few inconsistencies may occur for example in spelling of Halkomelem words. For any of these inconsistencies, the information later in the grammar is probably more definitive.
CHAPTER I. PHONETICS AND PHONEMICS

1.1. Phonemes. The consonant phonemes of Chilliwack Halkomelem are shown below. The points of articulation given are applicable to the allophones. The phonemes /k/ and /k'/, parenthesized, are found only in borrowings. Apico-álveolar [n], retroflex [ɾ], voiced bilabial [b], and others, are found in a few temporary borrowings from English, like [θaun] 'town', [ɾoɾtr] 'quarter', and [bûs] 'Butch', but they do not form part of the phonemic system. Since every speaker of Chilliwack Halkomelem is bilingual in English, it is clear (in the cases found to date) that the words so "borrowed" are cases of code-switching (language switching) rather than real borrowings.

The dental-álveolar consonants are pronounced between the roots of the upper teeth and the front of the álveolar ridge. Only /k'/ is pronounced at the bend at the back of the álveolar ridge.

Álveolar-palatal consonants each have a lamino-álveolar allophone and a lamino-palatal allophone.

/e'/ and /a'/ were chosen instead of the symbols ǝθ' and ǝθ' to demonstrate the unit nature of these affricates. /c/ and /c'/ were chosen as phonemic symbols because their allophones cover both [ɛ] and [ɛ], and [ɛ'] and [ɛ'] respectively. /ɛ/ was chosen instead of e because its allophones are [ɛ] most frequently, [ɛ] next most frequently, and [ɛ]
least frequently ([e] is relatively uncommon).

**Consonant Phonemes:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apico-</th>
<th>Dorso-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilabial</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdental</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental-alveolar</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental-lateral</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamino-alveolar-palatal</td>
<td>Palatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Velar</td>
<td>Velar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plain</td>
<td>Plain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labialized</td>
<td>Labialized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postvelar</td>
<td>Postvelar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plain</td>
<td>Plain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labialized</td>
<td>Labialized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottal</td>
<td>Glottal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Stops v.l.**
  - p
  - t
  - k' (glottal)
  - k
  - q
  - q'
  - q''

- **Affricates v.l.**
  - c
  - θ'
  - k' (glottal)
  - k
  - q
  - q'
  - q''

- **Spirants v.l.**
  - s
  - h

- **Nasal v.d.**
  - m

- **Semivowels v.d.**
  - l
  - y

and * (length) and : (double length)

**Vowel Phonemes:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Unrounded</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Suprasegmental Phonemes:**

- * (high and high-falling pitch stress)
- # (word boundary)
- *# (sentence boundary)
- unmarked (low pitch, unstressed)
For functional reasons and convenience the table of phonemes can be summarized as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstruents</th>
<th>p, t, c (k)</th>
<th>kw, q, qw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>glottalized</td>
<td>p', t', k' c' (k')</td>
<td>kw', q', q'w'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirants</td>
<td>e, i, s, y</td>
<td>x^y, x, x, h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sonorants</td>
<td>m, l, y, w</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
<td>i, u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e, o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a, unmarked</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth noting here that Chilliwack Halkomelem is unusual among languages of the world in that it has only one nasal, which is /m/. There are no other nasal phones than [m] and [n], both allophones of /m/. This solitary /m/ violates one of the universals proposed by Ferguson to the effect that, "If in a given language, there is only one primary nasal consonant, it is /n/, that is, its most characteristic allophone is apical." Also worth noting here are the prominent glottalized, labialized, and post-velar series, which are characteristic of languages of the Northwest Coast.

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1.2. Allophones and Phonetics.

Consonants.

1.2.1. Voiceless stops have unaspirated allophones in two positions: $s\_V$ (prevocally after [s]) and $\_g$
(before syllabic consonants, i.e. before [m] or [l]). For example: [spəθ] 'black bear', [stələ] 'river', [skəhəs]
'her cooking', [skwətʰxə] 'the inside', [sqəməs] '(female)
breast; milk', [sqwətʰxəm] 'fog; mist', [mɪstʰxə] 'bring
(fetch) something, give me something', [ʔələjstəxəs] 'they
are/were in a canoe', [ʔɪmɪstʰxə] 'make someone walk; take
someone for a walk', [ʔəjstəxə] 'chasing something',
[skwəq'loqəstɪl] 'nose-ring' (IM); [ʔəqəp] 'ten', [ʔətə]
'to eat', [pʰəysɪək] 'bicycle', [kʰəjə] - [kʰələjə]
'hold s-th' (s-th is an abbreviation for 'something'; s-o
will abbreviate 'someone'), [məcə] 'human hair', [ʔəyəkəs] 'digging'; and [tək'wək'wəs] (tə - tʰən-, o - a) 'summer;
hot time', [kʰəlUm] - [kʰəlmUxə] 'root', [sqəqə]
[səqəlUm] 'breath (noun).

Voiceless stops elsewhere are aspirated. For example:
[pʰəkə'we] 'puffball; Popkum', [skəwən] 'red', [kəqəhə]
'be long', [stəθew] 'light, illumination', [məqəθ]
'swallow s-th', [spəθəq'wɪtəs] 'screech owl, pigmy owl;
little ghost', [tʰələ] - [tələ] 'this', [tʰəkʰə] 'doctor'
(NP), [kʰəpʰətə] 'captain' (NP). [kʰ] was occasionally
transcribed [kʰ] before rounded vowels, but in actuality
the rounding is still present, only obscured in the more
prominent rounding of the following vowels (as in [kʰəqθə]
'coho salmon' for example). From here on aspiration will not be written in phonetic transcriptions.

1.2.2. /θ'/ has allophones [θ'] after [s], and [tθ'] elsewhere. For example, [tθ'ə Roxat] 'wash something', [p'Å·tθ's] 'baby basket, basketry cradle', [sp'Å·tθ'] 'Indian currant', [sθ'f·m] 'berry, fruit', [sθ'Æ·qel] 'bullrush; bullrush mat'. There is no unglottalized affricate version of this affricate; cases of /tθ/ which occur are clusters of /t/ plus /θ/ since they invariably have the t aspirated ([tʰθ]). /θ'/ and /θ/ are interdental in the sense that the air is released in the spaces between the upper teeth; the tongue rests on the back of the upper teeth, not between the upper and lower teeth.

1.2.3. /x'/ is the phonemic symbol for [tθ'] or [tl'] (equivalents except that [tl'] would probably have less spirantal release than [tθ']). I began my field work trying to hear a difference and using both symbols, but it soon became obvious that there was either free variation or I could not hear the difference. There is no plain /x/ because clusters of /tθ/ and /tl/ feature aspirated tʰ except when the /l/ is syllabic, i.e., [tʰl], [tʰl] and [tʰ].

1.2.4. /c/ has the following allophones:
[ç] freely varies with [ç] in the environment ë,s_1,ɛ
[ç] elsewhere before ɛ,1,ç; all consonants but x, and finally (_∫íc)
[ç] elsewhere (before the other vowels and x).


There is some idiolectal variation among speakers of the Chilliwack dialect, mainly in the direction of increasing free variation. AC has [ʃ] and [č] in the environments listed above. DM and BJ have the same distribution in most instances but have some examples of free variation before I, e and t. RM and SJ appear to have [ʃ] in free variation.
with [ɬ] everywhere. English provides pressure against complementary distribution via loans like [ɬɪkɛl] 'chicken' and [kɛ̚p'ɪlɛ] 'cabbage' (both HP citations).

1.2.5. /c'/ has the following allophones:

[ɬ'] in free variation with [ʃ'] in the following environments:

\[\# \_ (i, ɪ, ɛ(\cdot), ɛ*, ɪ*, ɛ, ə)
\]
\[s \_ (ɛ, ɛ*, ə*)\]
\[w \_ ɪ\]
\[\_ (ɪ, ɛ*\)]

[ʃ'] elsewhere.

For example: [ɬ'ɪyɛqtel] - [ʃ'ɪyɛqtel] 'fish trap' (also placename 'Tzeachten')(DM), [ɬ'ɪ^i\text{-}talɛɡɪl] - [ʃ'ɪ^i\text{-}talɛɡɪl] 'I thank you (pl.)', [ɬ'ɛ(\cdot)yɛ]\_ - [ʃ'ɛ(\cdot)yɛ]\_ 'dry', [ɬ'ɛ̚xwɛt] - [ʃ'ɛ̚xwɛt] 'dry s-th' (ɛ* - ɛ*)(AC, DM), [ɬ'ɪmɛt] - [ʃ'ɪmɛt] (ɪ - ɬ) 'bite on s-th', [ɬ'ɛpɛq] - [ʃ'ɛpɛq] - [ʃθ'ɛpɛq] 'skunk' (/c'/ - /θ'/ is here micro-

The above are attested examples of free variation.

All examples of [ɬ'] found so far have been in variation with [ʃ']. In other environments, especially before conson-

---

2. Items set off by commas and contained within parentheses are alternatives; a single item within parentheses is optional in this system of rule notation. Thus A \rightarrow B: C\_D (E, F)(G) is to be read "A is realized as B in the environment after C and before D followed by E or F and optionally by G."
ants (syllabic or non-syllabic) and word-finally, the only
variety recorded is [ɛ']. For example: [ɛ'ɛx'ɛ] 'very'
(incl. chin)', [ɛ'ɛs'tɛ] 'knife', [sɪ'ɛ'ɛŋp] 'vine maple',
[lɛ'ɛ] - [lɛ'ɛ] 'one (in counting), one thing', [ll'ɛ'ɛ]
'bile; gall-bladder', [mɛ'ɛ'ɛ] - [mɛ'ɛ'ɛ] 'black hawthorn
berry'.

There are also cases of idiolectal or microdialectal
variation, in which one speaker prefers one alternate and
another speaker prefers another alternate. If a word is
only attested once or only by one speaker and the attesta-
tion is with [ɛ'], there remains a possibility that it also
has a [ɛ'] variant. This possibility and idiolectal pre-
ferences may account for a few cases of [ɛ'] in [ɛ'] - [ɛ']
environments (such as [ɛ'i·sɛm] 'to grow' and [ɛ'ɛs'ɛnɛ]
to hear').

1.2.6. /s/ has allophones [ʂ] before [x\textsuperscript{W}], and [s]
elsewhere (including before [x\textsuperscript{W}]). For example:
[ʂx\textsuperscript{W}umľi'k\textsuperscript{W}] 'parents', [ʂx\textsuperscript{W}a'x\textsuperscript{W}tɛ'] 'crazy',
[lux\textsuperscript{W}sɛxi'seŋqel] 'gossiping', [sɛx\textsuperscript{W}] '(hair) seal';
[sɛm'ux\textsuperscript{W}] 'rain (noun)', [sɛx'is] 'cut and dried salmon';
[sfi'si] 'to be afraid', [sx\textsuperscript{W}s\textsuperscript{W}o] 'soapberry; Indian ice
cream', [st'f\textsuperscript{W}lɛm] 'song', [sɛq'] 'half; half-breed; half-
dollar', [k\textsuperscript{W}um\textsuperscript{W}ux\textsuperscript{W}s] 'its root'.

At times /s/ before /ʁ/ sounds somewhat like [ʂ], but
close hearing shows this to be more the sound of [ʁ] after
an [s] than the [ʂ] allophone. A few borrowings have [ʂ]
not before a [x̌]. For example: [kʰəšu] 'pig' (< Chinook jargon) and [šəkʷal] 'sugar' (< English) and [həšu(w)] 'to sneeze' (beside native [həšem] 'to sneeze'). These will be considered outside the phonemic system. The alternative would be to say /s/ → [ʃ] also before [u], but examples (not borrowed) like [qəsu] 'and so' forbid that.

1.2.7. /x̌/ is everywhere realized as fronted [x̌] (or [x̌]). There is no plain velar [x̌]. Examples include:
[x̌ə:yəm] 'ant', [sw̃ix̌eːq(')] 'marsh blueberry', [sq̌əp̓ɪll] 'fish tail', [tə̃x̌əx̌ɪl·əm] 'wash one's feet', [ʔɪmɪx̌] 'to walk', [sq̌ə̃x̌əxt] - [sq̌ə̃x̌əxt] 'branch, limb of a tree'.

1.2.8. /k̓/ appears only in loanwords but in a number of loanwords that have been otherwise adjusted to eliminate non-Chilliwack phonemes. /k̓/ appears in borrowings from other Indian languages and from Chinook jargon and French as well as from English. Some examples: [k̓Ik̓Ik̓] 'Kinnickinnick, Indian tobacco, bearberry', [kap̓ə] 'coat' (< Chinook, or French "capote"), [lešk] 'sack' (< French "le sac"), [leklil] 'key' (< French "le clef"), [k̓ə̃pt̪̊] 'captain' (< English).

1.2.9. /k̓'/ appears very rarely and has a similar status to /k̓/. The words found to date with /k̓'/ are:
[sk̓'Ĩx̌ẽyəp](the first [k̓'] - [n]) 'coyote' (< Thompson language), [sk̓'ə̃k̓'ə̃Wə] 'Saskatoon berries (usually dried)' (< Thompson language), and [p̓'Ik̓'ə] 'hummingbird' (BJ) (< Thompson [p̓'sk̓'ey] 'hummingbird').

A slight de-labialization appears to take place for
all labialized consonants (/kʰʷ, kʷʰ, qʰʷ, qʰʷ, xʷ, xʰ/) before rounded vowels (/u, uʰ, o, oʰ/). This produced a few cases of [k] and [kʰ] (in addition to [q, qʰ, x, xʰ]) in my transcriptions. For example, [kǔ·tǐs] 'he fetched it, he got it', [kóxʷeθ] 'coho salmon', [sk'/xmluχʷ] 'blackberry', [q'ʊ·l] 'ear', [xów̓ə'] 'not yet', [sq̓ox̓əm] 'soapberry', and [q'ʊ·lqʰʷ] 'all talking'. However, close listening reveals some labialization still present, and all such cases have been phonemicized with labialized consonants.

ES also mentioned a [kˠ], which I have so far found in only one word, [kʰʷə·kˠ] 'younger sibling (pet name for [sq̓ax̓əq] 'younger sibling'). The feeling AC had for this implied that it was a baby-word, perhaps only used in her family. At any rate, with the pressure from loan words and from /xʷ/, there is pressure to fill in the hole in the pattern and develop a /x/ and a /xʰ/. But at present the latter are both peripheral to the Chilliwack system.

1.2.10. /xʷ/ has allophones [w] (voiceless bilabial spirant) which occurs occasionally in allegro or normal-speed speech and lenis articulation, and [xʷ] which occurs elsewhere. [w] is so far attested only in 21 words (six percent of the words with /xʷ/), and in each case a slower or more careful pronunciation has yeilded [xʷ]. The surrounding allophones do not determine this allophony. In careful and slow speech only [xʷ] occurs. Some examples: [lɪxʷ ʔəy ʔal] 'How are you?' (lit. 'Are you just fine?'),
[sə'TlWáyUqW] 'Chilliwack', [Wáqtes] 'long face; morose', [WáWá] 'lightweight', [WámsWéwt] (lenis and fast) - [xWméxWéwtxW] (citation form) 'Indian house'. [W] occurs only sporadically even in lenis or fast speech, while [xW] occurs in all careful, slow, or citation-speed speech and in most lenis or fast speech words. In a few other cases it seems that /xW/ has an allophone [w] after [s] preceding a syllable beginning with [w], for example: [swésə] 'cougar' and [swëWáli] 'parents'. But later hearings of these words sounded more like a [swW] was detectable.

1.2.11. /m/ and /l/ can be considered together because they have similar allophony in similar environments.

/m/ has allophone [m] and /l/ has allophone [l] in the following remaining environments (where C is any non-syllabic consonant, V is any vowel, and C-S, [s] for example means any consonant except [s] or [z]):  

\[ \#(C)C^{-S},[s] \]

\[ C\underline{C}(C^{-m},[l])\# \]

\[ CC\underline{V} \]

\[ C\underline{C}C^{-m},[l](C,V) \].

In addition, /l/ has syllabic allophone [l] in the following environments: \#\# and \( V(p,m,w,s)(e,I) \) (for BJ and DM this last environment should instead be \( V\bar{C}W\underline{V}(\bar{V},V) \) where \( C^W \) is any labialized consonant).

Elsewhere /m/ has allophone [m] and /l/ has allophone [l].
It is interesting to note that [m] and [l] can occur with stress (/m/ or /l/), for example as in [kʰwaɄûxʰ] 'root', [sʰaɁa] 'older, oldest (of children)', [kʰqʰaɚ] 'axe' (DM), and [qʰaɁ] 'thief'. The last two of these examples highlight the effect of /ə/ deletion which occurs in normal-speed and fast speech—the words have no vowels in them, only syllabic consonants. /ə/ deletion results in a zero grade of ablaut and is sometimes an option when it is not a morphological process.

The remaining consonant phonemes not yet discussed, /p', t', k', q', q', ?, θ, ɬ, ʃ, f, h, y, w/, have the phonetic values indicated by the phonemic symbol chosen.

1.2.12. /ˑ/ is lengthening and /ː/ is superlengthening. /ˑ/ can occur after any vowel but /ə/ and is so far attested after the following medial consonants: /t, q, s, θ, m, l, w, y/. For example: [xʰeɁ'es] 'heavy', [leɁeɁ] → [leɁem] (the [q'] may be erroneous) 'to dive', [qəɁ'asʔIs·u] 'and so', [yɪɁeɁ·aɆm] 'poison you, you got poisoned' (/yɪɁeɁ·aɆm/ < //yɪɁeɁ·eɆ·aɆm//, compare [leɁeɁem] 'he got poisoned'). Examples of long resonants are somewhat more common:

---

3. ES has 39 examples (with /ˑ/ only after vowels or resonants /m, l, w, y/), including some with word-final length; in a number of examples ES /əw·/ corresponds to my /ə/ and ES /əy·/ to my /ə/.

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are plentiful: [ʔfˑ] 'be here', [sɪˑle] 'grandparent',
[ʔɛˑy] 'be good', [xaˑyax] 'be cold', [xɔˑm] 'weep',
[qˑəmi] 'adolescent girl (10 to 15 years old)', [tʊˑx̂] 'nine',
[le kʷuˑtɪs] 'he got (fetched) it', [qˑ̃וה] 'ear',
[slɔˑs] 'sturgeon'. In all cases primary stress must occur on the syllable lengthened
(on the long vowel or on the vowel immediately before the long consonant).

/:/ can occur after any vowel, including /ə/, and is
not attested after any consonant; /ː/ is a morpheme of
emphasis (as in English), which can be translated as 'really'
and can be applied to any stressed vowel. For example:
[qeˑx te qʷəˑl] 'really a lot of mosquitoes', [su yəˑt]
'so he really threw up' (CT), [ləˑəm ʔimix tʊˑa ʔiˑimix] 'he went really walking; he walked and walked' (CT).

Vowels.

1.2.13. /i/ and /iˑ/ (front high unrounded) receive
schwa off-glide before postvelars (the symbol Q can be
used for q, qʷ, q', qʷ', x, xʷ). With /iˑ/ the effect is
often so great that a y-gliding precedes the schwa glide,
making it difficult to distinguish /iˑq/ [iˑʔq] for example,
from /iʔeq/ [iʔeq]. For /i/ the result is a plain glide,
as in [iˑʔq]. Examples: [swiˑʔeqe] /swiˑqeq] or [swiyeqe]
/swiyeqe/ 'a man; male', while on the other hand [θiˑy]qʷls]
'dig' is /θiˑy(ə)qʷ]ls/ because of [θay qʷ]ls] /θay(ə)qʷ]ls/

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Elsewhere than beside postvelars /i/ has the allophone [i] and /i·/ appears as [i·]. For example: [siˈsi] 'be afraid', [wiθαθ] 'always', [siθameyə] 'bee', [θiθəθ] 'pea, bean', [θiθaxθəθ] 'stupid'. It is also possible to hear [ey] in some words, so /i/ is best left separate from /ey/. For example, [qwiθiθ] - [qwiθiθ] 'to dance', and [θaθeyθeθəθiθ] 'doing s-th, managing s-th'.

Harris (1966) says that /i/ has allophones [i] adjacent to [θ, ə, k, k, x, y] and [I] in free variation with [e] elsewhere, and similarly that /i·/ has allophones [i·] adjacent to [θ, ə, k, k, x, y] and [i·] in free variation with [e·] elsewhere. My data contradicts this with minimal pairs like [θiyI] 'female friend', [θiyI] 'fun, pleasant, to have fun', and [θiy] 'good', [θi·] - [θi·] (which could also be interpreted [θiy]) 'be here'. In my data neither [I] nor [i] are in free variation with [e], and I find no [I·] in my field notes. In addition, my [I] occurs precisely adjacent to [θ, ə, x, y] (among other consonants) where Harris found only [i].

1.2.14. /e/ has allophony which is difficult to state because it involves a combination of free variation and
complementary distribution. Its allophones are [e] upper-mid front unrounded, [Æ] mean-mid front unrounded, and [æ] upper-low front unrounded.

a. /e/ has allophones

[e] in the environment (Q, ?, h, l)'

[e] in free variation with [æ] in the environment

(p, m, w)'

[æ] elsewhere before y

[æ] in variation with [e] elsewhere, with the following strong tendencies in the speech of AC:

b.) [æ] when stressed (' or `) before C⁻y, and [e] when unstressed before C⁻y

The tendencies in b.) hold for every occurrence of [æ] and [e] except the following:

[ei]: (Q, ?œ, h, m, y) , (x, m) , (t, œ, œ, œ`) , (p, m) , m , w , (q, xw) , œ , œ , (x, w)'

[æ]: (œ, ?œ, xw, h, l) , (k, q, ?) , s , œp , (l, m) , m , (p, x, m) , t , (œ, t) , œw , œ , œ , (t, œ, q, œ) , œw , œ , (q, ?œ, œ, l)'

c.) Other tendencies are the following in AC's speech:

[ei] occurs (tθ', ?, θ, œ, x, xw, h, m)

(?, xw, h, m, y) '

(θ, œ, x, y) '

[æ] occurs (s, y, θ, θ', p, p', w, t, t', œ', x, Q)

elsewhere (l, )

some (θ, œ, x, m)
Environments allowing [ε, e, a, æ] are (q, h, m) / e. Cases with [ε] in free variation with [æ] are

? r' x', (m, p') tθ', and q w.

d.) In a.) the solution for prediction of [æ] and [ε] not before y is variation. In b.) the solution is [æ] under stress and [ε] unstressed. In c.) the solution is [æ] before certain consonants and before l and # after certain consonants, [c] before other consonants and before l and # after other consonants.

Solutions b.) and c.) show that [ε] and [æ] are nearly in a state of complementary distribution with each other; the problem is that there are exceptions (as given) to both environments. If solution a.) is chosen it must be noted that the variation between [æ] and [ε] is not free variation but variation conditioned by the environments in b.) and c.) and conditioned in the cases of the exceptions by idiolectal preferences within free variation (and possibly by sociolinguistic and semantic factors as well).

e.) /ε/ occurs but is always stressed and therefore only has allophones [e•] and [æ•].

[e•] occurs (q, q', ɣ, h) y

[e•] is in free variation with [æ•]: (y, n, w, ɣ') y

[æ•] occurs elsewhere.

Examples of /e/ and /e•/ follow:

[ʔɛlqɛj] 'snake', [q'ɛyq'ɛxɛl] 'getting black',

[Woq'ɛjylɔ] 'downriver', [χɛyɛt] (BS has p') 'scrape s-th,'
scratch s-th', [xeyet] 'fight s-o', [weyuxw] 'you're good',
[cehewaxw] 'church (building)', [leyeylm] 'laughing';
[sepaty] - [sepaty] 'cedar (material or wood from)', [meyt] -
[meyt] 'help s-o', [swegy] - [swegy] 'day'; [qalqeyyl]
'dirty', [qeytay] 'swing', [xeyyk] 'be cold', [heyuyuw]
- [heyuyuw] 'fire'; [sipyay] - [sipyay] 'friend',
[sew(e)mey] - [sew(e)mey] 'dog', [sewweyys] - [sewweyys]
'his parents', [ceyxtis] - [ceyxtis] 'he's drying it';
[sew(e)wiyaye](AC) - [sew(e)wiyaye](AD of Agassiz, TG of Katz)
'small fly', [sew(e)y] '(younger) co-wife', [sewyay] 'impossible, be impossible'.

The next examples are arranged in pairs showing [e] and [a] in the same or similar environments, differing only by stress. [temtem] 'when?, what time?', [telo] 'to soak (dried fish)' and [telqi] 'soaking (dried fish)', [lem, le, leh, leg, left] are unstressed forms of the verb 'go' which always appear immediately before a stressed word, compare
[sqelax] 'diapers', [sqelax] 'hip', and many others;
[qweyl] 'be yellow', [qeyalxw] 'do s-th, manage s-th',
[sealxus] (e - e) 'spirit dancer', [sealxus] 'chair',
[qyeke] 'juicy', [efimake] 'it will be you (pl.)',
[helpx] 'eating (like an animal, without hands)',
[kweyemel] 'turning red', [melqalex] 'forget s-th',
[simel] 'enemy', [telwew] 'it's you (sg.)', [tale(s)]
'dollar', [xʷətəl] 'be cloudy', [yiə] 'they, them',
[e?ələx] 'sibling', [tə] 'the (present, visible, masc. or
sex unspecified)', [tə] 'your (sg.)(present, visible, masc.
or sex unspecified)', [pəwəts] 'nobody', [sxətə] 'the same
thing', [təm*k'wʌk'wes] 'hot time, summer', [pətəm] 'ask
s-th, ask s-o', [e?əx'il] 'be small', [e?əx] 'give s-th',
[e?əx] 'be outside', [səəəq] (ə - ə) 'the outside',
[smətəqə] (ə - e, e preferred) 'brain', [smətəsən] 'you're smart' (EK), [pəstə'tl] 'needle', [pəq(ə)təʃ] 'I sew', [qəwə] 'steelhead trout' and [sqəwə] 'potato,
Indian potato (wapato or broad-leafed Arrowhead [Sagittaria
Latifolia])'.

[e?əy] 'keep on going', [sa] 'fur bark', [k\wəy]
'bluejay', [k\wəxəm] 'counted', [həwe] 'to hunt (animals)',
[spətəqə] 'Indian currant bush (probably Ribes Sanguineum
'flowering red currant' which has pink flowers and

1.2.15. /ə/ has allophones determined by the speed of
speech and by three sets of consonants: Y = [l, l, x, y, s, ʃ, ʒ]
(the palatal and alveolar consonants except [h'],
W = [m, n, k\w, k\w, x\w, q\w, q'\w, q\w] ([m], [w] and labialized con-
sontants), and X = [p, t, c, q, p', tθ', t', h', ʃ', ʒ', q', θ, ʃ, ʒ, h]
(remaining consonants). The allophones of /ə/ are [ɛ]
central unrounded lower-high vowel, [I] front unrounded
lower-high, [U] back rounded lower-high, and [ə] central unrounded mean-mid (stressed or unstressed).

/ə/ \rightarrow [素质教育] in allegro unstressed syllables, especially adjacent to a stressed syllable with length (long vowel or long consonant) (cited in phonetic quotations throughout as [素质教育] instead of more cumbersome [素质教育]).

At normal speed \rightarrow [素质教育]: (素质教育), (素质教育), (素质教育), (素质教育)
At normal speed \rightarrow [素质教育]: (素质教育) W -, x W - l
At normal speed \rightarrow [素质教育]: X X, (素质教育) - #, l (素质教育,素质教育)
At normal speed elsewhere \rightarrow [素质教育] in free variation with [素质教育]: (素质教育) W X, Y X
At normal speed elsewhere \rightarrow [素质教育] in free variation with [素质教育]: (素质教育) W W, W X

The free variation is noticeable especially with different speakers (in a given word for example one speaker might use [素质教育] adjacent to [素质教育] while another speaker might use [素质教育]). The free variation is also noticeable in citations of a word on different dates by the same speaker. In comparing the occurrences of [素质教育] in the speech of different speakers, there appear to be a few differences in conditioning environments. The statements above are for the speech of AC.
In the speech of DM, BJ and RM [素质教育] and [素质教育] are nearly in free variation, and as a result [素质教育] is a member of the palatal set, Y, which conditions /ə/ \rightarrow [素质教育]. Also in the speech of DM and BJ, the environment l \rightarrow [素质教育] conditions
\(/æ/ \rightarrow [ι]\) (instead of \([e]\) as in the speech of \(AC\)). In the speech of \(AC\), \(DM\) and \(BJ\) the borrowed phones \([k]\) and \([k']\) function as member of the palatal set \(Y\) in conditioning \([ι]\).

Among the words analyzed for this chapter there are 993 examples with \([e]\), 321 with \([ι]\), and 96 with \([U]\) in the speech of \(AC\). In the prime environment for \([ι]\), \(Y___Y\), \([e]\) occurs in 30 examples and \([ι]\) in 130 examples; in the prime environment for \([U]\), \(W___W\), \([e]\) occurs in 32 examples at most and \([U]\) in 32 examples. These figures provide further guidance for the free variation at normal speed. The frequency of these allophones in the words gathered from \(DM\) and \(BJ\) is the same (615 examples with \([e]\), 140 with \([ι]\), and 61 with \([U]\)). The proportions are similar to those for \(AC\) in the \(W___W\) environment, about equal numbers of examples with \([e]\) as with \([U]\), but in the \(Y___Y\) environment \(BJ\) and \(DM\) have 64 examples with \([ι]\) (71 if one includes \(l___ɛ\) as \(Y___Y\) and only 18 examples with \([e]\) (22 if one includes \(l___ɛ\) as \(Y___Y\)). So it appears that the environments in which \([ι]\) can occur produce \([ι]\) more dependably in the speech of \(BJ\) and \(DM\) than in the speech of \(AC\).

Examples of \(/æ/\):

\(\text{[sw}'\text{twix}'\text{tIq}'\text{'}\text{']}\) 'marsh blueberries', \(\text{[sq}'\text{wet}'\text{xIm}]\) 'fog, mist', \(\text{[?i'}\text{yI}'\text{tI}]\) 'we were (here)', \(\text{[k}'\text{W}'\text{tI}']\) 'count s-th', \(\text{[k}'\text{wiy}'\text{Intel}]\) 'belt', \(\text{[saw}'\text{yIm}]\) 'it hurts', \(-[ɛl]\) 'I (subject)', \(-[ɛIs]\) 'hand', \(-[xal]\) 'foot'.

\(\text{[k}'\text{W}'\text{glUx}'\text{W}]\) 'see s-th, see s-o', \(\text{[x}'\text{Wul}'\text{mUx}'\text{W}]\) 'Indian', and all inflected forms of these words.

'point at, aim', [č'élínítē'xǔ] 'short-legged runt';
[wełânes] 'if he goes, when he goes', [meyəaməŋ] 'I help
you', [Tesəlèqel] 'bump your head', [teləxwis] - [tel·əxwis]
'he understands it, he finds s-th out', [q'w'epəq] 'crab-
apple tree, apple tree', [q'w'elis] 'to make boil', [čeylexis] 'he fought me', [č'ęg'i·č'ęx] 'short'.

[x'w'em] - [x'wəm] 'hurry', [šx'w'we] 'cougar', [təmʊx]
- [təm'ʊx'] 'earth, land, dirt', [še'ak'w'uk] 'blue elder-
berry', [q'w'uk'm'el] 'rattles (used in spirit dancing)',
[x'w'uk'at] 'he dragged him', [čaləx'w'um] 'to bleed',
[tel'we] - [teləwe] 'it's you (sg.), you're the one that',
[həy'w'] - [həyeq] 'fire', [šəx'e] - [šəx'e] 'canoe
(any type); transportation', [s'q'wemif's] 'inner cedar bark'
(AC from LH), -[lʊx] 'do accidentally to s-o, manage to or
happen to do to s-o', -[stʊx] 'make s-o do, cause s-o to do',
-[čʊx] 'you (sg.) (subject)', [p'uk'wei'lem] 'throw together
a light snack' (SJ et al), [st'w'ok'w] - [st'w'ok'w] 'white
clay (used for paint or coloring)', [te'ux'te'ux'] -
[te'ɛx'te'ɛx'] 'osprey', [θ'uk'] 'pulled out, straight',
[ək'w'ut] 'pull s-th', [ʔow'ūtə] - [ʔow'ətə] 'nobody, nothing',
[se'iwuk] - [se'iwęq] 'red elderberry', [ʔa'x'w'ust] -
[ʔa'x'w'est] - [ʔa'x'w'est] 'give s-th', [sk'w'ulwūs] 'child's
in-laws', [sk'wek'wilwes] 'children's in-laws'.

[spepələl] 'bunch of small crows', [steqtə'l] 'doorway,
door of a longhouse', [yəq'w'əp] 'light a fire', [swaqəθ]
'husband', [p'eq] 'white', [t'et'etə'em] 'sour, fermenting',
(te'axtè'æ) 'stinging nettle', [sk'æp'el·æ] (1. - l) 'tail', [č'æpeq] (č' - z' - se') 'skunk', [q'eq'mástel] 'dip net (on a pole)', [qæp·æl] 'ten (people)', [qät] 'he says', [qæs·æ] 'four' or [qæs·æ] 'forty', [sæphæls] 'wind (noun)', [qeq] 'be many', [qät·es] 'he says',
[(s)č'ic'æ] 'to be on top of', [qæh'as'lu] 'and so',
[č'ælæ] 'swollen'; [č'alæ] 'where?', [læg'æ] - [læg'æ] 'one'; [sí·le] 'grandparent', [sæ'iyæ] 'twins', [sæsæ] 'pintail duck' (BJ), [k'w'ç'la] 'see you (sg.)', [qwe] - [qwe] 'no, not, to be not', [k'wæ] 'the (near but out of sight)', [k'wæ] 'the (distant, hypothetical, not concrete)',
[k'wæ] 'to get somewhere, arrive', [te] 'the (present in sight, masculine or sex unspecified)', [qæ] 'the (present, visible, female, human)', [qæ] 'and', [tæ·e] 'to, at' (as in [tæ·e sq'w'yl] 'to/at the dance'), [spælæq'æ] (æ - æ) 'ghost; corpse', [q'æ(·)yt'æ] - [q'æ(·)yt'æ] 'swing (noun or verb)', [q'æ] 'by (instrumental preposition used with passive)', [q'æ] 'but'.

Besides the examples of [æ] seen above (written [æ]):
[sæ'is] 'cut and dried salmon', [yiw'1mlæ] 'before',
[mæ'æ] (æ - i) 'helping s-o', [sk'æxæ] 'month; moon',
[sq'à·æ] - [sq'à·æ] 'dog' (/sq'à·æ/ ~ /sq'à·æ/),
[pwæ] (i possibly [i·]) 'get frozen', [sæ'æ] 'Sasquatch', [sæ'æmæ] (i - æ) 'core (of plant, rock, tree, etc.), nut, seed, pith', [stæf'æ] 'near'.

/a/ never occurs before /-/.
1.2.16. /u/ always appears as high back rounded [u] but is relatively uncommon (about 25 per 2000 words). In the environment y__w, /u/ frequently varies with /i/ (for example, /syúwel/ - /syíwel/ 'spirit song'). /u/ appears both in borrowings ([kapũ] 'coat' < Chinook Jargon in turn from French "capote", [státílo] 'creek' < Nooksack, [šúkʷa] 'sugar' < English) and in native words. Some examples of native words with /u/ are: [túxˈáˑts] 'it's him, he did, he's the one who' (aˑ - a, and rarely u - uˑ here), [θúxˈáˑts] 'it's her, she did, she's the one who' (aˑ - a and u - uˑ as above), [yuxˈáˑlem] 'it's them (sex not given), they did, they're the ones who', [qoʔ asísu] or [qésu] 'and then', [kwáˑtsIs] - [kwáˑtsIs] 'he gets (fetches) something'.

/u/ always appears as [uˑ] and is also relatively uncommon. It occurs in a few borrowings ([kwéʔáˑs] 'pig' < Chinook Jargon, [spúˑl] 'spoon' < English (NP)), and in native words: [túˑxʷ] 'nine', [túˑxʷə̌sə̌] 'ninety', [sʔúˑmet] 'lazy', [pə̌lyúˑs] - [pə̌lyúˑs] 'bark (of a tree)', [qúˑlqʷ1] 'all talking'.

1.2.17. /o/ always appears as upper-mid back rounded [o] and is somewhat more frequent than /u/ (about 45 per 2000 words). /əw/ is phonetically distinct from /o/ and /ow/ in most cases, although the three sometimes alternate morphophonemically. ES phonemicized [o] as /əw/ for the Cowichan, Musqueam and Chilliwack dialects of Halkomelem and [oˑ] as /əwˑ/ for the Chilliwack dialect. This may work reasonably
well for Cowichan and Musqueam where [oː] is very rare, but it is awkward for Chilliwack where [o] and [ɔː] are more common and well-established. Chilliwack seems to have been influenced in this regard (see Introduction) by the Nooksack language, which has a very prominent /o/ (see Amoss 1961). Phonemicization of [o] as /əw/ and [ɔː] as /əwː/ would 1.) obscure the phonetic differences between [əw], [Uw], [o] and [əw], 2.) make more difficult the statement of the phonemics of [U] before w, of [l] and [w] after w, and of delabialization of labialized consonants before rounded vowels, and 3.) make more difficult the statement of root shapes (canonic shapes). In addition, the comparison of Musqueam and Cowichan cognates shows that the use of /əw, əwː/ for Chilliwack would add a /w/ not present in words in the other dialects (for example, ES has Cowichan and Musqueam /ɡʷi·nʔ/, Chilliwack /ɡʷəwəl/[ɡʷəl] 'ear'; Cowichan /há·nʔ/, Musqueam /héwʔ/[hənʔ], Chilliwack /həw·λeys/(Amy Cooper has [həliye]) 'humpback salmon'; Cowichan /wəlʔ/[wəlʔ], Musqueam /wí·lʔ/, Chilliwack /wəw·l/ (Amy Cooper has [wəl]) 'tule').

Most cases of /o/ are adjacent to labial or labialized consonants, although some are not. Examples of /o/:

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/ə/ only occurs stressed and always adjacent to labial or labialized consonants or [l]. Besides the examples above, the following can be cited: [çəwəjip] 'cottonwood', [tə̃'kə̃ltə'iyə̃p] 'tall Oregon grape', [səWə̃sən] 'soapberry; Indian ice cream', [skə̃'kə̃lmUxW] 'blackberry', [lə̃kə̃mUxW] 'different tribe, tribe', [qə̃Wə̃wə̃] 'ocean-going canoe'.

1.2.18. /a/ has two allophones before length, [o] (lower-mid back rounded) and [a] (low back unrounded). [o] appears infrequently in the speech of AC (only in a dozen words attested so far), and in those environments [a] is always an acceptable alternate pronunciation. [o] appears more frequently in the speech of BJ (28 words out of 522 attested) but appears only once ([qə̃Wə̃ləq] 'back (human)') in the 195 words from DM; in the speech of BJ [a] is always an acceptable alternate.

For AC, /a/ \rightarrow [o] F [a]: C^W\_\*C^V\_\*X, C\_\*C^N, l\_\*s

\rightarrow [a]\_\*X

\rightarrow [a]: elsewhere

(C \# any consonant, C^W = labialized consonants, C^V\_\*X = any consonant but y or x)
This means that [o] only occurs preceding length, under primary stress (including [^]) and adjacent to a labialized consonant (length may intervene) or l^•s. And when [o] occurs in this environment it varies freely with [a] but appears only 30 percent of the time. Examples: [k'wô•k'wes] - k'wá•k'wes] 'hot, be hot'. [sqwâ•ls] - [sqwâ•ls] 'something to boil in', ['ô'qâ•les] - ['ô'qâ•les] (and ô probably also - á•) 'back (of a person)', [skwâ•wiô] - [skwâ•wiô] 'sturgeon', [lâ•s] - [lâ•s] 'to be fat'. Also note the y-glide before [x], as in -[Ôa'x] 'me (verb object)'; I have omitted this glide in phonetic citations throughout.

For BJ /a/ \(\rightarrow [o] \tilde{x} [a]; (c^w, c_{lab}, c_{pv}) \rightarrow c^{-\cdot}y^{-\cdot}x, c^\cdot\cdot(c^w, c_{lab}, c_{pv}), l^{-\cdot}\cdot\theta \rightarrow [a'y]: \tilde{x}\tilde{x}\tilde{x} \rightarrow [a]: \text{elsewhere}

(c_{lab} = labial consonants, c_{pv} = postvelar consonants)

For BJ then, [o] only occurs preceding length, under primary stress and either adjacent to labialized, labial or postvelar consonants or l\^•\theta. [o] occurs in this expanded environment in 30 out of 70 cases of /a/ (43 percent), while [a] occurs in the remaining 40 cases. [o] thus is more frequent in BJ's speech than in AC's speech. Examples from BJ: [k'wô•k'wes] 'warm, hot, be hot', [xô•x'ilâ•lp] 'a little willow tree; Yale, B.C.', [t'ô•q(')ô] 'cough', [spô•l] 'crow', [ô'pël] 'ten', [hamô•] 'pigeon', [skwô•wiô] 'sturgeon', [qô•] 'water', [sp'ô•q'es] 'bald-eagle', [xô•ës]
'lake', [q'q'q'ëy] 'be sick; dying', [lã'ël] 'big trough (for cooking), (wooden) dish'. All cases of [o] vary with [a] here.

The speech of AC seems to occupy a middle ground between the speech of DM and that of BJ regarding the frequency and privileges of occurrence of [o]. It seems natural enough that labialized consonants might contribute some rounding to [a] in the speech of AC and BJ, yielding [o].

Examples of [a] in the speech of AC include:

'perhaps; I don't know', [s̓cowát] - [s̓cowát] 'know how to, good at'.

1.2.19. The Chilliwack dialect of Halkomelem has three degrees of phonemic pitched stress: /'/' primary or high-pitch stress, /"/ secondary or mid-pitch stress, and (unmarked) low-pitch unstressed.

/"/ has several allophones, conditioned by length (in the syllable in question) and by stress (on the other syllables within the word):

/"/ → [‘*5], loud stress with high and level pitch which seems to be about the musical interval of a sixth above the unstressed low pitch. This allophone occurs only on short vowels immediately preceding a weakened word boundary⁴; the short vowel is always the end of a monosyllable (demonstratives and particles which otherwise occur unstressed, the only words which can occur unstressed). The environment can be stated as over the vowel in $$(C)CV(\#), where (\#) stands for weakened word boundary and (C) is an optional consonant.

/"/ → [‘*], loud stress with high falling pitch

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⁴ Weakened word boundary, (\#), is characterized by a very faint pause or no pause at all; it usually follows vowel allophones [I], [U] and [i], which cannot otherwise occur word-finally. For example, [tI’6(\#)] and [tI(\#)] 'the (present, visible, masculine or unmarked sex)' frequently precede nouns beginning with [s]-, the nominalizing prefix; [I] occurs in the environment t__s but not in the environment t__\#; if we consider the weak phonetic nature of (\#), then [tI’6(\#)s] and [tI(\#)s] become explainable.
which starts about the musical interval of a fifth above
unstressed low pitch and falls to low pitch. This allophone
occurs on long vowels in word-final syllables, and in free
variation with ['] (see below) on the last long vowel in a
word in non-final syllables.

/ʃ/ → ['], loud stress with high level pitch varying
between about a fifth and a fourth above low pitch; this
allophone occurs elsewhere (wherever ['ʃ] and ['] do not).
['] can occur more than once within a word. ['ʃ] has its
pitch a fourth above low pitch when following ['ʃ]; how-
ever, usually the downstepping\(^5\) is so strong that /ʃ/ → /ʃ/
(['ʃ] after ['ʃ])(see Morphophonemics).

Examples of /ʃ/ include: [liʃtʃ(ʃ)sq'ʃp] 'at the
gathering', [leʃcɬeʃeʃeʃeʃ(ʃ)sɬəli] 'Where is the woman?',
[tʃ(ʃ)lapləs] 'the board', [liʃstʃʃtʃʃtʃ(ʃ)təmUx]\(^\text{W}\) 'Is
the land cleared?'; [tʃtəmʃwəʃd(ʃ)ɬiɬt] 'When did you
make it?!'; [Wʃəy] 'bluejay', [sqemə] '(female) breast;
milk', [ʃiʃi] 'be afraid, scared', [ʃət] 'to vomit',
[ʃpəθ] 'black bear', [xəyəmə] 'ant', [pʃkW]\(^\text{W}\) 'barbecue
sticks, split roasting sticks (for cooking salmon)',
[ʃəmət] - [ʃəmət] 'hear s-th', [ʃəyIluW]\(^\text{W}\) (BJ) -
[ʃəyIleX]\(^\text{W}\) (AC) 'alive'; [yɬiʃ] - [yɬiʃ] 'tooth,
teeth', [sq'emɬ] 'canoe paddle', plus numerous examples
already cited of words with single [''].

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5. See the articles listed on the following page
for a discussion of downstepping and tonal systems:
William E. Welmers: "Tonemics, Morphotonomics, and
Tonal Morphemes," in General Linguistics, vol. 4, no. 1;
pp. 1-9, University of Kentucky (1959), and the follow-
ing: J.M. Stewart: "The Typology of the Twi Tone System"
(pp. 1-27), Paul Schachter: "Some Comments on J.M. Stew-
art's 'The Typology of the Twi Tone System'" (pp. 28-42),
J.M. Stewart: "Reply" (pp. 43-48), and William E. Welmers:
"A Further Note on the Typology of Tonal Structures"
(pp. 49-67), all in Bulletin of the Institute of African
1.2.20. `/\`/ has no complex allophony; it is level mid pitch (about a third above unstressed low pitch) with loudness ranging from moderate to loud. It is transcribed phonetically [\`\']. More than one [\`\'] can appear within a word, and `/\`/ can be flanked by `/\`, `/\`/ or unstressed syllables. ES reports some words with `/\`/ as the only stress while JH does not; I find words with only `/\`/ stress in sentences where morphophonemic downstepping has changed the stress from its usual citation form `/\`. But I have also found a few words with `/\`/ as the only stress in citation forms. ES gives the following words with `/\`/ stress only: `/t`å`-xW`/ 'white fir', `/kV`ëm`lèxW`/ 'root', `/spi\l/ 'ice', `/tèm`èxW`/ 'earth', `/sç`i`m/ 'berry', `/zë`m/ 'cry', `/mèq/ 'snow', `/seley`/ '"lay" spirit power', `/sx`W`ati`-xW`/ 'helldiver', and `/xV`à`-yse\m/ 'ant'.

JH has only `/t`å`xW`/ 'white fir' and `/xèyse\m/ 'ant' among these words. My recordings of these words are:

`/kV`ëm`lèxW`/ 'root', `/spi\H/ 'ice', `/tèm`èxW`/ 'earth', `/sç`i`m/ 'berry', `/zë`m/ 'cry, weep', `/mèq/ (AO) - `/mèq/ (BJ) 'snow (on the ground)', `/sèliy\N/ 'ordinary) dream, vision (seen by an average person)', `/sx`W`ati`-xW`/ (BJ) 'helldiver, grebe', `/xV`è`yse\m/ 'ant'.

While my recordings only confirm (partially) two of the ES words with `/\`/ stress, I have a few examples myself stressed only with `/\`: `/sc`èl`èxW`/ 'eddy', `/q`W`èq`W`ëy\l/s/ 'orange color' - `/q`W`ëq`W`ëy\l/s/ 'orange (fruit)(and color?)',

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/θ̚ew̚li/ (BJ) - /θ̚ew̚li/ (AC) 'Soowahlie (place name)',
/w̚lyəľes/ - /w̚lyəľes/ - /w̚lyəľes/ 'tomorrow', /q̚əľes/
(prompted, AC) - /q̚əľes/ (BJ), ES /q̚əľes/, JH /q̚əľes/
'whale', and /q̚əľ/ 'speak, talk'.

Another difference between the present grammar and
ES and JH is our frequent disagreement with stress patterns
involving /ˈ/. ES might have ' on one word which JH cites
as " and I have as '"; another example might show ES '",
JH '", BG '", or ES '", JH '" BG '". It seems likely that
at least some of these differences are idiolectal or free
variation.

Examples of /ˈ/ besides those already cited, include:
[m̚əmIsəľ] 'calf', [ʔi·ʔeˈx̚i·ľ] 'small, little',
[tθ̚eˈx̚iľem] 'wash one's feet', [iâ·q̚əθ̚əxIs] 'he slapped
me', [ʔə·θ̚əľem] 'I was called', [pi·w̚ətəľəmɔ] 'you folks
will get frozen'.

Unmarked low unstressed syllables have a pitch level of
one, relative to [ˈ] (3), [ɨ] (4,5) and [ɔ] (6). Many
examples have already been given.
1.2.21. Some minimal pairs:

1.) [k’æ̝ ə̝ l] 'to hide'
   [q’æ̝ ə̝ l] 'mosquito'
   [q’ə̝ l] 'to steal'
   [q’ə̝ l] 'believing'
   [q’æ̝ ə̝ l] 'to speak'

2.) [p’èk’ə] 'float, come to the surface'
   [p’èq’ə] 'white'

3.) [t’æ̝ q’ə] 'it broke (of rope)'
   [t’èk’ə] 'get muddy' (ə - U)

4.) [k’æ̝ s] 'demonstr. + you (sg.)'
   [k’æ̝ s] 'burned (of a person)'

5.) [k’ə̝] 'the (near, invisible)'
   [k’æ̝] 'the (far/invisible)'

6.) [m’eq’ə] 'to burst'
   [m’øk’ə] 'all'
   [m’èk’ə] 'stout'
   [m’øq’ə] 'filled with food'
   [m’øq’ə] 'bird'
   [wøq’ə] 'drowned, drift face down'

7.) [q’æ̝ l] 'cooked, ripened'
   [q’ə̝ l] 'bad'

8.) [x’æ̝] 'turn into', 'hungry'
   [x’æ̝] 'get a hole'
   [q’ø] 'or'
   [k’æ̝] 'your (sg.)'
   [k’æ̝] 'your (sg.)'

[x’æ̝] 'get somewhere, arrive'
[øe] 'the (near, visible, female)'
[øe] 'to, at (in "at a dance")'
[k’e] 'by (instrumental preposition used with passive)'
[te] 'the (present, visible)'
[me] 'evidently'
[we] 'if; when'
[le] '3rd person syntactic past marker'
9.) [tˈa(·)tˈeːm] 'jumping flea'  
[tˈa(·)tˈeːm] 'chilled'
10.) [spˈeːθ] 'black bear'  
[spˈeːθ] 'Indian currant'
11.) [tˈat] 'taste; try'  
[tˈat] - [tˈat] 'mother (speaker's own)'  
[tˈat] 'chew s-th'
12.) [aˈ1] 'difficult'  
[li] 'be there; to, at'
13.) [aˈiθIt] 'we're difficult'  
[aˈiθIt] 'sneak up to s-o'  
[aˈiθIt] 'cut s-th'
14.) [sˈxeˈle] 'leg, foot'  
[sˈxeˈle] 'penis' (BJ)
15.) [xˈeˈfIt] 'what is it?'  
[xˈeˈfIt] 'wedge'
16.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'seagull' (BJ)
17.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'to hunt'
18.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'wild carrot, carrot'
19.) [tˈaˈyeq] 'jealous'
[ʔˈeˈwə] 'lazy'
20.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'chickadee'
[ʔˈeˈwə] 'louse'
21.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'cherry, 3rd person syntactic past marker'
22.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'go (do s-th)!'
23.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'ear'
24.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'overripe'
25.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'all talking'
26.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'mid-, half-
27.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'nine'
28.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'ten'
29.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'maggot' (BJ)
30.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'walk'
31.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'walking'
32.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'dance'
33.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'dancing'
34.) [ʔˈeˈwə] 'fun, pleasant'
28.) [ʔéy] 'be good'
    [ʔé:y] 'keep going'
29.) [k'welō·ws] 'his skin,
    her skin, its hide'
    [p'elyû·ws] 'bark (of tree)'
30.) [q'â·w] 'howling'
    [q'âwe] '(walking) cane'
31.) [læx'âča] 'spits'
    [læx'âča] 'spitting'
32.) [k'wúglamégIl] 'I see you'
    [k'wúglâ·mêt] 'you were seen'
CHAPTER 2. MORPHOPHONEMICS

2.0. Introduction. Since morphophonemics is the prediction of the alternations of phonemes from their phonemic and morphemic environments, it seems appropriate to begin this chapter with phonotactics, which describes and predicts phoneme distributions and clusters from the phonemic environment.

2.1. Phonotactics. There are no clusters of vowels and no vowel-initial words in Chilliwack Hal-komelem. All vowel phonemes can occur medially and finally in a word. All consonant phonemes can occur initially and intervocalically, and all but /h/ can occur finally (though /ʔ/ is so far attested finally only in one word, /ʔɛ·ʔ/ 'bowel movement' which could well be phonologically deviant). Borrowed phonemes /k/ and /k'/ are omitted in the present treatment of phonotactics because their distribution depends on the phonotactics of the language from which they are taken.

Consonant clusters of two and three members occur initially, medially, and finally; four-consonant clusters occur only medially and finally. DM had an idiolect which tolerated many more initial consonant clusters than the speech of AC. Thus Harris (1966) has phonotactics which differ from mine in this regard. The present treatment is based mainly on the speech of AC but includes all material I have from DM, BJ,
NP, CT, etc.

Consonant clusters (initial, medial, or final), so far attested, do not begin with glottal phonemes /ʔ, h/ nor with /p'/. I suspect the absence of /p'/ is accidental and that it may be found beginning consonant clusters in words not yet elicited. Initial consonant clusters cannot begin with sonorants (/m, l, y, w/) or glottals (/ʔ, h/), and final consonant clusters cannot end with sonorants or glottals. Other features common to clusters in more than one position will be summarized at the end of this section (2.1.).

#CC. In initial position /s/ is attested before all consonants but /s/. Only a few geminates occur initially (re-articulated): /q'q'/(DM) and /cc/([ɕɕ]). There is only one case of an initial glottalized consonant followed by its plain equivalent (/c’c/[ɕ’ɕ]) (DM), with no case of the reverse. Spirants /s/ and /x’w/ are the only initial consonants that can precede glottal consonants (/ʔ/ and /h/). Also no cases were found of an initial consonant followed by its labialized version or vice versa. Few consonants are found before glottalized consonants: /s/ or /x’w/ precedes /k’y/, /c/ precedes /θ’/, /θ, s, c’/ precede /k’y/, /s, c, c’, θ, θ’, ʃ, x’/, /q’/ precede /q’/, and /s, t’, c’, ʃ/ precede /q’w/. Except for /t’/ and /q’/, C₁ is either a spirant or an affricate when C₂ is glottal-
ized. Only /s/ precedes glottalized consonants other than /χ', θ', k'w', q', q'w'. C₂ is most often /s/, /z/ or /q'/, and it can be a sonorant or a glottal as well as anything else (a stop, spirant or affricate). ["Most often" here means appearing in more different clusters than other consonants.] C₁ is most often /s/ and next most often /c, t, x'w/ or /c'/; other consonants are less frequent as C₁. Other than the patterns operating to limit the combinations of consonants in initial two-consonant clusters.

#CCC. The initial three-consonant clusters attested (all across morpheme boundaries) are:
/s(ts, t?, t'x, k'w', k'wx', q'm, q'x, θx, ęż'q')/(AC)
and /stq/(DM), /sq'wq', sθq/(CT); /sx'w(? , θ, m, l, w)/(AC) and /sx'w(t, θ', c, q'w, q', h)/(DM), /sx'w(t, θ', h)/(CT). C₁ must be /s/. C₂ is often /x'w/ but can also be a number of other spirants and stops. C₂ is not a sonorant, labial, glottal or sibilant; there are also no examples of /x'y, x, x'w/ as C₂; the other gaps seem accidental (no /θ', χ', q/ or /q'w/ as C₂). C₃ can be anything that C₂ is not (sonorant, labial, glottal, sibilant, /x'y, x/ and probably /x'w/, and /θ'/ and /g/ as well. In addition C₃ can also be /t, q', q'w, θ/. DM even has an /h/ as C₃ in #CCC. The principle seems to be for C₁ to be /s/ and C₂ and C₃ to be mem-
bers of nearly mutually exclusive sets and as dissimilar to each other as possible. There is also an avoidance of glottalized consonants in $C_1$ position and of glottals, labials and /y/ in $C_1$ or $C_2$.

---CC---. Medial two-consonant clusters do not begin with /p', ?, b/ but begin with all others and can end with any consonant. Sonorants (/m, l, w, y/) can occur before any consonant, and /s/ and /l/ can occur before the next largest number of consonants (13 and 12 respectively). All or most consonants can occur before /t, c, l/, and many can occur before /θ, q/ and /s/ (14, 13, and 11 respectively). Where $C_2$ is a glottal, $C_1$ can be /s/ or /m/; it also can be /l/ or /c/ if the glottal $C_2$ is /ʔ/. $C_2$ can also be a sonorant, among other things: Length /·/ also appears as $C_2$ after sonorants and /s, θ, t, q/. Whenever a medial geminate might be produced by affixation, a rule converts the second member to length /·/; this rule only operates intervocalically. When $C_2$ is glottalized, $C_1$ is a spirant, sonorant, or, rarely, a stop (/p, kʷ, qʷ/).

There are two cases of a glottalized consonant followed by its plain version, /c'c/ and /q'q/(CT) (as in /hɔc'ces/ 'cut one's hand' and /sʰeq'qel/ 'way upriver' (CT)). There are no cases of the reverse, a plain consonant followed by its glottalized version. There is one case of a labialized consonant being followed
by its plain version, /qʷq/ (as in /xʷeqʷqɛ·yɛm/
'stick something down one's throat'). There are no
cases of the reverse unless one considers /xʷ/ the
plain version of /xʷ/ (/x⁾fx⁵x⁰wlɛwe/ 'fish air blad-
der' SP, HP).

--CCC--. Medial three-consonant clusters almost
all occur over morpheme boundaries. Those attested so
far are: /l(s(t,θ,c,1,x⁵)), q(t,c,1), x⁵(c,t), x⁰(c,1),
θ(t,θ), t½, c'θ); y(s(t,θ,c), t(x⁵,1), q⁰t, x⁰t,
1(t,x), x(θ,t), 1θ); x⁰(s½,ṣt,ṣx⁰), m(st,t½,sc), w(tx⁰,
q't,θc), t(sθ,ṣt,ṣq⁰), 1(st,çx⁰), p(sc,ïx), x⁵(st,sc),
s(tw,tx⁰), k⁰t½ and /qst/(DM) and /k⁰st/(CT). The
pattern here is that C₁ can be a sonorant (/m,1,y,w/),
stop (/p,t,k⁰,k⁰,q/) or spirant (/s,ï,x⁵,x⁰/) but
most often is /l/ or /y/. C₂ is most often /s/ or /t/
but also /θ,ï,x⁵,x⁰,ç,c',q,q',q⁰,1/(stops, spirants,
or affricates or /l/). C₃ is most often /t,c,θ,ï,x⁵,1/
(similar to the most frequent set for C₂ in --CC--) and
occasionally is /x⁰,x,ç,w/ . C₁ does not include
affricates, glottals, glottalized consonants (except
/k⁰w/), /x/ or /x⁰/. C₂ does not include labials,
glottals, most glottalized consonants (only /c'/ and
/q'/ appear) or /y/. C₃ does not include glottals,
glottalized consonants, labials (except /w/) or /y/.
The avoidance of glottals and glottalized consonants
seems to hold for all three positions, C₁, C₂, and C₃.
The avoidance of labials and /γ/ seems to hold for C₂ and C₃.

-CCC-. Only two four-consonant clusters have been found so far, /yxwtc/ (/'c'ɛ·yxw'tecl/ 'I dry something', /c'ɛ·yxw'tcexw/ 'you dry something', etc.,) and /tstxw/ (/'eọtstxw'os/ 'he/she/it/they said to him/her/it/Them'). Each cluster occurs across morpheme boundaries. These clusters follow the same patterns of occurrence and avoidance for C₁, C₂, and C₃ as above for medial three-consonant clusters. C₄ appears to follow the C₃ pattern of -CCC-.

CC#: Final two-consonant clusters attested so far do not begin or end with /p', t', ʔ, h/, and do not end with sonorants. Probably as a result of chance these clusters also do not begin with /c', x', x'w/ and do not end with /k', q'/. Sonorants, especially /l/ and /γ/, are most frequent as C₁, while /s/ and /t/, then /z/ and /x'w/ are most frequent as C₂. Where C₂ is a consonant other than the four most frequent ones, C₁ is almost always a sonorant. There are no cases of a glottalized or labialized consonant being followed by its plain version word finally. And there are no cases of the reverse, a plain consonant being followed by its glottalized or labialized version. When C₂ is glottalized, C₁ must be either a sonorant or (in one case) /x'w/. There are no final re-articulated
gominates, and $C_2$ can never be length.

$CCC\#$: Final three-member consonant clusters attested (most across morpheme boundaries) are:

$/l(st, x^w t, q s, x^w s), w(t x^w, q^t t), y(x^w t, l t, \theta t, \ddot{z} p), x^w (t s, t \dddot{a}), q^w x^w t, p x t, c x^w t, \dddot{t} c x^w/$. These fit into the pattern for final two-consonant clusters in that $C_1$ is usually a sonorant and $C_2$ fits the $C_2$ pattern for $CC\#$, most often $/t, s, \dddot{a}/$ or $/x^w/$. $C_2$ has fewer restrictions than $C_3$ but includes $/t, s, \dddot{a}, x^w/ (as in C_2 for CC\#)$ as well as $/l, \theta, c, x^w, q, q', x, x^w/$. So in final three-consonant clusters $C_1$ resembles $C_1$ of two-member clusters, $C_2$ resembles an expanded $C_2$ of two-member clusters, and $C_3$ resembles more closely the $C_2$ of two-member clusters. There are no examples of a glottal, a glottalized consonant, or $/x/ or /x^w/$ as $C_1$. There are no examples of a labial, glottal, glottalized consonant (except $/q'/)$ or $/y/ as C_2$. And there are no examples of glottals, glottalized consonants, labials or $/y/ as C_3$. There is an avoidance of glottals and glottalized consonants in all three positions ($C_1, C_2,$ and $C_3$), and there is an avoidance of labials and $/y/$ in $C_2$ and $C_3$.

$CCCC\#$. Only one final four-consonant cluster has been found so far, $/wtx^w s/$. It comes from the combination of two suffixes, $\{-wtx^w\} 'building, room' and $\{-s\} 'third person possessive pronoun' as in
"his (her, their) smokehouse, his fish-smoking building", /cætelewtw's/ 'his (her, their) church', /laemtw's/ 'his (her, their) pub or bar', /xwelmexw'tw's/ 'his (her, their) Indian house', and a number of other examples that could be constructed. This cluster fits the pattern for CCC#, in that C₁ is a sonorant, C₂ is /t/ (as found most often in triple clusters), C₃ is /x/. C₄ fits the pattern for C₃ in final triple clusters since it is /s/. Here too there is an avoidance of glottals and glottalized consonants in all positions and an avoidance of labials and /y/ in the last three positions (C₂, C₃, and C₄).

Summary of the features common to consonant clusters in more than one position. Two- and three-consonant clusters occur initially, medially, and finally; four-consonant clusters occur only medially and finally. No cluster yet attested begins with glottals or /p'/. Initial clusters do not begin and final clusters do not end with sonorants or glottals. Geminates occur only before vowels. Initially, geminates are re-articulated (only two cases occur); medially, C₂ of a geminate is replaced by length (this is a morphophonemic rule); there are also some cases of C₂ being length for historical reasons, with no synchronic affixation being involved; neither length nor geminates can occur word-finally. No clusters are attested with a
glottalized or labialized consonant following its plain counterpart; a glottalized consonant preceding its plain counterpart is rare initially (only /c'c/) and medially (only /c'c/ and /q'q/) and not found finally. A labialized consonant preceding its plain counterpart is rare medially (only /q'wq/) and not found initially or finally. In two-consonant clusters C₂ can be a glottal or sonorant initially or medially but not finally. In medial and final three- and four-consonant clusters there is an avoidance of glottals and glottalized consonants in all positions and of labials and /y/ in all positions but C₁. In initial three-consonant clusters there is an avoidance of glottalized consonants in C₁ and of glottals in C₁ or C₂. In three-consonant clusters C₃ has roughly the same patterns of preference and avoidance as does C₂ in two-consonant clusters (initially: nearly all consonants occur; medially: most often /t, c, θ, l/; finally: most often /t, s, l, xʷ/). In four-consonant clusters C₄ fits within the patterns of preference of C₂ in three-consonant clusters (medially: /t/ most often; finally: /xʷ/ among most frequent). In four-consonant clusters C₄ fits within the patterns of preference of C₃ in three-consonant clusters (medially: /c/ most often; finally: /s/ among the only five possible).
Finally, this section on consonant clusters should be concluded with a disclaimer. Statements about non-occurrence, although based on an extensive corpus, may need adjustment after an extensive dictionary has been compiled and surveyed for clusters. Until that point is reached new clusters will still be turning up (and in fact are). This is quite understandable when one realizes there are 27 consonant phonemes, 702 possible CC clusters and 19,656 possible CCC clusters, each in three positions (initial, medial, and final).
2.2. Syllabic Canon and Roots. Given the possibilities of consonant clusters, a one-syllable word has the shape #(s)(C)CV(·)(C)(C)(C)(s)#. A two-syllable word has the following shape: #(s)(C)CV(·)C(C)(C)CV(·)(C)(C)(C)(C)(s)#. Longer-syllable words can be predicted by adding C(C)(C)(C)V(·) after one of the optional length phonemes for each additional syllable. Syllables can be divided thus:

...CV(·)-CV...
...CVC-CV...
...CVCC-CV... or ...CVC-CCV...
...CVCCC-CV... or ...CVCC-CCV...

There is no clear limit to the number of syllables allowed within a word, however, the longest found so far has nine syllables: /ælˈəliwəməgəməɡelθ/ 'I'll dream about you'.

Stress occurs impartially in open (vowel-final) or closed (consonant-final) syllables. And stress can occur on any syllable (first, second, third, etc., even seventh or eighth) counting from the front or from the end. The statements made about stress in the last two sentences apply also to vowel length and vowel phonemes of all qualities. The only qualifications appear to be the following: words with more than two successive long-voweled syllables are quite rare, words with more than two successive high-pitch stressed syll-
ables are quite rare, words with more than three successive mid-pitch stressed syllables are quite rare, and words with more than four successive unstressed syllables are quite rare. Words are most often stressed on the first or second syllable or on the last, second from last or third from last syllable. Long polysyllabic words are always inflected ones; where both root and inflection are polysyllabic there is a tendency for each to retain its own stress pattern (usually the stress pattern it has in combination with monosyllabic root or affix), but more will be said about this in 2.3.

Root shapes are most often CVC (averaging 53.1% of the words in a large sample of words), then CVCVC (averaging 19.9%), then CVCV (averaging 8.3%), CVCC (7%), CVCCVC (2.8%), CVCVCV (2.5%), CV (1.9% or a little higher) and CVVCVC (1.8%). Remaining types were each found in less than .7% of the words: CVCCVC, CCVC, CVCCV, CVCCVCV, CVVCVCV, CVCVCVC, CVVVCVCCV, CCVCVCVC, CCVC. Some of these rarely found types will probably be eliminated as work proceeds on a dictionary and some of these words and types yield to derivational analysis.

It should also be mentioned that different percentages of root shapes are found if the body of words is limited in different ways, but the relative order
of the root shapes stays about the same. Thus a study of reduplicated words and their unreduplicated versions had CVC in 70\% of the words, CVCVC in 13\%, CVCV in 10\%, and CVCC in about 5\% (other shapes under 2\%); a study of all the examples of ablaut showed CVC in 50.6\% of the words, CVCVC in 17.6\%, CVCV in 6.7\%, and CVCC in 7.4\% (other shapes under 4\%); a study of all names of flora and fauna showed CVC roots in 38.6\% of the words, CVCVC in 29.0\%, CVCV in 8.3\%, CVCC in 8.6\%, and other shapes under 6\%. I believe the averages of these differences, quoted at the beginning of the last paragraph, are representative of the language. The average for CV might be higher because a number of demonstratives have CV root shapes, and demonstratives were the only word class largely absent from the three sets of words studied.
2.3. Vowel, Length, and Stress Alternations.

2.3.0. Introduction. One of the consequences of the development of length in the upriver dialects of Halkomelem is the increase in the number of types of ablaut. This increase is due to the fact that simple vowels can now alternate with long vowels as well as with other simple vowels; long vowels can also alternate with each other. Since ablaut is affected by stress (for example, long vowels cannot appear unstressed) and alternations of stress often serve the same functions as ablaut (for example, aspect and derivation), it seems best to treat ablaut and stress together in this section. Most stress rules precede the ablaut rules.

2.3.1. Stress Assignment in Affixing. In the rules to follow, $S$ represents an unstressed syllable, $\overset{\cdot}{S}$ a mid-stressed syllable, and $\overset{\cdot\cdot}{S}$ a high-stressed syllable.

1. Before an unstressed or mid-stressed suffix ($-S$, $-SS$, $-SSS$, $\overset{\cdot}{S}$, $\overset{\cdot\cdot}{S}$) the stress pattern of the stem (root plus derivational affixes if any) remains unchanged, except in cases of $\overset{\cdot}{e}l \rightarrow iy / \_\_eip$ where stress is attracted to the /iy/. Prefixes and infixes, unstressed or mid-stressed, do not alter the stress pattern of the stem.

2. Prefixes and infixes when high-stressed attract
the stress of the root (i.e. the root becomes unstressed); however, in a few cases root stress is retained when high stress becomes mid stress on long root vowels.

.3. \( \hat{S} \rightarrow S / \_\hat{S} \ldots, -SS(S) \)
   \( \rightarrow \hat{S} / \_\_SS \)

.4. \( \hat{SS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_\_SS(S), -SSS \)
   \( \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( \hat{SS} \) and \( \hat{SS} / \_\hat{S}(S) \)
   \( \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( \hat{SS} \) and \( SS / \_\hat{S} \)

.5. \( \hat{SS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\hat{S}(SS) \)
   \( \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( SS / \_\_\_\_\_\_\_SS, -SS \)
   \( \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_SS \)

.6. \( \hat{SS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\hat{S} \) (one example)
   \( \rightarrow \hat{SS} / \_\_\_\_SS, -SSS \)

.7. \( \hat{SSS} \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( \hat{SSS} / \_\_\hat{S} \)
   \( \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( SS / \_\hat{S} \)

.8. \( \hat{SSS} \rightarrow SS \) predominately, with some \( SS / \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_SS \)
   \( \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_SS \)

.9. \( \hat{SSS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\hat{S} \)

.10. \( \hat{SSS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_\_SS \)

.11. \( \hat{SSSS} \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_SS \)
    \( \rightarrow SS / \_\_\_\_\_\_\_SS \)

.12. When suffixes are added after stressed suffixes, they do not modify the preceding stem stress pattern.

.13. No examples were found of stressed affixes attached to stems of the following shapes: \( S, SS, SSS, S\hat{S}, S\hat{SS}, \hat{SS}, \hat{SSS}, S\_\_\_\_\_SS, \hat{SSS}, S\_\_\_\_\_SS \). Cases of unstressed suffixes are attested.
after some of these stems (for example, S-S), but, as stated, unstressed suffixes do not alter the stress pattern of the stem. No examples were found of single suffixes of the following shapes: -SSS, -SSS, -SSS, or suffixes of greater than three syllables.

2.3.2. Types of Ablaut. Direction of Change.

Conditioning of Change. Given the eleven varieties of root vowels, /i/, i, e, e, a, u, o, o/, there are 110 possible varieties of vowel change. So far only 31 types have been attested:

\[
\begin{align*}
&i \rightarrow i^* \quad \text{cont., pl.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow a \quad \text{cont., deriv.} \\
&i \rightarrow e \quad \text{deriv.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow a^* \quad \text{deriv.} \\
&i \rightarrow e^* \quad \text{cont., pl.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow u^* \quad \text{pl., cont., deriv.} \\
&i \rightarrow a \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow i^* \quad \text{cont., deriv., recip., cont.} \\
&i \rightarrow a^* \quad \text{deriv.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow e \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} \\
&i^* \rightarrow e^* \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow e^* y \quad \text{cont., pl.} \\
&i^* \rightarrow a \quad \text{deriv.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow e \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} \\
&e \rightarrow i^* \quad \text{cont.} & &\varepsilon \rightarrow a^* \quad \text{cont., deriv.} \\
&e \rightarrow e^* \quad \text{cont.} & &a \rightarrow e^* \quad \text{cont.} \\
&e \rightarrow e \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} & &a \rightarrow e \quad \text{deriv.} \\
&\varepsilon y \rightarrow e \quad \text{deriv.} & &a \rightarrow o \quad \text{deriv.} \\
&e \rightarrow a \quad \text{cont., deriv.} & &a^* \rightarrow \varepsilon \quad \text{cont.} \\
&e \rightarrow a^* \quad \text{cont., deriv.} & &a^* \rightarrow e \quad \text{deriv.} \\
&e \rightarrow i^* \quad \text{cont.} & &o \rightarrow i \quad \text{cont., deriv.} \\
&e \rightarrow o \quad \text{cont., pl., deriv.} & &
\end{align*}
\]
The direction of ablaut vowel change is from base-form vowel to derived- or inflected-form vowel. In cases of derivation where only derived forms are attested, it is sometimes difficult to be sure of the base form. In cases of number and aspect, the singular and non-continuative largely provide the base forms, since the plural and continuative forms are the marked forms, inflected with affixes when they are not formed with ablaut or stress shifting alone. In many cases, nominalized forms seem to contain a continuative element of meaning; in these cases the non-continuative verb form provides the base form.

Ablaut is used to signify 'continuative' (53 examples), 'plural' (12 examples), and, most frequently of all, figures in word derivation (over 148 examples). It is found both within roots and within affixes. It can even co-occur with reduplication or plural infixes within the word. In cases of word derivation it is sometimes conditioned (set in motion) by specific suffixes. It is also sometimes conditioned by stress alternation, and it sometimes causes stress alternation. With this background, some further stress rules can be given with examples, as well as some rules for vowel deletion and length deletion.
2.3.3. Stress Alternation, Vowel and Length

Deletion, Continuatives.

2.3.3.1. V -→ V / R (length after vowel is dropped before reduplication type one). In the following examples, forms to the left of the colon show the base form; forms to the right show the results of the rule. All forms are phonemic unless noted.

1. sf'le 'grandparent': sf'le 'grandma'
2. sp'l'w 'ice': sp'ow 'frozen'
3. hl'c'et 'cut s-th': sl'c'el 'a saw'
4. x'f'pet 'carve s-th': x'f'pels 'a plane'
5. c'k'f'm 'red': c'k'w'm 'red'
6. hl'c'owtx'im 'visit': hl'c'owtx'im 'visiting'
7. ml'yt 'help s-o': ml'yet 'helping s-o'
8. t'ey 'to canoe-race': t'ey 'canoe racing'
9. t'c'l 'go out of sight (of the sun or a person, etc.)':
   st't't'al 'shade (of a tree, etc.)'
10. hl'w 'run away': hl'w 'running away'
11. hl'q'et's 's-o lays s-th (on s-th)': hl'q'el'm
   'it was laying on s-th'
12. x'k'w'em 'bathe': x'k'w'em 'bathing'
13. t'aq'w'em 'to cough': t'aq'w'em 'coughing'
14. q'ay 'dead': q'ey 'sick, dying'
15. p'yt 'bend s-th': sp'iy 'crooked, bent'
16. t'a'l 'go down to the river': st'a'l 'river':
   st't'talo 'creek'
17. tā·lēst 'wonder': tatī·lēst (/tā-te-l-ī-l-ēst//) 'wondering', tatī·lt 'learn, understand (s-th)', tatēl(·)ā·mēt 'understanding'

18. pā·t 'blow': spāpētes 'Katz riverbank (place name) meaning (wind) blowing on the face (of the bank))'

2.3;3.2. #SS... → #SS... 'continuative' (S is syllable as in 2.3.1). Examples:

19. lexwēnē 'spit': lexwēlē 'spitting'

20. kēwxēs·t 'count s-th': kēwxēs·tēs 'he's counting s-th'

21. cētēm 'crawl': cētem 'crawling'

22. kēwēls '(dog) barks': kēwēls 'barking'

23. cēkēm 'jump': cēkēm 'jumping'

24. ?emēt 'sit down': ?ā·(?emēt 'sitting down'

25. ēlēqi 'soak, rehydrate': ēlēqi 'soaking'

26. kēlēwxw 'stopped; at home': kēlēwxw 'stop(ping)'

27. θ'ēxwāt 'wash s-th', θ'ēxwā·sēm 'wash one's face', θ'ēxwā·lēm 'wash one's feet', θ'ēxwē·sēm 'wash one's (your?) hands': θ'ēxwēsēm 'washing one's face', θ'ēxwelwetem 'washing one's clothes', sxwēθ'ēxwēsēm 'wash basin, something to wash one's face in'

28. θq'ēt 'spear a fish': θēq'ēl 'spearing a fish'

29. ptē·met 'ask s-o': ptē·met 'asking s-o'

30. călēxwēm 'bleed': călēxwēm 'bleeding' (xw·xw)

31. liyēm 'laugh': liyēm 'laughing', slīyēm 'a laugh'
but beside this there is also the competing sets, léyém 'laugh' with léyléyém 'laughing', and lfyléyém 'laughing'.

32. cséθəm 'you were told' (< //əs-ɛt//); cséθəm 'being told'

33. øiyəcət 'make s-th for s-o'; øiyəcət 'making s-th for s-o'

34. xʷɛθɛləm 'get cloudy'; sxʷɛθɛl 'clouds'

35. skiyəxəts 'what he did'; skʷɛ·yxəm 'doings, things to be doing'

36. ɬetqʷəls 'boil'; ɬátqʷəm 'is boiling, (being boiled)'

2.3.3.3. #SS → #S 'continuative', and SS → SS derivational before {-tel} 'device' and sporadically before some other suffixes. Examples:

37. k'ɛxⱫtəm 'diarrhea'; k'ɛxⱫtəm 'continuing diarrhea'

38. kʷesuyəl 'throw out a drift net'; kʷse·yəl 'drift-netting down the river'

39. sqwəlxⱫəm 'dry snow that can drift'; sqwəlxⱫəm 'dry snow drifting in'

40. //ə-wəl 'legs', -wəl 'canoe', -tel 'device'/: əxəlwəitel 'thwarts, crosspieces in a canoe'

41. k'əlxⱫəl 'spring salmon (generic)'; k'əlxⱫəltəl 'spring salmon net', k'əlxⱫələwəl 'jack spring (salmon) with black nose'
42. /yəm 'wide strip', -ɛ·wəs 'paddle', -təl//:
   yəm̕wəstəl 'wide cedar root strips for baskets'
43. /t'əl 'shade, disappear behind', -əs 'face',
   -təl//: t'ələstəl 'blinds, window shades, blind-
ers'
44. əpələs 'tenth moon': əpələstəl 'July, tenth
   moon' (the Upper Stalo new year begins in Oct-
er)
45. /-əl(ə)qs// 'nose, on the nose': sxʷəqʷələqstəl
   'nose-ring'
46. t'ələqʷəm 'warm': t'ələqʷtəl 'Indian name of Old
   Jack (lit. 'something that would be warm')
47. xʷələmqʷ 'Indian': xʷələmqʷəl 'Indian language',
   sxʷələmqʷəl 'in the Indian way'
48. sqeyəx 'mink (boaster)': sqeyəxəxə 'pet name of
   Mink (little boaster)'
49. təməɬ 'red ochre, red paint': təməɬəpəm 'large
   red-headed woodpecker' (lit. 'red paint on back
   of head or neck')

2.3.3.4. \( C_1 V C_2 \rightarrow C_1 C_2 /#(C-)\)~S~...

This rule is sometimes optional in slow speech but
approaches the obligatory in more rapid speech.

Examples:
50. səʔəm 'bone': sə'miːwəl 'core, pith, seed, nut,
   center of rock, etc.'
51. c'k'wəx̣ 'number': k'wəx̣əm 'count', k'wəx̣ət
   'count s-th'
52. हेळ्च् 'three': हेळ्च्को 'three people', हेळ्च्को 'three times', हेळ्च्को 'three trees', हेळ्च्को 'thirty'

53. इग्ल् - इग्ल् 'wide', इग्ल् 'five' (lit. 'wide hand'), इग्ल् 'fifty':
इग्ल् 'five people', इग्ल् 'five trees',
इग्ल् 'five houses', इग्ल् 'five canoes', इग्ल् 'five fruit, five round things (rocks, balls, etc.)',
इग्ल् 'five garments', इग्ल् 'five canoe paddles', इग्ल् 'five pants'

54. सत्य 'fork (in a tree, a river, etc.)': सत्य 'six' and all its derivative or inflected forms

55. सत्य 'deep': (स)प्रा 'shirt, bra'

56. तात्य 'Saturday': तात्य 'cut in half, split (of rope)'

57. सत्य 'woods': सत्य 'go through the woods'

58. सत्य 'twenty': सत्य 'twenty people'

59. सत्य 'spill, tip over (of canoe)': उत्त यु 'drift-wood' (lit. tipped over wood and bark)

60. ट्यात्य 'spear a fish'

61. ट्यात्य 'disappear': ट्यात्य 'concealed s-th'

62. ट्यात्य 'stinking': ट्यात्य 'smell oneself repeatedly stink, bad smell (of spoiled meat)'

63. ट्यात्य 'being told': ट्यात्य 'you were told'
64. c'f:sem 'grow, grow up': c'sf:mtes 's-o raised s-o, s-o let s-o grow up'
65. θ'əx w 'wash': θ'əxə:sem - θ'əxə:sem 'wash ones face'
66. χəl 'hurt, ache': χəlm - χəλm 'tired'
67. k'wəq'wet 'hit s-o with club or stick-like object', k'wəq'w'ces 'red huckleberry picked by clubbing on the hand', k'wəq'w'lec'tel 'axe' (Chehalis dialect): (s)k'wəq'wém 'hatchet', k'wəq'w'lec 'hit in the rump (with a stick)', k'wəq'w'ales 'hit in the eye(lid)', k'wəq'w'olq'wet 'hit s-o in the head', k'wəq'w'elif'yə 'hit on the ear', k'wəq'w'iles 'hit on the chest'
68. k'c'et 'cut s-th, cut s-o': k'c'olq'sel 'cut the tip of the nose', k'c'a:yəel 'cut on the mouth'
69. c'eləq w 'poke': c'q'eləp 'spruce tree'
70. c'mət 'bite into s-th': c'mxə:yəel 'chin, jaw'
71. steq'tet 'door': təqet 'close s-th'

2.3.3.5. \( C_1 V C_2 \rightarrow C_1 C_2 / V(C) \) –S...
Examples are less common of this rule than of 2.3.3.4.
72. sc'eləx w 'eddy': sc'eləx'eyeq w (ε - i) 'Chili-wack'
73. səx w 'grass': səx'eyəl 'short grass'
74. skwətx w 'inside': kwətx'ləm 'come inside', skwətx'wəl təməl 'carved post inside longhouse'
75. x'volə · k'w 'be round', x'volək'w'te 'roll s-th up': x'volək'w'ales 'round (fruit)
76. ṭowīθ’ō 'naked' (< i-own 'no', -θ’ō 'clothes'): ṭowīθ’ēm 'to undress'

77. cák’w 'far away, distant': cackʷáles 'goatsbeard plant (Aruncus sylvester)

2.3.3.6: C₁VC₂ → C₁C₂ / S—S...

This rule applies after high-stressed prefixes, of which the most common are diminutive reduplication R₄- and continuative prefix hé- ~ hē- (see 2.3.3.7 for more examples than are given here). Examples:

78. ðeqé’t 'tree': ði·θqet 'little tree'

79. xa’cés 'island': xa’ix’cés 'little island'

80. sā’léqəm 'Slalakum, supernatural creature': sā’i·xa’léqəm 'little Slalakum'

81. xʷiyxʷolə·wə 'fish air bladder'

82. xʷa’ce 'lake': xáxce 'pond, small lake'

83. p’ep’xʷəm 'quiet, shy'

84. ləc’ə 'one': lālc’ə - lālec’ə 'one person'

85. kʷəxʷət 'count s-th': kʷəxʷətəs 'he’s counting something'

86. //xʷə- 'come', ?I· 'here', -l 'on purpose', -əxʷ '3rd person object', -əs '3rd person subject'//; xʷə?I·lxʷəs 's-o brought s-th'

87. leḵšywe 'spear fish by torchlight': hélxšywe 'spearing fish by torchlight'

88. wóqʷ 'drown, float downstream': hóqʷ 'floating downstream'
2.3.3.7. hé- 'continuative; plural' has predictable allomorphy before a limited set of roots.

hē- → hē- / ____y, l in certain roots
→ hē- / ____m, w in certain roots.

This morpheme cannot be used with most roots to express 'continuative' as can reduplication -R₁- (see examples like yīyəq 'snowing', léləc'əwtxwəm 'visiting', memiyət 'helping s-o' and wīwəqəs 'yawning'). (hē-), like the stress-shifting rules also used for 'continuative; plural' (2.3.3.2 and 2.3.3.3), can only be used with certain roots. (hē-) is limited to the examples shown here, so far elicited.

89. yę́qʷ 'burn': hę́yqʷ - hę́yəqʷ 'burning, fire'
90. yέ́t 'to vomit': hę́yət 'vomiting', hę́yətəlməl 'nauseated'
91. yə́yət 'talk about s-o': hę́(·)yət 'talking about s-o'
92. yə́yəst 'tell it': hę́(·)yəst 'telling it'
93. lę́p’ox̣̣ə 'eat': hę́lp’ox̣̣ə 'eating'
87. as above
94. ləc’ə 'one', láləc’ə 'one person; alone':
   həlc’əlf(y) 'by themselves'
95. mę́q’ət 'to swallow': həmq’ət 'swallowing'
96. wę́c’ək ’fall, drop (intransitive)': hę́wc’ək ’falling'
88. as above
92a. yá't 'warn s-o'; hé·yá't 'warning s-o'
92b. yēq'ēs 'file (abbr.asively)'; hēq'ēs 'filing'
92c. yáqōt 'back up'; hēqōt 'backing up'
94a. léqēm 'dive'; hēlqēm 'diving'
94b. lēk'w 'broken (of bone or stick)'; hēl'k'w 'pocket knife; being broken'
94c. leqēye 'to torchlight, spear fish from canoe by torchlight, lantern or firelight, pitlamp for fish'; hēlqēye 'torchlighting, spearing fish by torchlight, etc.'
95a. méx'y 'take it off'; hême=x'y 'taking it off (a button for example)'
96a. wēə'ēt 'tease s-o'; hōwē'ēt 'teasing s-o'
96b. wēc'ē 'get to the summit of a mountain'; hōwē'ē 'getting to the summit of a mountain'
96c. woq'wēylem 'drift downstream'; hōwq'wēlelem 'drifting downstream'
2.3.3.8. \( C_1 \varepsilon y C_3 + R_1 \rightarrow C_1 \varepsilon y C_1 \varepsilon C_3 \) where \( C_1 \) is always post-velar. Examples:

97. \( q'\éy\ést \ 'tie s-th' \)
98. \( q'\éy\éq'\ést \ 'they were contradicting each other' \)
99. \( x'\éy\élo\éq \) or \( x'\éy\é\élo\éq \) 'bird' (Chehalis dialect):  
   \( x'\éy\éx'\élo\éq \) 'small bird' (Chehalis dialect)
100. \( \éy\ép'\épt \ 'scratch s-o or s-th' \)
    \( \éy\éx'\ép'\éf'\élo\ép \) 'rake' (lit. 'scratching the ground')
101. \( q'\éy\éq'\élst\él\éq \ 'deceive' \)
102. \( \éy\ém\ém \ 'grab s-th or s-o' \)
103. \( q'\éy\éx\éel \ 'get black' \)
104. \( q'\éy\éq'\élo\éc'\éiy\á\ém \) spe\é(\é)ls 'whirlwind'
105. \( \éy\éx'\éc'\ém \ 'itching' \)
    \( \éy\éx'\éc'\ém\émt\éet \ 'real itching' \)

(Tait dialect)

2.3.3.9. \(-\á\ém\) 'you singular object of verb' and \(-\á\él\) 'you plural object of verb' have similar stress shifts in the same environment; before \{-cél\} 'I subject' and before \{-cét\} 'we subject'. Thus,

\[-\á\ém\] \( \rightarrow \ -\á\ém / -\á\ém\)
\[-\á\él\] \( \rightarrow \ -\á\él / -\á\él\).

Examples will be found plentifully in the chapter on pronouns (\( k'\ém\éclam\ém\écél \ 'I see you (sg.)', etc.).

2.3.3.10. \(-\ém\) 'passive' \( \rightarrow \ -\ém \) in the environment before \{-t\} 'negative or impossibility marker on passive'. Examples:
2.3.3.11. Sporadically stress is shifted onto the syllable before a subject or possessive pronoun. This seems more common before {-cet} 'we, our' than before other pronouns. I have not been able to find a way to predict when it will take place. Some examples are: sq'èlomèl cet 'our thought, we think', qètèlomèl cet 'we feed him', tèlomèl cet 'our house', t'fèlomèl 'I sing', t'fèlomèlèx 'you sing', t'fèlomèl cet 'we sing', t'fèlomèlèfp 'you (pl.) sing', t'fèlomèlp 'sing!'. It could be that sociolinguistic factors or features of emphasis or citation are involved here.

2.3.3.12. e (within R₁) \to i / __y

This rule may be related to rule 2.4.1, q.v. Examples: t'è(*)yeq 'angry (once)'; t'èt'iyeq 'angry (continuous)'

mèyt - mèyt 'help s-o': memiyet 'helping s-o'
liyèm 'laugh': lìliyèm 'laughing'
pàiyt 'bend s-th': spàpiy 'bent, crooked'
è'iykwá(·)stel 'wink': è'ëiè'iykwástel 'winking',
θ'θ'iyk'w asθ'ax'y's 'he's winking at me'

\[ 2.3.3.13. \quad \theta \text{ (within } R_1 \text{)} \rightarrow o / \_w \]

Examples:

spf'w 'ice': spîpôw 'frozen'
cé·cow 'beach, shore'
slflow'w 'seagull' (Chehalis dialect)
téw'el 'become light': stêtôw 'light, illumination'
Il'w 'run away': Il'ôw 'running away'
2.3.4. Ablaut. This section will begin with examples of each type of ablaut and will conclude with the analysis and discussion. As in the previous section, examples to the left of a colon show the base form or base vowel, and examples to the right of the colon show the results of the rule, the ablaut vowel. All examples are in phonemic transcription unless hyphenated (morphophonemic) to show affixation or enclosed in double slashes (morphophonemic) or unless enclosed in violin brackets, { }, to show morphemes. 

i → i·

ʔfɔ́mɛ́y 'walk': ʔf·mɛ́y 'walking'
siŋáλɛ̆xwē 'old person': sǐ·ŋáλɛ̆xwē 'old people'
sciwtēl 'son- or daughter-in-law': sci·wtēl
 'children-in-law'
siŋɛ́m 'person of high rank, chief': sǐ·ŋɛ́m 'high people, chiefs'
ʔɪtɛ́t 'sleep, go to sleep': ʔɪ·tɛ́t 'sleeping, asleep'
i → ε

p'ɛθ'ɛt 'squeeze s-th': p'ɛθ'ɛt 'sew s-th', p'ɛθ'tel
 'needle'
yɪq 'to fall (of snow)': q'elsiŋɛqəm 'snowdrift'

1. A gloss like 'walk' is ambiguous in English; the word could be a noun or a verb. When the Halkomelem form is a verb the gloss will be given as 'walk' or 'to walk', although a verb with 3rd person subject is usually implied. When the Halkomelem form is a noun the gloss will be given as 'a walk'.

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i → e
q'wεf1ex'y 'dance': q'wεf1ex'y 'dancing'
sq'wεymey 'puppy': sq'wεymey 'puppies'
sfq'wem 'peel cedar bark': sfq'wem 'cedar bark skirt'
mí - ?emí 'come': méstex'w 'bring s-th, give me s-th'
    (< mí + -s'T 'causative' + -ex'w '3rd person obj. ')
yfq 'to fall (of snow)': yeq'lsx'y 'first snow'
ifl1et 'bail it (water)': ift1el 'a bailer'
?ix'wet 'sweep s-th': ?ix'wet 'broom'
x'wix'yíem 'telling stories': x'wix'yíem 'story'
i → a
θiyeq'wε'ls 'dig' (θiy 'make', q'wε 'hole', -ε'ls 'intransitive'): θiyeq'wε'ls 'digging'
p'fθε'et 'squeeze s-th': p'fθε'es 'basketry cradle,
baby basket' (< pʰθ' + -es 'face')
swáwəs 'adolescent boy (10-15 yrs.)': swáwəs
'adolescent boys (10-15 yrs.)'
i. → e
sxʷəml'kʷ 'parent's sibling': sxʷəml'kʷ 'parent's siblings'
c'í-xʷtes 's-o dries s-th': c'í-xʷtes 's-o is drying s-th' or,
c'í-yxʷtes 's-o dries s-th': c'í-yxʷtes 's-o is drying s-th'
хи. c'et 'cut s-th': хи. c'etel 'knife', хи. c'etel'lé
'knife-handle'
i. → e
sci. 'first born', cícəd 'above, high': sceł'اغ 'upper lip'
хи. səqlí'sem 'to button', лу. səqlí's 'it's buttoned':
хи. səqlí'stel 'a button'
хи. k'w 'hook, catch on hook': хи. k'tel. 'fish hook',
хи. k'x'yál 'to trip' (hook the foot)
sełc' - səlíc' 'full': лəc'et 'fill s-th up',
le лəc' 'it's filled'
sx'yf.x'yec' 'woods': x'yəc'f.əm 'go through the woods'
хи. x'w 'three': хи. x'wəlsx'yə 'thirty', хи. x'wəlsx'yə's
'thirty days'
x'yf.ət 'peel bark or root of tree': x'yəpalst 'peel fruit, vegetable or vegetable root' (-áls 'fruit')
Ifi'et 'cut s-th': lêc'ces 'cut one's hand'
ɛ → i
?
泄漏 'eat a meal': ?f-itél 'eating a meal'
lélem 'house': li'lém 'little house, cabin'
ɛ → o
sêliy - sêliy 'woman, female': sêliyá'lì 'girl
child, young female'
A'éléx 'stopped; at home, (stop, action completed)'
A'éléx 'stop, (stopping, action not completed)'
c'élëc 'shut up!': sk'écy k'és c'élëc 'he can't shut up' (he or any third person)

d'élëc 'eyesight', k'écet 'look at s-th': k'écet 'see s-o or s-th', sk'éca'stel 'window, mirror'
(lit. 'device to look at or see a face'),
k'éca'fém 'look back'
q'éq'et'ém 'sweet flavor': q'et'ém 'balsam tree'
(lit. 'sweet bark tree' because of sweet sap)
méq's 'fallen snow': méqá's 'fallen snow season, moon
of fallen snow, December'
C'eq'et 'a bluff (cliff)': C'eq'eq'et 'a little bluff'
A'ecés 'big island': A'íc'ces 'small island'
cqé You were told': c'eqetem 'being told'
possibly suffixes like: -éť - -ôt '3rd person object',
-élé - -éle 'people', -léc - -lec 'rump, bottom',
-lé'è - -lè'è 'clothing', -ép - -ep 'ground, dirt'
(see 2.3.6. for alternative explanation).
$\varepsilon \rightarrow \epsilon$

$q'\dot{e}y\dot{e}t 'tie s-th', \ q'\dot{e}q'\dot{e}s\dot{e}t 'tying s-th',$

$\text{s}\text{x}^wq'\dot{e}q'\dot{e}s\dot{e}c\dot{e}l 'netting shuttle (for making nets)'},$

$q'\dot{e}s\dot{a}q'\dot{a}s(e) c\dot{e}l 'spider' ('the tier, net-maker'),$

$q'\dot{e}sl\dot{e}t\dot{e}l or q'\dot{e}sl\dot{e}t\dot{a}l '(woven) tumpline'$

$s\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{e} - s\text{x}^t\dot{e} - 'sacrificed', s\text{x}^t\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{e}s^t\dot{e}w^t\dot{e} 'bluejay, the$

sacred fortune-teller': \ $s\text{x}^t\text{x}^t\dot{e}t^t\dot{e}t^t 'Sunday'$

$\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{a}t 'scratch s-o or s-th': s\text{x}^t\text{e}p'\dot{a}c\dot{e}l 'chipmunk'$

(lit. 'striped back'), $s\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{e}p^t 'stripes, marked$

line' (belongs here if $R_4$ - 'diminutive' is here)

$\text{x}^t\dot{e}(\cdot)\dot{y}l^t 'write s-th', s\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{a}l^t^t\dot{e}l^t^s^t 'footprints, tracks'$,

$\text{x}^t\text{y}^t\dot{a}l^t^s^t\dot{e}l^t\dot{y}^t\dot{a}li^t\dot{a}\dot{e}m^t 'it is written (in the sky)'$

$\text{x}^t\dot{a}l^t^e^t 'writing instrument, pencil, pen', s\text{x}^t\dot{e}l^t^e^t^s^t 'writing'$

$\varepsilon \rightarrow \alpha$

$q'\dot{e}q'\dot{e}t 'he was contradicting s-o': q'\dot{e}q'\dot{x}^t\dot{a}t\dot{e}l$

'they were contradicting each other'

$q'\dot{w}^t\dot{e}y^t\dot{e}l 'gone yellow': q'\dot{w}^t\dot{q}'\dot{w}^t\dot{e}y^t\dot{e}l 'getting yellow'$,

$q'\dot{w}^t\dot{i}^t\dot{q}'\dot{w}^t\dot{a}y^t\dot{e}l^t 'orange, orange (the fruit)'$

$t'\dot{e}p'\dot{e}t^t 'it's dead (of a tree)', st'\dot{e}p^t \theta^t\dot{e}q^t\dot{t}$

'dead and broken tree': \ $t'\dot{e}p'\dot{e}t 'it's going$

dead (of a tree)'$

$\text{y}^t\dot{e}y^t\dot{e}t^l 'made friends', si\text{y}^t\text{e} 'friend': \ y^t\dot{e}y^t\dot{e}t^l$

'making friends'$

$\text{x}^t\dot{e}l 'rough, turbulent (of wind or water)': \ $x^t\dot{a}^t\dot{t}^t 'windy'$
ε → a
χέγα 'be cold'; χεγά'θε θέ 'grizzly bear'; σξάθα'θε θε 'brave, cranky, aggressive, ready to fight'
k'wécet 'look at s-th'; k'wágk'wécet - k'wák'wécet 'looking at s-th' (2.3.3.1 optional here)
swéqse 'husband'; swáweqse - swáweqse 'married woman
('having a husband')' (2.3.3.1 optional)
x'wél'ıp 'willow (tree or bush)'; x'wágx'wél'ıp 'a small or lone willow tree; Yale'
ε* → i*
k'wél 'hide oneself'; k'wek'wél 'hiding' (with R₅−)
ε* → o
θiéq'wél's 'dig'; θiéq'wél's 'digging'
c'stém 'crawl'; c'étem 'crawling'
θé't 'darkness' σθé't 'go dark, be dark'
łé's 'be different'; łéč'ómex' 'different people',
łéłèc 'two different things'
θeq's't 'tree'; θéq's't 'little tree', θeq's't 'for- est, thicket'
χ'élq't 'long, be long'; χ'eqtá'meθ 'tall (of people)'
θaq'ès'ces 'five'; θaq'èsclé't - θaq'èsces'ès't 'five times', θaq'èsçeszx'y's 'fifty', θaq'èsçeszx'y's 'fifty days'
θaq'es 'eight'; tθaq'èsçeszx'y's 'eighty'
qél 'steal'; qélgel 'thief'
q'wél 'talk'; sq'wélq'wel 'talking (noun)', q'welá'gθépɛl
'musical instrument' (lit. 'talking lips device'), qʷełqʷələ́yəł 'talks too much, gabby, gossipy'
(lit. 'repeatedly talking lips or jaw'), qʷəłsəəm 'you are talked to', qʷəłstəxʷəs 's-o spoke to s-o', qʷəłəyəfələm '(birds, etc.) making music, moon of March'
qʷəʃəy (< //qʷəl-ə-ʃəy//) 'driftwood': qʷəqʷəbiy
(< //qʷəl-ʁə-əy//) 'lots of little pieces of driftwood'
ptə̱mət 'ask s-o', piktə̱mət 'asking s-o': spətə̱m
'asking (noun)', also a competing form pətmət
'asking s-o'
ε̱ → a
qʷə̱l 'talk': qʷə̱qʷəl 'talking', qʷə̱qʷəlsəəm 'you are being talked to'
χə̱m or χə̱m 'cry, weep': χə̱máʔiyə 'name of youngest sister of Mt. Cheam ("cries because she can't see the Fraser River so lots of creeks run together there")'
kʷə̱t 'let s-o or s-th go', kʷə̱xəzə́wəs 's-o let me go' shows root kʷə̱ + -T '3rd person object';
kʷə̱xəzə́wəs 's-o dropped s-th'
ε̱ → a̱
χə̱m or χə̱m 'cry, weep', χə̱hə̱mə̱t 'cried for it':
χə̱hə̱mə̱tə̱t 'cry for oneself'
χə̱qt 'long, be long': xʷə̱ə̱q'tə̱s 'long face, morose'
ʔisá·le 'two': ʔisá·le·s 'two dollars'
ʔeqá·cës 'five': ʔeqá·cë·s 'five dollars'
teqá·cës 'eight': t(e)qá·cá·s 'eight dollars'
ε → u
qʷè·l 'talk': qʷú·lqʷè·l ~ qʷó·lqʷè·l 'talking
together, all talking'
ʔè·w 'run away': ʔú·wmet 'run away from s-o'
ε → i
sq’ép 'a gathering': sq’eq’ip 'gathered'
qʷéqʷeléc 'to gossip': qʷíqʷeléc 'two of them gossip-
ing, gossiping together'
tês 'get up to, come near': stëtís 'near s-th, be near',
 stu·tësëxívé 'near me'
seqel ~ sèlseltél 'wool spindle, spinner': sìlçptel
 'firedrill' (-cep 'firewood')
ε → i.
ʔéwá·lem 'play': ʔí·wá·lem ~ ʔí·wá·lem 'playing'
ʔéxívé 'to paddle': ʔí·xívé 'paddling'
ʔép’ayeq'w 'great great grandparent or -child':
ʔélf’p’ayeq’w ~ ʔéł’f’p’ayeq’w 'great great grand-
parents or -children'
ʔéx’westes 's-o is giving gifts to s-o': ʔé·xí·tel
 'they’re sharing' (-tel 'reciprocal')
ε → ε
p’èk'w 'float, come to the surface': p’ep’èk’w 'floating'
ʔéq’em 'drip': ʔéq’em 'dripping'
κ'έωλς 'bark (of dog)'; κ'έωλς 'barking' (beside these are alternative forms, κ'έωλς 'bark' and κ'έωλς 'barking' with iterative reduplication) κ'έκ'έτ 'count s-th', κ'έκ'έτ 'count', c'κ'έκ'έτ 'number'; κ'έκ'έτ 's-o is counting s-th' κ'έκ'έτ 'shooting s-th': σκ'έκ'έτ 'gun, arrow' θηγέλ 'to wait for fish with a dip net'; θηγέλ 'a waiting dip net', θηγέλ 'place where one waits with dip net for fish' χακ'έ 'get narrow, get wedged in': σχακ'έ 'canyon (narrow, walled in with rock)' q'έλαθ'έ 'you are not known or recognized'; q'έλα 'unfamiliar' cόλ 'fall'; cόλ 'falling' χέτ 'said to s-o'; χέτ 'they told him, s-o told s-o' κ'έλπε 'spring salmon (generic)'; κ'έπε 'spring salmon (small adult) with black nose' e → e
q'έμα 'to dip-net'; q'έμα 'dip-netting' σχέλ 'leg, foot': σχέλ 'legs', ɛςχέλ 'stand up'
qέπά 'face down'; qέπά 'lay on one's stom-
ach'
ε → e
σέλκ 'older, oldest (of children)', σέλκ 'older
sibling': së·k'ëtel 'older siblings, older cousins'
c'ëk'ëm - c'ëk'ëm 'jump': c'ëk'ëm 'jumping', c'ëc'ëk'ëm -
-ëm 'jumping up and down, jumping along, jumping repeatedly'
x'ëmx'ëm 'run, race': x'ëmx'ëm 'running, racing'
q'ët 'spear a fish': q'ëq'ël 'spearing (a fish)'
q'ëlmët 'believe s-o': q'ël 'believing'
q'ëls - q'ëls 'boil, cook': ëtq'ëls 'to boil'
e → a'
hëq'ëlex' 'smell (with nose)': hëq'ëlex' 'smelling',
hëq'ët 'smell s-th purposely'
q'ëls 'boil', ëtq'ëls 'boil': sq'ëls 'pot', q'ëls
(in one citation) 'boiling', hëtq'ëm 'is boiling,
being boiled'
pek'ëm 'be dusty': sp'âlk'ëm 'dust'
p'ëq' 'white, be white', p'eq'ëlq'ël 'mountain goat'
(probably 'white nose'): sp'âq'ës 'bald eagle'
('white face')
?á·pël 'ten': ?ëpëlës 'ten dollars', ?ëpëlëstël -
?ëpëlëstël 'tenth moon, July'
?ëmët 'sit down': ?ë·mët - ?ëëmët 'sitting down'
x'ëk'ëm 'bathe', x'ëk'ëm 'bathing': x'ëk'ëm 'swimming' (x'ë- is diminutive reduplication R₄-)
?ës 'amusement, having fun' (< ?ëy 'good', -ës 'face'): ?iyá·sët 'a whole bunch having fun'
sq\textsuperscript{W}elx\textsuperscript{Y}em 'dry snow that can drift' (cp. also sq\textsuperscript{W}etx\textsuperscript{Y}em 'fog'); sq\textsuperscript{W}elx\textsuperscript{Y}á\textsuperscript{A}mё 'dry snow drifting in or coming in'

mágqel 'nose', ḥo\textsuperscript{Q}alsqel 'cut tip of one's nose':

smétá\textsuperscript{Q}esqel 'snot', săq\textsuperscript{W}e\textsuperscript{A}qesqel má\textsuperscript{W} 'wild turkey (lit. 'snot-hanging-down-nose bird')

sélse(tel) 'spindle for wool': sálèš 'get drunk, get dizzy' (lit. 'spinning face')

x\textsuperscript{Y}el\textsuperscript{W}ák\textsuperscript{W}áe 'roll s-th up!', x\textsuperscript{Y}el\textsuperscript{W}áls 'round (of fruit, etc.)': x\textsuperscript{Y}el\textsuperscript{A}k\textsuperscript{W} 'be round'

t\textsuperscript{S}les\textsuperscript{Q}ax\textsuperscript{W}e 'sit beside me!': st\textsuperscript{S}el\textsuperscript{A}stel 'sitting side by side'

x\textsuperscript{W}ém 'hurry': x\textsuperscript{W}á\textsuperscript{M}nx\textsuperscript{Y}el\textsuperscript{W}em 'run' (lit. 'hurry foot')

k\textsuperscript{W}áscs 'burned hand', k\textsuperscript{W}ásc 'scald, burn':

k\textsuperscript{W}á\textsuperscript{K}á\textsuperscript{W}es 'hot'

a → ε,

?áx\textsuperscript{W}estès 's-o gives s-o a gift': ?ε\textsuperscript{W}estès 's-o is giving gifts to s-o', ?ε\textsuperscript{W}í\textsuperscript{A}tel 'they're sharing'

a → o

x\textsuperscript{W}áq\textsuperscript{W}at 'pole a canoe', x\textsuperscript{W}áx\textsuperscript{W}e\textsuperscript{Q}at 'poling a canoe':

sx\textsuperscript{W}éq\textsuperscript{W}atl 'a canoe pole'

a* → ε

s?á\textsuperscript{W}eθ 'be in a hurry': s?éwθ 'hurrying'

a* → ε

má\textsuperscript{W} 'bird': mé(•)meq\textsuperscript{W} 'little bird'
xʷá:kʷəm 'bathe'; xʷixəkʷəm - xʷixəkʷəm 'swimming'
səá:m 'bone'; sə'əmif(·)wəl 'core, pith, seed, nut,
center (of rock or anything)' (lit. 'bone inside'),
sə'əmələ-əxəl 'elbow' (lit. 'arm bone'),
θə'əmifəxəxəl 'lower leg' (lit. 'bone in (back?)
of leg')
qʷá:m 'moss'; qʷəmcá:ləs 'cranberry', má·qʷəm 'swamp,
marsh; Indian tea plant'
ʔápəl 'ten'; ʔəpələ 'ten people', ʔəpá·les 'ten
dollars', ʔəpə·ləstəl 'tenth moon, July'
θə'əkʷəsxələs 'seven': θə'əkʷəsxələs 'seven-
ty', θə'əkʷəsxələs 'seventy days', θ'əkʷəsələ
'seven people', θ'əkʷəsəl 'seven times'
χə'əxəl 'four'; χə'ə sxəl 'forty'
xʷá:mxələm 'run'; xʷəmxələm 'running'
qá· 'water', qá·qe - qáqe 'drink', qəqá· 'high water',
qá·zce 'juicy'; sqə'ə·ls 'juicy fruit', qə'ə·les
'tear (lit. eye water)', qəmá· 'suckle; breast;
milk'
stá·lo(w) or stá·lew 'river', tá·l 'go down to the riv-
er', státelo(w) or státlew 'creek, stream':
təltələwé·m 'lots of little streams (like on a hill
after a rain)', təlti·t or təlti·t 'upriver dialect,
(specifically) Tait dialect'
sá·xʷəl 'tall grass, hay': səsxʷəyəl 'short grass'
t'á·kʷ 'home, go home'; t'ákʷstexʷəs 'they took him
home, s-o takes s-o home'
yá'k'set 'break s-th, crumple s-th': yá'k'sox 'broke s-th by accident'
Θ'sx'á'sem 'wash one's face': Θ'sox'esem 'washing one's face', sx'Θ'sox'esem 'wash basin, s-th to wash one's face in'
sq'á'meθ 'lump': q'wx'm'es 'lump on hand, lump of wrist', q'wx'm'Yel 'lump of ankle', q'wx'm'q'wx'm'es 'all the knuckles and joints on the hand' (Chehalis dialect) sá'les 'get drunk, get dizzy': sél'es 'getting drunk, getting dizzy'
tá'lotet 'wonder', tatí'lotet 'wondering', tatí'lt 'learn, understand', tatélá'met 'understand': télá'met 'understand', töl'ex'es 'he understands it, he finds it out' possibly suffixes like: -á's 'es 'face', -á's 'es 'moon, cyclic period', -á'yθel 'es-yθel 'lip, jaw', -á'meθ 'es-meθ 'height', -á'læ 'es 'young', -læ'met 'es-læmet 'oneself (reflexive)', and -á'mex 'es 'mx'es 'appearance, looking'
o → i
mök'w - mök'w 'all, everything, everybody', mok'wá't 'take it all': sêmík'w 'all of them (of people)' x'ox'wiy'ém 'tell some stories': x'iwx'wiy'ém 'telling stories'
The examples above are all the examples found of ablaut to date. A number of approaches were tried searching for a phonological, morphological, or semantic way to predict ablaut without listing roots. (Let us call a stem by the vowel which will change with ablaut: Ḫiy-t 'make s-th' would be an "i-stem"; and let us call varieties of ablaut by the resulting vowel, shown after a capital A: thus "Aέ." can be read as "έ" ablaut". Ḫiy-t for example is an i-stem with 'continuative' Aέ.; another way of putting it is, Ḫiy-t has i \(\rightarrow\) ë; thus Ḫiy-t becomes ëy-t 'making s-th'.)

One can see the influence of phonological rules given in preceding sections (particularly that of stress rules upon έ → ø, ε → ø, e → ε, ø → ε*). But given the stress pattern and phonological descriptions of roots, one still cannot predict more than a few cases of ablaut. Even roots which have quite similar shapes can take different ablauts. For example, among i-stems: Ḫiy-t 'make s-th', Ḫiy-δι-c-øt 'make s-th for s-o', and Ḫiy-ø-δε*-øls 'dig' (lit. 'make a hole' since δε*- means 'get a hole, be a hole') become ëy-t 'making s-th', ëy-δι-c-øt 'making s-th for s-o', and ëy-ø-δε*-øls 'digging'; also compare p'θ'-øt 'squeeze s-th', p'θ'-øt 'sew s-th', and p'θ'-øs 'basketry cradle' (lit. 'squeezes the face'), all
from the same root.

Among ε-stems we have ʔe-χέγιλ-ον' 'stand', χέγιλ-t 'write s-th', χέγι' 'turbulent (of wind or water)', χέγι' 'be cold', compared with ʔe-χέγιλ-ον' 'standing', s-χέλ-τελ 'a writing instrument', χάκ-θετ 'windy', and s-χέλ-τελ 'cranky, aggressive, brave', respectively.

Among ε'-stems there are άε-ε'qt 'long' and qʷέ·l 'talk, speak' which compare with άεqt-ά·μεθ 'tall', χʷ-ά·qt-ες 'long face; morose', qʷέλ-st-εxʷ 'speak to s-o', qʷάqʷέλ-st-εxʷ 'speaking to s-o' (-qʷε- is infixed reduplication), and qʷέ·l-qʷέλ 'talking together, all talking' (Αύ*, final -qʷέl is suffixed reduplication).

Among ɐ-stems contrast ʔewά·l-əm 'play', ʔεμετ 'sit down, sit up', q'έλεκ-t 'not know s-o, not recognize s-o', q'έλ-m-εt 'believe s-o', q'εμ-ά(·)s 'to dip-net', kʷέλ-εt 'hold s-th (in one's hands)', qʷέls 'to boil' with ʔi·wά·l-əm 'playing', ʔά·μετ - ʔάʔεμετ 'sitting down, sitting up', q'έλχ 'unfamiliar', q'έ·l 'believing', q'εyq'εm-ά(·)s 'dip-netting', kʷέ·l·ε·m 'hold or contain s-th' (relevant only if < kʷέl- 'hold in hand' + -έ·m or if < kʷέl- 'hold' + -έ·l·ε 'container', but not if < kʷ- (stem formative) + -έ·l·ε 'container'), and qʷά·ls 'boiling'. This last set shows similar members of pairs of roots taking Αύ* and
Aά·, Aέ and Aέ·, and Aέγ, Aέ· and Aά·; all but one example had the same ablaut function, 'continuative'. These sets dispose of the notion that, given the stem vowel which ablauts and given its adjacent consonants, one can predict the type of ablaut a stem may take.

Rules like $i \rightarrow i' / C_a \rightarrow C_b$

$\rightarrow \varepsilon / C_d \rightarrow C_e$

$\rightarrow \varepsilon' / C_c \rightarrow C_f$

$\rightarrow \varepsilon / C_g \rightarrow C_h$

e tc. cannot be written for these ablaut types. Neither can rules dependant only on the consonantal environment, like $V \rightarrow i' / C_a \rightarrow C_b$

$\rightarrow \varepsilon / C_c \rightarrow C_d$

$\rightarrow \varepsilon / C_g \rightarrow C_h$

e tc., as will be seen in the next paragraphs.

Another method of phonological prediction tried began with arranging all the examples by ablaut type (regardless of stem vowel). Thus all examples of Aά· were compared with each other, then all examples of Aά, Aέ, Aέγ, Aέ·, Aφ, Aά, Aά·, Aά·, and Aά·. This did not reveal complete predictability of ablaut types, but it did reveal some things about ablaut types. The first thing noticed was that all types of ablaut, except Aφ, appear to either attract high stress to the changed vowel or to retain the high stress of the original vowel or to occur in conjunction with a rule which
shifts high stress onto the position of the ablaut vowel (as often does 2.3.3.2). All resulting ablaut vowels are thus stressed except //e//. From now on, stress will not be written on ablaut types. With Aə, 19 out of about 100 examples had a stressed ə, but 15 of these were monosyllabic roots with suffixes which are stress-repellent (never found with stress). The remaining four cases cannot be surely explained as yet: q'wəyəl-əx to dance; q'wəyəl-əx' dancing'; əqəl's-em 'to button'; əqəl's-tel 'a button'; sq'wiq'əməy 'puppy'; sq'wiq'əməy 'puppies'; səl-əs 'get drunk, get dizzy'; səl-əs 'getting drunk, getting dizzy'.

The second thing noticed from arrangement by ablaut types was that one cannot predict ablaut type just from the consonantal environment. There are many consonantal environments which enclose a variety of ablaut types. For example, ?_m has Ai and Aa.

2. sq'wiq'əməy comes from s- 'nominal', əq- 'diminutive' reduplication, -əməy 'dog', and q'wəyəl-əx may come from q'wəyəx 'to shake', -i-l 'go, come', -əx' 'standing'. It is possible that these stressed affixes must retain stress even if ablauted. The case of səl-əs may be a simple mistranscription for səl-əs (though the stressed version of -əs 'face' is usually -əs) (root səl is itself derivationally ablauted from sel 'to spin').
\(k^w\) has \(Ai\), \(Ae\), and \(Aa\), \(q^w\) has \(Ai\), \(Ae\), and \(Aa\), \(p^\theta\) has \(Ae\) and \(Aa\), \(\theta^q\) has \(Ae\) and \(Ae\), \(q^l\) has \(Ae\) and \(Ae\), \(q^\prime_l\) has \(Ae\) and \(Ae\), \(q^\prime q^\prime\) has \(Ae\) and \(Ae\), \(\xi^c\) has \(Ae\) and \(Ae\), \(q^w\) and \(Aa\), \(\lambda^t\), \(q^t\) each have \(Ae\) and \(Aa\), and \(sw^w\) has \(Aa\) and \(Aa\). Prediction is still impossible if we consider adjacent syllables in the search for environmental patterns.

The third thing noticed from arrangement by ablaut types is the relative frequency of each ablaut type. 50 percent of the over 200 examples are \(Ae\), about 15 percent are \(Aa\), about ten percent are \(Ae\), from seven to five percent are \(Ae\), \(Aa\), and \(Ai\), and less than four percent are \(Ai\), \(Al\), \(Au\), and \(Aa\). In suffixes true ablaut is not common, but wherever there is allomorphy involving vowels, schwa is one of the vowels and a stressed vowel (not a schwa) is usually the other.

The only way in which some predictability of ablaut type is achieved is by considering the stem vowel and the ablaut function. No predictability is achieved from considering ablaut function alone because 'continuative' is signified by all ablaut types but \(Aa\), 'plural' by all but \(Ai\), \(Aa\), \(Au\), and \(Aa\), and derivation by all but \(Ax\); these gaps are only in the least common ablaut types and most likely are accidental.
Some predictability of ablaut type can be achieved by looking at the stem vowel which gets changed. The following ablaut types are attested with the following stem vowel types:

- *i*-stem: \(Ai^\ast, A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon^\ast, A\varepsilon, Aa, Aa^\ast\)
- *i*'-stem: \(A\varepsilon^\ast, A\varepsilon\)
- *e*-stem: \(Ai^\ast, A\varepsilon^\ast, A\varepsilon, Aa, Aa^\ast\)
- *e*'-stem: \(A\varepsilon\)
- *e*''-stem: \(Ai^\ast, A\varepsilon, Aa, Aa^\ast, Aa^\ast, Aa^\ast\)
- *e*'-stem: \(Ai, A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon^\ast, Aa, Aa^\ast\)
- *a*-stem: \(A\varepsilon^\ast, A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon\)
- *a*'-stem: \(A\varepsilon, A\varepsilon\)
- *o*-stem: \(Ai\)

Unfortunately there doesn't seem to be any systematic patterning at work behind the above sets. Some ablaut types however are limited to specific functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>derivation</th>
<th>continuative</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i(\rightarrow\varepsilon, e, a^\ast)</td>
<td>i(\rightarrow i^\ast, e^\ast, e, a)</td>
<td>i(\rightarrow i^\ast, e^\ast, e, a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i(\rightarrow e^\ast, e)</td>
<td>i(\rightarrow e^\ast)</td>
<td>i(\rightarrow e^\ast)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e(\rightarrow e, a, a^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow i^\ast, e, a, a^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow e)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e(\rightarrow e, a, a^\ast, u^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow i^\ast, e, a, u^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow e^\ast)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e(\rightarrow i, i^\ast, e, e^\ast, a^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow i, i^\ast, e, e^\ast, a^\ast)</td>
<td>e(\rightarrow i^\ast, e, e^\ast, e^\ast, a^\ast)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a(\rightarrow e, o)</td>
<td>a(\rightarrow e^\ast)</td>
<td>a(\rightarrow e^\ast)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a(\rightarrow e)</td>
<td>a(\rightarrow e, o)</td>
<td>i(\rightarrow i)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There is nothing particularly systematic about
the above limitations. However the tables do allow
statements to be made like:
a.) When an i-stem has derivational ablaut it will be
Aë, Aë, or Aa*,
b.) When an i*-stem has continuative or plural ablaut
it will be Aé*,
c.) When an o-stem has ablaut it will be Ai, and
d.) Plurals of stems in ey, a, a*, or o are formed
only by means other than ablaut (i.e., reduplication
or infixing -el-).

There are, finally, a few lexical suffixes which
trigger specific types of ablaut. These suffixes are
not the only causes of these types of ablaut, but do
account for a fair number of cases:
1. $\varepsilon(\cdot) \rightarrow \acute{a} / ___...-\acute{a}s 'dollars, money'$
2. $\varepsilon \rightarrow \acute{a} / ___c\bar{y}(\ddot{x}, \dddot{y})...-(\acute{o})\acute{e}t 'for oneself'$
3. some $(\varepsilon, \varepsilon, i) \rightarrow \acute{a} / ___...-\acute{\acute{a}}s ~-\acute{a}s 'face'$
4. some $\varepsilon \rightarrow \acute{a} / ___...-\acute{\acute{a}}s ~-\acute{a}s 'moon, cyclic period'$
   (It is quite probable that the suffixes in 1, 3, and 4
   are actually a single suffix, 'round things'.)
5. unrounded vowel $\rightarrow o / ___...-\acute{\acute{o}}s 'times ten'$
6. vowel $\rightarrow o / ___...-\acute{\acute{y}}\acute{e}l 'lip, jaw', -\acute{e}l's 'chest'$
7. $\varepsilon(\cdot)(y) \rightarrow o / ___...-\acute{\acute{f}}\acute{l} 'go, come'$
8. some vowels $\rightarrow o / ___...-\acute{\acute{t}}\acute{e}l 'device'$
   The "..." means anything intervening except word bound-
ary. The changes shown apply to all vowels of the correct shape, anywhere in the stem preceding the suffix. For example, /təqéːce/ 'eight' → /təqescelsxɛ/ 'eighty' and /təqáːcáːs/ 'eight dollars'. More examples of each suffix will be found in the chapter on lexical suffixes.

2.3.5. Vowel Combination and Metathesis.

2.3.5.1. There are some cases of insertion of glottal stop or glottal spirant to prevent vowel mergers. {-á:lə} 'young' and {-ɛːlɛ} 'container of' have both ʔ- and h-insertion in rules to be found in 2.3.6. {-elep} 'second person plural possessive' has ? inserted after a preceding vowel; for example, tə kwəʔəlep 'you folks's pig' and tə šúkwəʔəlep 'you folks's sugar'. Other examples of ?-insertion occur between vowel-final morphemes and vowel-initial suffixes {-ɛːlewə} 'leaf', {-ɛːltəl} 'medicine', {-ɪːlsə} 'chest', {-ɛːlɛ} 'head', {-á:ls} 'fruit, round object', {-á:les} 'eye', {-ɛːlɛt} 'rump', {-ɪwəl} 'insides, inside', and unique cases of {-ɛːwtəw} 'house, building' and {-ɛːlə} 'people' (which normally have vowel merger). The examples found are (in phonemic transcription): c'ak'wəʔɛːlewə 'skunk cabbage leaf', x'wəq'wələʔɛːltəl 'hangover medicine', ɛːleʔɛːltəl 'heart medicine, juniper', sc'əʔɨːləs 'Chehalis', sqəʔɛːleq'w 'soft spot on a baby's head' (Tait dialect), sqəʔáːls 'soft spot on a baby's head'.
(Chilliwack dialect), sqé?á'ls 'juicy fruit' (homophonous), qe?á'les 'tear' (qá' 'water', qéyáq 'soft'), st'ále?á'lestel 'eyeglasses', léme?íwét 'kick in the rump' (lémé't 'kick s-o'), sqíwésí'wel 'hollow', xíwésí'wel 'generous, kind-hearted', télê?í·wtxw 'bank' (télê 'money, dollars'), and têqécé?éle - têqécé'le 'eight people'. Apparently ?-insertion is morpheme-dependant and takes place across morpheme boundary. Very few examples have been found of ?-insertion within a morpheme: xíwésí'telém 'get cloudy': sxíwésí'tel 'clouds' is one example. Such insertion is apparently derivational and has nothing to do with preventing vowel mergers.

2.3.5.2. Whenever insertion of ? or h does not occur, two adjacent vowels combine or merge according to the following rules:

\[ V \cdot 1 + V(\cdot) 2 \rightarrow V \cdot 1 \]
\[ V_1 + V \cdot 2 \rightarrow V \cdot 2 \]
\[ V_1 + V_2 \rightarrow V_2 \]

Examples:

sxíwí' + -élé'xel: sxíw(?)í'lé'xel 'armpit' - 'right arm'
qá' + -éce: qá'íce 'juicy'
s-te?é' + -í'wel - -éwel: sté?é'wel 'think, thought'
xíwéá' + -éqw: xíwéá'qw 'big head'
s(xíw)éfí' + -éqel: s(xíw)éfí'qel 'loud (voice)'
s-qíwés-qíwí' + -éls: sqíwésí·̕el 'a borer'
s-qʷέ· + -έp - -έp: sqʷέ·p 'mountain lake on the south-east side of Mt. Cheam' (lit. 'hole in the ground')

ʔisé·(lə) + -έ·l̥p: ʔisé·l̥p 'two trees'

ʔiy(ə) + qʷέ· + -έ·l̥s: ʔiyqʷέ·l̥s 'dig'

s-qʷέ· + -έ·l̥: sqʷέ·l̥ 'area around base of Little Mountain where there's an Indian graveyard'

t̥έ·q̌e - t̥έ·q̌e + -έ·l̥p: t̥έq̌e·l̥p 'salal plant'

ʔəl̥l̥e + -έ·l̥p: ʔəl̥l̥ə·l̥p 'salmonberry plant'

cəlq-á·mə + -έ·l̥p: cəlqá·m̥ə·l̥p 'blackcap bush'

l̥če· + -έ·x̌: l̥če·x̌ 'once'

sí·le, méle, sísələ, səlsí·lə + -έ·l̥: (respectively)

sí·l̥ə·l̥ 'late grandfather', mél̥ə·l̥ 'late child',

sísəl̥ə·l̥ 'late grandmother', səlsí·l̥ə·l̥ 'late grandparents'

m̥e·q̌e + -ά·s: meqá·s 'moon of fallen snow, December'

(this derivation includes Aə)

l̥če· + -έ·wəs: 'one canoe paddle'

l̥-əwə + -əex̌ - -əex̌: θowə·x̌ 'naked'

θəeléce ('name of elder Wealick brother') + -iye ('diminutive') + -təl: θəelícətəl 'name of Richard Malloway Sr.'

-səlq̌əx̌ + -əl̥: -səlq̌əl̥ə as in təx̌əlq̌əl̥ə 'thirty people', and also as in 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, and 90 people.

l̥če· + -əs: l̥čəs 'one dollar', s-l̥čəs '1:00'

ʔisé·l̥ə + -əs: ʔisé·l̥əs '2:00', (+Ae) ʔisá·l̥əs 'two dollars'
2.3.5.3. Remaining forms showing vowel and stress
alternations can be described by metathesis or by three
rules for each one (two kinds of ablaut and one stress
shift). The metathesis explanation seems simpler:

/ʔiyá·tel/ 'fight': /ʔá·ytel/ 'fighting'
/kʷesuyel/ 'throw out a drift net': /kʷes·yel/ 'drift-
netting down the river'
/kʷɛx'yem/ 'diarrhea': /kʷx'yem/ 'continuing diarrhea'
/kʷox'yɛ·t - kʷx'yɛ·t/ 'count s-th': /kʷel'yəs/
'counting s-th'
/t·elqʷem/ 'warm (glow of fire), lukewarm':
/t·elqʷtel/ 's-th warm, Indian name of Old Jack'

2.3.6. Suffix Allomorphy Involving Vowel Alterna-
tions. In proceeding from semantics to phonetics,
these rules follow the numeral allomorphy rules (see
chapter on numbers) and precede the stress rules (as
they assign stress to the suffixes).
1. //-e1ə// 'people'

   → -e1ə / ɣys, t'x̂sm__
   → -e / x̂əfl__
   → -e1ə / _ _ (elsewhere)

2. //-əp// 'tree, plant'

   → -ɛ·ŋp / ɪxʷ, ɪq'səs__
   → -ɛ·ŋp / v__
   → -ɛŋp / #0(C)__
   → -əŋp / _ _

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3. //-ɛ·wtw// 'house, building'
   \[ -ɛ·wtw / CV·C \]
   \[ -ɛ·wtw / _ _ \]

4. //-lec// 'rump, bottom'
   \[ -lec / sq'ɛp, q'wêq'w(l), k'ɛp, Ɂêq', st'ɛx, c'ês \]
   \[ -lec / k'ɛlqt, (s)k'ɛp', sɁ, ëfy, k'wêq, k'wês, sp'ɛ, Ɂêkel \]
   \[ -lec / râ·k', x'âk', w, sx'wêθ, yêq, ëfy, \]
   \[ ëq'sm, ëq'ɛt, slêk(')w \]
   \[ -(e)lec / ë'(ec)w\]
   \[ -lec / sθ'ɛm, k'wâ·q', swêk', ë'ɛmêæw', \]
   \[ sq'ès, sk'wî*, (s)c'ɛ, lêθ'i, \]
   \[ q'ɛ, sk'wê, ëtëltë (i.e. _ _ _) \]

(In the last line the preceding morphemes could each end in /l/, as they are not independently attested.)

5. //-â·s// 'face' shows dissimulation
   \[ -es / (â', ë', ëy)C, ëy \]
   \[ -â·s / eC, iy, #CC \]

6. //-â·s// 'cyclic period, moon'
   \[ -es / VC \]
   \[ -â·s / eC, V \]

7. //-ê(1)qsel// 'nose, point'
   \[ -eqs / sqêw, px'wîy, yêq', s?êl, \]
   \[ sx'wêq_wel \]
   \[ -eqs / ëfik'w \]

continued
8. //f·wel// 'insides, inside'
   ➔ -f·wel / sq\wél____
   ➔ -f·wel / _ _ _

9. //á·yqel// 'lip, jaw'
   ➔ -á·yqel / ___-f·l
   ➔ -á·yqel / ___-tel
   ➔ -á·yqel / _ _ _

10. //-(l)ř·lwes// 'stomach'
    ➔ -(l)řlwes / qěl____
    ➔ -(l)řlwes / čěl____

11. //elf·qel// 'arm'
    ➔ -elf·qel / sk\wél____
    ➔ -elqel / #q'____
    ➔ -elqel / _ _ _

12. //á·meô// 'height'
    ➔ -á·meô / čě·m-Aa____
    ➔ -meô / c'f·h'____
    ➔ -á·meô / k'eqt____ (i.e. _ _ _
    possibly related to or ➔ -ř·meô / řisêle, řiy____

13. //řres// 'canoe paddle'
    ➔ -řres / řepřl____
    ➔ -řres / Cl, V____
    ➔ -ř(res) / _ _ _
14. //-qәl// 'language'
   → -qәyl / ___-әm
   → -qәl / ___

15. //-ә·lә// 'young'
   → -?ә·lә / c^{-1},y_{y}___
   → -hә·lә / (1,y)ә___
   → -әә / stē·x^{w}, ssh'әax'eq___
   → -ә·lә / c___ (i.e. ___)

16. //-ә·lә// 'container of, receptacle for'
   → -әlә / x^{w}iyaq^{w}___
   → -әlә / \theta'әs, xәlәw___
   → -?ә·lә / c^{-1},y_{y}___
   → -hә·lә / (1,y)ә___
   → -ә·lә / \forall((C)\forall)___
   → -ә·lә / ___

17. //-ә·wәl// 'vessel, container'
   → -ә·wәl / c'әq^{w}___
   → -ә·wәl / c'әc'әm, x_{y}___
   possibly → -ә·wәl / sk^{w}әtәx^{w}___
   → -wәl / ___

18. //-әq// 'male'
   → -ә·q / #ә___
   → -әq / ___

19. //-ә'ә// 'clothing'
   → -ә'ә / hәwo___-ә·m
   → -ә'ә // -ә'ә / ___
20. //-ep// 'ground, dirt'
   → -ep / sə́y, sq'ēx____
   → -fp / sqwə́l, ḫ'ēs____
   → -ep / ṣ'C____
   → -ep / VC, VC____ (i.e. ____)

21. //-là·mét// 'oneself (reflexive)'
   → -lemet / ḫistē(l)____
   → -là·mét / ____

22. //-ɛ·y// 'bark and wood'
   → -ɛy - iy / slew____
   → -øy - iy / VC(V)C____
   → -ɛ·y / ____

23. //-ɛ·i// 'deceased'
   → -ɛyi / swélům____ (< s-wélům + Ae deriv.)
   → -ɛ·i / V____ (i.e. ____)
   possibly related to //-(o)l// 'past'

24. //-tel// 'device, instrument for'
   → -tɛ·l / steq, possibly p'fp'ekw____
   → -tel / ____

25. //-iłs// 'tool, device'
   → -el / lá·θ, šwec'tim____
   → -iłs / θ'ärw, sx'āwxw, yəq'eqsw, xw'eq'sw____
   → -ęls / ____

26. //-ɛ·m// 'strength' shows dissimilation
   → -ɛ·m / CěC____
   → -ém / CěC____
27. //-ó·mexY// 'appearance, -looking'
   → -ó·mexY / CV·C
   → -á·mexY / ___

28. //-é·ls// 'intransitive' → -els only under 'continuative' ablaut. //-xSyel// 'foot, leg' → -xSyel only under 'continuative' or derivational ablaut. //-exY// 'upright, standing, erect' → -éxY and -áxY only under 'continuative' or derivational ablaut.

See the chapter on lexical suffixes for examples of all the above thirty suffixes.

The above rules show all the lexical suffixes with independent vowel alternations which have come to light so far and most inflectional ones with such vowel alternations. In each case one allomorph has a stressed vowel (ɪ·, ē·, ē, ą·, or á) and another allomorph replaces it with a schwa in that position (usually unstressed). As a result of the above rules and the stress rules in 2.3.1, the stressed allomorphs occur after an unstressed syllable or after a word-initial consonant or consonant cluster; the unstressed allomorphs occur after a stressed syllable. The stress of the preceding syllable cannot be used to predict complementary distribution of all the lexical suffixes above without recasting the stress rules in 2.3.1 and adding many more (ad hoc) rules to predict the stressed allomorphs of each root. And one is still left with a
healthy number of suffix rules to predict the allomorphs of suffixes which have more than one stressed or more than one unstressed allomorph.

A few more sets of allomorphic rules have been omitted from this chapter (for example those for numeral roots and for pronoun affixes) because they can be presented more clearly in conjunction with the chapters showing their morphological systems.

2.4. Consonant Alternations and Combinations.

One of the most interesting consonant alternations is \(1 \rightarrow y\). Since this change involves a vowel and stress shift as well, it can be characterized as

\[1./\alpha l// \rightarrow iy// __ -\alpha p\]

Some examples of this (in phonemic transcription) are:

\(m\acute{e}c'\alpha l\) 'black haw berry' \(\rightarrow\) \(m\acute{e}c'i\acute{y}\alpha p\) 'black hawthorn tree'

\(\acute{h}'ik'\acute{w}l\alpha l\) 'pea, bean, Kinnickinnick berry' \(\rightarrow\) \(\acute{h}'ik'i\acute{w}l\alpha p\) 'pea or bean vine, Kinnickinnick or Indian tobacco plant'

\(\theta'\acute{o}st\alpha l\) 'metal nail' \(\rightarrow\) \(\theta'\acute{o}st\acute{y}\alpha p\) 'poplar tree' (so called because it resembles an upright nail)

\(\theta'q'\acute{w}l\cdot w\alpha l\) 'open sores inside legs or rump, hemorrhoids' \(\rightarrow\) \(\theta'q'\acute{w}l\cdot w\acute{y}\alpha p\) 'swamp gooseberry' (used for medicine for open sores and hemorrhoids)

\(\overline{\theta'\acute{e}l'\theta'\acute{e}l}\) (unattested but clearly reduplicated) \(\rightarrow\)

\(\theta'\acute{e}l'\acute{y}\alpha p\) 'tall Oregon grape bush'
*θ̆αx̆el (unattested but θ̆αx̆ 'wash' + -əl 'intransitive' probably occurs) → θ̆ex̆iyəlp 'red osier dogwood' (used as a purgative to wash out impurities or worms in one's system)

2. //əl/ → ə / ____-ɪ·l 'come, go'. As in the last rule (2.4.1), the change applies to any morphophonemic sequence of //əl// (with one exception, q̆elqeəf·l 'destroy, break (and throw away)'). Some examples:

sq̆eməl 'pit house' + -ɪ·l → sq̆emf·l - sq̆eml·l 'inside a pit house'

q̆e 'together' + -x̆əl 'foot' + -ɪ·l 'go, come' + -t

'3rd person object' → q̆ex̆i·lt 'go with, come with, be partner with s-o' (cp. s-q̆ə·x̆əl 'partner')

q̆el 'bad' + -əyəel 'lips, jaw' + -ɪ·l 'go, come' + -əm

'medio-passive' → q̆elayəf·lem - q̆eliyəf·lem

'say bad words, swear, curse'

q̆el 'talk' + -á·yəe·l 'lips, jaw' + -ɪ·l + -əm →

q̆elayəf·lem 'making music; March (when birds begin making music)'

3. //t// → ə / ____-áx̆/ '1st person singular object, me', -ámə '2nd person singular object, you'

→ t / ____

This morphophoneme appears in several very common verbal inflections: //−t − sət − št// 'do purposely' and //−st// 'causative, cause to do s-th'. I have used
the symbol T following Wayne Suttles\textsuperscript{2}. For examples of this morphophoneme see the pronoun chapter.

4. //\textepsilon'/// sporadically appears as /c'/ instead of /\textepsilon'/.
For example, 'skunk' /s\textepsilon'\textepsilon p\textepsilon q/ - /sc\textepsilon'\textepsilon p\textepsilon q/, 'medium-sized woodpecker with red under wing (red-shafted flicker)' /\textepsilon'f\textepsilon q/ can probably be equated to 'small red-headed woodpecker (red-breasted sapsucker?)' /c'f\textepsilon q/,
'osprey, fishhawk' /\textepsilon'\textepsilon x\textepsilon w\textepsilon s\textepsilon x\textepsilon w/ - /c'\textepsilon x\textepsilon c'\textepsilon x\textepsilon w/, and
'swamp gooseberry' /\textepsilon q\textepsilon w f\textepsilon w f\textepsilon s\textepsilon p\textepsilon / - /c'q\textepsilon w f\textepsilon w f\textepsilon s\textepsilon p\textepsilon /.

When questioned on this alternation, native speakers seem to regard /\textepsilon'/ as more basic and pronunciations of /c'/ as idiolectal or dialectal variation, lenis pronunciation (perhaps sociolinguistically inferior) or error. It is unclear whether this variation is restricted to certain morphemes or can occur with any morpheme containing //\textepsilon'// if the sociolinguistic conditions are right.

5. Glottalization and deglottalization have a derivational function in a few sets of examples but are too unsystematic to be given the status of a morphophonemic rule. Examples:

\begin{verbatim}
p \rightarrow p' as in s-\textepsilon'\textepsilon p 'deep, down', \textepsilon'\textepsilon p-f\textepsilon l 'go
   down, descend' beside s-\textepsilon'\textepsilon p-f\textepsilon l\textepsilon c 'tail',
\textepsilon'\textepsilon p-f\textepsilon l\textepsilon c-\textepsilon m 'wagging its tail'; also sq\textepsilon'\textepsilon p
   'together, a gathering' beside sq\textepsilon'\textepsilon p-f\textepsilon l\textepsilon\textepsilon t\textepsilon e\textepsilon l \textepsilon n\textepsilon e\textepsilon d
\end{verbatim}

θ → θ' as in θéxʷ 'disappear', θéxʷ-á·t-əs 's-o concealed s-th' beside θ'èxʷ 'burn out, go down (of sun, moon, fire)' (unless the later is a semantic extension of θéxʷ 'wash')

kʷ → k'ʷ as in k'wixʸ-ət 'name s-o or s-th' beside k'wexʸ-ət 'count s-o or s-th'; also p'èkʷ 'float, come to the surface' beside pèkʷ-əm 'be dusty' or s-pá'lkʷ-əm 'dust' (this would show p' → p deglottalization as well)

q → q' as in qá'-m 'dip or get water' beside q'əm-á's 'to dip-net'

p' → p as in s-p'èlxʷ-əm 'lungs' beside s-pəxʷə(l)-k'əl-əm 'breathe air out from lungs, sigh'

θ' → θ as in θ'ɛ·lə 'heart' beside θəəl-mət 'admire, wish for s-o or s-th'

q' → q as in c-q'ɛyx 'black', q'ɛyx-əl 'turn black' beside qɛyx-əs 'blind', qɛqɛyxələ 'shadow'; also seq' 'split in half' beside seq-ı·ws or seq-ɛyıws 'pants' (-ı·ws 'covering')

6. Labialization is used derivationally also but is not common.

q' → q'w as in c-q'ɛyx 'black' beside q'wɛyxʷ-əs - k'wiyxʷ-əs 'negro' ('black face' - 'brown face'), c²-k'wiyxʷ 'brown?', c²-q'wixʷ 'gray?', c-q'wıqʷəxʷ-əl 'brownish-black' (-əl 'ish')

q' → k'ʷ and x → xʷ may be illustrated in the above as well.
7. Backing and fronting are used derivationally too: 
\[ k^w \rightarrow q^w \text{ as in } c\acute{a}k^w \text{ 'be far off, distant' beside } \]
\[ c\acute{a}k^w \text{ 'backwoods'; also } t\acute{e}k^w \text{ 'get muddy' } \]
beside \( \theta^e\omegaq^w\text{-é}'ce \text{ 'mudpuddle, dirty pond' (é'}ce \text{ is 'unclear liquid') } \]
\[ k^w \rightarrow q^w \text{ as in } k^w\text{-i}' \text{ or } k^w\text{-iy} \text{ 'climb' beside } \]
tem-q^w\text{-i}'-e's \text{ 'time when (everything) comes up, springtime' } \]
Examples of \( q^w \rightarrow k^w \) fronting can be seen in 2.4.6.

8. There are a few examples of affrication as a derivational process:
\[ t' \rightarrow \theta' \text{ as in } t\acute{e}k^w \text{ 'get muddy', } t\acute{e}k^w\text{-e}k^w \text{ 'muddy' } \]
beside \( \theta^e\omegaq^w\text{-é}'ce \text{ 'mudpuddle, dirty pond'; also } \]
t\'eq^w\text{-á}t \text{ 'cut s-th in half' beside } \theta^i\omegaq^w\text{-élcep 'split (fire)wood, chop wood' (élcep or -cep } \]
means 'firewood')(this example is not applicable if \( \theta^i\omegaq^w\text{-élcep } < \theta^i\omegaq^w\text{-et 'punch or hit s-o or s-th'} \).

9. Some consonant cluster simplification occurs, especially with sonorants and sibilants. Several rules can be observed:

1. Sonorant \( a \text{ } \rightarrow \emptyset \text{ in free variation with length after sonorant } a \). Examples: \( t\acute{e}l \text{ 'understand' } + \text{-l 'pur-} \]
posely' + \( -\text{ex}^w \text{ '3rd person object', -es '3rd person sub-} \]
ject' \rightarrow \( t\acute{e}l\text{-ex}^w\text{-es 's-o understands s-th'; } t\acute{e}l \text{'under-} \]
stand' + \( -\text{á} \text{-met 'by oneself' } \rightarrow t\acute{e}l\text{-á} \text{-met } \)

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'understand'; q'wâqWel 'talking' + -Aœ- derivational ablaut + -léc 'rump, bottom' → q'wâqWeléc 'to gossip'; ñe- (meaning unclear) + q'ël 'believe' + -l 'purposely' + -exW '3rd person object' → ñeq'él·exW - ñeq'él·exW - ñeq'él·exW 'know s-th'.

.2. s → Ø / s_. Examples: all third person possessives of stems ending in s as in músmes 'cow' + -s '3rd person possessive' → músmes 'his cow, her cow, their cow'; stá·les 'wife' + -s → stá·les 'his wife'; etc.

.3. (c, t) + s → c / ____c, #
Examples: ñêt 'to say' + -sT 'causative' + -exW '3rd person object' + -es '3rd person subject' → ñectexWes 's-o told s-o'; qelét 'again, another' (root shape unclear, stem includes -ët '3rd person object') + -s (probably) '3rd person subject' + -cë 'future' → qelècë [qelâcë] 'do it over, try it again'; ñâ·kWeléc 'back (of body)' + -s '3rd person possessive' → ñâ·kWeléc 'his back' along with other examples of c-final noun stems suffixed with -s.

.4. T → Ø / ____c in one example found to date: ñeq'ë·t 'be wide' + -ces 'hand' → ñeq'ë·ces 'five'.
I mention that this is of limited occurrence (unlike 2.4.9.1 through 2.4.9.3) since there are a number of cases of T → t / ____-cë 'future' (there, /t/ is aspirated due to phonemic rules).
2.4.10. A number of allomorphic rules involve consonant alternations, but they are so morpheme-dependent that they are best listed in the lexicon. A sample of these might include:

1. \{-x^v_el\} 'foot, leg' \(\rightarrow\) \(-x^v_e / \_\_-(e)T\)

2. \{-q\_el\} 'language' \(\rightarrow\) \(-q_e / \_\_-(e)T\)

3. \{h\_éqt\} 'long' \(\rightarrow\) \(h\_éltq / \_\_élc, éle\)

4. \{q\_émél\} 'paddle' \(\rightarrow\) \(q\_em\_w / \_\_ép\)
   (cp. s-q\_émél 'canoe paddle')

5. \{c\_em\} 'bite' \(\rightarrow\) \(c\_émx^v / \_\_\_á\_y\_el\)

6. \{há\_y\} 'finish' \(\rightarrow\) \(há / \_\_\_á\_y\_el\)

7. \{?\_y\} 'be good' \(\rightarrow\) \(?\_y / \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_derivalational suffix\)
2.5. Reduplication.

2.5.0. Types of Reduplication. Reduplication occurs prefixed, suffixed, and infixed. One of the infixed types is extremely productive. Some types of reduplication are stress attracting; others are always unstressed but occur in predictable locations in regard to stress. The range of meanings conveyed by reduplication also shows some patterning, sometimes predictable by word class, sometimes by semantic domain, sometimes unpredictable.

Reduplication will be considered here as defined solely on a phonological basis: all examples are considered in which at least a consonant of the root word was duplicated in an adjacent syllable. As a result, the examples include (besides productive types of reduplication) a number of non-productive types and a number of examples in which no clear meaning has been isolated for the reduplication (through lack of an unreduplicated form). The latter examples may be crystallized forms in which there was originally a verb plus continuative or noun plus diminutive or the like, which has since lost its literal meaning and its unreduplicated counterpart. This process can be seen taking place in at least one example ('Scotch thistle'). In addition to including such examples, the selection process may have also included forms whose apparent
reduplication is the result of historical merger or derivational affixation as yet undetected.

Examples will be quoted in morphophonemic transcription with affixes segmented. Ten types of reduplication (R) have been classified on the basis of shape and position regarding the root. Each type is given a subscript number and hyphenated to indicate whether prefixed, infixed, or suffixed. The consonant reduplicated is numbered in the description of each type to correspond with the position of the consonants in the root. Thus \(-\text{R}_1\) is the first type of reduplication, an infix with the shape \(-\text{C}_1\text{e}\)-, where \(\text{C}_1\) is the first consonant of the unaffixed root and \(\text{e}\) is the phonème or morphophoneme \(\text{e}\). (Wherever a phoneme is not covered by a morphophonemic or allomorphic rule it can be transcribed morphophonemically by the phonemic symbol and called a morphophoneme on the morphophonemic level.) Since reduplication is defined in terms of roots, it may be helpful here to note that a root is a morpheme with lexical meaning, which has been stripped of all affixes.

2.5.1. \(-\text{R}_1\)- infixes \(-\text{C}_1\text{e}\)- after the first vowel of the root (prefixes, such as \(s-\), \(x^w\) or \(\text{tes}^w\)-, of course are not part of the root). The infix is unstressed and follows a high-stressed syllable.

\(-\text{R}_1\) encompasses the following meanings: 'continuative', 'diminutive', 'pet name', 'verbal adjective'
and 'comparative'. This type of reduplication is very productive; over 150 examples have been obtained without even trying. Here are some examples showing the unreduplicated form to the left of the colon and the reduplicated form to the right. Examples without a colon will be reduplicated forms for which I have not yet found corresponding unreduplicated forms.

\[ \text{x̌já·k'w-ēm 'bathe': x̌jáx̌jek'w-ēm 'bathing'} \]
\[ \text{yíq 'fall (of snow)': yíyeq 'falling (of snow)'} \]
\[ \text{k'wíf(′)m-ēl 'get red': k'wík'm-ēl 'getting red'} \]
\[ \text{t'íl-ēm 'sing': t'ít'el-ēm 'singing'} \]
\[ \text{s-t'íl-ēm 'song': s-t't'el-ēm-s 'his singing'} \]
\[ \text{p'ēθ 'sew': p'ēp'ēθ 'sewing'} \]
\[ \text{mátes 'point, aim': mámat'as 'pointing'} \]
\[ \text{q'wíl 'talk': q'wáq'el 'talking' (also has Aa)} \]
\[ \text{q'ēyq'el 'gone black': q'ēyq'eq'el 'getting black'} \]

(see 2.3.3.8 for this and similar forms)

\[ \text{s-pàleq'w-lēθ 'ghost, dead body': s-pàpelq'w-lēθ 'screech owl; little ghost'} \]
\[ \text{q'é'mi 'adolescent girl': q'éq'emi 'little girl (4 years old or so)} \]
\[ \text{s-tálo(w) 'river': s-tátelo(w) 'creek'} \]
\[ \text{čá·ce 'lake': čá(′)čce 'little lake'} \]
\[ \text{s-tílθ 'skinny': s-títeθ-ēl 'puny'} \]
\[ \text{síle 'grandparent': sísele 'granny (pet name)'} \]
\[ \text{tēl 'mother': tētel 'Mom (pet name)'} \]
mę·l 'father': mémel 'Dad (pet name)'
s-c'á·meq' 'great grandparent; great grandchild':
  s-c'ác'éméq' 'great grandparent or great grand-
  child (pet name for both)'
s-pí·w 'ice' (cp. pí(·)w-ät 'freeze s-th'): s-pípèw
  'frozen'
θ'á·ë·-em sq'áq'ëy 'a cold (lit. chill sickness)':
  θ'áë'ëí·-em 'chilled, being chilled'
k'ë·-em 'salt': k'ëk'ëí·-em 'salty'
kíwès 'get burned': kíwä(·)kíwes 'hot'
t'ët'ëë·-em 'fermenting, sour (of apples, half-ripe
  fruit)' (~ t'ët'ëë·-em)
sísæ·-em 'bitter (of rancid peanuts, medicines, roots,
  cascara bark, etc.)'
q'éq'ët·-em 'sweet-tasting'
c'ëc'ës·-em 'tasty, good-tasting (of meat, nuts, etc.
  but not a sweet taste)'
s-cí·z 'first born', s-cez·á·yël 'upper lip':
  ciceł 'high, top, above'
s-ëf·-eqel 'loud voice (lit. big throat)': ëíëë
  'bigger, larger', ëíëë-hëløq 'getting bigger'
c'ëc'ël 'very'

In nouns and verbal adjectives there often seems to
be a 'continuative' -R₁- (no longer translated as such)
in examples of crystallized reduplication. For example:
yël'-ëT 'fell a tree': s-yløeq' 'a.log'
sk̓uk̓elst̓ləq 'teacher' (probably < sk̓úl 'school')
ɪf-c'-et 'cut s-th': s(-)xʷ-ɪfəc'-əls 'a saw'
x̣ɪp-ət 'carve s-th': s-x̣ɪx̣əp 'a planer'
pi(·)w-ət 'freeze s-th': pɪpəwəłs 'freezing cold'
sx̣ex̣em 'shallow water'
ş̣əm 'quieter water, died down a little': sq̣əq̣əm 'calm
water, quiet water'
t'el 'go out of sight (of sun, person, etc.): st'et'el 'shade (of a tree, etc.)'
χ̣əx̣el 'frost'
θ'ęθ'el 'crystal'
p'ęp'ỵ-əm 'shy, quiet'
q'ęq'ək 'fit(s), convulsion(s)'
t'át'əəm 'flea'
θaθ'əl 'mouth'
cəcəw 'beach, shore'
s-θeθəyəl - s-θeθiyəl 'blood'

A dozen or so examples have the high stress shifted
away from the syllable before the reduplication, due
to a high stressed suffix. This is predictable from
rules which have already been given. Some examples:
s- 'nominal' + hələk'w 'flying' + -ı-wəł 'inside(s)'
→ sələk'wɨ̱-wəł 'surprised, stupified'; cá'k'w 'be
far away, be distant' + -R₁- 'continuative'? + -áləs
'eyes' → cək'wá̱ləs 'goatsbeard plant' (since its
white blooms can be seen from a great distance);
mè·ə₁·e₁-qé₁·ə₁-m 'lie, prevaricate' + -R₁- 'continuative' → mèmə₁·e₁qé₁m 'lying'; ə₁wq⁻₁·m 'medium-sized gray swamp blueberries' + -R₁- 'diminutive' → ə₁₂ə₁wq⁻₁·m 'small gray swamp blueberries'.

2.5.2. -R₂ suffixes -C₁C₂ after C₂ of the root. This suffix is unstressed and follows a high-stressed syllable. The semantic area covered is a sort of 'inherent continuative' (so continuative that it extends the meaning of the root), 'inherent plural', perhaps a few examples of plain 'continuative' and 'plural', and a number of examples of flora and fauna in which the reduplication is petrified or crystallized and its meaning is not clear. As in other types of reduplication the stress pattern is sometimes changed because of high-stressed suffixes (added here after the reduplication). In some of these cases, where stress is shifted and where the root vowel is e, it is difficult to tell whether the example has -R₂ or R₃⁻.

-R₂ is a less productive type of reduplication, so all the examples found to date have been included in what follows:
qʷe₁·l 'talk'; s-qʷélqʷel 'language, talk', qʷélqʷel 'rowdy', s-qʷ₁ə₁qʷel-ɛ₁·wtxʷ 'language room' (modern coinage), qʷ₁ə₁qʷel-ə₁·wə₁l 'talkative, talks too much' ("rowdy mouth"), qʷ₁u₁·lqʷel - qʷ₁d₁·lqʷel'tel 'they were all talking, talking together'
læq'ë·lq'æl 'travel', læq'ë·lq'æl 'travelling'
læt q"wæl 'become ripe, get ripe': læt q"wæl q"wæl 'gone overripe'

s¬æc¬æc 'stuttering (noun)', ñæc¬æc 'stuttering (verb)'
(as AC explained it there is no non-continuative form because "you can't stutter just once")
cæq"w 'poke': cæq"cæq"w-T¬æx¬æ 'it's poking you'
q"weyflexy 'to dance': q"wea"q"weyflexy 'a dancer'
qušl 'be bad': qælqæl¬i·l 'break and destroy s-th'
mælæl 'blunder, make a mistake', mælæl¬a·yæl 'blunder in speaking'

root sel¬- 'spin': sælsæl - sælsæltæl 'wool spindle'
cæwæw 'away from the shore, toward the river' (becomes [čuwčuw] as result of phonemic rules)
qæyæx¬æl 'get black, go black': qæyqæyæxælæ (which can also be interpreted qæyqæyælæ) 'shadow',
qæyqæyælæsæm 'ray of sun between clouds'
ææwelæ 'bark': ñææwelæ 'barking (of dog(s))'
qælæqt 'open one's eyes': qælælæqt 'lightning,
(Thunderbird) opening his eyes'
tæy 'to canoe-race': qistæytæyl 'a group of canoes travelling upstream (moving camp to fish or dry fish)' (could also be derived from root tæyt 'up-river')

qæylælem¬æ·s 'fleecy wave clouds'
sæm¬æl - æm¬æl - sæmæm 'dew' (cp. æm¬æw 'to
rain')
yeq'-eT 'to fell a tree', s-yeq'yeq' 'a log': s-yeq'(e)eq' 'a lot of logs'
θ'eq'w 'wash': θ'eq'we'eq'w 'fishhawk, osprey'
mek'mek' 'bumblebee' (CT) (possibly < mek 'stout, strong')
wethθeq' - wiθ-iθeq 'snipe'
s-k'weθ'k'weθ' 'willow grouse'
q'eq's-eT 'tie s-th': q'eq'q'es(e)eq' 'spider (the weaver or net-maker)' (cp. also sx^-eq'eq'q'eq'eq' 'netting shuttle, a shuttle for making nets')
q'eq'q'eq'eq'w 'Kawkawa Lake', q'eq'q'eq'eq'-elθθeq 'name of a male loon', q'eq'q'eq'eq'-elθ't 'name of female loon'
θ'eq'eq'eq' 'stinging nettle'
xΘθq'em 'mushroom'
s-q'eq'eq'eq' 'musk rat'
musmes 'cow' (fits pattern though < Chinook jargon)
tew-θeq 'sloping floor': tewtew-θeq 'name of a mountain near Yale' may fit here too.

2.5.3. R2- prefixes C1eC2- to C1 of the root. This prefix is unstressed and immediately precedes a high-stressed syllable (except with the word for 'dog'). As in -R1- and -R2- high stress is sometimes shifted to a high stressed suffix. The meaning is 'plural' in all but two or three cases (once 'diminutive', once 'eldest', and in four cases crystallized without a non-redundated counterpart attested). All examples found are
cited here:

sf'le 'grandparent': sel'si'le 'grandparents'

?f'meθ 'grandchild': ?em?f'meθ 'grandchildren'

s-žl'li(y) 'woman (16 yrs. or older)': selžl'li(y) 'women (16 yrs. or older)'

?žl'ex 'sibling': ?elžl'ex 'siblings'

sx'-žl'ex 'husband's sister, (possibly also woman's brother's wife)': sx'-elžl'ex 'husband's sisters'

s-ta'les 'wife': stelt'a'les 'wives'

s-x'em'giyel (possibly -e') 'deceased uncle, aunt or grandmother, or someone else deceased who is responsible for ego directly or indirectly':

sx'emex'em'giyel 'deceased uncles, aunts or grandmothers, or others deceased who were responsible for ego directly or indirectly'

s-mel't 'rock, mountain': smel'mel't 'rocks, mountains'

θeq't 'tree': θeqθeqet 'trees'

s-θ'm'ey 'dog': sqθ'emqθ'm'ey 'dogs'

t'el'low 'arm': t'el't'el'low 'both arms'

θam'ol 'eyebrow': θemθam'ol 'both eyebrows'

qwilös = q'tylös 'hair on body': sqwilq'ylös 'body hairs', sqwilq'elq'qsel 'hair(s) in nose', qwilq'eluq'-x'el 'tufted leg hair on horse (like on a Clydesdale)'

s-q'elq'elp-θeq 'curly hair'
sxʷʔile 'cheek'; sxʷʔelʔile 'both cheeks'

qʷəmxʷ-ces 'wrist bone, lump of wrist'; (Chehalis dialect) qʷəmqʷəmces 'hand and finger joints (collectively)', (Chehalis) qʷəmqʷəm-xʔel 'foot and toe joints (collectively)'

qʷáʔmə' 'lump'; qʷəmqʷáʔmə' 'lots of anthills'

t(ə)qʷəT 'close s-th (door, etc.)': steqʔeq 'jampile, logjam'

p'élqʷ-em 'sparkling, glinting'; p'əlp'élqʷem-ɛ·ləws 'poplar (lit. sparkling leaves)' (-ɛ·ləws 'leaf')

c'eqʷ 'poke'; c'eqʷc'eqʷ 'thorn' also 'Scotch thistle'

st'elt'eləxel 'a square' (-əlxel 'arm')

C'əxʷ 'jump'; əxʷəm-xʔel 'grasshopper' (probably a back-formation)

s-tá·ləw 'river': telələwəm 'lots of little streams (like run down a hill after a rain)'

s-xəle 'leg'; sxələxle·s te s-yə.qʷəm 'shafts of light (lit. legs of the sun)'

yəl·əs 'tooth'; yəlyələsəm 'many icicles', syəlyələsəm 'icicle' (this gloss and the e may be in error)

kʷəlqələm 'cave'; kʷəlkʷəlqələm 'caves' (probably has -qəl 'throat and mouth')

s-xeq'xeq'ət 'a little bluff'

(Tait dialect) lexʷəxʷ 'choke cherry' (cp. lexʷ-əce ?

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'to spit', -éćeś 'unclear liquid')
lēp'əx' 'eat': lēp'lēp'əx' 'eat it all'
lēk'əx' 'break a leg': lēk'ək'ət 'break s-th into small pieces (like kindling)'
yeq' 'burn': yeq'eq' 'burned up', s-yeq'eq' 'something which burned up', yeq'yeq' 'name of village now Yakweakwioose Reservation (lit. repeatedly burnt out covering (either houses or grass))'
seq'-eq' 'split s-th': seq'seq'ət - seq'ət 'splitting them up, chopping them up'
s-əmēeq' 'rough (of wood)'
χeqm-əl - χeqm-əl 'grab': χeqm eqm əeqm 'hawk, chickenhawk' (grabs things)
s-c'áeq' 'great grandparent, great grandchild' (probably has -eq' 'head' in metaphorical sense):
sc'əmc'áeq' 'eldest great grandchild'
?el?éliys 'dream, dreaming' (AC)
θ'eq 'c'eq 'in-law after death of connecting relative': c'eqc'eq 'in-laws after death of connecting relative'

2.5.4. \( R_4 \)-prefixes \( C_1 \)- to \( C_1 \) of the root and has the meaning 'diminutive'. It attracts the high stress of the word in all cases but those with high-stressed suffixes and five other examples. With some examples it is also hard to tell root vowel i + -R_1-
from root vowel e + R₄- . Another feature which may be
related to R₄- (or to the fact that R₄- is high stressed)
is frequent ablaut of root vowel after R₄- is prefixed.
Following are the examples found to date of R₄-:
sqewēθ 'big rabbit, rabbit': sqi̱qewēθ 'small rabbit'
sk'wēl 'waterfall': sk'wik'wēl 'small waterfall'
sk'welyēxēl 'bat': sk'wik'welyēxēl 'young bat'
θeqē't 'tree': θiθeqet 'little tree' (~ θiθeqet)
pēhamō: 'bullfrog, big pretty-colored frog': pīpēhā:m
'frog'
x'yā:k'w-ém 'bathe': x'yix'yek'wam 'swimming'
s-yeq'w-ī:l 'lamp, lantern': yīy eq'w-ī:l 'small light,
candle'
?ex'w-ī:l 'small': ?i?ex'w-ī:l 'smaller'
mā'q'w 'bird': mī'meq'w 'small bird'
sq'wēmy 'dog': sq'wik'wēmy 'puppy'
sx'ā:x'we' 'crazy, insane': sx'wik'ā:x'we' 'stupid, not
all there'
q'wēy-ōl 'gone yellow': q'wik'wāy-ōls 'orange (color and
fruit)'
smīmeyēθ 'butterfly', smīmexēθ 'caterpillar'
?elīlē - ?elīlē 'salmonberry' (cp. līlē-cēs 'little
berry basket (tied around waist, used first then
dumped into big berry basket)', this Tait dialect
form means "salmonberries in hand")
swiwe 'eulachon, candlefish'
st'ëx 'fork (in tree, stream, etc.): st'it'ëx-eyes
'Ruby Creek (lit. 'little fork'), st'it'ëx-áyéq
'fork in roots or tree', t'it'ëx-áyéq 'crutch'
possibly q'iwí 'copper'
(Chehalis dialect) sk'ik'sk' 'chickadee' (k' endearing)
sqë•q 'younger sibling': k'ik' - k'ik'sk' 'little
sister, darling or dear (mother to little girl')
wík'í 'wiwik'í 'darling or dear (mother to boy')
xîwéq 'wild carrot': xîxwíywéq 'little carrots'
mémélehá•l 'bird's egg' (< méméle 'children' < méle
'child'); smémélahálistle 'little bird's nest'
žel•tel 'a bailer'; želélélec 'island in front of
Union Bar (only cut off from land during high
water time)' (lit. little bailer at bottom)
seqí•ws 'pants': siséqíws 'short pants, little pants'
hówt 'rat': hihiwt 'small rat' (cp. hieheléwt 'a few
little rats')
xîxwek'íw 'mountain blueberry resembling sìxwóxíxwéq
but sweeter'
sp'ë ê 'red-flowering currant, Indian currant':
spípëhë ê 'speckled trout or landlocked salmon
(which is said to hatch from Indian currant ber-
ries which drop into the water')
cq'ëyëx 'black': cq'iwíwëx•el 'brownish-black'
t'itélele 'fawn'
shëp 'deep, below, under'; sh'ësp-l-ëyíws 'man's
underpants', x'ix'ap-1-élwet 'man's underclothes'
x'yec'-1-ém 'go through the woods'; sx'yix'yec' 'small bush, woods'
x'yix'yelex-wè 'fish air bladder'
q'emq'èl 'mountain ash' (possibly < q'èl 'spill out')
θ'ëx'w-met - θ'iθ'ex'w-met 'compassion, pity'
sk'ix'æqel 'child (generic)'
sw'wæle 'adolescent boy'
sk'ix'æx'yel 'baby sockeye'
possibly ssèm 'feel creepy, fear s-th behind': ssèl 'be afraid, nervous'

2.5.5. R₅- prefixes C₁-e- to C₁ of the root, remains unstressed, and precedes the high-stressed syllable. Its meaning is 'continuative', 'inherent continuative', 'plural' and 'diminutive' and 'distributive'. The examples found are as follows:
x'í 'wake': x'æx'yí 'waking', s-x'æx'yí 'awakened'
χ'æyl-t 'write s-th, draw s-th'; χ'æx'æylt 'writing, drawing'
k'æf(y) 'climb': k'æk'æf 'climbing'
k'æf(•)s-æl 'get red': k'æk'æmel-æs-æm 'blushing, one's face is red' (-æl- infix unclear)
x'wè 'starve, be hungry': x'æx'wè 'starving'
t'æmèl 'chip', t'æmèls 'chop with axe': t'æt'æmèls 'chopping; a chisel'
q'æmá 'suckle': q'æq'æmá 'suckling'
kʷč·l 'to hide': kʷwčkʷf·l 'hiding'
c'čɛ·mɛt 'hear (s-th)': c'ɛc'čɛ·mɛt 'hearing'
tέs 'approach, get near': stɛtis '(be) near, close'
qʷɛ 'get a hole': s-qʷeqʷɛ 'a hole'
s-q'ɛp 'a gathering': sq'eq'ip 'gathered' (with Ai)
t'et'á·sθet 'walk quietly, creep', t'et'ɛsθet 'walking
along quietly, creeping along', t'et'ɛsx'yɛlɛm
'creeping (more than one)'
peqʷ-āt 'break s-th': spəpiqʷ 'broken'
mолɛc?·mɛT-ά·yθɛl 'mixed up in speaking': mɛmflɛc'
'mixed up'
sɛ'ɛɛ'fɛkʷ 'sores'
sx̌ɬɛl 'leg, foot': sx̌əx̌ɬyɛl 'legs, feet'
q'eq'ɛy 'guts, intestines'
s-c'ɛ·mɛqʷ 'great grandparent, great grandchild',
s-c'ɛlɛ·mɛqʷ (-ɛl- 'plural' infix) - sc'ɛc'ɛlɛ·mɛqʷ
'great grandparents, great grandchildren'
spá·l 'crow': spəpəlɛl 'bunch of small crows'
< spəpəl 'small crow'
sx̌wɛyɛ́m 'myth' (from Elmendorf + Suttles 1960):
sx̌wəx̌wɛyɛ́m 'story, fable'
xʷɛx̌ɛ·ye 'big fly, blowfly', xʷɛx̌wiyɛ·ye - xʷiwiyɛ·ye
'housefly' (glosses may be exchanged in error)
xʷɛx̌wiye 'worm in salmonberries'
xəqá·θɛl 'four': xəxəqá·θɛl 'four to each' (AC says
this may be Nooksack; no other distributives among
the numerals):
q^Weq^Wɛ.l 'small float for nets (made from singed cedar)'

2.5.6. -R₅⁻- infixes -aC₂⁻- before V₁ (root vowel).
It is unstressed and occurs before a high-stressed
syllable. It seems to have two meanings, 'diminutive'
and 'plural', but like the remaining types of redup-
lication it is very rare. The few examples found are
given here.
spé.l 'crow': spelá(•)l 'small crow'
x^Woex^Wɛ.ye 'large fly' (already with R₅⁻-):
   x^Woex^Wyiyɛ.ye 'housefly, small fly' (R₅⁻x^W_R₅⁻yɛ.ye)
   (iy < //e/)
s-c'iýáye (< //s-c'eýáye/ < //s-c'R₆áye//) 'twins'
selé.c' 'different': selélec' 'two different things'
   (the latter form could have plural infix -əl-
   instead of -R₅⁻-)

2.5.7. R₇⁻ prefixes C₁ɛ⁻ to C₁ of the root. It
attracts the high stress of the root except when a
high-stressed suffix causes stress shifting. It has
'plural', 'diminutive' and 'emphatic' meanings in the
few examples found so far:
mêle 'child (kinterm), offspring'; mêmêle ~ mê·mêle
   'children (kinterm)'
tex^W·mêlem 'stepchild'; tex^W·mêmêlem ~ tex^W·mê·mêlem
   'stepchildren'
mêmêleshá.lłą 'bird egg' (-há.lłą 'young')
yalw 'after': yéyálw 'a little after'

?élø - ?élø 'I, me, it's me, I'm the one who':

?él?élø 'I, me, it's me, I'm the one who (all emphatic uses)'

possibly ìlé'l 'in the back, inside'

2.5.8. R₈- prefixes C₁ε- to C₁ of the root, remains unstressed, and precedes the high-stress syllable. It is rare. It means 'continuative' in one example, 'plural' in another, and is crystallized in an animal name in the third. The examples found:

p'élkʷ 'float, come to the surface': p'élp'élkʷ 'floating' (notice Aε in addition)

s-ti'wel 'sibling's child': stêtí'wel 'sibling's children'

cëci'qel 'martin (possibly mink)'

2.5.9. -R₉- infixes -C₁ε(•)- after the root vowel V₁. This infix attracts the high stress of the word. Its meaning is 'continuative' in process of crystallizing, or 'continuative' and 'verbal adjective'. Only three examples have been found:

c'ík'-em 'jump': c'íc'ík'-em 'jumping' (other speakers than AC have other ways of forming this continuative)

s-öökʷ - öökʷ 'straight', öökʷ-öT 'pull s-th':

s-öööökʷ 'stretched, straight, pulled tight'

χökʷ 'get narrow, wedged in': s-χøöökʷ 'canyon
(narrow, walled in with rock)'

These last two examples could also be accounted for by ablaut plus R₅⁻:

2.5.10. R₁₀⁻ prefixes C₁'à- to C₁ of the root and attracts the high stress of the root. It is a numeral classifier for 'person' with the number 'one' and may appear crystallized in two other examples:
léč'e 'one': lélec'e 'one person'
q'ë¥f·lën 'ancient, wise': possibly syilälem 'year'
possibly s-ïléła 'brown thrush'

2.5.11. Residual cases. Less than two dozen cases of apparent reduplication remain as residue. Some of these are not reduplication at all, but roots which begin and end with the same consonant:

xʷ- 'big' + tít 'upstream' + -i·m 'repeatedly' →
xʷtíiti·m 'eddies water'
q’élq’-eT 'answer s-ö, reply to s-ö', q’élq’-éyls
'answer, write a letter' (-éyls 'intransitive')
xʷexʷ 'sudden' + -f·l 'come, go' + -ex ’standing' →
xʷexʷf·lex ’get up with sudden motion'; also,
with s- 'nominal' and -á·s 'face', sxʷexʷá·s
'thunder, Thunderbird'
xʷ-pap-á·s 'hair all over the face'

?i?ayám 'walk slowly' is perhaps more a case of a petrified phrase, ?i ?áy 'keep on' (response to a story-teller) + ?á·yém 'slow, late'.
s-xʷəmlí·kʷ 'parent's sibling'; sxʷəmlé·ləkʷ 'parent's siblings' is a case of Aₚ + 'plural' infix -le-.

The remaining cases do seem to have reduplication; they will be given with possible analyses:

ʔəml·məl - ʔəməməl 'a small bit' may have ʔə- prefix + R₄- 'diminutive' + root məl; or ʔə- + root mɪ·l + -R₁-.

s-θéθqí 'sweet green shoots of thimbleberry, salmonberry, fireweed, etc.' may have -R₁- crystallized.

s-w̱əx̱ix̱eq 'low small gray mountain blueberry' either has a stressed prefix + R₄- or crystallized -R₆- 'diminutive'.

qá· 'water': təm- 'time' + qeqá· 'high water' → təmqeqá· 'high water time; June' and s- 'nominal' + qeqá· 'high water' + -qəl 'head' → sqeqá·qəl 'a clear pond' both show qeqá· which is not otherwise attested. qeqá· probably features R₅- with 'plural', 'inherent continuative' or 'continuative' meanings.

s-kʷəkʷq̱e(·)q 'robin' could be analyzed as -R₁- + root kʷəq̱áq + -e(·)q (unattested) or as new types of reduplication.

q'ayíyeq 'elk' may have crystallized -R₁- (with prefix), R₄-, R₅- or -R₆- (the last two would require stress shifting as well and are less likely).

kʷɛ·t'əl 'mouse'; kʷələkʷt'əl 'a few mice' seems to
show Aa + -el- 'plural' infix + 'diminutive' -R₁-

ceyləq 'big gray lizard' may have a prefix and -R₁-

?ɛləl - ?ɛlʔəl 'magpie' may show -R₂-

mekʷ-á·məl-xʔəl 'big toe (lit. stout member of foot):

kwəmkʷá·məlxʔəl 'little toes' shows 'diminutive'
by getting rid of the me of mekw 'stout, strong'
and 'plural' by R₂-

tətəθ 'vein, veins' is uncertain in form, gloss and
type of reduplication.

Finally, four cases seem to fit -R₁- except in their
stress patterns:

mə·y-T 'help s-o'; məməy-əT 'helping s-o'
mímeqʷ 'little bird'; məmɛlʃ·yəeqʷ 'flock of little
birds' (the a may be reflective of má·qʷ 'bird')
sqəwəθ 'large) rabbit', sqəqəwəθ 'small rabbit';
sqəwəqʷəwəθ 'bunch of rabbits', and
x̌ɪx̌q′ə·m 'mouth open'.

The second and third forms seem to be modifications of
already-reduplicated words.

2.5.12. Allomorphy of Reduplication.

The following tables show the range of meanings of
each type of reduplication and the range of types which
express each meaning.
- $R_1^-$ $(-c_1o- \text{ after } V_1)$ 'continuative', 'diminutive', 'pet name', 'verbal adjective', 'comparative', crystallized in flora and fauna

- $R_2^-$ $(-c_1eC_2)$ 'continuative', 'inherent continuative', 'plural', 'inherent plural', crystallized in flora and fauna

- $R_3^-$ $(c_1eC_2^-)$ 'plural' in almost every case, once 'diminutive', once 'eldest', four times crystallized in flora and other domains

- $R_4^-$ $(c_1i^-)$ 'diminutive'

- $R_5^-$ $(c_1e^-)$ 'continuative', 'inherent continuative', 'plural', 'distributive', 'diminutive'

- $R_6^-$ $(-eC_2 \text{ before } V_1)$ 'diminutive', 'plural'

- $R_7^-$ $(c_1e^-)$ 'plural', 'diminutive', 'emphatic', and crystallized in one dubious example

- $R_8^-$ $(c_1e^-)$ 'continuative', 'plural', crystallized in fauna

- $R_9^-$ $(-c_1e(-) \text{ after } V_1)$ 'continuative', possibly 'verbal adjective'

- $R_{10}^-$ $(c_1á-)$ classifier 'person', crystallized in two words (one fauna)
'continuative' \( R_1, R_2, R_5, R_8, R_9 \)

'inherent continuative' \( R_2, R_5 \)

'plural' \( R_2, R_3, R_5, R_6, R_7, R_8 \)

'inherent plural' \( R_2 \)

'diminutive' \( R_1, R_3, R_4, R_5, R_6, R_7 \)

'pet name' \( R_1 \)

'verbal adjective' \( R_1, (R_9) \)

'comparative' \( R_1 \)

crystallized in flora + fauna \( R_1, R_2, R_3, R_7, R_8, R_{10} \)

'eldest' \( R_3 \)

'distributive' \( R_5 \)

'emphasis' \( R_7 \)

'person' classifier \( R_{10} \)

Allomorphs of a single morpheme must be semantically identical or similar --allosemes-- and must be in complementary distribution predictable on the basis of phonemic or morphemic environments or both. Of the 13 meanings for reduplication shown above, the meanings connected in the following by plusses are similar enough to be allosemes of a single morpheme:
Sememe
/'continuative'/ 1.'continuative' + 'inherent continuative' + 'verbal adjective'
/'plural'/ 2.'plural' + 'inherent plural' + 'distributive'
/'diminutive'/ 3.'diminutive' + 'pet name'
/'augmentive'/ 4.'comparative' + 'eldest' + 'emphatic'
/'person classifier'/ 5.'person classifier'

Where reduplication is crystallized in names for flora and fauna, I believe the original meaning of the reduplication probably fit within 1., 2., or 3.

Further, as will be demonstrated in the morphosememic chapter, '/'continuative'/' and '/'plural'/' (1. and 2.) are morphosememically related, closely enough to form a single morphosememe, //'continuative/plural'/'.

It appears from the last two paragraphs that $R_1$ is three homophonous morphemes, $R_2$ is two morphemes, and so forth, as seen in the next chart (sememes are numbered as in the last chart):

1.  $R_1$  $R_2$  $R_5$  $R_8$  $R_9$  $R_{10}$?  //'cont.'/
2.  $R_2$  $R_3$  $R_5$  $R_6$  $R_7$  $R_8$  //'pl.'/
3.  $R_1$  $R_3$  $R_4$  $R_5$  $R_6$  $R_7$  $R_{10}$  //'dim.'/
4.  $R_1$  $R_3$  $R_7$  //'aug.'/
5.  $R_{10}$  //'person classif.'/

(Abbreviations only to fit glosses in chart.)
Considering each type of reduplication to be phonemically similar enough to each other type to be prospective allomorphs, it remains to see if we can predict any allomorph relationships on the basis of phonemic or morphemic environments.

The lists, already given, of examples of each type (leaving $R_1$ with the elsewhere environment) are predictive on the level of morphemic environment (as a last resort). But perhaps the phonemic environment can be helpful. $C_1$ and $C_2$ of the root show no correlation with reduplication type but root vowel $V_1$ does.

A noticeable feature of roots taking $-R_1$- is that so few of them have $e$ as $V_1$. Out of over 150 examples only nine have $e$ as $V_1$:

1. $q'êmâ'ns$ 'to dip net': $q'êq'êmas$ 'dip-netting'
2. $ê'ê'êy$ 'burn out (of fire, sun, moon)': $ô'ô'ô'ôy$ 'burning out'
3. $lêx^W$- 'always' + $p'êq'$ 'white' + $-R_1$- 'inherent continuative' + $-ês$ 'face' $\rightarrow$ $lêx^Wp'êp'êq'ês$ 'name of mountain on northwest side of Fraser R. between Hope and Yale'
4. $s-lêy'-ces$ 'finger': $slêlêxces$ 'all the fingers'
5. $s-lêy'-x^Wêl$ 'toe': $slêlêx^Wêl$ 'all the toes'
6. $q^Wêêê'êy$ 'driftwood': $q^Wêq^Wêêêy$ - $q^Wêêêq^Wêêêy$ 'lots of little pieces of driftwood'
7. $sqqêwêêô$ 'little rabbit' or $sqôwôô$ '(big) rabbit'.
sq'eq'ewεθ 'bunch of rabbits'
8. χεχει 'frost'
9. ḫeqfim 'medium-size gray mountain blueberry'; ḫeqfim 'small gray mountain blueberry'

We can even dispose of some of these: 1. changes its vowel ε → eγ by rule 2.3.3.8; 2. stress pattern may be θ'εθ'εγ (pointing to R₂- instead); 4. and 5. are just as plausibly analyzed as having -le- infix 'plural' (as in a number of other words) instead of -R₁-;
6. has Αε and stress shifting anyway besides the fact that q'eq'ewεγ could be an error for q'eq'eq'ewεγ (–R₂ or R₃-) which is also attested; 7. has labialization and could have Αε of diminutive R₄- vowel (in sq'eq'ewεθ);
9. could also be written as ḫo(w)qfim: ḫε-ħo(w)qfim with R₅- 'diminutive'. Only 3. and 8., with crystalized reduplication, are left with -R₁- of a ξ root (out of over 150 examples).

R₅- also has surprisingly few roots with ξ. Nine examples out of 25 have ξ as V₁, but six of these have ablauted the ξ to i (perhaps a motivation for this ablaut), while the seventh ablauts the ξ to eγ. This leaves only two examples (8. and 9. below) with ξ.

1. tɛs 'approach, get near': stɛtis 'be near'
2. sq'εp 'a gathering': sq'eq'ip 'gathered'
3. peq'-át 'break s-th': speq'w 'broken'
4. mélec'-mɛT-áγγελ 'mixed up in speaking': méfleč
'mixed up'
5. \( x^{Weyc}ye \) 'big fly': \( x^{Weyc}yle \) 'housefly'
6. \( sx^{Wyeym} \) 'myth': \( sx^{Wyeym} \) 'story, fable, tale'
7. \( sxyle \) 'leg, foot': \( sxyle \) 'legs, feet'
8. \( qemä \) 'suckle': \( qemä \) 'suckling'
9. \( t'ëmels \) 'chop with axe': \( t'ët'emels \) 'chopping; a chisel'

On the other hand, \(-R_2\) appears with roots that have \( e \) as \( V_1 \) 86 percent of the time. Four derivations of \( q'ël \) 'talk' have \( A\theta \), and both \( \lambda'ëwels \) 'bark': \( \lambda'ëwels \) 'barking' and \( q'ëys-\theta \)T 'tie s-th': \( q'ësq'\theta(\theta)\theta \)el 'spider' also have \( A\theta \). This leaves \( leq'ëlq'e \) 'travel', \( qëyqëyxelë \) 'shadow', \( syq'(e)yeq' \) 'lots of logs', \( xëylxelëmä \) 'fleecy wave clouds', and \( xistfytenel \) 'group of canoes going upstream' (possibly not \(-R_2\) but \( tif\)t 'upstream' may be root).

\( R_3 \) and \( R_4 \) have roots with any vowel as \( V_1 \); examples are so sparse for the other types, it is hard to tell for them, but all have at least some examples with \( e \) and some with non-\( e \) vowels as \( V_1 \).

It seems that \( R_2 \) and \( R_1 \) could be allomorphs of one 'continuative' morpheme, or \( R_2 \) and \( R_5 \) could be allomorphs of 'continuative' and 'plural' morphemes; these allomorphs would be in complementary distribution depending on \( V_1 \) being \( e \) or not \( e \), with a few morpheme-dependent rules to cover exceptions.
\[ R_{1/2} \text{'continuative'} \rightarrow R_1/(q'əməs), (θ'əx), p'əq' \]
\[ \rightarrow R_2/V_1 = e \]
\[ \rightarrow R_1/V_1 \neq e \quad \text{(i.e. _ _ _)} \]

or

\[ R_{2/5} \text{'continuative' and 'plural'} \]
\[ \rightarrow R_5/qəməs, t'əməls \]
\[ \rightarrow R_2/V_1 = e \]
\[ \rightarrow R_5/V_1 \neq e \quad \text{(i.e. _ _ _)} \]

Approaching reduplication from the semantic direction there is more predictability. From the tables at the beginning of this section it can be seen that 'pet name', 'verbal adjective' and 'comparative' are expressed by \( R_1 \) and no other type, 'eldest' (dubiously) by \( R_3 \) and no other type, 'distributive' by \( R_5 \) only, 'emphatic' by \( R_7 \) only, and 'person classifier' by \( R_{10} \) only. In addition, \( R_1 \) conspicuously lacks the meaning 'plural' among the things it expresses, \( R_3 \) is almost exclusively 'plural', and \( R_4 \) is exclusively 'diminutive'. The semantic and sememic patterns in all this will be considered in more detail in the chapters on sememics and morphosememics.

2.5.13. Relationship of Reduplication to Ablaut.
There are a number of similarities between reduplication and ablaut in Chilliwack and Upriver Halkomelem: the fact that both reduplication and ablaut cover 'continuative' and 'plural' (see the chapter on morphosememics),
the fact that several types of reduplication and all types of ablaut involve infixing, and the fact that several types of reduplication (like ablaut) involve adding vowels different from the root vowel or irrespective of the root vowel. These similarities in shape and meaning made it plausible to check into the possibility that reduplication and ablaut are allomorphs of a 'continuative' or a 'plural' morpheme.

Upon examination this possibility of allomorphy seems remote, for two reasons. One reason is the presence of examples with ablaut and reduplication simultaneously. The other reason is the presence of phonologically similar roots, one of which takes 'continuative' ablaut, the other of which takes 'continuative' reduplication; pairs of phonologically similar roots were also found in which one member has 'plural' ablaut and the other has 'plural' reduplication. Examples:

1. qʰə₁ 'talk': qʰaqʰə₁ 'talking' has Aa and R₁ both 'continuative'

2. qʰə₁ 'turn yellow': qʰaqʰə₁ 'turning yellow' has both Aa and R₁ 'continuative'

3. kʰwəs- 'burned, scalded': kʰwəkʰwəs 'be hot' has both Aa derivational and R₁ 'verbal adjective'

4. kʰim-əl 'get red': kʰikʰoməl 'getting red' beside ?ɨm-əxʷ 'walk': ?ɨm-əxʷ 'walking'
5. líyəm 'laugh': lé·yəm 'laughing' beside alternatives
léyəm 'laugh': léyəyəm or líyəyəm 'laughing'
6. sti·wel 'niece or nephew': stat·wel 'nephews, neices'
beside sciwtə: 'child-in-law': sci·wətə: 'child-
ren-in-law'
possibly 7. sθ étə: 'straight': sθəθθ étə: '(being)
straight, stretched, pulled tight' beside
θ étə: 'drip': θθ étə: 'dripping'.

The most fruitful area for study of the relationship between ablaut and reduplication seems to be sememic and morphosememic. The relationship will be dealt with further in those chapters.
CHAPTER 3. OUTLINE OF MORPHOLOGY

The morphology will be dealt with in chapters four through ten. These chapters will cover derivation and inflection of the Chilliwack and Upriver Halkomelem word classes: personal pronouns, verbs, particles, nominals, demonstratives, and numerals. Chapter five on lexical affix sets will deal further with derivation, as will the chapter on morphosememics. The morphological chapters will include some information on allomorphy which belongs in morphophonemics (as mentioned in chapter two) and some information that belongs in morphosememics.

The ten sets of personal pronouns include subject affixes (preposed or suffixed), object affixes (suffixed), possessive affixes (some suffixed to previous word, some to the thing possessed, some to both), a different set of subject suffixes used with verbs prefixed with {we-} 'when; if' and with verbs preceded by negative verb {'swa} 'not to be', a different set of object suffixes for the 'passive voice', and five sets of independent word personal pronouns: verbal ('it's me' for example), nominal (like 'he' and 'her' in 'he hit her'), reduplicated emphatic ('it's me' is the only member), emphatic possessive ('ours, our own' for example), and independent object of preposition- al verb. Interrogative pronouns belong rather in the
discussion of verbs (for example 'who (is it)︖' and 'what (is it)︖' are verbs). Subordination is shown through nominalizing the first word of the sentence or clause and then using possessive pronoun affixes to indicate the subordinated subject ('your seeing us is our want' → 'we want you to see us'). Thus subordination will be discussed under personal pronouns. There are also several affixes which are attached to personal pronouns to inflect personal pronouns (tɛ-, ᴴɛ-, Rʼ- , -ɛT). And there are two reflexive suffixes which can be added to verbs, {-lā·mɛT} 'oneself' and {-(e)θɛT} 'for oneself, for itself'.

Verbs are affixed with lexical and derivation affixes before being affixed with personal pronouns and future tense (if applicable). There are several intransitive suffixes ({-ɛ·1s} and {-el} are the most common). There are three main transitivizing suffixes. They do more than just transitivize; their function is more indicating control of the action. The three suffixes are {-(e)T} 'do purposely', {-l} 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage to do', and {-sT} 'causative, cause s-o to do, make s-o do'. {-mɛT} is another transitivizing suffix. After the transitivizers come object pronoun suffixes (including passive), then non-passive subject pronoun affixes, then future tense. Active voice is unmarked. Verbs are inflected
for two aspects: continuative and non-continuative. Non-continuative is unmarked; continuative is marked by ablaut or reduplication or in some cases by a prefix \{h\-\- h\-\-\}. Verbs are sometimes inflected for plural object by reduplication R\-\- and sometimes for 'diminutive', 'verbal adjective' and 'comparative' by reduplication of various types. Verbs can also be prefixed with \{we-\} 'when; if' and then they take a new, abbreviated set of subject pronouns. Verbs are sometimes suffixed with \{-e\} 'interrogative' before the subject suffix is added. However, the predominant interrogative is verb root \{if\} which can be inflected for pronoun subject in the usual way. Other suffixes which can be considered inflections are the two reflexive suffixes mentioned above, and \{-tel\} 'reciprocal' and \{-f\-m\} 'repeatedly'. English adjectives, prepositions, adverbs, and even the negative are translated into Halkomelem as verbs and are so inflected. Probably a majority of nouns have verb roots at their base and are nominalized verbs roots with \{s-\} 'nominalizer'.

Nominals are derived by ablaut and lexical and derivational affixes, rarely by crystallized 'plural' or 'continuative' reduplication. The nominalizer par excellence is the \{s-\} prefix. This prefix is sometimes preposed (suffixed to the preceding word, usually to \{k\-\W\} or \{k\W\}) to nominalize subordinate
clauses or sentences. Another mark of nominals is a preceding demonstrative article \( t\varepsilon, \theta\varepsilon, k^w\theta\varepsilon, k^w\varepsilon, k^w\varepsilon \), etc. Nominals can also be simple underived nouns. Nominals can be inflected for plural (most are not) by ablaut, reduplication or the \{ -el- -el- \} infix. Nominals can also be inflected for 'diminutive', 'pet name', and 'eldest' by reduplication. They can be inflected of course for 'possessive' by the possessive pronouns, and such inflection would follow any other nominal inflection done.

Particles are a small catch-all class of uninflectable words (conjunctions and modals (usually unstressed), interjections (which can be stressed) and perhaps some unstressed adverbials). There are other unstressed words (such as many demonstratives) which do not belong in this class. Particles, to give a sample, include: qe 'and, but, or', qes 'and', su 'so, then', qes(w) -e 'until', combinations of qe and k\'a with su; t\'we 'must', c\'e - ë\'e 'it is said, they say', k\'w\'e 'anyway', \?iý\'a\'lem 'can, could', y\'ás\'we 'maybe, perhaps'; q\'él\'âm \'oh my goodness!', \?ë-cële 'gee!, good grief!', lëw 'say!, hello'; and perhaps adverbials like we\á 'already' and x\'wél 'yet, still'. Others are listed in the chapter.
Halkomelem demonstratives exist in several sets. Some, often two words, serve as typical demonstratives ('this', 'that', etc.); some serve as demonstrative verbs ('be here', 'be there') which are the Halkomelem equivalent of adverbs; some serve as obligatory demonstrative articles which must appear with each nominal or nominalized phrase or sentence. The latter set of demonstratives consists largely of unstressed roots, which have a shape $C_1(C_2)(e)$. These roots are inflected with possessive pronouns to show possession of the following nominal. When the following nominal is a nominalized phrase or sentence, the possessive pronoun indicates the subject of the phrase or sentence and must be followed by an -s nominalizer (for example, sk'ẽ'y 'it is impossible', k'w 'abstract demonstrative', -e1 'my', -s 'nominalizer', k'w'c 'see', -l 'happen to', -ex'w '3rd person object' $\rightarrow$ sk'ẽ'y k'w'els k'w'êclex'w 'I can't see (him, her, it, them)'). The demonstrative-article roots express 'presence/presence not specified', 'nearness' or 'distance', 'visibility' or 'invisibility/abstractness', and 'masculine/gender not specified' or 'feminine sex gender'. For example, {te} is 'the (present/presence not specified, visible, masculine/gender not specified)'. Some of these roots (like {te}) are single portmanteau morphemes, and some contain two morphemes. But every time a nominal is used
one must choose a demonstrative root expressing the
degrees of nearness and visibility and the gender.
'Generic' vs. 'specific' may also be involved. When
used before names, demonstratives are not translated.
When the 'gender not specified' or the 'abstract'
demonstrative root is used, it can be translated 'the'.

Numerals are based on the decimal system with
traces of a quaternary influence in the stems under
'eleven' that can be derived. The major inflection
for numerals is a set of 15 or so lexical suffixes.
These suffixes could also be called numeral classi-
fiers but for the fact that almost all of them appear
with some non-numeral roots as well. The suffixes
express things like 'o'clock', 'day of the week',
'times ten', 'people', 'times', 'trees', 'dollars',
'canoes', 'canoe paddles', 'houses', 'garments', and
'piles of things'. Some can be applied to numbers
beyond 'ten', some stop at 'ten', 'nine', 'five' or
'two'. There are no ordinals, and only one sporadic
distributive has been found ('four to each'). Numbers
by tens are made by suffixing {~alsx^y\$} 'times ten' to
roots 'three' through 'nine'. Other numbers over ten
are made up additively: 'eleven' is 'ten' + 'and' +
'the' + 'one', i.e., {\^a'pel qes te l\c{e}s'}; 'ninety-
nine' is {\text{\text{xu}^w\text{alsx}^y\$ qes te tu'x}^w}. 'Twenty' {c'k'\text{wex}^y
- c'k'\text{wyx}^y} may have {k'\text{wsx}^y} 'count' as its root.
{léc'ewec} 'one hundred' has root {léc'} 'be different', while 'two hundred' is merely 'two' + 'one hundred'. The other hundreds are formed on the same model. 'One thousand' is {qá·pel k'w's léc'ewec} ("ten hundred"), with the function of {k'w's} unclear.

The chapter on lexical affix sets will present examples of the lexical affixes along with some morphological and semantic analysis. The discussion of semantics, sememics, and morphosememics involved will be largely reserved for chapters twelve and thirteen. Lexical affixes in Upriver Halkomelem are very productive, very concrete semantically, and very interesting. For example, one set of suffixes covers body parts, and its suffixes are distinct in many cases from the independent words for the same body parts; body part suffixes are sometimes extended semantically to metaphorical uses, and they are widely used with verbs as well. Other lexical affixes do not form as coherent a set as do body part suffixes.
CHAPTER 4. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

4.0. There are two reflexive suffixes and ten sets of personal pronouns in Chilliwack Halkomelem: independent pronouns (three sets), emphatic independent pronoun, subject pronouns, object pronouns (which follow the transitive control suffixes: purposive, accidental, and causative), possessive pronouns (two sets: affixed and independent (emphatic)), subject pronouns with {we-} 'if; when' and with auxiliary verbs after negative verb {?ewə} 'not to be', and object pronouns in the passive voice.

Subordination will be dealt with in a section on the use of possessive pronouns as verb subjects for: 'can', 'can't', 'want', 'think, feel emotionally', infinitives, verbs after question words, and verbs following and dependent on the first verb in a sentence.

4.1. Independent pronouns, set one. This set has a verbal function. Each member of the set can be translated in four ways, as in the first person singular member {?eləs} 'it's me, I did, I'm the one that ____', I'm the one to ____'; to get the translation of the second person singular, {eləs}, substitute 'you', 'you', and 'you're' for 'me', 'I', and 'I'm' (respectively) from {?eləs}. Translations of the other members can be obtained in the same way. This is mentioned because later citations of pronouns from this set will sometimes
avoid the long cumbersome gloss by using 'etc.' within the gloss. The variation in this set is all free variation between phonemic citations. Person is abbreviated '1', '2', '3' and number 'sg.' and 'pl.'

1 sg. {ʔɛl̥əɛ} /ʔɛl̥əɛ/ - /ʔɛl̥əɛ/ 'it's me, I did, I'm the one that ____; I'm the one to ____'

2 sg. {l̥əwə} /l̥əwə/ - /l̥u̯wə/ 'it's you, you did, you're the one that ____; you're the one to ____'

3 sg. {h'á} /h'á/ 'it's him, it's her, that's it, that's ____; he did, she did, it did; he's the one that ____; she's the one that ____; it's the one that ____; that's the one that ____; he's the one to ____; she's the one to ____; it's the one to ____; that's the one to ____'

1 pl. {h̥ílimə} 'it's us, we did, we're the ones that ____; we're the ones to ____'

2 pl. {h̥wəl̥əp} 'it's you folks, you folks did, you're the ones that ____; you're the ones to ____'

3 pl. {h'á·l̥əm} /h'á·l̥əm/ - /h'ál̥əm/ 'it's them, they did, they're the ones that ____; they're the ones to ____'

These words are used all by themselves to answer questions like, 'Who's there?', 'Who made this?', or ______________________-

1. This gloss could be abbreviated 'it's (him, her, it), that's ____; (he, she, it) did, (he's, she's, it's, that's) the one (that, to) ____'.

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'Who wants to go?'. They are also used in sentences like: ḫwélep-ce lēm. 'It will be you folks that go.' (the speaker may be dividing a group), and le sk'í'-s kWé-e-s ?élθ-e-s kWé-s-c-1-ēx. 'He wants me to see it.', and le s-te?é'-wel tū-ƛ'á k'w-e-s ?élθ-e-s-c-c lem. 'He thinks I'm the one to go.', ƛ'á-cé (tə) Bill k'w-e mεy-T-ámə wε-x'wεf'-s. 'It will be Bill that helps you when he gets here.', and ƛ'á ?ε mεl. 'That's your father.'

4.2. Independent emphatic pronoun. For more emphasis {ʔε?εlθe} //Rg-ʔεlθe// (//ʔε?εlθe/ - /ʔεʔεlθe/) can be used in place of {ʔεlθe} with the same meaning plus a little emphasis. This might be shown by the following exchange: "Who's there?"

"It's me." (ʔεlθe)

"Really?"

"It's me!" (ʔεʔεlθe)

4.3. Independent pronouns, set two. This set has a nominal function, as we can tell from the demonstrative article prefixes (tə-, tū-, and ʔuí-) and the use and position of these pronouns in sentences (following the verb). This set is more common than 4.1 and 4.2 and is derived from those sets by prefixing tə- or, in the case of {ƛ'á} and {ƛ'á.1em}, by prefixing tū- 'male/gender unspecified' or ʔuí- 'female'. This produces the following set:
(note that this set has the same free variation and in
verbal contexts the same system of glosses as the sets
in 4.1 and 4.2)

1 sg. \{tɛʔɛləs\} 'I, me', \{tɛʔɛʔɛləs\} 'I, me'

2 sg. \{tɛləwə\} 'you (sg.)'

3 sg. male \{tuk'ə\} 'he, him'

3 sg. female \{θuk'ə\} 'she, her'

3 sg. gender unspecified \{tuk'ə\} 'it'

1 pl. \{tɛlɪməʔ\} 'we, us'

2 pl. \{tɛkwələp\} 'you folks, you (pl.)'

3 pl. male \{tuk'ə·ləm\} 'they (male), them (male)'

3 pl. female \{θuk'ə·ləm\} 'they (female), them (female)'

3 pl. gender unspecified \{yuɔ'ə·ləm\} or \{yuk'ə·ləm\}

'they, them'

3 pl. gender unspecified but speaker knows them \{ʔɛ·təl\}

'they, them'

The third person members of this set are especially
frequent since the third person subject and object suf-
fixes on verbs do not distinguish number or gender and
since normal declarative word order is verb subject ob-
ject. Some examples follow:
ləm θuk'ə 'she goes' and ləm tuŋ'ə• 'he goes'
(By itself ləm means 'he goes, she goes, it goes, they
go'. When talking about something without gender or
when it's not important to state the sex or one is not
sure, \{tuŋ'ə\} can mean 'it'.)
Third person pronouns from this set can also be used to clarify the object of a verb. Since k'wêc-et-ës means '(3rd person) looked at (3rd person)', the sentence k'wêc-et-ës te swiyeqe means 'He, she, it, they, they (male), they (female) looked at the man.' (A lone nominal after a verb with 3rd person subject and 3rd person object is taken as the object.) To make it clear that a female is the subject ('she looked ...') you add the pronoun (θūk'â ) in the subject slot (before swiyeqe).

Halkomelem can even specify in the pronoun that the man looked at several females; this is done only with great awkwardness in English.

k'wêc-et-ës te swiyeqe θūk'â ləm. 'The man looked at them (female).'

If the man was not supposed to look at other women the following sentence might be next:

q'ágq'w-et-ës θe stá·les-s túk'â. 'His wife hits him.'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'he'</td>
<td>'him'</td>
<td>'female'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>'her'</td>
<td>'him'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>'it'</td>
<td>'wife'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>'them'</td>
<td>'his'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further, the sex and number of both subject and object can be given with these pronouns.

k'wêc-et-ës túk'â θūk'â. 'He looked at her.'

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERB</th>
<th>SUBJECT</th>
<th>OBJECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'he'</td>
<td>'he'</td>
<td>'her'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>'her'</td>
<td>'he'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>'it'</td>
<td>'her'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>'them'</td>
<td>'he'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition to the uses above, the pronouns of this set can be used to emphasize the subject. They follow the verb directly in such examples.

lém-cęp tćewélęp. 'You folks go.'

lém-cęp alone means 'you folks go'. Notice that in these cases there is also a subject pronoun (here -cęp) attached to the verb as part of the verb word. So the set 4.3 pronoun is not really needed unless the speaker wants to emphasize the subject or clarify the third person subject or object.

4.4. Subject pronouns attached to verbs. This set is used largely with the first verb in a sentence. The third person pronoun differs in three ways. (Let Vi stand for intransitive verb and Vt for transitive verb.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With Vi</th>
<th>With Vt</th>
<th>Before verb</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-cöl [čIł]</td>
<td>-cöl</td>
<td>cel</td>
<td>'I'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cəxʷ [čuxʷ]</td>
<td>-cəxʷ</td>
<td>cəxʷ</td>
<td>'you (sg.)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nothing added</td>
<td>-əs</td>
<td>le</td>
<td>'he,she,it,they'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cet [čItʰ]</td>
<td>-cet</td>
<td>cęt</td>
<td>'we'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cęp [čępʰ]</td>
<td>-cęp</td>
<td>cęp</td>
<td>'you folks'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples will help make these clear:

lém-cöl
'I go'

męęgmęęcöl
'I help you'

cöl lém
'I went'

lém-cęxʷ
'you go'

męęgmęęxʷcęxʷ
'you help me'

cęxʷ lém
'you went'

lém
'he, she, it goes, he, she, it helps, he, she, it, they go,'

męęgmęęxʷęęs
'he, she, it helps me, they help me'

le lém
'they went'
lémcep 'you folks go'
mytáxcep 'you folks help me'
cep lém 'you folks went'

Notice that putting the pronoun as a separate word in front of the verb tends to give the verb a past meaning (cél lém 'I went'). Less often the same combination is translated in the present however (cél lém 'I go'). The surest way of phrasing past tense keeps the subject pronoun before the main verb but suffixes it to an initial {?if·I} 'past tense' auxiliary. Thus, {?if·I cél lém or ?if·I cél lém} both mean 'I went'. (?if·I may < ?if· 'be here' + -I 'past')

4.5. Object pronouns attached to active verbs.
These pronouns are attached to the verb after transitive control suffixes and before subject pronoun suffixes. As with 4.4, the third person affix has several alternates depending on what it follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>After {-l} 'do accidentally, manage to do, happen to do'</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>After {-'(e)T} 'do purposely' After {-sT} 'cause to do, make s-o do'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-áxV</td>
<td>'me'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-áme</td>
<td>'you (sg.)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nothing added</td>
<td>'him, her, it, them'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-álxW</td>
<td>'us'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ále</td>
<td>'you folks'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to note that these object pronouns only occur after one of the three: {-'(e)T} 'do purposely', {-l} 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage
to do', or \{-s T\} 'causative, cause to do, make s-o do'.

These meanings are often not directly translated but
are contained in the meaning of the verb itself. For
examples, see below. //T// \(\rightarrow\) \(\Theta\) / \(-\tilde{a}x^y\) 'me', \(-\tilde{a}m\)
'you' (as seen in 2.4.3). As a result the combinations
come out as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>purposely</th>
<th>accidentally</th>
<th>causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'me'</td>
<td>-(\tilde{g}a x^y)</td>
<td>-l(\tilde{a}x^y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'you'</td>
<td>-(\tilde{g}\tilde{a}m)</td>
<td>-l(\tilde{a}m)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'him, her, it, them'</td>
<td>(-t)</td>
<td>-l(\tilde{a}x^w)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'us'</td>
<td>-t(\tilde{a}l x^w)</td>
<td>-l(\tilde{a}l x^w)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'you folks'</td>
<td>-t(\tilde{a}l e)</td>
<td>-l(\tilde{a}l e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples will show these in action:

\(\text{may}\tilde{g}a x^y c e x^w\) 'you help me'
\(\text{k}^w e c l \tilde{a}x^w e s\) 'he sees me'
\(\text{?i}m\tilde{g}e x^y s\tilde{g}a x^y e s\) 'he makes me walk'

\(\text{may}\tilde{g}am\tilde{a}c e l\) 'I help you'
\(\text{k}^w e c l a m\tilde{a}c e t\) 'we see you'
\(\text{?i}m\tilde{g}e x^y s\tilde{g}a m\tilde{a}c e l\) 'I make you walk'

\(\text{meyt}a s\) 'he helps him'
\(\text{k}^w e c l \tilde{a}x^w c e p\) 'you folks see him'
\(\text{?i}m\tilde{g}e x^y s\tilde{g}e a l x^w c e l\) 'I make him walk'

\(\text{meytal}x^w c e x^w\) 'you help us'
\(\text{k}^w e c l a x^w e s\) 'he sees us'
\(\text{?i}m\tilde{g}e x^y s\tilde{g}e a l x^w e s\) 'he makes us walk'

\(\text{meytal}l\tilde{a}c e t\) 'we help you folks'
\(\text{k}^w e c l a l c e l\) 'I see you folks'
\(\text{?i}m\tilde{g}e x^y s\tilde{g}e a l l c e l\) 'I make you folks walk'

'He' or 'him' here stands for third person. Notice
rule 2.3.3.9 operating here to shift stresses.

Examples of each type of verb control suffix will
illustrate the types and meanings involved:
Note the instances of //l-1·àxY// → /l·àxY/ according to morphophonemic rules.

A peculiarity of Halkomelem is that the combination of 3rd person subject (he, she, it, they) with 2nd person object (you, you folks) does not occur. So -tá̄les, -tá̄les, -lá̄les, -tá̄les do not occur. A different set of endings (passive) or a different combination of words using pronouns from 4.1-4.3
must be used to express meanings like 'he hit you',
'they saw you folks' or 'she brought you'. For example,
the combination, ᾱ́εας θῦξεν ἑ μέγαν. 'It will be her
that helps you.' can be used instead of the passive.

4.6. Possessive pronoun suffixes. The interesting
thing about this set is that not all of the suffixes
are attached in the same place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attached:</th>
<th>to word before</th>
<th>to thing owned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>{-el} -el -l</td>
<td></td>
<td>'my'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{-é} -é -?é</td>
<td></td>
<td>'your (one person's)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{-s}</td>
<td></td>
<td>'his, her, its, their'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{-et}</td>
<td></td>
<td>'our'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{-é} -é -?é</td>
<td>{-elép}</td>
<td>'your, you folks'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When what precedes the thing owned is a word ending in
a consonant or a vowel other than ο (Ᾰά, Ι, ι, ι(·),
and ις are especially common), then allomorph -l or
-?é is attached for 'my', 'your' and 'you folks'; when
what precedes the thing owned is a word ending in ο
allomorphs -el and -é are attached. Notice also that
the 2nd person plural possessive requires two morphemes,
the 2nd person {-é} and the pluralizer {-elép}. Examples:
tél mé·l 'my father', ᾱ́εl méle 'that's my child'
θέ ε̣tél 'your mother', tél mé·l 'your father'
tél mé·ls 'his/her/its/their father'
tél mé·lcet 'our father'
tél mé·leḷép 'you folks' father, your (pl.) father'
Since the word preceding a nominal is usually a demonstrative article (te, ṣe, se, kwe, kwe, or k'we), possessive pronoun suffixes are usually attached to them. The suffixed pronouns are the ordinary way of showing possession. For example:

?axwesax'as tel më'1 te sqwemýs. 'My father gave me his dog.'

4.7. Independent possessive pronouns. These are constructed by using the morpheme {swé} 'own (?)' as a noun stem and inflecting it with the previous set of possessive pronoun suffixes. Thus:

(e)l swé 'mine, my own'
?é swé 'yours, your own (sg.)'
swés 'his, hers, its, their, his own, her own, its own, their own'
swécet - s?áx 'ours, our own'
?é swé?élóp 'you folks', you folks' own, yours (pl.), your own'

Examples:

λ'á1 swé 'that's mine', (e)l swé memblo 'my own children'
?é swim 'it will be yours'
λ'á swés 'that's his/hers/its/their's'
λ'á swécet 'that's ours', λ'á s?áx 'that's ours'
λ'á ?é swé?élóp 'that's yours (you folks')'

Apparently swécet and s?áx are in free variation. The independent set has more emphasis in meaning than the suffixed set of possessives and can also occur
alone as a complete answer to a question or preceded
only by {á'á}. Thus an answer to, tewét sqwemény?
'Whose dog?' might be, (ə1 swé. 'Mine.' or, á'á1 swé.
'That's mine., He's mine., etc.' The emphatic use is
shown in the following: ?íwéstálxwés te s?á1 mé.1
'Our (own) father taught us.', and, á'á swécet mé.1
k'iws ?íwéstálxwés. 'It's our father that teaches us.'

4.8. Subordination using possessive pronouns.
This special use of pronouns of set 6 occurs in examples
like:

a. sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclax. 'I can't see it.'
   sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclax. 'You can't see it.'
   sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclax. 'He/She/It/They can't see
   it.'
   sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclax-cet. 'We can't see it.'
   sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclax-álep. 'You folks can't see
   it.'
   (Often k'iws instead of k'iws-á in the 2nd person
   pl. since -álep alone shows 'you folks'.)

b. sk'wéy k'iws k'wéclamé-cet. 'We can't see you.'

c. sk'wéy k'iws k'iws lém-álep. 'You folks can't go.'

d. sk'wéy-ə k'iws k'wéclaxw? 'Can't I see it?'

e. lúw ?iyálem k'iws k'wéclaxw. 'I can see it.'

f. ?i1 ?iyálem k'iws k'iws ?étel. 'I could have eaten.'

g. lúw ?iyálem k'iws lém. 'I can go.'

h. lí ?iyálem k'iws lém? 'Can I go?'

i. ?éwe lís ?é sk'íy-álep. 'You folks don't want it.'

j. we-lís-l sk'í 'if I want it'
k. ?ewês lis-l sk’f’i 'if I don't want it'
l. ?i:ice W sef’gal k’W-é-s ?i: léyem. 'You were
   laughing loudly.'
m. ?éwe lis-l sk’f k’W-é-s lìyém. 'I don't want you to
   laugh.'
n. x’W?i:t-?é-s ?éwe? q’Wélæax? 'Why don't you speak
   to me?'
o. sk’f-cet k’W-é-s k’Wéclàlx. 'We want you to see us.'
p. ?éwe lis-l sq’Wélæwel k’W-é-s lém. 'I don't think you
   should go.'
q. temtem k’W-é-s lè ëiyt? 'When did you make it?'
r. le sk’f-s k’W-ol-s k’Wéclæx ëe ståles-s k’Wë-s
   ëiyeq’W-t-s te sF’q. 'He wanted me to see his wife
   digging fern roots.'

The problem is only that the translations given
here are not strict translations, word for word. Strict
translations of these sentences are too awkward in Eng-
lish but show the Halkomelem way of thinking about them
more clearly. Thus the first example could perhaps be
translated 'It is impossible my happening to see it.'
('I can't see it.'): sk’Wëy k’W-ol-s k’Wëc -l -ex.W:
it is impossible the my noun see happen to it (obj.)
This construction is the standard way of translating
'can't' (that is, using s’Wëy + k’W + possessive pronoun
suffix + -s nominalizer + verb without subject affix).

Notice the -s after the pronoun in all the examples.
This -s makes the verb which comes after it into a nominal. To show this change in an English translation is very awkward: we must use 'my sight of it' or 'my seeing it'. Once the verb is nominalized it can be possessed and have a possessive pronoun. It also needs an article, as discussed above. However, with these verbs made into nominals, the only article allowed is k'wə 'abstract demonstrative' (I have not found examples like *sk'wəy tels k'wəclex'). As we shall see in the chapter on nouns, an s- is frequently attached to verbs elsewhere to form nouns (thus t'f'lem 'to sing' becomes s-t'f'lem 'song'). That may have been the case here too, but most of the time with this special use of pronouns, the /s/ is pronounced at the end of the pronoun.

The other examples in a. work like the first example, as do b., c., and d. For example, d. is more literally 'Is it impossible, my seeing it?' (or considering the verb subject object word order, 'Is my seeing it impossible?'). Examples e. through h. use ?iyálem 'it is alright, possible', so that f. could be translated more closely by 'My eating was alright.' This is apparently the standard way of expressing 'can'. As a result, both 'can' and 'can't' require this type of construction.

Examples i., j., k., m., o., and r. show that 'want' usually requires the possessive construction too.
For example, m. could be translated 'Your laugh is not my want.' and thence 'I don't want you to laugh.' Notice the two possessives in this one. When English uses an infinitive ('to' followed by a verb), Halkomelem usually uses the possessive pronouns as here: The person shown as possessor is the person who would actually be doing the action. Thus 'I don't want you to laugh.' is thought of as 'Your laugh is not my want.' Example ri also shows this: le s- k'i -s k'w -e -l -s

3rd person past noun want his the my noun abstract

...............his want was ........my.....

k'wec -l -ex w əe s- tâ·ləs -s k'we -s
see happen to her the noun wife his the noun female abstract present

happening to see her ............his wife...... ............

əỳəq w -t -s te sə·q.
dig it her the bracken fern root.
(obj.) pres.
unspec. gender
her digging it .the bracken fern root.

'He wanted me to see his wife digging bracken fern roots.'

The special use of possessive pronouns of set 6 also occurs after question words as in example n., 'Why is it, your not speech to me?' and example q., 'When is it, your past making it (action not continuing, -ing to show nominalization only)?'. And this use also occurs with every verb dependent on the first verb and following it in the sentence. Thus example l., 'You were loud, your
past laughing.', example p., 'It is not my thought, your going.', and others. It can be seen then, in summary, that the suffixed possessive pronouns of set 6 are used as verb subjects for: 'can', 'can't', 'want', infinitives, verbs after question words, and verbs following and dependent on the first verb in a sentence. All are very common, and there may be other uses as well.

4.9. Subject pronouns with we- 'if; when', and with verbs after negative verb ?éwe 'not to be'.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'I'</td>
<td>-é1</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>in l1l or ?1l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'you (one person)'</td>
<td>-ex^W</td>
<td>-x^W</td>
<td>l1x^W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'he, she, it, they'</td>
<td>-es</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>l1s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'we'</td>
<td>-et</td>
<td>-t</td>
<td>l1t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'you folks'</td>
<td>-élep</td>
<td>-ép</td>
<td>-p</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After auxiliary verb ending in /i/

It appears that this set of pronouns is used when there is doubt, uncertainty, or negation (something has not happened). Some examples will show how they are used.

we-lém-é1 'if/when I go'
we-lém-ex^W 'if/when you go'
we-lém-es 'if/when he/she/etc. goes'
we-lém-et 'if/when we go'
we-lém-élep 'if/when you folks go'

?éwecép lé1m-ép q'a'tet. 'You folks don't go mix with them.'
yá'swe we-lém-él. 'I might go.; I don't know if I could go.'

yá'swe we-sk'w'éy-és k'w'-sl-s lém. 'I don't know if it's impossible for me to go.'

?éwecel lém-él. 'I don't/won't go.'

?éwecex'w lém-ex'w. 'You don't/won't go.'

?éwe (k'w'-s) lém-és. 'He/She/It doesn't/won't go.; They don't/won't go.'

?éwecet lém-et. 'We don't/won't go.'

?éwecex'p lém-élep. 'You folks don't/won't go.'

?éwecel sc'éléx'wém-él. 'I'm not a spirit dancer.' (cp.

alternate below)

?éwecex'w sc'éléx'wém-ex'w. 'You're not a spirit dancer.'

?éwe sc'éléx'wém-és. 'He/She is not a spirit dancer.; They're not spirit dancers.'

?éwecet sc'éléx'wém-et. 'We are not spirit dancers.'

?éwecex'p sc'éléx'wém-ép. 'You folks are not spirit dancers.'

?éwécal sk'í'k'eqat-él. 'I wasn't a child.' (less common)

?éwécal li'l sk'í'k'eqat. 'I wasn't a child.' (more common)

?éwecal li'l sc'éléx'wém. 'I'm not a spirit dancer.'

cex'w méyé'ax'v k'w'els ?éwe(cel) liyém-él. 'You helped me not to laugh.'

cex'w méytálx'w k'w's ?éwect liyém-et. 'You helped us not to laugh.'

cel méyt k'w'as ?éwes liyém-és. 'I helped him not to laugh.'

cel méytale k'w's ?éwep liyém-élep. 'I helped you folks
not to laugh.'
sk'wéy k'wes meytálx's welémet sóq'tálë. 'He can't
help us find you folks.'
?ése sk'ís k'wes meytálx's welémet sóq'tálë. 'He won't
or doesn't want to help us find you folks:'
yées-exʷ te swíyeq wxe-wém-st-exʷ-as òe stá·lës-s.
'You ask the man to bring his wife.'
we-te'mxéy'ex-ës 'when it is winter, in wintertime'
lícxʷ sóq'el·exʷ wá-lém-es-ce? 'Do you know if he'll
go?'
(Occasionally the e is dropped from -céxʷ, -cé, -ës
and a few other suffixes; see stress rules.)
Examples with auxiliary verb lí· lí·:
?ésecel lí· h'ìlsèmë. 'I don't like you.'
?ésecxʷ lí·x h'ìlsèaxʸ. 'You don't like me.'
?ése lís h'ìlsèaxʸes. 'He/She/etc. doesn't like me.'
?ésect lí·t h'ìlstálë. 'We don't like you.'
?ésecp lip h'ìlsèaxʸ. 'You folks don't like me.'
?ése lís 1 šk'í. 'I don't want it.'
we-lís 1 šk'í 'if/when I want it'
?ésecp lí·p qʷålstålxʷ. 'You folks didn't speak to us:'
?ése lís yëeesèlëm. 'I wasn't told.'
?ëwë lís yëéesstålëm? 'Were'n't you folks told?'
?ésecel lí·l ém. 'I didn't go.'
?ésect lí·t lém. 'We didn't go.'
?ésect lí·t stë·xe. 'We're not children.'
?ëwës lís sk'íce. 'if we don't want it'
le sq\'el\'el k\'ses ?\'ws\'es l\'is \'iy\'al\'em k\'\'els l\'m.
'He thinks it's not alright for me to go.,
He thinks I shouldn't go.'

Examples with auxiliary verb \( \tilde{f} \sim \tilde{i} \quad \):  
\( x\tilde{\w}e\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\i} \tilde{l} \quad x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{\s} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\y} \tilde{\a} \tilde{l}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{e} \). 'I'm not old yet., I haven't become old yet.'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\i} \tilde{x} \quad x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{\s} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\y} \tilde{\a} \tilde{l}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{e} \). 'You're not old yet., etc.'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\i} \tilde{s} \quad x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{\s} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\y} \tilde{\a} \tilde{l}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{e} \). 'He's not old yet., etc.'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\i} \tilde{t} \quad x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{\s} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\y} \tilde{\a} \tilde{l}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{e} \). 'We're not old yet., etc.'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\r} \quad x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{\s} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\y} \tilde{\a} \tilde{l}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\v} \tilde{\w} \tilde{e} \). 'You folks aren't old yet., etc.'

\( st\tilde{\e}m \) te \( \tilde{f} \tilde{x} \) k\'\'el\'et? 'What is it you're holding?'
\( st\tilde{\e}m \) te \( \tilde{f} \tilde{x} \) \( \theta \theta \)\( \dot{\i} \)yt? 'What are you making?'
\( \tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v}\tilde{\i} \tilde{l} \quad sk\tilde{\i} \tilde{x} \tilde{\k} \tilde{\v}\tilde{\e} \tilde{\g} \tilde{e} \tilde{\t} \). 'I wasn't a child.'
\( st\tilde{\e}m \) k\'\'e \( \tilde{f} \tilde{x} \) k\'\'e si\'si\'met? 'What are you afraid of?'
\( te\w\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c} \) k\'\'e \( \tilde{f} \tilde{x} \) \( \theta \theta \)\( \dot{\i} \)\( \gamma \)\( \tilde{\v}\tilde{\e}\tilde{\c}\tilde{\v}\tilde{\t} \) te sw\tilde{\w}lt\tilde{\v}l? 'Who are you making your fishnet for?'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{i} \tilde{\i} \tilde{x} \quad q\tilde{\e} \tilde{\v}\tilde{\i} \tilde{\l} \tilde{\e} \tilde{\m} \). 'You're not ancient yet.'
\( x\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\w}\tilde{c}\tilde{\w}\tilde{\v} \tilde{i} \tilde{x} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\i} \tilde{x} \tilde{\i} \tilde{\t} \tilde{\a} \tilde{\l} \tilde{\a} \tilde{\m} \tilde{\e} \tilde{\t} \). 'You don't understand yet.'

4.10. Object pronouns in the passive. These are used when the person involved in an action is not doing the action but having it done to him; And the person doing the action is never stated in the verb itself.
As with the object pronouns in 4.5, the object pronouns here must follow the transitive control suffixes \{-(e)T\} 'do purposely', \{(-l)\} 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage to do', or \{(-sT)\} 'causative, cause to do, make s-o do'.

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The passive object pronouns are:

-èlèm 'I'
-à·m 'you (one person)'
-em 'he, she, it, they'
-álx̂es 'we'
-àlèm 'you folks'

There is actually no passive for 'we', so the -álx̂es from set 5 serves instead, literally 'he/she/it/they (did s-th to) us'.

The Halkomelem passive is translated as in English examples such as 'I am told', 'we were sent' and 'you'll be seen'. But it is also translated often with an impersonal third person subject. Thus ?á·èlèm 'you are called, you were called' can also be translated, 'he called you, they called you'. This is especially true when 'you' or 'you folks' is the object since they never occur with a third person subject in set 5. So passive forms often substitute. A final translation of the passive is a sort of middle voice when in third person; this is found most often in the verbal adjectives, but also elsewhere.

Examples with {-(e)T} 'do purposely':

?á·èlèm 'I was called'
?á·èm 'you were called'
?á·tem 'he/she/it was called, they were called'
?á·tàlx̂es 'we were called'
?á·táləm 'you folks were called'
le méyəłəm 'I was helped'
le méyə·m 'you were helped'
le méyətem 'he, etc. was helped'
le məytəlx'əs 'we were helped'
le məytəłəm 'you folks were helped'
pí·wəəələm 'I'm frozen'
pí·wəəə·məcə 'you'll get frozen'
pí·wətəłəməcə 'you folks will get frozen'
k'wəx'yə·ələm 'I'm counted'
le k'wəx'yə·əm 'you're counted, he counted you'
le x'yá·k'wəəələm 'I was bathed'
le h·c·əəələm 'he cut me, I was cut'
k'wik'wəx'yətem 'he, etc. is named'

Examples with {−l} 'do accidentally, etc.:

k'wəcələləm 'I was seen'
k'wəcələ·m 'you were seen, he saw you'
k'wəcələm 'he, etc. was seen'
k'wəcələlx'əs 'we were seen'
k'wəcələləm 'you folks were seen, he/they saw you folks'
ácələ·məcə 'you'll get cut'
hf·əm 'it fell'
k'wəcələ·məcə te spə 'the bear will see you'

Examples with {−st} 'causative, make s-o do, etc.:
sk'wətəx'wəstem 'they were brought inside'
\[\text{áx’wəstem } '\text{he was given s}-\text{th}'\]
\[xət’əsələm 'you were told'\]
\[?əsələm 'I was liked'\]
\[?əsələm 'you were liked'\]
\[?əstem 'he, etc. was liked'\]
\[?əstəlx’əs 'we were liked'\]
\[?əstələm 'you folks were liked'\]
\[?əwe līs yəəsələm 'I wasn't told'\]
\[?əwe līs yəəsələm 'you weren't told'\]
\[?əwe līs yəəstem 'he, etc. wasn't told'\]
\[?əwe līs yəəstələm 'you folks weren't told'\]

When a passive is the first verb after a negative or sk’w’ey k’w’es (‘impossible’ or ‘can’t’) add \(-ət\) to the end of the passive object pronoun. Thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>with -T</th>
<th>with -l</th>
<th>with -sT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ələm-ət</td>
<td>-lələm-ət</td>
<td>-sələm-ət</td>
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<tr>
<td>-əəm-ət</td>
<td>-ləm-ət</td>
<td>-səm-ət</td>
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<tr>
<td>-təm-ət</td>
<td>-ləm-ət</td>
<td>-stəm-ət</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tələm-ət</td>
<td>-lələm-ət</td>
<td>-stələm-ət</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(-álx’w’əs isn’t a true passive so \(-ət\) is not added) 'we'

Examples:

sk’w’ey k’w’es máyələləmət 'I can’t be helped'
sk’w’ey k’w’es máyəsəmət 'you can’t be helped'
sk’w’ey k’w’es máytəmət 'he/she/it/they can’t be helped'
sk’w’ey k’w’es máytələmət 'you folks can’t be helped'
sk'w'ly k'w'es meytálx'w'es 'we can't be helped, they can't help us'
sk'w'ly k'w'es k'w'ósclélêmêt 'I can't be seen'
sk'w'ly k'w'es k'w'ósclà'mêt 'you can't be seen'
sk'w'ly k'w'es k'w'ósclèmêt 'he, etc. can't be seen'
sk'w'ly k'w'es k'w'ósclálx'w'es 'we can't be seen, they can't see us'
sk'w'ly k'w'es k'w'ósclélêmêt 'you folks can't be seen'
sk'w'ly k'w'es q'w'ósélâslêmêt 'I can't be spoken to'
sk'w'ly k'w'es q'w'ósélâsëmêt 'you can't be spoken to'
sk'w'ly k'w'es q'w'ósélstêmêt 'he, etc. can't be spoken to'
sk'w'ly k'w'es q'w'ósélstálx'w'es 'we can't be spoken to, they can't speak to us'
sk'w'ly k'w'es q'w'ósélstélâlêmêt 'you folks can't be spoken to'

?ewése sk'w'lyextêmêt. 'Nothing could be done.'
?ewése k'w's k'w'etëx'w'omêt. 'Nothing was inside.'
?ewése sëeq'elemet te sk'w'ix'y's. 'Nobody knows his name.'

Wiýän k'w's wécesetêmêt k'w's lëms x'á'k'w'om. 'He was always told to go bathe.' (may show -ët required by {we-} 'when; if')
sk'w'ly k'w'es x'w' élêlêms tuk'â k'w's lès x'èxawêtêmêt wëlëmes θ'x'w'á'sem. 'He wouldn't listen to being warned not to go wash his face.'
4.11. {λ'*(e)-} 'independent object of prepositional verb'. {λ'- - λ'e- - λ'e-} is prefixed to independent pronouns of set 4.1 and 4.2 but only to the first or second person pronouns. This produces the following set:

/λ'e?ελθε/ /λ'e?ελθε/ - (Cheh.)/λ'e?ελθε/ 'me'
/λ'eλθε/ /λ'eλθε/ - 'you' (/tūk'ā/ 'him', /θůk'ā/ 'her', /yuλ'αλθ/ 'them', etc.)
/λ'eλθελ/ /λ'eλθελ/ 'us'
/λ'eλθελοπ/ - (Cheh.) /λ'eλθελοπ/ 'you folks'

This set is used after verbs translated as prepositions in English; the pronouns are the objects of the prepositional verbs. Thus:

stetís λ'ε?ελθε 'near me'
stetís λ'eλθε 'near you'
stetís λ'eθεθε 'near us'
stetís λ'eλθελοπ 'near you folks'
stetís yiθε 'near them (those people)'
stetís te t'amel 'near the wall'

micx stetís λ'ε?ελθε 'come near me', you come close to me'
le wélx'ës te sq'êmél stetís λ'e?ελθε. 'He threw the paddle near me.'
le ṣeθidës te sq'êmél telif λ'e?ελθε. 'He pushed the paddle away from me.'
(lālēc’e tēlī tēlīmelī 'one of us (one person from us)' may be a contrasting case if not mistranscribed.)

This set however is relatively infrequent; AC gave only the seven examples above with {x’(a)-}. Besides these examples, AC also gave the more common alternatives stetānxī 'near me', stetānīmē 'near you', etc., which add the {-t} transitivizer ('do purposely to something') and the object pronouns (set 4.5).

It seems that the {x’(a)-} forms are merely an alternative way (less common than 4.5) of expressing pronoun objects of prepositional verbs. The {x’(a)-} is prefixed to sets 4.1 and 4.2 to form 4.11, like the demonstrative article /tə/ - /tə/ is prefixed to 4.1 and 4.2 to form set 4.3. {x’(a)-} even has the allomorph x’c- parallel to the t- in 4.3. Set 4.11 is replaced by demonstrative article + noun whenever a noun is the object of the prepositional verb (stetis te t’āmel 'near the wall', stetis te xaczē 'near the lake', etc.).

Work with EB from Chehalis, B.C. and other speakers of Chilliwack, Chehalis and Tait dialects confirmed AC’s examples and showed the {x’(a)-} construction with a few more prepositional verbs: tēlī 'from, away from' (usually in the form /tlf/[tlf]), xwēlē - xwēlēm
'from, (coming) from', sq'á '(together) with', ?á
'(along) with'. For example:
kwútes t(e)lí h'ë?élë 'he took it from me'
kwútes t(e)lí h'élëwe 'he took it from you'
kwútes t(e)lí h'élíme? 'he took it from us'
kwútes t(e)lí túx'à 'he took it from him'
?áxwestcexw x'welë(m) h'ë?élë 'you give it to him
from me, give it to him from me!' (sic)
?áxwestcexw Ôux'à x'welë(m) h'(e)lëwe 'you give it to
her from you, give it to her from you!' (sic)
(EB translates x'welë(m) as 'from' here, but it is real-
ly 'toward', here best translated '(intended) for'.)
Míš sq'á h'ë?élë 'he came with me' (beside this is
the equivalent sq'sq'áme?áxw 'together with me')
me? ye sq'á h'ë?élë 'come along with me!'
?ístexw'cexw ?á h'ë?élë (in more rapid speech:
?ístexw'cexwxh h'ë?élë) '(you) leave it here with me(!)'
The benefactive, {=æc}, is another inflection that
relates to pronouns, but it precedes the control suf-
fixes and is best considered in the chapter on verbs.


The following page has a chart comparing the
forms of the personal pronoun sets.
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| sg 1  | ?êlθε  | ðêlθε  | tc-  | ðêθε  | ðêθe  | -cel  | -ðax  | -ol   | əl swe  | -êl   | -1    | -êlθm |
| 2     | léwe   |        | tc-  | léwe  | léwe  | -cex  | -ðame | -ê    | ?ê swe  | -ex  | -x  | --être |
| 3m    | k’á    | animate| tű-  | tű-   | tű-   | ð-ês  | ð-ex  | -s    | swês    | -es   | -s   | -em   |
| 3f    | k’á    |        | θu-  | θu-   | θu-   | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto    | ditto | ditto | ditto |
| 3un   | k’á    |        | tű-  | tű-   | tű-   | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto    | ditto | ditto | ditto |

| pl 1  | ðllθmek |        | tc-  | ðllθmek | ðllθmek | -cet  | -ðlx  | -cet  | ðswêcet | -et  | -t   | (-ðlx"es")  |
| 2     | ðw很小p |        | tc-  | ðw很小p | ðw很小p | -cwp  | -ðlep | -ê    | ðwê'lôp | -lep  | -p   | -êlθm |
| 3m    | k’á:lem |        | tu-  | tu-   | ð-ês  | ð-ex  | -s    | swês    | -es   | -s   | -em   |
| 3f    | k’á:lem |        | θu-  | θu-   | θu-   | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto    | ditto | ditto | ditto |
| 3un   | k’á:lem |        | yu-  | yu-   | yu-   | ditto | ditto | ditto | ditto    | ditto | ditto | ditto |

(3un means "third person gender unspecified")

(3ku means "third person known to speaker but gender unspecified")

(animate means "used with animate nominals only")
There are clear similarities between sets of personal pronouns in Halkomelem. These similarities are synchronic derivation to the extent that the native speakers go through a process mentally of building one set or set member from another. They are diachronic derivation to the extent they are not built by the speaker but accepted as already made. Without making immediate judgements as to which type of derivation is involved, the following similarities can be seen:

4.12.1. Independent group.

Set 4.2 derives from 4.1 by reduplication $R^\sim$.

Set 4.3 derives from 4.1 and 4.2 by prefixing te- to first and second person forms, tu- to third person forms for masculine or unspecified gender, eu- to third person forms for feminine gender and yu- to third person plural forms for plural unspecified gender. The form $\tilde{\mathcal{Q}}\cdot \mathcal{I}\mathcal{T} \mathcal{E} \mathcal{I}$ for "third person plural familiar to speaker, gender unspecified" has a root of unclear origin; it probably has $-\text{tel} \ '\text{reciprocal}' \ to \ indicate \ the \ speaker \ knows \ them \ and \ vice \ versa.

Set 4.11 derives from 4.1 and 4.2 by prefixing $\mathcal{H}^\prime \mathcal{E}^\prime - \mathcal{H}'(e)- \ to \ first \ and \ second \ person \ forms. \ The \ third \ person \ forms \ are \ taken \ from \ 4.3.$

Notice the initial laterals in each member of
4.1: sg. 1 or 2 (-)l-
p1. 1 or 2 ₂-
3rd person ₃'-
If these laterals represent or once represented a morpheme, it is difficult to establish. They do seem to show membership in the set.

Notice also in 4.1 (and derived 4.3 and 4.11) the pluralizing infix {⁻l- ~ -śl- ~ -1e-} in all plural forms:
1 pl. ₁⁻l-₁me₃
2 pl. ₁-w-ś1-ep
3 pl. ₃'-á'-₁e-m.

The Chehalis dialect has 2 pl. {₁lēwep} which may derive through metathesis from {₁wēlep} by analogy with 2 sg. {₁lēw} and the ₁l- in 1 pl. {₁līme₃}, or the reverse may be true with {₁lēwep} < ₁- set prefix + lēw '2 sg.' + -p '2 pl.' as in 4.9b, leaving the Chilkiwack form ₁wēlep derived by metathesis from the older Chehalis form (by analogy with -ślep in 4.6 or 4.9a).

Finally notice some similarities between 4.1 {₁ś1θε} and other 1 sg. forms: 4.9 -ś1 ~ -l, 4.10 -śləm, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8 -śl, and 4.4 -cəl.

4.12.2. Subject group:

Set 4.9b has the consonantal roots from which
4.4, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9a all ultimately derive.

Set 4.9a may either derive from 4.9b or vice versa. Within 4.9a, the ε- in 1 sg. {-é₁} possibly was influenced by 4.1 {ʔé₁0é}. The ε- in 2 pl. {-ép} possibly shows influence of the second person -é in 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8. The è₁- in 2 pl. {-è₁ep} may be the plural infix {-è₁-} seen above and also used with nouns.

Set 4.4 derives from 4.9a minus ε in 1 sg. and using ε from 2 pl. alternate -ép. In addition, non-third person forms all have a {c-} prefix which could be either a) 'active mood' (neither passive, negative, dubitative, nor subordinate), b) 'participant in the conversation', or c) 'non-third person'. The third person (Ø) is perhaps an innovation in line with a language universal dealing with the frequency of Ø as a marker of 3rd person subject.

Set 4.6 (and so 4.8) derives from 4.9a minus 1 sg. ε, plus extending ε 2 pl. to ε 2 sg. and 2 pl. and marking pl. with 4.9a 2 pl. {-è₁ep}.

Set 4.7 derives from 4.6 using swé (meaning unknown unless 'emphatic', probably also has s- nominalizer) as noun root.

Set 4.1 2 pl. {zwi₁ep} may derive from 4.9a -é₁ep plus a root w- and set prefix z-. 2 sg. w could relate
to 4.9b -x\(^w\); the 2 sg. w may then have influenced or spread to 2 pl. w in (w\(\text{\`}{\text{\`}}\text{lep})\). These are merely possible lines of development or influence.

4.12.3. Object group.

Set 4.5 purposely has little resemblance to sets in the two preceding groups because it must be quite distinct to function; the only similarity seems to be that 4.4 and 4.5 both have a third person \{-\(\emptyset\}\).

Set 4.10 derives from set 4.5 by addition of -(e)m and pitch shift to ` on all suffix vowels except in third person. The derivation is as follows:

4.10 2 sg. -à·m < 4.5 2 sg. -âm + `m (> -àmêm > -àmm > -à·m)

4.10 3rd person -äm < 4.5 3rd person -\(\emptyset\) + -äm

4.10 1 pl. -âlx\(^w\)es is overtly 4.5 1 pl. -âlx\(^w\) plus 3rd person subject -es from 4.4

4.10 2 pl. -âlâm < 4.5 2 pl. -âle + `m

4.10 1 sg. -âlâm has `-äm applied possibly to 1 sg. root -âl from 4.9a; it therefore seems derived from a root outside of set 4.5.

4.13. Distribution of personal pronoun affixes (what they can be attached to).

Personal pronoun sets 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.7, and 4.11 are not affixes and so cannot be affixed to any other Halkomelem word class.
Set 4.4 can be suffixed to set 4.5 pronouns, to verbs, to particles which have auxiliary verb features (i.e. \{me\}_1 'come to pass, come to happen', \{le\} 'inceptive, go'), to nominals (which then lose any preceding demonstrative article and function as stative verbs, as in //x^W6lm6x^W-cat// 'I am an Indian'), to numerals with person classifiers (//y^yle-sel-cat// 'we are two people, there are two of us'), and possibly (but unattested) to verbal demonstratives:

Set 4.5 can only be suffixed to transitive verbs.

Set 4.6 can be suffixed to nominals, to demonstratives and probably to classified numerals.

Set 4.8 can be suffixed to set 4.5 pronouns, to nominals, to demonstratives; in third person and in plural set 4.8 members can be suffixed to verbs, and in second person and first person singular set 4.8 members can be suffixed to interrogative verbs.

Set 4.9a can be suffixed to set 4.5 pronouns, to verbs, to nominals (which lose preceding article to function as stative verbs), probably to inflected or classified numerals, and possibly to verbal demonstratives.

Set 4.9b can be suffixed only to auxiliary verbs \{?l(\cdot)\} and \{l?l(\cdot)\} as described in 4.9:

Set 4.10 can be suffixed only to transitive verbs
as a passive but as a middle voice can be suffixed also to intransitive verbs.
CHAPTER 5. LEXICAL AFFIXES

5.0. Lexical affixing is widespread and very productive in Upper Stalo dialects of Halkomelem and is the principal means of word derivation. Most of the lexical affixes in these dialects are suffixes—over a hundred lexical suffixes have been found so far. In contrast, there are only a handful of lexical prefixes (only 13 have turned up to date) and no lexical infixes (reduplication is inflectional in meaning and function, and ablaut types which are derivational do not add recurring lexical meanings). New affixes are still coming to light, so the sets given here are probably an incomplete collection.

In the sections following, first the lexical prefixes will be given with examples, then the lexical suffixes with examples. Lexical suffixes can be subdivided in several ways: a locative set which refers to parts of the body (somatic suffixes), a set which can be used with numerals (where it has the function of numeral classifiers, although half of its members can also be used with nouns and verbs), other lexical suffixes, and marginal cases.

It is pointless to divide lexical affixes into those that can be added to nominals, those that can be added to verbs, etc. because most can be added to
several different syntactic or semantic classes. It is also not very productive to divide lexical affixes into sets which nominalize, which verbalize, or the like because most often these affixes do not change the word class of the stem; only a few examples have been found of lexical affixes nominalizing, etc. (for example, lexw's- 'a person that always (X)es, a person that's always (X)ing'; téy 'to canoe-race' + -óweβ 'canoe' > téyóweβ 'a canoe for racing, a race canoe'; and cák 'be distant' + R₁ 'continuative' + -á·lēs 'in the eye' > cáká·lēs 'goatsbeard plant' ('plant being distant in the eye' because one can see its whitish blooms from a great distance).

Allomorphy involving these affixes is discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.3.6.

5.1. Lexical prefixes:

\[\begin{align*}
\text{lexw} & - 'always' & \text{texw} & - 'mid-, step-' \\
\text{lexw}s & - 'person that always' & \text{tla} & - 'this' \\
\text{c} & - 'c' & \text{tem} & - 'time, season' \\
\text{tel} & - 'from' & \text{ye} & - 'travelling by' \\
\text{we} & - 'get to (?)' & \text{le} & - 'using a long object?, lacking?' \\
\text{xwe} & - 'go, come' & \\
\text{xw} & - 'pertaining to the head' & \\
\text{sexw} & - 'in-law' & \\
\end{align*}\]

lexw - 'always' and lexw's - 'a person that always (Xes), a person that's always (Xing)'. The /s/ in the
second prefix can probably be equated with the \(s-\) nominalizer; however, a human semantic component is added with \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-}\) which prompts its separate listing here. Both prefixes seem to be attached only to intransitive verb roots.

Examples: \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}q\text{èy}'\) 'generous, always good', \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}q\text{èl-}w\text{èz}'\) 'cranky, crabby, dirty-minded' (root \(q\text{èl}'\) 'bad; dirty'), \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}m\text{èlq-}w\text{èz}'\) 'forgetful; passed out (if drunk)', \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}s\text{èh\text{'6p}'\) 'always deep', \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}s\text{èzm}'\) 'always choking on liquid' (Chehalis dialect also has \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}s\text{èzm}'\) 'choking on liquid', where \(s\text{èw-}\) apparently has no more nominalizing force than \(s-\) in \(s\text{èzm}\) or \(s\text{èh\text{'6p}'\) 'deep' and \(s\text{èw\text{'6p}'\} 'deep' are independently attested as adjectival verbs).}

\(\text{lex}^w\text{s-}h\text{èw\text{'s-}'a person that always hunts', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-}t\text{f\text{'lem}'a person that always sings', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-}q\text{èm}'\) 'a person that's always lazy', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-}q\text{èl}'\) 'a person that's always temporarily lazy', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-xwiyèeq\text{'el}'a gossip', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-si\text{si/}' (\text{lex}^w\text{s-si/}' a person who is always scared, coward', \(\text{lex}^w\text{s-q\text{èwiyèflèx}'\) 'a person that always dances, someone who likes to dance'. The \(q\text{èq-\) in \(q\text{èq-q\text{èw\text{'el}'speaker, master of ceremonies' may be a new prefix or merely misheard or misspoken for \(\text{lex}^w\text{-}.\)

\(c\text{è-\) 'be the color' (\(c\text{è-\) seems to be an allo-morph used before glottalized consonants). This
prefix is unrelated to the c- which derives verbs.

Words for color changes ('get red', etc.) drop the c- and add -el - íl 'get, go, come'.

Examples: c'-q'ëy'y 'black, be black', c-q'ëy 'green, yellow, be yellow or green', c-më 'sometimes c'-më') 'blue, be blue', c-k'í m 'red, be red', c-k'í-m-sq 'red-head(ed)', c'-më-å'-å 'blue eyes', c'-k'íy'y 'be brown (?)', brown (?)', c-k'ík'íem-ål(-í-wel) 'red-dish-brown, be reddish-brown', c-k'ík'íw 'gray, be gray', c'-q'íq'íw-å 'brownish-black, be brownish-black' (-el is 'ish' in this word and in 'reddish-brown'), c-téw 'bright-colored' (téwel 'bright, light').

(Nota that not all colors have this prefix; p'éq 'white, be white', q'íq'íayëla 'orange, be orange; an orange', sk'ík'íesel 'dark gray, dark color').

tel- 'from'. Examples: tel-tiyt 'from upriver',
tel-å's '(from) downriver', tel-åëå's 'warm wind (from downriver)', tel-åëå 'tel-éce 'from where?' (?elëce - ?elëce - lëce 'where?'), telí 'from' (prepositional verb < root lí 'be there' demonstrative).

we- 'get to (?)'. A questionable prefix found in
weç'ë 'get to the top or summit of a mountain' (< c'ë 'top, on top') and possibly in weç'ë 'fall, drop' (root may be related to that in c'ëm 'jump').

xwë- 'go, come'. Examples: xwë-?ëy-em 'clear
(of river water) (root ?ɛy 'good'), xʷe-hiwsel 'go upstream' (?čhiw 'upstream'), xʷe-wqʷ-čvl-ër 'go downstream' (w6qʷ 'drift downstream; drown'), xʷ-tiýt-1.m 'eddy water' (go + upstream + repeatedly), xʷ(e)-cəl 'where is someone going?' (cə-l-t 'follow behind someone'), xʷ(e)-cəkʷel 'where is s-o headed?'.

xʷ- '(pertaining to the head or its parts)';
mainly used sporadically with body part suffixes of the head -es 'on the face', -eqʷ 'on top of the head', -á-θel 'on the mouth', perhaps -əqel 'of the throat' and -ɛ-1l-yə 'of the ear'.

Examples: xʷ-θ-á.qʷ 'big head', xʷ-θ-á.s 'big face', xʷ-θ-á-θel 'big mouth' (all with root θ 'big'), xʷ-θ-qʷ-əl 'long face, morose', xʷ-pap-á.s 'hair all over the face', (xʷ-)məkʷ-ə-t 'kiss s-o' (xʷ- optional), (xʷ-)məkʷ-əθel 'kiss s-o on the lips (mouth)' (məkʷ 'stout' is root), xʷ-1l-yəm-əs 'smile' (l1yəm 'laugh'), s-xʷ-ʔəes-əs 'palm of hand' (s-ʔəes 'face'), s-xʷ-ʔəes-xəl 'sole of foot', xʷ-tʰxʷ-əs-əs 'hollow of the hand' (xʷ- '(head) + tʰxʷ 'going downriver' + -əs 'on the face', -əs 'of the hand'), xʷ-tʰxʷ-əs-xəl 'arch of the foot', xʷ-məlkʷ-əs 'get hit in the face by s-th falling', xʷ-ləlče 'listen hard' and xʷ-ləlče-m 'listen' (l may be root, -əlče may be related to somatic suffix -ɛ-1l-yə 'in the ear'), possibly s-xʷ-θɛ-əqel
'loud voice' (root \(\Theta f\cdot 'big' + \text{-eqel 'in the throat'\)}, possibly \(s-x^w-f\cdot le 'side of head' - 'cheek'\) (root meaning unknown).

\(\text{sex}^w\) 'in-law' may well be an error for \(\text{tex}^w\); it has been found only in \(\text{sex}^w-sf\cdot le 'grandparent-in-law'\).

\(\text{tex}^w\) 'mid-, step-'; \(\text{tex}^w\text{m\text{\ae}le(m) 'stepchild', tex}^w\text{m\text{\ae}le 'step-children', tex}^w\text{m\text{\ae}le-m 'adopt a child', tex}^w\text{-sw\text{\ae}yel - tex}^w\text{-sw\text{\ae}yel 'noon, mid-day', tex}^w\text{-sl\text{\ae}t 'midnight'}.\) (There is a remote chance that \(\text{tex}^w\text{\ae}l\) 'tongue' may belong in this set; this would be an alternate analysis to the one given later in this chapter with lexical suffix \(-6x^w\text{\ae}l 'on the tongue'\).

\(\text{tla- 'this'}\) (possibly a proposed demonstrative instead of a prefix); \(\text{tlaw\text{\ae}yel - tlaw\text{\ae}yel 'today', tlaq\text{\ae}ys 'now', tla x^w\text{\ae}le.lt 'tonight' (maybe tla-).\)

\(\text{tem- 'time, season'}\) (not thought to be borrowed from English); \(\text{tem-q^wiles 'springtime' (time for things to come up), tem-k^wak^wes 'summer' (hot time), tem-hil\text{\ae}lx^w 'fall, autumn' (time for leaves to fall, see hil-em 'to fall, tumble down'), tem-x\text{\ae}k^w 'winter' (cold time), tem-p\text{\ae}k^w 'moon of October, time for Chehalis River spring salmon', tem-k^w-f\cdot q\cdot es 'moon of February, time one gets stuck or trapped (in pithouse}
by the snow", tem-t'élém-ces 'moon of February, time
things stick on the hand (with cold)', tem-k'ík'ex'yel
'moon of April, time for baby sockeye salmon',
 tem-t'élfile 'moon of May, time of salmonberries',
 tem-t'élmx' 'moon of June, gooseberry time', tem-qaqá.
'moon of June, high-water time', tem-q'íl 'moon of
July, mosquito time', tem-qéqi 'moon of August, sockeye
time', tem-k'álax' 'moon of September, dog salmon
time', tem-té'm 'when?'.

ye- 'travelling by ...': ye-lá: 'travelling by
canoe, (nowadays also by car, boat or train)', ye-if'mex'y
'travelling by foot' (sometimes also yi-if'mex'y),
ye-c'ec'e 'travelling by horse', ye-x'é-wq'welem
'travelling by going downriver', ye-x'é-wq'weq'et 'poling
along (in calm water), travelling by poling a canoe'.

l- has a meaning which is hard to isolate; most
examples seem to involve 'using a long object' and a
few others seem to involve 'without, lacking'.
Examples: l-p'á:k'em 'smoke a pipe' (p'á:k'em 'to
smoke'), l-xéyl-éx'y 'stand (on one's legs)' (using
long object + legs + upright), l-xéyl-ép-tel 'floor'
(standing or using legs + dirt/ground + device), l-séq'
'half, be half, half-breed' (< séq'-ét 'split it, crack
it'), l'é-mex'y-c'él-tel 'fine-toothed comb, de-lousing
comb' (using long object + louse (mex'y-c'él) + device);
1-qā·-le (Cheh.) - c-qā·-le (Chill.) 'be thirsty' (root qā· 'water'), 1-ow-θ’e 'naked' (possibly 'without' + 'no' + 'clothes') (more likely is a root like how or hew, not yet attested); 1-q’ēl-λexw ‘know it’ (< q’ē·l ‘believe’).

5.2. Lexical suffixes.

5.2.1. Somatic suffixes.

Below are the lexical suffixes found so far which refer to body parts (somatic suffixes). They are present in many of the words of the domain of anatomy, even in many of the independent words equivalent to the suffixes. They are also quite productive outside of anatomical words, sometimes also having a figurai
tive meaning. At the present it is unclear whether the anatomical lexical suffixes developed historically from the independent words which have equivalent meaning or vice versa. It is important to note here that the Upper Stalo somatic suffixes are usually locative in nature, best translated by 'on or in the (body part)' everywhere except in body part words where they are best translated as partitive, 'of the (body part)' and in body function words where they are best translated by '(body part)' (usually subject of the verb root they are attached to). Further treatment of the somatic suffixes will be found in the sememic and morpho-
semmic chapters. Allomorphy has been dealt with in the morphophonemics but allomorphs are relisted here for reference:

-ɬ·ws, -ɛws 'on the body, on the skin, on the covering'
-ɬeq', -(e)leq', -ɪq', -ɑ·q' 'on top of the head, on the hair, (head of a river; head of descendants)'
-ɡel 'in the head, (at head or source of a river; the inside head = inlet of river; head of an island)'
-ʃlɛgel 'in the head'
-ʃlmɛl 'in the mind'
-weɬ, -wɛl 'in the mind, -minded, disposition'
-ɑ·les 'on the eye(s), in the eye(s), (on the eyelids)'
-ɑ·s, -es 'on the face, (face of the hand or foot; face of a mountain; face of a basket; opened surface of a salmon; bow of a canoe or boat; probably 'face of the moon is source of -es 'cyclic periods')'
-ɛ·li·ye 'on the ear, in the ear'
-ɛ(1)qsel, -(e)qsel 'on the nose, in the nose, point or end of a long object (pole, tree, knife, candle, land), (nose of geographic features such as an island, a mountain)
-ɑ·qel, -(e)qel 'on the mouth, in the mouth'
-ɑ·yeɬ, -ɛyeɬ, -eɬ(1) 'on the lip, on the jaw, in speech, (in music)'
-ẹl·es, -ẹlís 'on the teeth'
-ẹxẹl 'on the tongue'
-ẹpsem 'on the back of the head and back of the neck, (a neck of land)'
-ẹs, -ẹśl 'on the front of the neck'
-ẹqel 'in the throat, (throat of a cliff or mountain; language; voice)'
-ı·les 'on the chest, in the chest'
-ẹlẹxel 'on the arm, in the arm, (arm of multiple blowing = thunder wind; arm of a bat; possibly related to -ẹxel 'side (of a house, a square, or a river)')'
-ces 'on the hand or finger, in the hand or finger, (limb of a tree)
-ẹwic 'on the back (of a person), in the back (of a person), (the back of a foot = the top of a foot; backward)'
-ı·cel 'on the back'
-ọwọx 'on the ribs, (slats)'
-ẹ·lwes, -ẹlwes 'on the stomach, in the stomach, (courage: 'cowardly' < 'bad in the stomach' and 'brave' < 'good in the stomach')'
-(ẹ)yá·le 'on the stomach or ventral surface of body'
-ẹ·q, -eq 'on the genitals, on the penis or male'
-(ẹ)lec, -léc 'on the rump, on the bottom (of anything),
(animal dung; stern of a canoe or boat)

-śwel, -śwel, -śwel, -śwel 1 'in the rump or anus; on the inside, (inside parts; core; inside the head; inside a plant or fruit or canoe, etc.)'

(-śwel, -śwel refer mainly to the anus or inside of the rump, and -śwel, -śwel refer mainly to the more general inside of anything; the two sets do not seem to separate into two morphemes easily because there is also overlapping in the meanings)

-śyol, -śyōl 1 'on the foot or leg, in the foot or leg, (tail of fish; leg of other animate creatures, rays of light)'

-śmēl 'member or part (of the body)'

(-? -śtmēl 'fin'

-śqēl, -śqēl 'wool, (feather)'

Examples:

-śws: āq'-śws 'half the body', sūnś-w-śws '(living) body', kūnś-w-śws 'singe hairs off skin', qet-ś ws-em 'take a sweatbath (water one's body)', qūnś-em-śws 'plucked (of a bird)', qūnś-em-śws-t 'pluck it (of a bird)', sēqūnś-em-śws 'cedar bark skirt' (< sīqūnś-em 'peel cedar bark'), sēq-śws - sq-śws 'pants' (seq- may be 'penis' or 'male'), sēw-śws '(woman's dress' (probably < 'opening' + 'covering'), p'sel-śws 'bark of tree', yēqūnś-ś-śws 'Yakweakwhoose (a village

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near Sardis); covering (of grass) burnt out repeatedly', s-báy-ëws 'spirit dancing costume' (probably 'final covering' < háy 'finish').

-(ñl)eq : k'q'w-ëleq't 'hit s-o on top of the head (with a club or stick-like object)', yáθ-ëleq 'pointed head', s-q'ât-ëleq 'crown of head', s-t'ém-ëleq 'scalp, top of head', y'éym-ëleq't 'grab s-o by the hair', c-këf'm-ëq 'red-headed, red hair', yá's-ëq 'hat', cfé-ëq 'bushy and uncombed hair' ('high hair'), k'x'w-ëf-w-tel 'kerchief' (cover + on top of head + device), tíc-ëq-em 'get one's hair cut', x'w-θ-á.q 'big head', θéθ-ëq 'big heads', s-c'á)m-ëq - s-θ'á)m-ëq 'great grandparent/-child', ʔék'iy-ëq 'great great grandparent/-child', θ'ëp'ëy-ëq 'great great great grandparent/-child', támíy-ëq 'great great great great grandparent/-child'.

-ql ; s-x'w-ëk'-qel 'pillow (rolled bullrush mat)' (nominal + rolled + for the head), më-ql 'hair' (probably 'comes out of' + 'in the head'), s-mëθ-ql 'brain' (nominal + blue + in the head), s-x'ács-ql 'Chilliwack Lake' (lake + at the head (of the river)), s-q'ëw-ql 'Seabird Island' (turn in river + at the head (a head-shaped mountain or head of the slough or head of the island)), s-k'wëtëx-w-ql 'inlet' (the inside + in the head), (Tait) cë-qæl - (Chill.) cëqæyl 'palate, roof of mouth and inside upper lip'.

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-élqel: xqél-élqel 'headache', tēs-élqel 'bump one's head', smel-élqel 'kidneys' (probably < smēlt 'stone', "stone in its head").

-elmel: tēelmel 'the mind', héyet-elmel 'nauseated' (vomiting + in the mind), tēǩʷ-elmel 'home-sick' (go home + in the mind).

-wēz: lexʷ-qśl-wez 'cranky, crabby, dirty-minded' (always + bad; dirty + -minded), xʷe-?ēy-wez 'kind, generous' (become + good + -minded, in disposition), xʷ-qśl-wez 'stingy', s-qśl-wēz-mēt 'hate s-o'.

-āləs: qoʔ-āləs 'tear' (qoʔ < qəʔ 'water'), ǩʷq̌ʷāləs 'hit on the eye(lid)(with a stick-like object)', st'elmeqʷ-āləs 'eye medicine', q'εyy-āləs 'pupil of eye, black of the eye', s-ǩʷec-ā-s-tel-āləs 'eyeglasses' (skʷecá-stel 'window, mirror'), c-mēʔ-āləs 'blue eyes'.

-ās: əqʷ-ā-s-em 'wash one's face', əq̌ʷ-ā-s 'punched in the face', xʷ-ə-á-s 'big face', əq̌ʷp̌-əs 'scraped on the face', s-ǩʷec-ā-s-tel 'window, mirror' (nominal + see + face + device), q̌ʷť-əs 'headband', q̌ʷy-əs 'blind', əq̌ʷ-əs 'fun, having fun' (good + in the face), xʷ-ťəxʷ-əs-x̌eł 'arch of the foot' (pertaining to head + go downriver + on the face + of the foot)(references to head and face because the sole of the foot < pertaining to head + face + of the foot),
xʷ-t'áxʷ-əs-əs 'hollow of the hand', s-tiit-á's
'Promontory Mountain' (upriver + face), s-χəl-əs
'basked design' (nominal + mark, design + on face),
s-χəlc'-əs (Chill.) - sxʷ-χəlc'-əs (Cheh.) 'scored wind-
dried salmon' (nominal + cut + on face), xʷiqʷ-əs-t
'hang s-c', lq'á-t-əs 'wide face'.

-čəlf'-ye: kʷqʷ-čəlf'-ye 'hit on the ear with a
stick-like object or club', s-kələqəl-p'-čəlf'-ye 'sloppy
or flabby ears', sqʷelqʷel-čəlf'-ye 'hair in the ears',
t'əmxʷ-čəlf'-ye 'braid hair (over the ears or side of
head)'.

-(e)(l)qs(əl): ləcəl-lqsəl 'cut on the tip of the
nose', méqəl 'nose', əlqʷəl-qəl 'hook-nose (of peo-
ple and also the name of a mountain near Agassiz)',
χəl-p'-qəsel 'scraped on the nose', s-xʷeqʷ-čəlqʷ-əs-
etl 'nose ring', səməm-qəsel 'bridge of nose', smətə-qəsel
or sət-əqəsel 'snot', s-čəl-qəsel or s-čəl-qəsel 'point of
nose, point of land', səqəl-qəs or s-čəl(ə)qs 'point of
a knife', ténskʷ-əqəsel 'blunt (of poles)', yəqʷ-əqs-ɪl-
-əsəl 'I'm lighting the light (candle, lantern, etc.)'
(burn + point + go, come or device + I (subject)),
xʷeqʷ-qs-t 'sharpen a point', ṣeqʷ-qs-t 'strike it (of
a match)' (scratch + on the point + 3rd person object).

-āəəl: xʷ-ə-əəl 'big mouth', əəəəl 'mouth',
qʷeqʷəm-əəəl 'fishing with hook + line, trout-fishing',

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s-qép'-à·θél 'flying squirrel' (nominal + cover + on the mouth—so-called because of stories the animal will land against one's mouth when one is walking at night in the woods and smother one), sqwiq'ey-à·θél 'jack-rabbit, big older rabbit' (also see 'harelip' below);

-á·yél: c'em-x'y-á·yél 'jaw' (bite + object + jaw, lip), s-cél-á·yél 'upper lip', s-x'ep-á·yél 'lower lip', xç'-á·yél 'cut on the lip or jaw', qwil-eyéél 'beard, mustache', k'wës-á·yél 'burned on the lip(s)', meldmel-á·yél 'blunder in speaking', melq-el-eyéf1-em 'forget in speaking, forget one's words', mélec'-mëg-á·yél 'mixed up in speaking', sqeqy-eqel-á·yél 'not fluent in speaking' (not know + language + in the lips), há'yél 'finish eating' (blend of há'y and -á·yél), qwel-ayéf1-em or qwel-aye1-l-em 'making music', qwel-aye-tél (or //qwel-á·yél-tél/) 'musical instrument' (l \rightarrow \emptyset before -tél), qsyqewáθél-á·yél 'harelip, cleft palate'.

- él·es: yél·es 'tooth, teeth', s}eq'-él·es 'gums' (flesh + in the teeth), xel•c'•els-om 'grinding one's teeth'.

-ëx'wel: téx'wel 'tongue', s-xém-el-ëx'wel 'wild tiger lily' (nominal + crying +? + on the tongue—this is a description of the flower’s petals—tears on the tongue or crying on the tongue).
-épsom: tépsom 'back of head and back of neck',
temél-épsom 'red-headed woodpecker' (red ochre, Indian
paint fungus + on back of head and neck), k'ëqt-épsom
'long neck', q'ëtq'ëpsom 'scrawny neck, thin neck',
θëh-épsom 'big neck', lek'ëpsom 'break one's neck'.

-iel: sqwel-iel 'front of neck', sxwel-ámél-iel
'adam's apple', p'iel-iel-t 'choke s-o' (squeeze +
front of neck + purposely (+ 3rd person object)).

-eql: c'yl-yx'eqel 'dry in the throat',
k'wú-s-eql 'burned in the mouth and throat', smélq'w-
smélq'w-eqel 'uvula', s-ël-eqel (//s-ël-eqel/) 'loud
(voice)' (big + in throat), x'iyë-eqel 'interpret,
repeat what is said', x'ëyë-eqel 'interpreting',
x'iyë-eqel-éx' 'interpret for me' (1 → Ø here before
//T//), x'stíy-éqel 'to answer, reply, answer back'
(compare x'stíy-cés 'fight back'), x'tél-éqel-éx' 're-
peat after me', x'émélw-eqel 'Indian language',
x'éltem-eqel 'white man's language, English',
célmeqel 'Chinese language', s-x'éméqel-eqel 'liar'
and méqel-qéy-ém 'to tell a lie' (root seems to be
méqel 'be proud'); the last five examples may show
suffix -eqel 'language' possibly from -eqel 'in the
head' instead of from -eqel 'in the throat', but in
'loud' we see loss of the first /ə/ and in 'interpret'
and 'answer' we see the -eqel suffix referring to.
'language'. Further figurative extensions of -eqel can be seen in k'w'éy-qt'eqel 'climb a hill or mountain' (if this is not -qt'eqel 'in the head' used figuratively) and (s)q'w'él-6qt'eqel 'cliff, vertical rock face'.

-í'les: k'w'éq't'í'les 'hit on the chest (with a stick-like object)', s'í'les '(human) chest', t'k'w'-í'les 'choke on food', t'ék'w'-í'les 'choking on food' (t'ék'w 'mired'), (s)t'í'-í'ús-tel 'collarbone' (t' - k')(t'í - t'ék 'go across, span'), q'em'í'-í'les 'big breasts; name of Mt. Ogilby near Hope' (< q'w'amê' 'large lump'), s'eq'w'-í'les 'breast' (sìq'w 'flesh').

-éxel: k'w'éxéxel 'hit on the arm (with a stick-like object')', sx'w'-í'í-éxel 'armpit', s-é'ém-x'w'-éxel 'elbow' (bone + ± in arm), l'é'-éxel 'cut one's arm', lék'w'-él'el 'break an arm', sk'w'ély-éxel or sk'w'-él'el 'bat', p'íp'éé'-éxel 'bat' (squeezing + arm), s-patpet-él'el 'thunder-wind (wind that precedes a thunderstorm)' (thunder is thought of as a bird—the thunderbird, sx'w'ex'w'á's—and the wind may be analyzed as 'nominal' + 'repeated blowing' (< pá't 'blow' + iterative reduplication) + 'arm'). This suffix may be related to -éxel 'end or side of a house (inside or outside)'.

-ces: k'w'é's-ces 'burned on the hand or fingers', léc'-ces 'cut on the hand', éxé's-ces-em 'wash one's
hands', s-16x-ces 'finger', q'WxW6l-ces 'fingernails', q'Wem-xW-ces 'wrist bone (lump of hand)', k'i-q'-e 'one's hand jammed or stuck', s'Ik'we-ces 'left hand, left-handed', liIle-ces 'little berry basket attached to waist (it holds what the hand picks and when full is dumped into a large berry basket on one's back)' (< ?elfIle 'salmonberries'; the words are sometimes pronounced liIleces and ?elfIle), xfeyces 'cedar limb', Siyem-ces 'proper name of the youngest Wealick brother in a legend; now the name of Frank Malloway' (said to mean 'chiefly hand' or 'rich hand').

-ewic: k'q'ewic 'hit on the back (with stick-like object)', xek'w-ales-ewic - xek'w-ales 'backbone', lek'w-ewic 'break the spine or back; have a hunchback', k'wec-ewic-em (Tait dialect) 'look back'.

-f cel: xep-f cel 'chipmunk' (scratch or scrape + on back), s-xexep-f cel 'chipmunk with multiple stripes on his back', sqWam-cel 'hunchback, lump on the back' (< s-qWam 'lump'), possibly ci-fcel-xel 'top of the foot' (upper + back + foot) and q'ew-cel 'dorsal fin (long fin on back of fish)

-6w6x; l6w6x 'ribs', 86w6x 'cedar slat basket', 86w6x-iy6 'name of cannibal ogress who caught children in a cedar slat basket'.

-6lwes; xe6-6lwes '(have a) stomach-ache',
θ'q̣w-εl-\textit{wes-t-em} 'he was punched in the stomach',
q\textit{w}-εl\textit{wes} 'cowardly, afraid to try', ?iy-εl\textit{wes} 'brave'
(good + in the stomach), possibly ζεξ\textit{w}-εl\textit{aw} 'ruptured belly button' (root may be ζεξ\textit{w} 'spit out').

-\textit{eq}: q\textit{w}y\textit{1-eq} 'pubic hair', θ-ε\textit{q} 'big penis',
?iy\textit{w}s-\textit{eq} 'dear male friend' (compare ?iy\textit{w}s 'dear female friend').

-\textit{lec}: k\textit{wq}-\textit{lec} 'hit on the rump (with club or stick)', s-k\textit{w}y\textit{lec} 'lame; to limp' (nominal + climb + rump), ζeq\textit{w}-\textit{lec} 'hip, hind leg' (wide + of rump), θ\textit{q}-\textit{lec} (ε - δ - δ) 'back' (comes out above + rump), k\textit{w}es-\textit{lec} 'burned on the rump', sί-\textit{lec}
'rump' (may be //s-\textit{h\textit{1-l-lec// with root meaning 'folded over' as in s-\textit{h\textit{1-l-p} 'sloppy' (probably 'nominal' + 'folded over' + 'on itself')), s-κ\textit{ep}-\textit{lec} 'tail',
deep + in rump), s-c\textit{e(\textit{m})-lec-tel 'chair, bench'}
nominal + on top of + rump (subject) + device >
device the rump is on top of'), yeq\textit{lec-em} 'change one's seat, change one's chair' (change + rump + one's (middle voice)), sx\textit{w}-κ\textit{ep\textit{-lec} 'bottom of anything',
κ\textit{ep}-\textit{lec} 'bottom of creek', s-q\textit{ep}-\textit{lec} 'bush bunched
up tight at bottom, thick crowded tight underbrush', skʷ-élec (or skʷé(1)-lec) 'coiled bottom of basket before the sides are on', spʼé-élec 'bear dung', cʼød-élec 'chicken dung', əʼtésec-w-lec 'tail of Seabird Island'.

-í•wél: cʼiyxʷ-í•wél 'constipated, dry in the rump', xʼexekʷ-í•wél 'constipated, wedged tight in the rump', tʼekʷ-í•wél 'constipated, mired in the rump', (s)cʼép(x)-í•wél 'dirty asshole', sqʼeyx-í•wél 'black asshole', əʼqʼí•wél 'open sores in rump, hemmorhoids', stʼélmexʷ-íwél 'love medicine (medicine for genitals)', scʼelxʷ-íwél 'insides (all the organs inside an animate being)', mθʼe-í-íwél 'woodtick' (pus + closable container + inside), tʼem-owí•l-t 'chop the inside of it out', xʼep-owí•l-t 'plane it out inside', sθʼem-íwél 'core, pith, seed, nut, center (of rock or anything)', sqʼex-í•wél 'hollow' (hole + on inside), sqʼe-h-í•wél 'tunnel, hole, hollow', (s)xʼ(e)p-í•wél 'shirt, under-shirt, bra' (below or deep + on inside), sín-íwél 'strong feelings or mad all the time but won't fight' (scary or bad or evil + on insides), əekʷ-í•wél 'be surprised' (fly + on insides), xʼaw-í•wél 'happy, happy inside', sqʼel-owél 'thoughts, feelings' (talk or speech + on insides).

-xʼel: əekʷ-xʼel 'trip, stumble'(hook + on foot),
θ'xʷ-xʷʔel-əm 'wash one's feet', s-łéx-xʷʔel 'toe',
s-xʷc'-xʷʔel 'splinter or sliver in foot', ʔəc'-xʷʔel
'cut on the foot', qʷəm-xʷ-xʷʔel 'ankle' (lump of foot),
se'əm-xʷʔel 'shin' (bone in leg), sq'ep-əlɛqʷ-əl-xʷʔel
'kneecap', 1əkʷ-xʷʔel 'broke a leg', qʷəl-y-xʷʔel
'shoe(s)' (driftwood + on foot), θəlɪwɛ-xʷʔel -
cəlɪwɛ-xʷʔel 'snowshoe(s)', 1ɛ-xʷʔel 'fishing platform
(for still-dipnetting)', xʷá-m-xʷʔel-əm 'run',
xʷem-xʷʔel-əm 'running' (some speakers of Tait and
Chehalis dialects say the glosses are reversed on the
last two words)(root xʷəm 'hurry, be fast' undergoes
derivational fronting of the xʷ to xʷ), sqʷəlqʷəl-xʷʔel
'tuft(s) of hair on a horse's legs', sx̌əp-xʷʔel 'fish
tail', ƛ'əməx̌-xʷʔel 'grasshopper' (repeatedly jumping
foot or leg), pɪt-xʷʔel 'salamander', ƛ'əlɛx-xʷʔel 'spring
salmon (generic)' (spotted + foot), s-łəm-xʷʔel -
əlɛm-əl - s-łəməm 'dew' (respectively, 'rain or mois-
ture on the foot', 'rain device', and 'repeated or plural
rain or moisture'), sq'á-xʷʔel 'partner' (together + in
foot), səeqsl-xʷʔel-əm 'rainbow' (see also sxəlyəl-s
tə syá-qʷem 'visible beams or rays of light', literally
"legs of the sun")

-əmɛl; mekw'-əmɛl-xʷʔel 'big toe' (stout + member
+ of foot), mekw'-əmɛl-əl-'thumb', (Tait dialect)
mət'əs-emɛl 'pointing finger, first finger',

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s-x weh-ámél-ıšq 'adam's apple' (upstream(?)) + member + of front of neck).

- étmel: q’étmel 'fin, neck fin', ętétmel 'belly fin'.

- élqlel: metú-?élqlel - metú:élqlel 'sheep wool'
  (lemetú - metú 'sheep'), sq’(e)mé:y-élqlel 'dog wool',
  p’q*-éélqlel 'mountain goat' (white + wool), š’p’-élqlel
  'long feathers' (deep + (derivational glottalization as
  in 'tail') + wool).

5.2.2. Numeral classifier affixes.

So far 20 lexical affixes have been found which can be added to numerals. The chapter on numerals will cover them in more depth and will cover the extensive numeral allomorphy involved. These affixes are listed here because over half of them can also be affixed to roots which are not numerals. Eight of them can also be affixed to the numerical interrogative verb, k’w’il 'how many?'. With numerals they seem to function in the same manner as numeral classifiers in other languages; some must be and the rest can be affixed to numeral roots in order to count certain nouns; nouns with identical lexical meaning to the classifier suffix cannot occur within the same syntactic phrase with it, but nouns with more specific reference than the classifier suffix can occur within
the same syntactic phrase with the suffix.

Numeral classifier affixes were apparently used more extensively in pre-contact times or even 70 years ago than they are now. Only the oldest, most fluent speakers remember many of them and use them obligatorily. The range of numbers they can be used with also varies with the affix. In the following table the numeral classifier affixes are listed with range of affixability (those with greatest range are listed first), affixability to k'w1·l, affixability to non-numeral roots, and whether they are obligatory or optional. For allomorphy of the affixes see the chapters on morphophonemics and numerals. A brief set of examples follows the table.

-æs 'dollars': with 1-99, k'w1·l, non-numerals, obligatory

-£ele 'people': with 3-99, k'w1·l, obligatory, but exact count often replaced by q6x 'many' over 49

s- -s 'o'clock': with 1-12, k'w1·l, obligatory, related to s- -s 'th day of the week', probably deriving from s- nominalizer + -es 'cyclic period' rather than a circumfix

-6wes 'canoe paddles, paddlers': with 1-11 (the largest race canoe has 11 paddlers), k'w1·l, non-numerals, optional?
-ｶ' times': with 1 (allomorph -ｶ) and 3-10, k'ankan-1, obligatory

-つ'fish (heads)': (apparently fish are counted by
the head)(this suffix has dissimilatory allomorph -つ
after 4(C) where C = consonant); with 2-9, non-numerals
(as somatic suffix -つ'on top of the head'), optional?

-alma' times ten, -ty': with 3-9 (yeilding 30-90),
on-numerals (one example), obligatory

-alma' trees': with 1-5, k'ankan-1, non-numerals,
obligatory for single owner

-ma' 'piles': with 1-5, obligatory

-s- -s 'th day of the week': with 2-5, obligatory

-alma' 'garments': with 2-5, non-numerals, optional?

-alma' 'houses': with 2-5, k'ankan (-ts allomorph),
on-numerals, obligatory for single owner

-alma' 'canoes': only with 5 so far, k'ankan-1, non-
umerals, optional?

-alma' 'barks' (possibly < -sy 'bark' + -ys 'on
the body, covering'): only with 5 so far, non-numerals,
optional

-alma' 'spherical objects, fruit': only with 5 so
far, non-numerals, optional?

-alma' 'containers': only with 5 so far, (possibly
related to -eq 'in the throat'), obligatory?

-alma' 'young': only with 5 so far, non-numerals,
optional
-ɛltx' 'wives': only with 2 so far, possibly related to -ɛwtx' - ɛtx' - ɛtw 'house(s)'.
-ɛmec' (probably -ɛmeθ') 'upright, poles': only with 2 so far, non-numerals, obligatory.
-ɛwec (gloss uncertain): used as formative only in lɛc'-ɛwec '(one) hundred', may be related to -ɛwic 'in the back' since the root of 'hundred' is lɛc' '(be) different' and 100 is different at its back from the tens by an extra zero at the back.

Examples: (?isɛ'le 'two', ɛeq'ɛces - iq'ɛ'ces 'five', teq'ces 'eight'; in the examples to follow numerals are not spelled out (to save space), and the forms involving the root for 'five' iq'ɛ'ces usually have this form in variation with /iq'ɛ'cs/)
-iq'ɛc'es '5 dollars', teq'ɛc'es-s '8 dollars',
-iq'ɛc-ɛle '5 people', s-iq'ɛc'es or s-iq'ɛc-es-s '5 o'clock', s-teq'esc-es-s '8 o'clock', iq'eces-ɛwes '5 canoe paddles, 5 paddlers', iq'eces-ɛ reservations '5 times', iq'eces-iq'w '5 fish', ieq'ec-elsx'ɛ '50', iq'eces-ɛiɛp '5 trees (belonging to one person)', iq'eces-małk '5 piles', s-ieq'ec-es or s-jeq'ec-es-s 'Friday',
iq'eces-ɛlwe' '5 garments', iq'eces-ɛtw '5 houses or buildings (belonging to one person)', iq'eces-owet '5 canoes (belonging to one person)' (compare iq'eces slɛx'wet '5 canoes (belonging to different people)'),
'iq'sces-šyis '5 pairs of pants', 'iq'sces-á:ls '5 fruit, 5 spherical things (5 rocks, 5 balls, etc.)', 'iq'sc-eqel '5 containers (like baskets, etc.)', 'iq'sces-(?)á:liz '5 young', 'isl-š:letxw 'man with two wives', 'isl-š:leme' 'two poles standing upright', 'leć'-swec 'one hundred, hundred'.

5.2.3. Other lexical suffixes (arranged alphabetically by gloss).

-š·y (-šey -šiy) 'bark and wood': p(e)qʷ-š·y 'rotten wood' (pəqʷ 'split, broken, busted', páqʷ-šet 'get mouldy, decayed'), p(e)qʷ-š·y-šet 'wood decays', qʷí-š·y 'driftwood' (qʷəž 'fall in water, tip over in canoe'), x(e)p-š·y 'red cedar wood', sλwiy 'inner cedar bark' (root λw- 'inside or into an opening'), or cedar bark mat 'lqʷ-š·y 'cedar bark skirt' (or peeled bark) (ləqʷ-šət 'peel any bark'), sλ·y 'Douglas fir bark', lē·y-šəp 'Douglas fir tree', c's-š·y 'fire log or wood', o'š·x-šey 'bleached grass for basketry designs' (o'š·x-šet 'scald it'), qə't'em-š·y-šəp 'balsam, larch' (q'ət'əm-šəm 'sweet-tasting' shows root; the tree has sweet sap on outside of bark), səkʷəm-iy 'birch', qʷəqʷəž-iy 'lots of little pieces of driftwood'.

-á:me 'berry': cəlq-á:me 'blackcap berry' (cəlq 'fall off, drop'), kʷxʷá:me-1s 'mountain black huckleberry (Vaccinium membranaceum)'.

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-ɛ(·)wtxʷ, -əwtxʷ, -(ɛ)ltxʷ, -(ɔl)txʷ 'building, house': Ḵ̱elmexw-ɛwtxʷ 'smokehouse, longhouse' (lit. Indian house), Ḵ̱'qəl-ɛwtxʷ 'outhouse, bathroom' (outside + house), lêm-ɛwtxʷ 'bar, pub, liquor store' (lêm 'liquor' < English "rum"), cəl̓təl-ɛwtxʷ 'smokehouse, dried fish house' (dried fish + house), Ḵ̱ltxʷ-ɛwtxʷ 'plank house' (plank + house), cehέyəx-ɛwtxʷ 'church building' (prayer + house), t̓ele-ɛwtxʷ 'bank' (t̓ele 'money' < English "dollar"), sił-ɛwtxʷ 'tent' (sił 'cloth' < Chinook/English "sail"), səlexʷəl-ɛwtxʷ 'canoe shed', siy̕əl-ɛwtxʷ 'woodshed', səkʷem-ɛwtxʷ 'bark house', q̓əwe̓yəl̓txʷ-ɛwtxʷ 'dance hall', smfəl-ɛwtxʷ 'spirit dancing house', wəc-ɛwtxʷ 'outhouse (for solid waste)', məkʷem-ɛwtxʷ 'second-hand store' (məkʷem 'use second-hand'), Ḵ̱ltə-ɛwtxʷ 'hotel, bedroom', səpəl-ɛwtxʷ 'root cellar (covered with earth, separate from house, kept potatoes, apples, etc.)', ɬəj̓-ɛwtxʷ-em 'build a house' (make + house + middle voice), ləkʷəm-ɛwtxʷ 'next-door, different house', ləkʷəm-ɛwtxʷ-em 'visit', cə-łtxʷ 'upper portion of pit house or any house', sʔəl̓txʷ 'cedar planks on roof or side of house', Swel̓ím-əłtxʷ '(Indian name of Ed Leon Sr. of Chehalis)', qiq'-ɛwtxʷ 'jail', + see 5.2.2.

-6(·)weł 'canoe', ɬəweł 'vessel, container'; q̓əxʷ-6(·)weł 'war canoe, largest canoe', t̓əy-əweł
'racing canoe', pot-ôweł 'row-boat', xʷixʷep-ôweł
'plaining a canoe', qep'-ás-oveł 'canoe turned upside
down (on land)', t'xʷ-owéł (kʷ - q) "corking a
canoe", caulking a canoe', ḥeq-ôweł 'patching a canoe',
txʷ-ôweł 'tow a canoe (through rough water)',
xʷokʷ-ôweł 'drag a canoe', ḥilem-ôweł 'carry a canoe
on shoulders', ḥé1-wél 'middle of a canoe (on inside),
middle paddler(s)', ḥex-ol-wé1-tel 'cross-piece in
canoe, thwart'; c'eqʾ-ôweł 'weave a cedar root bas-
ket' (cʾeqʾ 'poke, pierce'), steq'-ôweł 'lower back'
(wide part? + canoe), qʷeqʾ(1)y-ôweł (ó - ú) 'carved
wooden spoon' (compare qʷeqʾ(1)y-xʷeqʾ 'shoe'),
xʷweł 'vulva, vagina'.

-analysis': yeqʾw-áž-em "breaking one's canoe",
last spirit dance of the season' (yeqʾw-Ét 'break
s-th up'), compare ḥá̱- 'be aboard (a canoe)'.

-íž 'child, young, baby' (see also -áliž 'young',
may be case of l-y alternation if //Éyž//):
xʷaléem-íž 'baby-sitter' (xʷaléem-T 'take care of s-o'),
s-kʷem-íž-em 'adopted child' (kʷem 'raise (a child)').

-iyá's 'in a circle': q'eqʾalc'-iyás-em sáːhɛl's
'whirlwind' (sáːhɛl's 'wind'), siselc'-iyás-em 'turn
around in a circle'. (probably < sislel- 'spinning',
-else 'around, over, turning', -iyá's 'in a circle',
-em 'middle voice'), xeqylxíl-iyá's-em 'it is written
(in the sky)(as striped clouds)'.
-fe', -fe 'clothes': k'wseq'-í-e (e - o)

'Coqualeetza (a place in present-day Sardis, B.C.)'

(club + ? + clothes; at least two different stories account for the origin of this placename from 'club' + 'clothes'), (AC) ñow-í-e' - (DM) ñow-í-e' 'naked', ñow-e'í-m 'to undress', ?í-e'ím 'get dressed', s-?í-e'ím 'clothes, clothing', spalq'í-e'í 'corpse, ghost'

(probably clothing of the spirit), s-qol(-)á'í-í-e'í 'west wind' (possibly 'dirties' + 'clothes'). See also the suffix for 'garment'.

-é-í, -él, -éle 'container for, receptacle for';

(over 30 examples have been found, including the following:) sx'-háq'-í-í 'firepit' (container for burning), s-x'we'-qol-é-í 'pillow case' (container for pillow, pillow < rolled thing under head), sqolx'-é-í 'throat, gullet' (greedy + container), s-x'we'-í 'store' (nominal + sell + container for), sx'-í-m 'bottle' (sx'-í-m 'medicine man' or sx'-í-m 'something going'), sx'-í-m 'fishing basket, bait basket' (nominal + bait + container for), îc'-í-tel-í 'knife handle' (cutting + device + container for), s-p'á'í-m-í-í '(tobacco) pipe' (smoke + container for), s-p'á'í-m-é-í-í 'smokehole', smok'í-í 'graveyard' (smok'í 'grave'), spal-í-í 'mast' (spá-í-í 'sail'), sc-xí-t-í 'knothole' (branch + container for),
sxʷe·yə-hə·lə 'Squia-a-ala (Chilliwack Indian Reserve
#7, a village in pre-contact times)' (xʷe·y 'many
people perished together'), sxʷe·ʔə·lə 'bladder'
(urine + container for), kʷəl·ə·lə 'stomach', xələw·ələ
'horn rings for dip nets' (xəlwə 'spoon').

-əqəl 'container': ʔiʔəxʷəl-əqəl (Tait and Cheh.
have əʔəxʷəl-əqəl) 'small container', məmel·əqəl
'small container' (?əməmel 'a little bit'), məmel·əqəl
'small containers' (e-ablaut plural of /i/ in diminu-
tive reduplication is regular), t'il·əqəl 'salmon
after spawning when its eggs are loose' (? lonely +
container).

-ə·s, -əs 'cyclic period, moon, season': (probably
related to -ə·s - -əs 'face') peləq·əs 'torch moon
(in January), (time to spear fish by torchlight)'
(peləqəl 'torch'), tem-kəf·əq·əs 'moon (when one) gets
jammed in (from snow) (in February)' (time + jammed in
or stuck in a trap + moon or cyclic period), wələk'əs
'little frog moon (in March)', ʔəmt(s)ələs 'spring
showers moon (in April)' (if not -əs then -əələs 'in
the eyes'), ʔəpəl·əs·təl 'tenth moon (in July)',
meq·ə·s 'fallen snow moon (in December)' (məqə 'fallen
snow'), skʷəx̣ə–ə·s 'moon, month' (kʷəx̣ə– 'count'),
wə·yəl·əs 'tomorrow' (wə·yəl 'come daylight'),
ʔim·əx̣ə–ə·s·əm 'go for a walk' (walk in a circle with-
out destination), ḫak'wem(−)á·l(−)es 'when the first fall storm comes' (ḵa·k'w 'to fly', á·l'es 'in the eyes' may be the suffix here instead of −es).

−á·lk'wá 'spirit dancer': ḥews-á·lk'wá 'new spirit dancer' (ḥews 'new'),

−ežét 'day of the week': sxeš-ežét 'Sunday' (sacred + day of the week), yilê·w-ežét 'Monday' (passed or after + day of the week).

−ê·ž 'deceased' (or perhaps merely the past tense suffix attached to nominals): sfl·ê·ž 'late grandparent, deceased grandparent' (sfl·e 'grandparent'), mšl-e·ž 'late or deceased child' (mšle 'child'), sfl·sel-e·ž 'late grandmother' (sfl·sel used by AC for grandmother), sel·sfl·l-e·ž 'late grandparents' (selsfl·e 'grandparents'), sxw'emšiy-e·ž 'deceased uncle/aunt/grandparent/someone responsible for you directly or indirectly', sxw'emšxw'emšiy-e·ž 'deceased uncles/aunts/etc.', s·mštiy-ež 'sibling of deceased parent' (mštiy-ox 'person'), swelm-ôž 'child of a dead sibling' (< (s)welm 'orphan'); compare -ôž in ƚé·t-ôž 'morning' (< s-ƚé·t 'night' + 'past'), xw'elélt-ež 'last night' (xw'e-lélt 'evening' < root ƚé·t 'night'), we-e·ôž-ež 'a long time ago' (< ôž 'a long time'), and -ž past tense on verbs.
-tel 'device, implement, thing used for' (over 90 examples found to date, a few of which follow):

-Šxʷ-tel 'broom' (?lfxʷ-et 'sweep it'), ḥl₁-tel 'pen, pencil, writing instrument' (ḥṣyl-t 'write s-th'), ḥc'-tel 'knife' (li̊c'-et 'cut s-th or s-o', ḥec'- 'cut'), s-k'wiy-tel 'ladder (native notched pole or any modern kind)' (k'wiy 'climb'), s(xʷ)-c'ec'-lec-tel 'chair, bench' (nom. + on top, astride + rump + device), s-xʷd(qʷ)-tel 'canoe pole' (xʷáqʷ-et 'pole it (of a canoe)'), sí'-tel 'basket (generic)', q'aléc'-eqʷ-tel 'umbrella' and q'aléc'-tel 'square dressing room of blankets for sxʷáyxʷey dancers' (q'aléc' 'rainshelter, protection'), sxʷ-yém-tel 'belt, sling, strap' (nom. + wide strip + device), sθeqi-tel 'sockeye net', k'wóxʷ-θel-tel 'coho net', l'elxxel-tel 'spring salmon net', s-wel-tel 'net, web', ḥθ̓es-tel '(metal) nail' and ḥθ̓es-ses-tel 'arrow pouch, quiver' (θ'is-ét 'nail it', -θ̓es - -θ̓es 'container'), sxʷ-θ̓es-θ̓el-tel 'fine cedar root strips for baskets' (root unknown), sxʷ-t'θel-tel 'bridge made of big log, big bridge' (sxʷ-t'el 'bridge made of small log') and (s-)t'el-θ̓es-tel 'collarbones' (root probably means 'span, go across'), mát'el-s-tel 'first finger, pointer finger' (point, aim + device), sfxʷθel (θ̓ - θ) - sxʷθ-θ̓el 'bladder' (sfxʷθ (θ - θ) 'urina'), s-mel-tel 'womb, uterus'
(mélè - méle - méle 'child (kinterm)'), thléx-tel (th' - c') 'rattlesnake', s-qwel-tel 'word, language' (qwel 'talk, speak'), spæk'em-élé-tel 'smokehole' (smoke + container + device). This suffix sometimes conditions the dropping of the last l in the preceding suffixes -áyél 'in the lips', -xél 'in the foot, leg', -éléxel 'in the arm', maybe others: qwel-dyéél-tel 'musical instrument', ñél-xél-tel 'rug', and qlep-élél-tel 'armband'.

-els 'device, tool, thing for, person for' (used mostly with continuative forms of the verb; possibly related to -és - els 'intransitivizer');

(s-)híéc'-els - sxw-híéc'-els 'a saw' (íéc'-et 'cut it'), xúxsp-els 'a plane (the tool)' (xsp-et 'carve s-th, plane it'), t'tém-els 'a chisel' (t'em- 'chip or chop with sharp tool'), s-t'tém-els 'adze', (prob.) D-adze', sqweqwel-els 'a borer (to make holes)' (sqweqwel 'hole' + -els), qíqeq'-els 'policeman' (qíq' 'apprehend'), híyqwel-els (i - é) 'one who burns at a burning ceremony' (híyqwel - híyqwel 'burning'), sc'àqsw-els 'fork' (c'éqsw 'pcke, spear, pierce'), sxw-thémq-els 'scissors', s-wéls 'scramble-giving, scramble' (compare wél-xé 'throw upwards' and s-wél-tel 'net').

-f'ls 'device, tool' (perhaps questionable);

s-xáwfi'ls 'a borer or auger' (xáwfi-t 'to bore'),
ygqʷ-eqs-í·ls-cəl 'I'm lighting the light' (burn + pointed object, nose + device? + I (subj.)), only 2 exx.

-iyə 'diminutive': ?iyés-iyə or táʔ-iyə 'darling, dear (mother to little girl)' (?iyés 'dear female friend', táʔ 'dear mother'), sqeyéχ-iyə 'pet name of Mink; a little bragger or boaster' (sqeyéχ 'Mink'), wiθ-iyə - wéceweθ 'snipe', t'ěm-iyə 'little winter wren', t'ěm-iyə 'hermaphrodite baby' (homophonous with 'wren'), q'aχéχ'-iyə 'snail', sə'ím-iyə 'small (landlocked) coho salmon' (said to hatch from berry that drops in lake, thus < sə'ím 'berry' + -iyə 'diminutive'), possibly hó·l-iyə (o· - u) 'humpback salmon' and swet-iyə (t - t') 'porcupine' and siyémiym (CT)(é - AC's ő here) 'pregnant' (possibly siyém 'leader, chief' + -iyə 'little' + -eθ 'carry, use'), st'ít'ěx-iyə 'Ruby Creek (near Seabird Island)' (st'ěx 'fork in s-th'), 很多玩家-iyə 'youngest sister of Mt. Cheam' (χəm 'weep, cry' + -á·meθ 'standing, height' + -iyə; so-called because lots of creeks run together from her because she cries since she can't see the Fraser River), sláχ-iyə 'Indian name of Celia Thomas', xʷemíč-iyə 'Indian name of Lucy, mother or other close relative of Celia Thomas', swaléš-iyə 'Indian name of Al Gutierrez and his great grandfather Bill Swaléšiyə', sečím-iyə 'Indian name of Jeanne McIntire (of Seabird)'.

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-áye 'diminutive' (related to -iyé): sísém-áye 'bee' (compare sf(-')sem 'feel creepy, fear s-th behind'), s(-)x'yá-ye 'co-wife, female rival of wife' (s- nominalizer + x'y- 'genitals' + -á-ye 'little'), s-x'y-ayé-s(-)eq 'ex-wife's husband, wife's ex-husband, male rival of husband' (-eq or perhaps here -seq 'male').

-í-lép, -éylép, -álep, -ép, -íp, -íp 'dirt, ground' (allomorphy seems to be -éylép and -íp after postvelars, the other allomorphs elsewhere, -í-lép after CVGVC, other stressed allomorphs after CVG (monosyllabic unstressed roots), -álep after a stressed syllable; but two of the 16 examples don't fit this pattern):
léq'-éylép 'level ground' (léq' 'level'), k'x'y'-éylép 'hard ground' (k'x'y' 'hard'), xex-éylép-tel 'floor' (this is an alternate analysis to that given in lexical prefixes under the prefix í-; cp. xex-owɔ̀-tel 'thwarts, of a canoe', xex-x'y'-tel 'rug' and xex-éyl-sx'y' 'stand up'; it seems there is a root xex - xex, not clearly attested yet semantically or as a verb; -éyl in 'stand up' may be related to -í-l 'come, go'; the other suffixes are clear as already explained), syic'em-ílep 'sand bar' (syic'em 'sand'), sqátem-ílep 'hill' (root meaning unclear), tewele(-)h-í-lép 'sloping ground' (tewele 'sloping'), xexyép'-í-lép 'a rake' (éy - é)(xey-p'-st 'scratch or scrape s-th and leave a mark'),
θɛyxʷ-f·lep-t-es 'he was softening the ground' (this was done to some places to insure a good growth of wild vegetables) (θɛyxʷ-wels 'digging'), c'ɛs'em·e·lep 'weeds' (c'ɪs'em 'grow', thus 'weeds' are 'growing dirt'), sxʷ-ʌ·ɛxʷ·e·lep 'a plow' (ʌ·ɛxʷ 'rip or break apart'), s-qʷel·ip '(black) beard moss, black moss bread' (nom. + boil + dirt; this moss is cooked underground and becomes a sweet licorice-tasting loaf), ʌ·ɛs·ɪp 'licorice fern' (roots are edible and grow in dirt-like accumulations on the bark of maple trees; root meaning unclear), s-q'ɛx·ɛp 'stump (of tree)' (root meaning not clear), sqʷɛp (//s-qʷɛ·-{ɛ}p/) 'hole with water at (foot of?) Mt. Cheam on the side away from the Fraser River,' lake or waterhole on Mt. Cheam' (s-qʷɛ· 'hole'), səfy·ɛp - səiy·ɛp 'loincloth' (nom. + səfy 'make'? + 'dirt'), s-qel·ɛp or s-qəl·ɛp 'garbage' (qəl 'bad, dirty').

-əwfi·ls 'dishes'; ə·ɛxʷ-(e)wfi·ls 'wash dishes' (ə·ɛxʷ 'wash'), sxʷ-ə·ɛxʷ·əwfi·ls (a probably sic for ə) 'sink, dishpan', xʷe-?iqʷ·əwfi·ls 'drying dishes' (?iqʷ·ɛs·əm 'wipe one's face').

-əθ 'edge'; ?iy-əθ 'sharp(-edged)' (?iy is an unstressed allomorph of ?ëy 'good'), qel-əθ 'dull (-edged)', qel-əθ-eqel 'blunt (of a point or pole)', seml-əθ-el 'riverbank' (seml(-)el-iyel 'a set net, a
stationary net', mǐl-iyel 'to set a net'), s-meq'-eθ 'extra food which guests can take home' (which may be mistranscribed) may belong here (meq' 'be filled or stuffed with food').

-álcep 'firewood': θ'iq'-w-álcep 'split (firewood' (θ'iq'-w-eth 'punch s-o or s-th'), yeq'w-álcep 'make a fire, burn wood' (yeq'w 'burn'), sī-álcep-teł (DM) 'a firedrill' (root sēl- 'spin'), q'wē-y-çep 'cinders, real fine powdery ashes (light, soft, dust-like') (q'wē-y-t 'burning pitch onto a canoe').

-elsx'ē 'ten times, -ty; first time' (see numeral classifier affixes for all examples except the following): yiq-elsx'ē-y 'first snow of winter' (yiq 'to fall (of snow)').

-élqep, -elqep 'fragrance, smell, odor':

θey-élqep 'good smell', qel-çep 'bad smell', sēlcim-élqep 'how does it smell?' (sēlcim 'how is it?, how?'), qelqēyl-élqep 'turn bad in smell' (qelqēyl 'turn bad'), sim-élqep - sim-élqep 'bad stink' (root unknown unless sim as in sisem 'feel creepy, fear s-th behind').

-á·ls 'fruit, spherical': s-qe-á·ls 'juicy fruit' (qá· 'water'), x'elk'w-á·ls 'spherical' (x'elá·k'w 'round', x'elēk'w-t 'roll s-th up'), x'ep-á·ls-t 'peel fruit or vegetable or vegetable root' (x'ip·st
'peel bark or tree root, peel it (of bark or root)'), k'waq'iyáə's 'lacrosse' (club + bark + spherical), c'f'c'q'elá1·l(s) 'grass shinny' (root uncertain), c'q'áə's 'Hope, B.C.' (the Fraser River turns in a circle around the site; however this etymology may be dubious), also see this suffix as numeral classifier affix.

-elwet 'garment, clothing': ḥ'óxw'elwet-em
'wash(ing) one's clothes' (θ'óhxw' wash'), sxw'θ'óhxw'-elwet-em 'washtub, washing machine', s-x'átqw'-elwet-em 'washboard' (root meaning unclear), ḥ'f'k'ep-1·elwet 'men's underclothes' (diminutive ḥ'ep 'deep, under-', probably -le- 'plural'), yeq-elwet-em 'change clothes' (yeq 'change', -em 'middle voice'), also appears as a numeral classifier affix and may appear as a woman's personal name suffix, both q.v.

-f·1, -el 'go, come, get (become)' (conditions preceding -el → Ø, see morphophonemics): x'yéc·f·1-em 'go through the woods' (s-x'yí·x'yéc' woods'), k'wétx'f·1-em 'come inside, go inside' (s-k'wétx' inside (a house)'), ḥ'p-f·1 'descend' (ḳ'ep 'down, deep'), q'c-x'y-f·1-t (/q'á'-x'yel-f·1-T//) 'go with, come with, or be partner with s-o' (s-q'á'-x'yel 'partner', s-q'eq'á· 'together with'), sqem-f·1 'inside a pit house' (sqémél 'pit house'), ḥet-f·1 'gone dark' (θ'et 'darkness'),

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kʷf·m-əl 'go red, get red' (c-kʷf·m 'red'), qʷə·y-əl 'go yellow (or green), get yellow' (c-qʷə·y 'yellow, green'), pʷeq'-əy (or pʷeq'-t·l) 'go white, get white' (pʷeq 'white'), qʷəyə-əl 'go black, get black' (c'-qʷəyə 'black'), meθ'-t·l 'go blue, get blue' (c-meθ 'blue'), meθ'-t·l-t 'make it blue; dye it, color it (any color)', lew'-t·l-əm 'go into an opening', ?iy'-t·l-əm 'clear up, turn fine' (?iy 'good'), s-yeqʷ'-t·l 'lamp, lantern' and yiyeqʷ'-t·l 'small light, candle' (things that go burning), qʷəs'-t·l-tel 'tumpline' (qʷəys-ət 'tie s-th', thus a device that goes tied), possibly qel-iyə-f·l-əm 'say bad words, swear, curse' and qʷəl-ayə-f·l-əm 'making music; March moon' (qəl 'bad', qʷə·l - qʷəl- 'talk, speak', -á·yəəl 'in the lips or jaw', -əm 'middle voice').

-məl 'location around a house'; ?eγəeləs-məl 'in front (of a house)', cəlkʷə-gəel-məl 'behind or back of a house', sʔeκ·q-məl 'outside (of a house)', cəl-məl 'on top of a house', sʔeləc - (s-)əeləc-məl 'bottom of a tree (trunk) or house (foundation)' (all examples occur without the -məl and correspondingly lack the meaning '(of a house)').

-əxəl, -əxəl 'end of a house (inside or outside)' (maybe related to somatic suffix -əxəel 'on the arm'): s-tiyət-əxəl 'upper (upriver) end of house (inside or out)',

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(tlyt 'upriver'), s-ọwq'-èxèl 'lower (downriver) end of house (inside or out)' (wọg'w 'drift downriver, drown'), cucuw-èxèl 'front end of house (inside or out)' (cucuw 'away from shore, towards the middle of the river, in front'), s-cèlk'-èxèl 'back end of house (inside or out)' (possibly cā'lek' (k'w - q'w) 'toward the woods, away from the river, in the backwoods'),

cèlk'-èxèl-mèl 'behind or back of a house', q'-èxèl 'fence' (root meaning unknown), s-t'èlt'-èxèl 'a square' (root meaning unknown), sòlc'-èxèl 'to circle around the outside of a house' (sòlc' 'go around in a circle').

-łe 'need, lack': c-qà'-łe 'thirsty' (Chehalis: flatMapx-łe)(c- and flatMapx- verb formatives, qà' 'water')(this seems to be the only example, but it is a clear one).

-è-èws 'leaf, leaves': p'èlp'èlq'em-è-èws 'poplar; sparkling leaves' (p'èlq'em 'sparkling'), x'wès-è-èws 'fallen leaves' (x'wès-ôt 'shake leaves or fruit off a tree or bush'), c'èk'w-è-èews 'skunk cabbage leaf or leaves' (c'èk'w 'skunk cabbage'), q'èmò'-èlpè-èews 'maple tree leaf' (q'èmò'-èlp 'maple tree'), cèwò'-èlpè-èews 'cottonwood leaf or leaves' (cèwò'-èlp 'cottonwood tree'), pipèham-è-èws 'plantain' pipèhà'm 'frog', the plant is always called "frog leaf", never translated "plantain").
-éle 'leg' (related to -x\textsuperscript{y}stellar 'leg, foot', somatic suffix): x\textsuperscript{y}elqt-éle 'deer' (x\textsuperscript{y}elqt 'long', -l- infix 'plural', -éle 'leg'), s-\textit{x}\textsuperscript{y}éle 'penis' (s- nom. + \textit{x}\textsuperscript{y} 'genital' + -éle 'leg').

-élc 'unclear liquid' (gloss approximate): x\textit{y}ex\textsuperscript{w}-élc 'to spit' and x\textit{y}ex\textsuperscript{w}-élc 'spitting' and s-x\textsuperscript{y}ex\textsuperscript{w}-élc 'spit, saliva' (x\textsuperscript{y}ex\textsuperscript{w}-á.t 'to spit'), x\textsuperscript{y}eq\textsuperscript{w}-élc 'mudpuddle, dirty pond' (root meaning unclear), qá-élc 'juicy' (qá- 'water'), s-wí-élc 'Cultus Lake' (root meaning + shape unclear).

-á-mex\textsuperscript{y}, -emex\textsuperscript{y} 'looking, appearing': ?iy-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} 'good-looking, handsome, beautiful' (?iy- 'good'), qéle-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} - qéle-éí-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} 'ugly' (some say qélezá-mex\textsuperscript{y} means 'clumsy' instead)(qéle 'bad'), ?ély-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} '(plural/all) good-looking' (-l- infix 'plural'), te-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} '(to) look like, resemble' (s-te?é - s-te?é 'be like, be similar to')(Chehalis + Tait have st'st'-á-mex\textsuperscript{y} 'look like, resemble' and root st'sé 'be like, be similar to'), selci-m-emex\textsuperscript{y} 'how does it look?, what does it look like?, what color is it?' (selci-m 'how is it?').

-ž '(material for)': s-\textit{y}eq\textsuperscript{w}-žél 'firepit, fireplace' and s-\textit{y}eq\textsuperscript{w}-žél-tél 'tinder, material used to start fire (fine dried cedar bark)' (\textit{y}eq\textsuperscript{w} 'burn', -žél 'container', -žél-tél 'medicine'), possibly mamfya-žél-tél 'helper' (mén-t 'help s-o', mamfya-t 'helping s-o',

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-tel 'reciprocal').

-él tel 'medicine'; xʷeqwéle-éltel 'hangover medicine' (probably xʷeqwéle 'scouring rush, horse-tail fern'), ʔel-ʔél tel 'heart medicine; juniper' (ʔéle 'heart'), and syeqwiél tel 'tinder' as seen in the last suffix set.

-élát 'female name' (this and the next three suffixes probably show -á't, -át 'female name'): q'éwq'èw-
-élát 'name of a female loon in a story' (compare q'éwq'èw-élèce 'name of the male loon in a story', and q'éwq'èwe 'Kawkawa Lake'), qéwistelát 'kind of deer (probably female)', c'símstelát 'name of one of Mt. Cheam’s sisters, now a name of Celia Thomas' (c'sim-t 'grów s-th'), siyém-telát 'Indian name of Teresa Michell' (siyém 'leader, chief'), ʔétsitelat 'Indian name of Mary Andrew (Susan Peter’s deceased sister, wife of David Andrew of American Bar)', k'wélx'elát 'Indian name of Mabel Peters' (< k'welx'åmé 'fine snow that drifts in windows or doors'). All examples but the first probably are better analyzed with -tel (gloss uncertain here) + -á(·)t or -at 'female name'.

-élát 'female name'; xwáyát 'Indian name of Amy Cooper’s mother’s mother', ?álm-élát - ?álm-íá't 'Indian name of Amy Cooper’s father’s mother and of Amy’s granny Laurencetto’s oldest twin', kwaxwižát
'Indian name of Miss Susanna Jim from Katz, grandmother
of Mrs. Duncan (Dorothy) Wealick'.

-əmat 'female name': ʔw̓iy̓el-əmat 'Indian name of
Tillie Gutierrez', siy̓ əm-át 'Indian name of Susan
Peters', siy̓ ám-át 'Indian name of Philomena Kelly',
c̓e̓kʷış̓ ál-əmat 'Indian name of Mary (of Tzeachten, wife
of Casimir of Chehalis, great grandmother of Nancy
Phillips of Chehalis)'.

-əwat 'female name': ʔáy-əwat 'baby sister of Mt.
Cheam; also Indian name of Amy Cooper'.

-elwet 'female name' (probably = -əlwet 'garment,
clothes'): ʔałáxʷ-elwet 'sister of Mr. Cheam',
tʷelífʷ-elwet 'Indian name of Isabel (Mrs. Jimmy Church);
Indian name of Darlene Gutierrez', qʷətás-elwet
'Indian name of Mary Anne (of Chehalis); Indian name
now of Jennie Peters (daughter of Nancy Phillips)',
pəłáqʷ-elwet 'Indian name of Annie, wife of Charlie
Siyamelélexʷ'.

-elécs 'male name': qʷeqw'eqw-elécs 'male loon in
a story', t'ixʷ-elécs 'Indian name of Chief Albert
Louie's father', ʔ'elécs 'Indian name of second oldest
Wealick brother', ʔ'elécs-iyetel 'Indian name of Rich-
ard Malloway Sr. (of Sardis)', ləx-élécs 'Indian name
of Jimmie Swíweles'.

-iyetel 'male name': ʔałáxʷ-iyetel 'male name ver-
sion of ʔaláxʷ'-elwet', ʔəmáθ'-'iyetel 'male version of
Indian name ʔəmáθ'-'iyə', sələq'-'iyetel 'Indian name of
David (Matilda David's husband)', θə'eləc-iyetel
'Indian name of Richard Malloway Sr. (prominent chief
in Sardis)'.

-ələlexʷ, -ələləxʷ 'male name'; siyam-ələlexʷ
'Indian name of Charlie Siyamələlexʷ', (said to mean)
head of the house, superior of the house',
ʔá·kʷ'-ələləxʷ 'Indian name of Dan Milo's great grand-
father' (ʔá·kʷ' '(to) fly', the man was said to have
arrived one day in the village by flying there).

-əyləm, -ɪləm 'male name': yeχʷ'-əyləm 'Indian name
of the 3rd from oldest original Wealick brother' (yeχʷ
'untied'), qəγp-ɪləm 'Indian name of August Billie'.

-əqet 'male name' (probably = -əqet 'verbalizer or
-əqet '-self, reflexive'); há·χə'-əqet 'Indian name of
Peter Williams of Chehalis (died about 1921, great
grandfather of Tillie Phillips)', siyálewə-əqet 'Indian
name of Roy Point from Scowkale'.

-ələq 'male name' (probably = -ələq 'one who, a ___-er');
χəyət-ələq 'Indian name of an old man from Kilgard (a
strong warrior and Indian dancer, in a battle he once
punched through a man's chest)' (χəyələx 'war, fight
war', χəy-t-'əm 'growl (of a person)').

-(ɪm)əltəxʷ 'male name' (possibly means 'house' or
'wives'): swəlɪm-əltəxw 'Indian name of Ed Leon Sr. (of Chehalis, B.C.)' (cp. suffixes for 'house').

-ε·yel, -iyel 'net', -ʔ·yel 'trap, net': mil·iyel 'set a net', səmləl·iyel 'a set net, stationary net' (cp. səml·ʔ(-)əl 'riverbank'), mes·iyel·tel 'anchor (probably for nets)', qʷ·s-ε·yel 'throw a net out' (qʷəs 'fall overboard, fall in the water'), qʷ·s-ʔ·w·iyel 'set a net and drift with it' (the -ʔ·w may mean 'on top of itself', see 5.2.4), qʷəs·əl·iyel 'drifting a net in different places' (-əl- probably 'plural'), qʷes·d·yel 'drop net into water' (gloss perhaps doubtful), ?is·təyt·iyel 'group of canoes travelling upstream (moving to fish drying camp)' (təyt 'upriver'), pəθ·d·yel 'bear trap' (s-pəθ 'bear'), kʷec·d·yel 'check a trap or net (for animal or fish [or bird])'.

-em '(nominalizer)': kʷəqʷ-em 'small hatchet, small axe' (kʷəqʷ·qʷ-ət 'club s-th or s-o, hit s-th (or s-o) with stick-like object'), c·qʷy·em 'lemon extract' (color + yellow + whatever -em means), c·qʷyə·qʷ-em 'vanilla extract' (color + black + ?), qʷy(ə)x·qʷ-em 'whirlpool' ('black' + -em), s-ʒələl·s-em 'icicle' and ʒələl·s-em 'many icicles' (ʒələs and -ələs 'tooth, teeth'), qʷəs·əq·qʷ-em 'snowdrift' (twisting + snow + ?), qʷəqʷəx·ələ·s-em 'ray of sun from between clouds' (qʷəqʷəx·ələ. 'shadow' + unclear suffixes), possibly
xʷeylem 'rope, thread, string' and a few others.

-p' 'on itself, within itself' and -q' 'on s-th else, within s-th else' (these two suffixes are discussed together because two pairs of words show their difference in meaning): q'elq'el-p' 'tangled on itself (for ex. a net in the water)', q'elq'el-q'
'tangled on s-th else, snagged (as a net on a log or branch)', q'elq'el-q'-t 'coil it', s-q'el-ε-ʔw 'coiled (of a snake)' (-ε-ʔw and -ʔw 'on top of itself'), see below), q'elq'el-p'-ʔw 'inchworm' (-ʔw is preferred to the version with -ʔw's 'on the body' given as an example under the later somatic suffix), s-q'elq'el-p'-εw 'curly hair', xeły-p'-et 'scratch it (and leave a mark), scrape it, claw it', xeły-q'-et 'scratch it (to itch it)', xeły-m-et 'grab it', s-ʔel-p'-á-yəel 'sloppy lips, flabby lips' and s-ʔel-ʔel-p'-ɛ-ʔəye 'sloppy ears' (compare s-ʔəl-lec 'rump, buttocks' (/səl-ec/) which must mean something like '(fold(ed) at the bottom)' while s-ʔel-p' means something like '(folded on itself)').

-əleq 'one who, -er': ʔf-wes-əleq 'a guide' (ʔf-wes-t 'guide s-o, teach s-o, show s-o'), əʃəw-əleq 'a healer, an Indian doctor or medicine man at work' (əʃəw 'working or curing (of an Indian doctor on a patient)'), sk'ukwəl(-)st-əleq 'school teacher' (sk'wəl 'school'), perhaps ałeq-əleq 'spouse's sibling's spouse' - 'step-
sibling' (lēc' - 1eč' - 'different').
-ē· 'overly'; kʷes-ē· 'overheated' (kʷē·kʷes 'hot', kʷes- 'get burned'), sēl-ē· 'tight' (sēl- 'spin').
-ō·wes, -ōwes, -ē·wes 'canoe paddle'; xʷec'·-ō·wes 'store canoe paddles away' (xʷec'-ēt 'store s-th away'), xʷec'-ō·wes-tēl 'January moon, time to store canoe paddles away', pot-ōwes 'oar' (pōt < English boat), xʷēl-xʷ-ōwes 'lift a paddle (while paddling)' (xʷēl-xʷ 'lift s-th'), c'ēlc'ēl-ōwes-em - c'ēlc'ēl-cēs 'repeatedly switching sides in paddling' (R 'plural' + c'ēl-'switch' + -ōwes 'paddle' + -em '(middle voice), one's own', or plural + switch + in the hand), yem-ōwes-tēl 'wide cedar root strips for baskets' (yem- 'wide strip'), and see also under numeral classifier affixes (this suffix is so used) and numerals.
-ēyiws 'pants' (probably < -ē·y 'bark' + -ī·ws 'covering'); s(ə)q-ī·ws or sq-ēyiws 'pants' and siseq-ī·ws or siseq-ēyiws 'short pants', kʷēk'ēp-l-ē·yiws 'man's underpants' (kʷēp 'down, deep, under-', 'diminutive' prefixed reduplication, -l- possibly 'plural'), ḥasem-ēyiws 'pants sliding down' (ḥás-em 'slide down (of clothes)'), and see numeral classifier affixes.
-ē·mēl 'part, member, nick-' (related to somatic suffix -ē·mēl 'part, member'); kʷekʷxʷ-ē·mēl 'nickname'
(s-k'ix'Y 'a name', thus 'nickname' < 'a part name').

-mex'W 'people': ləc'-ό- -mex'W 'different people'
(used for different tribes or nationalities)(ləc'W 'be different'), x'wél-mex'W 'Indian' (x'wél 'just, only'), səál-mex'W 'water babies, water pygmies', possibly
st'sél-mex'W 'medicine' (root meaning unclear), cift-mex'W
'big horned owl', and sy'wlmex'W-ces 'rattle used at
spirit dance by some dancers' (s-yiw-əl 'spirit song,
spirit power').

-tsə 'person': ʔowə-tsə 'nobody' (only example).

-ə(·)ə, -ə(·)ə, -əʔ 'place to lay or rest or sleep':
əiy-ə-í-em 'make a bed or place to sleep or lay or rest'
(əiy 'make, fix'), əw-əí-em 'spawning' (əcəw 'beach'?),
x'w-ə-yí-em 'sit on eggs' (x'ew 'cover over'),
s-qəl-ə-í 'diaper' (qəl 'bad, dirty', used as euphemism
for 'dung, feces').

-elecə-ls, -eleśə-ls 'plants, grass': əlc'-elecə-ls
'(to) cut hay' (əlc' 'to cut'), əlt-elecə-ls 'spraying
water on the garden' (əlt 'to spray', əlt-es-t
'splash/spray/flip s-o with water in the face'),
Chwə. s-pəpəx'W-elsə-ls, Tait: sx'w-pəpəx'-elsə-ls 'spray-
gun (for plants)' (pəx'W-ət 'blow on a patient (done by
Indian doctor)').

-əməc', -əməθ', -ə-məθ', -əməθ' 'pole, stature,
upright, standing, height' (c' from idiolects which
usually replace θ' with c' in most words (EL, TM))

?isél-é Owé 'two poles standing up' (quoted in section
on numeral classifier affixes)(?isél-le 'two'),
xWélkW-é Owé 'round (of a pole)', (xWélkW-áls 'sphera-
ical'), s-qew-é Owé 'side of tree first warmed (by
sun)' (root means 'warmed'), s-xé-1c'-é Owé 'grown
twisted (of a tree)' (s- participial, xé-1c' 'twist'),
?se-é Owé - ?se-é Owé 'good figure, good shape;
straight (of stick), smooth (of wood, etc.)', x'éqt-á-é Owé
'tall (of a person)' (x'éqt 'long'), c'í-ñ-é Owé
'short person' (c'í-c'éxh 'short'), xam-á-ó-ìys 'baby
sister of Mt. Cheam' (see under -ìys above), and possi-
ibly c'éélélí-ìs-xWé 'short-legged runt' (insulting)
(root form unclear unless c'é- 'on top of, astride').

-fí-m 'repeatedly': c'éc'éxh-í-m 'jumping up and
down, jumping along' (c'é-ñ-ém 'jumping'), tétí-m
'hollering more than once' (té-m 'holler, yell'),
sxW- tétí-m 'telephone', t'éc' -exél-í-m 'mistake in
splitting roots (for basketry) by making them uneven'
(t'éc' 'split stick for stretching salmon to dry'),
xW-tiyt-í-m 'eddy water (where one sets nets)' (tiyt
'upriver'), xWélkW-í-m 'an eddy' (xWélkW 'to eddy'),
selec-í-m-él 'a comb' may belong here as may s-x'éqt-
-fí-m(s) 'length' (x'éqt 'long') and x'c'-í-m-èt
'(smell oneself) always smell bad' (x'fx'c'-èm 'stink-
ing').

-άνεq 'trunk or root?': st'it'q-άνεq 'fork in a
tree or root of a tree' (s-t'q 'fork (in anything)')
(only example).

-άλωε adolescents 'side, -ward' (related to ʔf.lωe adolescents 'side');
s-κ'wp-άλωe adolescents 'below, underneath' (s-κ'wp adolescents 'deep, etc.'),
s-κέ(-)s-άλωe adolescents 'over s-th' (cicε adolescents 'above, high'),
s-κ$εtx-άλωe adolescents (t'ά'mél) adolescents 'carved post inside longhouse'
(DM)(possibly 'inside wall' as t'ά'mél is 'wall'),
slεʔ-άλωe adolescents 'on the other side' (slεʔ-άʔε adolescents 'across',
slεʔ-άʔε adolescents 'facing away, watchful', but ʔeʔε adolescents 'go via,
go through somewhere (en route)' suggests the root /l/
may be mistranscribed for ι in the preceding three
words), slεʔ-άλωe adolescents 'one side of body (between arm
and hip)' (εʔε adolescents 'wide'), also compare: s-ʔεʔ-ςws
ʔf.lωe adolescents 'right side of the body' and s-ϴεk$e adolescents ʔf.lωe adolescents
'left side of the body'.

-ʔe adolescents, ʔe adolescents 'strength': ʔεʔ-ʔm adolescents 'strong' (ʔεʔ adolescents 'good'),
qεl-ʔe adolescents 'weak' (qεl adolescents 'bad'), χε-ʔm adolescents 'tired' (χε adolescents 'to')
hurt, ache').

-τε adolescents 'thing' (related to demonstrative article τε):
ʔowʔ-τε adolescents - wε-τε adolescents 'nothing' (ʔowʔ adolescents - ʔowʔ adolescents '(be) no, not')
(only example).

-ेʔp, ेʔp adolescents 'tree, plant' (see morphophonemics for
rule predicting -ेʔp allomorph)(see numeral classi-
fier affix section for the suffix in that function)
(very productive, over 50 examples found so far):
\(\chi\varepsilon(-)\gamma\theta'\-\varepsilon\rho\) 'alder tree' (\(\chi\varepsilon(-)\gamma\theta\) 'unripe'),
\(q\varepsilon\omega\'\varepsilon\rho\-\varepsilon\rho\) '(crab)apple tree' (\(q\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) '(crab)apple'),
\(sk\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\-\varepsilon\rho\) 'blackberry vine (or bush)' (\(sk\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'blackberry')(if a plant has fruit, the \(-\varepsilon\rho\) can be dropped to obtain the word for the fruit),
\(celq\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'blackcap bush' (\(celq\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'blackcap'),
\(m\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\-\varepsilon\rho\) 'black hawthorn tree' (\(m\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'black hawthorn'),
\(\chi\varepsilon(-)\gamma\varepsilon\rho\) 'red cedar tree' (\(\chi\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'red cedar bark and wood'),
\(q\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\-\varepsilon\rho\) 'wild rose bush' (\(q\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'rose hip'),
\(ce\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'cottonwood tree',
\(t\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'pink spirea' (used for \(t\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'crosspieces for drying fish'),
\(c\varepsilon\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'spruce tree' (\(c\varepsilon\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'pocket, pierce, stab'),
\(\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'salmonberry plant' (\(\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'salmonberry'),
\(\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'poplar tree' (\(\varepsilon\omega\varepsilon\rho\) 'metal nail'),
\(s\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'big tree' (\(s\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'big').

\(-\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\), \(-\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'twist; turn around': \(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'turn
or twist s-0 or s-th', \(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'turn oneself over
or around', s-\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'turned around; turned the wrong
way', s-\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'grown twisted', s-\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\)
'a braid' (\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'to braid'), q\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'elc'-iy\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\)-em
sp\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\)-ls 'whirlwind', 
siselc'-iy\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\)-em 'turn around in
a circle' (sisel- 'spinning' (sfl 'spin' + R) + -elc')
'twist or turn around' + -iy\(\varepsilon\varepsilon\varepsilon\rho\) 'in a circle' + -em
'middle voice (by or for itself)').

-ëv 'upright, erect': ?Im-ëx 'walk' (?I(·)m-ët 'step on s-th', thus 'walk' < 'step upright'),

ëx-ëyl-ëx 'stand up' (ëx- unclear root seen in 'rug', etc., above +-l 'go, come, get' +-ëx 'upright'),

ëwëx-ël-ëx 'get up with quick motion' (ëx- 'sudden' (as in s-ëx-ël-ë's 'thunderbird, thunder' i.e. 'sudden face') +-l 'go, come, get' +-ëx), q'ëw-ëy-ël-ëx 'dance' (root uncertain unless related to q'ëiyyë 'shake'),

k'ël-ëx-t 'shoot s-th' (k'ël- 'hold in hand'), wë-l-ëx 'throw upward' (s-wë-ë's 'a scramble, scramble-giving (gifts are thrown upward towards a crowd and they scramble for a piece)'), t'ëm-ëx 'to braid' (root unclear).

-ë, -ëm 'using a ___': q'ëw-ë - q'ëw-ëm 'using a cane, walk with a cane' and s-q'ëw-ë 'person with a cane' (q'ëwe 'cane, staff'), tex-ëm-ëcel - s-ëm-ëcel 'I adopt a child' (tex-ëm 'step-child'), and Ëëye 'marry a sibling of deceased spouse!' (ëëye 'sibling of deceased spouse'.

-ëq, -ëq 'waves': Ëëq-ëq 'waves are getting bigger' (ëëq 'bigger', -h epenthetic), Seabird Island dialect: smë-qëq 'wave' (root meaning unclear), xëq-ëq 'sink line' (xëq 'a sinker, lead weight, lead'), xëq-ëq 'underskirt, underslip' (i.e. 'under-waves').
-eł 'according to the ways of the, in the way of the': s-xʷələməxʷ-eł 'according to the ways of the Indian, in the way of the Indian, in the Indian way', s-xʷələtem-eł 'in the white man's way, according to the ways of the white man'. (Only examples so far).

-(ʔ)á-yəc '(wooden?)': miməłe-ʔ-á-yəc 'doll'
(miməłe 'baby, tiny child' (< R₄- 'diminutive' + mêłe 'child'); -á-yəc may be related to s-yá-ʔ 'firewood, wood', s-yá-ʔəl 'little firewood, little stick of wood', and s-yáʔəl 'gambling stick (in silehal)'). (Only example).

-áʔəl, -ʔáʔəl (? epenthetic after vowel) 'young'; (3-4 yrs.) swí(yə)qeʔ-ʔáʔəl 'boy', siwí(yə)qeʔ-ʔáʔəl 'boys' (< swí(yə)qe 'man, male'), sələliy-ʔāʔəl 'girl child' and sələliyáʔəl 'little girls' (< səli(y)ə 'woman; female'), məməłe-h-ʔāʔəl 'bird egg' (məməłe 'children (kinterm)'), s-miməłe-h-ʔāʔəl-čələ 'nest of a little bird', stiqiwiʔ-ʔələ 'colt, baby horse', múmsəs-ʔələ 'calf', təpəx-ʔələ 'board prop it up' for stretching small hides (squirrel, etc.)' (tpəʔ-tə).

-eł 'young' (obviously related to -áʔəl and -ʔəl 'baby, child, young'): s-ƛ'ax'eq-eł 'child' (R₄- 'diminutive', root meaning unclear), s-təxʷ-eł 'children' (root meaning unclear)(this suppletive pair are age terms not kinterms).

5.2.4. Marginal cases.

-q '(closable container)': qp'əc-q-ət 'cover it
with a lid, close it (of a box, etc.)' (gep'es-lec-tel 'a cover or lid', gep'-á-yΘ-Θà·m 'you get covered on the mouth'), x^w-më'-q-et 'open it (box, bottle, closable container)' (x^w-më'-x^y 'open it (door, gate, anything)'), më·e·q·i·wel 'woodtick' (pus + inside container + on the insides).

-άmet 'costume': s·law-άmet 'entire costume of a dancer (spirit dancer—old or new, sx^wáyx·wey dancer, etc.) from head to toe' (s·law·iy 'inner cedar bark' may be root)(this is only example).

-el '-ish' (this semantic element may be signaled by reduplication in the examples; then -el would have to be verbal or < -l·ly>): c·q'wíq'yex(w)-el 'brownish-black' (c·k'wíyex^w 'brown', c·q'ëyx 'black'), s·q'íq·ex·el 'getting blackish', qeyq·eyx·el-á 'shadow' (c·q'ëyx 'black' ?), s·q'wáq'íy·el 'yellowish' (q'wý·el 'get yellow, be yellow' has -el < -l·ly 'go, come, get' and Aa (a-ablaut) from c·q'wë·y 'color yellow'), stíte·el 'puny' (stí·e 'thin, skinny');

-á·l 'just, (exactly)' (related to ?á l 'just, (exactly)'): ?iy-á·l·em 'okay, right, correct, alright' (?iy- is bound form of ?ëy 'good'),

-ë·lx^w 'leaves': tem-hil-ë·lx^w 'autumn, fall' (hi·l·em '(to) fall (tumbling)').

-ë·w 'on top of itself': s·q'el-ë·w 'coiled (of
snake)' and s-qəlq'əl-ε·w 'coiling (of a snake)(ready to strike)' (cp. qəlq'əl-q'-t 'coil it', qəlq'əl-q' 'tangled on s-th else', and qəlq'əl-p' 'tangled on itself'), qəlq'əl-p'-t·w 'inchworm', q'ws-ε·w-iyl 'set a net and drift with it'.

-εt 'one out of': mek'w-εt 'somebody' (mek'w 'anybody').

-εθ '(stripes?)': s-k'lm-εθ 'little roundmouthed sucker-fish (many have red stripes)' (c-k'lm 'red color'), s-xε·m-εθ 'cottonwood sap' (c'ic'εm-ε·weθ) (xε·m 'crying').

One-fourth of all the lexical suffixes found in this chapter begin with el, ε(·)l or a(·)l, including:
-εlqel, -εlmel, -á·les, -ε·lvye, -(ε)(l)qs(εl),
-εl·es (ε·els), -εlxe·l, -ε·lwes - -εlwes, -(ε)lec,
-εlqe·l - -εlqel, -elsxε·l, -εlwεt, -ε·ltxε·l
- -(el)txε·l (ε·wtxε·l), -á·lkε·l, -εlep - -i·lep (etc.)
- -εp (etc.), -(el)cep, -εlqep, -ε·lws, -ε·ltεl,
-εlə·t, -εlε·cε, -εlε·xε·l, -εleq ('male name' and 'one who ___'), -εleε·ls, -á·lwε·l, -ε·lc - -εlc', -ε·leq
- -εleq, and -á·ll. Some of the initial vowel + l elements show signs of being optional. It seems like the vowel + l may have been a grammatical marker of some kind whose meaning can no longer be recovered.
CHAPTER 6. VERBS

6.0. Introduction.

6.0.1. Verb versus nominal. Halkomelem word classes have already been contrasted and defined to some extent in Chapter 3. But since some Salish languages have been described as having shadowy if not non-existent borderlines between verbs and nouns or nominals, it seems appropriate here to contrast further the Upriver Halkomelem verbs and nominals. The traditional semantic criteria can be used, i.e., words for people, animals, things are nominals, while words for doing things, being something or things happening are verbs. Thus xʷélmexʷ 'Indian', mémele 'children', Méli 'Mary', sqələw 'beaver', músmes 'cow', lēlem 'house' and swéyel 'day' are nominals; lēm 'go, going, go to, going to', ?iwálem 'playing', xəm 'weep(ing), cry(ing)', ?élaθ 'it's me', ?éy 'be good', st̕əwis 'be near', p'eq'eyl 'get white, turn white', and θ'áθ'ə̱ləm 'getting chilled, being chilled' are verbs. Semantic criteria can be used because the distinction is semantic in part and because words are classed into the same word classes (N or V) by morphological and syntactic criteria as well.

Morphologically, some affixes can be added only to derive or inflect nominals, and some can be added
only to derive or inflect verbs. Thus if a word has
one of these affixes it can be classed as a nominal
or a verb. For example, words with the following
affixes added last in their derivational or inflec-
tional histories are nominals: s- 'nominalizer' (ex-
cept where used with R to derive participial verbs),
sw- 'nominalizer', -tel 'device, tool', -eip 'plant,
tree', -e·lews 'leaf', -(ʔ)á·lì 'young', -á·t 'female
name', -oléc 'male name', -R₁ 'pet name', -s '3rd
person possessive pronoun'; words with the following
affixes added last are verbs: subject or object pro-
noun affixes, we- 'when; if', transitivizers (including
control suffixes), intransitivizers, continuatives R, A
and he- - he-, -tel 'reciprocal', reflexives -lá·met
and -(e)θet, -eč 'future', -ežc 'benefactive'. These
are not exhaustive lists.

Syntactically, a nominal (unless used vocatively)
is always preceded by a demonstrative article; the
article (and in some persons the nominal) can be inflec-
ted for possession. However, a verb or verb phrase
must first be nominalized to be treated thus. Verbs
on the other hand can be inflected with subject and
object pronouns and many other inflectional suffixes;
nominals cannot be inflected with any of these strictly
verbal suffixes. (Subject pronoun suffixes can be suf-
fixed to nominals but only to animate nominals, and
when this is done the nominal becomes a verb:
\( x^{\text{w\'elmex}} \) 'Indian', \( x^{\text{w\'elmex\'cel}} \) 'I am an Indian'; the
\(-\text{cel}\) converts \( x^{\text{w\'elmex}} \) to a verb, 'be an Indian'.)
Thirdly, in the simple declarative sentence (or phrase)
with both nominal and verb, the verb precedes the nom-
inal. For example: l\( \text{m} \) te \( \text{m\'usmes} \). 'The cow is going.'

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{V} \\
\text{N}
\end{array} \]

k\( ^{\text{w\'6c}} \) -l -ex\( ^{\text{w}} \) -cel te \( x^{\text{w\'ex\'ye}} \). 'I see a fly.'

see happen it I the fly

\[ \underline{\text{to}} -\text{v-obi-subj.} \]

N

q\( ^{\text{ex}} \) te \( q^{\text{w\'e\'l}} \) stat\( \text{is} \) te? c\( ^{\text{fleex\'y}} \). 'There are
are the mosquito near your hand many mosqui-
many

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{V} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{V} \\
\text{N}
\end{array} \]

N

your hand.'

l\( ^{\text{6p}} \) -ex\( ^{\text{y}} \) -es te -l m\( ^{\text{e\'le}} \) te s- k\( ^{\text{w\'6l\'elmex\'w}} \). 
eat them he the my child the (nom.) blackberry

obj. subj.

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{V} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{N}
\end{array} \]

(My child eats the blackberries.)

This order even obtains in some questions:

l\( \text{f-} \) ex\( ^{\text{w}} \) k\( ^{\text{w\'6c}} \) -l -ex\( ^{\text{w}} \) 0e S\( ^{\text{\text{\'u\'s\'el}}} \) l\( \text{f} \) te x\( ^{\text{y\'\'e\'}}} \).
do you see happen her the Susan in the path

do obj. (f.)

\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{V} \\
\text{V} \\
\text{N} \\
\text{V}
\end{array} \]

N

'Do you see Susan in the path?'

6.0.2. Transitive versus intransitive. Within
the verb word class in Halkomelem there is a very dis-
tinct division into transitive verbs (Vt) and intransitive verbs (Vi). All verbs without an overt transitive suffix are intransitive verbs. Many intransitive verbs are also overtly marked by an intransitive suffix. Unlike English (where transitivity and intransitivity are largely shown only by syntax and where many verbs can be either Vt or Vi depending on syntax), Halkomelem has only a tiny handful of verbs that can be either Vt or Vi without changing suffixes. Further differing from English, Halkomelem treats the following as intransitive verbs: adjectives (including participles), noun-statives (translated by 'be' + noun), adverbs, interrogatives, some sets of personal pronouns, some demonstratives, and most verbs with lexical object affixes. Each of these types will be dealt with in a separate section in this chapter.

Lexical affixes sometimes have a nominalizing effect (tsey 'to canoe-race' + -oweł 'canoe' → tseyoweł 'a race canoe', cakw 'be distant, far' + R₁ + -á·les 'in the eye' → cacká·les 'goatsbeard plant (whose blooms can be seen from far away)'), but more often they do not change the word class of the stem (kwaqʷ 'hit with stick-like object' + -á·les 'in the eye' → kwəqʷá·les 'hit in the eye with a stick-like object', kwés 'burned (of skin)' + -á·yθel 'on the lip or jaw'...
→ kʷesá·yθel 'burned on the lips'). An interesting paradox is the fact that lexical affixes often provide verbs with semantic objects (hit eye with stick) but do not make verbs transitive syntactically. One cannot say *kʷqʷá·les te qélm or *kʷqʷá·les te Bill (where te qélm is 'the eye'); in fact kʷqʷá·les cannot take a syntactic object of any kind unless it is first transitivized (kʷqʷá·les-T-es tūkʷa te Bill 'he hit Bill in the eye with a stick'). The fact that it can be transitivized (and must be to take an object) shows that the lexical affix is morphologically intransitive. Many lexical affixes can be attached to nominals as well as to verbs (qá· 'water' + -á·les 'in the eye' → qeʔá·les 'tear', s- 'nominalizer' + ceʔ 'above, high' + -á·yθel 'lip, chin' → sceʔá·yθel 'upper lip').

6.0.3. Types of verbs, roots, and stems. A root is what remains when all derivational and inflectional affixes have been removed from a word. A stem is what remains when only the inflectional affixes have been removed. Verbs can be classified according to the word class of the root (root type), according to the type or combination of types of its derivational affixes (stem type), and according to the syntactic and semantic function of the verb (verb type).

As seen in 6.0.2, the verb types include:
1. Vi (sub-grouped by which transitivizer they have),
2. plain Vi (sub-grouped by the lack of or type of
intransitivizer they have), 3. adjectival Vi, 4. pre-
positional Vi, 5. adverbal Vi, 6. interrogative Vi,
7. personal pronoun Vi, 8. demonstrative Vi, and
9. auxiliary Vi. These nine verb types will be dis-
cussed in 6.1 and following.

Root types. Verb roots without derivational
affixes are plentiful. These include most types of
intransitive verbs, for example: ḳeqʷ 'burn', ḳâ:x
'get aboard', t'eqeq 'be angry', hi·kʷ 'be big',
ʔèwe - ḳèwe 'be not, not be', yeqw·l '(be) first',
qeq·ys 'lately, recently', li 'at, to, in', tōli 'from;
than', ḳélēce 'where (is it)?', kʷf·l 'how many (are
they)?', selqf·m 'how (is it)?', ḳélē 'it's me', lōwe
'it's you' (ʔélōe and lōwe are actually personal pro-
nouns with Vi qualities), ḳi: 'be here', li: 'be there',
li(·) and ḳi(·) auxiliaries.

Verb roots with derivational affixes come from all
word classes except the particles. A number of verb
roots are only attested with one derivational affix
and never without a derivational affix; for these the
word class of the root is unclear sometimes, unless
the affix is attached only to predictable word classes
or never changes the word class. More frequently verb
roots are attested in other derivational environments or as stems themselves. Most of the time these roots are shown to be verbs; less often they are nominals; a handful each are demonstratives or personal pronouns, and one is an attested numeral (it can be assumed that the other numerals can function the same way). Some examples follow.

Verbs as verb roots: cíí- 'high' (as in cíí-əqʷ '(high hair), bushy and uncombed hair') + -R₁- → cíceí 'be above, be high', c'eqʷ 'poke, pierce' + -ə·weél 'canoe, vessel, (basket)' → c'eqʷə·weél 'weave a fine cedar root basket', pá·y- 'bend' + -T 'purposeful control transitivizer' + Ø '3rd person object' → pá·yt 'bend it', pá·y- 'bend' + s- and R₁ 'participial' → spápiy 'crooked', kʷəqʷ- 'club, hit with stick-like object' + -əT 'purposeful control transitivizer' + Ø '3rd person object' → kʷəqʷət 'club s-o, hit s-th or s-o with a stick', -tém 'what?' + s- 'nominalizer(?)' → stém 'what?, what is it?', -tém 'what?' + tem- 'time' → temtém 'when (is it)?', yéq'- 'fall (of a tree)' + R₁ 'continuative' + -əls 'intransitivizer' → yéyeq'əls 'falling (of a tree)', yéq'- 'fall (of a tree)' + -əT 'purposeful control Vt' + Ø '3rd person object' → yeq'et 'to fall/fell a tree', t'əkʷ 'be mired' + -I·les 'in the chest' → t'əkʷI·les
'choke on food'.

Nominals as verb roots: q’ewét 'a drum' + -əm
'intransitivizer' → q’ewétəm 'to drum (for s-o)',
ə’eyə 'sibling of deceased spouse' + -əm 'to use' or
'intransitivizer' → ə’eyəm 'to marry sibling of
deceased spouse', sqəməl 'pit house' + -i-l 'go, come'
→ sqəmi-l 'be inside a pit house', qá’ 'water' + -əm
'intransitivizer' → qá’m 'dip water, fetch or pack
water', me’le ‘bait (nominal)’ + -(ə)T 'purposeful
control Vt' → me’let ‘bait it’, mék’w ‘mok’w ‘all,
everyone, everything’ + -əT 'purposeful control Vt'
→ mék’wet - mok’wet ‘take it all, pick it all up’,
ə’et ‘darkness’ + -i-l 'go, come, get’ → əseti-l
'go dark, get dark’, qá’ ‘water’ + derivational R₁ →
qá’qe ‘to drink’.

Personal pronouns as verb roots: ?elə ‘it’s me’
+ R₁- ‘emphasis’ → ?eʔelə ‘it’s really me’, ləwe
'it's you’, etc.

Demonstratives as verb roots: ?i- ‘be here’ +
xwə- ‘become, come to’ → xwəʔi- ‘come to be here,
come here, arrive’ + -l ‘happen to, manage to (control
transitivizer)’ + -ex’w ‘3rd person object’ → xwəʔi-lxw
'bring s-th here', similarly li- ‘be there’ + xwə- + -l
+ -ex’w → xwel’lxw ‘bring s-th there, get s-th there’.

Numerals as verb roots: ʔápel ‘ten’ + A + -es
'dollars' → ʔepá·les 'ten dollars' + -sT 'causative (control transitivizer)' + -eax '3rd person object (meaning neutralized?)' + -es '3rd person subject' → ʔepaləståwes 'it costs ten dollars' (possibly 's-o causes s-th to be ten dollars').

Stem types. If transitivizers and intransitivizers are considered derivational (as they seem at times), then this section would have the task of cataloguing and exemplifying their various combinations with lexical affixes and the derivational infixes R, A, and K. But we are saved the trouble because transitivizers and intransitivizers are inflectional instead, for a number of reasons: they are obligatory (with Vs and participles for example), they form contrasting oppositions with each other, and they interact with pronominal suffixes ('3rd person object' is -eax after -1 and -sT, -∅ after -T, -meT, etc.).

Verb stems then consist of roots plus (or minus) combinations of lexical affixes, derivational infixes of R, A, or K, and in a few cases petrified transitivizers. There are no cases of roots being suffixed with transitivizers and then with intransitivizers and no cases of the reverse process. The few cases of petrified transitivizers are as close as one comes, and these may well be part of the root and not affixes.
at all: qʷesco't 'belch', ḥelqʷt 'open one's eyes', ḥeqʾet - ḥeqʾet '(be) wide', qeqʾt 'again', ḥeqʾy(ə)lexʷ 'alive' (cp. ḥeqʾy 'keep on going'), ḥeqʾy(ə)lexʷ-st-əxʷ 'keep s-o alive', and ḥeqʾy(ə)lexʷ-lexʷ 'bring s-o back to life, revive s-o'.

Vi stem types include naked roots and roots affixed with: R, R + -X (where X = lexical affix), R + A, X- + A (+ -X), K + -X, X-, and (X-) + -X (+ -X). That means that no more than two lexical suffixes have been found so far on a single stem, but stems have been found with one or two lexical suffixes plus a lexical prefix. Vt stem types include naked roots and roots affixed with: R, A, X- (+ -X), -X (+ -X), and probably others. Here again never more than two lexical suffixes are found on one Vt stem. Many examples of various stem types can be found in the chapters on lexical affixes and on morphophonemics (under reduplication, vowel ablaut, and consonant ablaut).

6.1. Verb Inflection. Outline:
6.1.1. Personal Pronouns: as in Chapter 4,
6.1.2. Transitivizers (Control Suffixes) + Intransitivizers,
6.1.3. Beneficiary Suffixes: benefactive, reflexives, reciprocal,
6.1.4. Aspect: continuative, non-continuative,
6.1.5. Participles,
6.1.6. Voice: active, middle, passive,
6.1.7. Mood: subjunctive (when, if, uncertainty, negation), imperative, interrogative,
6.1.8. Tense: present, past, future,
6.1.9. Plural and Diminutive: plural object, plural subject, plural action, plural action completive, repeatedly; diminutive,
6.1.10. Internal Syntax and the Co-occurrence of Verb Inflections.

6.1.11. Personal Pronouns. Subject and object pronouns are suffixed onto verbs as seen in Chapter 4 (sections 4.4, 4.5, 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10). Little more needs to be said except to point out in a few cases those inflectional endings which require or exclude certain pronoun sets (this will be done in 6.1.5—6.1.9) and to specify where the pronoun sets fit in the internal syntax of the verb (this will be done in 6.1.10).

6.1.2. Transitivizers (Control Suffixes) and Intransitivizers.

6.1.2.1. Control suffixes are transitivizers which indicate whether the subject had full control of the verbal action (did it purposely), had little control of the verbal action (did it accidentally, happened
or managed to do it), or had control over someone else's action and caused someone to do it. The control suffixes are the only transitivizing devices in Upper Stalo dialects of Halkomelem. Since they are obligatory with all transitive verbs (VT) and a decision as to degree of control must be made for each VT, control suffixes have the status of grammatical inflection rather than derivation. The six that have been found so far are:

- (e)T - -ēT - -ā( e )T - -ē( e )T 'do purposely to s-o/s-th'
- l 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage to do to s-o or s-th'
- sT 'cause it (or s-o) to do, make s-o or s-th do'
- (e)xY 'do purposely to s-th or s-o (especially to an inanimate object)'
- mēT 'happen (with little control) to do an action not directly affecting s-o or s-th'
- (e)les '(accidentally, happen to, manage to) do to s-o or s-th'

The meanings given for these suffixes are seldom overtly translated as given here. The usual case is for these semantic elements to combine with the root or stem meaning, to yeild a gloss more succinct than the sum of its parts. For example, ʔē'-y-st-exw

'chase s-o or s-th' < 'keep on going' + 'cause to' +
'3rd person object', mé-x 'take it off (of a button, etc.)' < 'come off' + 'do purposely to inanimate object', t'f·lém-t 'sing it' < 'sing' + 'do purposely to s-th'. As can also be seen from some of the examples, the control suffixes are often translated as mere transitivizers with the degree of control more implied than overtly stated (but definitely present semantically). Control suffixes are immediately followed by object personal pronoun suffixes.

The stressed allomorphs of control suffixes must be accounted for by morphophonemic rules with morphemic conditioning. Out of about 350 transitive verbs, only the following show stressed control suffixes:

-á(•)T: peqʷá't 'break it in two', xʷakʷá't 'drag s-o', ũ'axʷá't 'wash s-th (or s-o)', ũeqʷá't 'bark it (of a tree)', izⱽʷá't 'spit (s-th)', izⱽʷeθaxʸes 'he spit me out', scəwá't 'know how to do s-th', possibly ?ahá't 'wrap s-th up', (probably not ?á·t 'call (s-o)' and yá·t 'warn s-o' which seem to have -T).

-é(•)T: təq'et 'close s-th', kʷaxⱽé(•)t 'count s-th (or s-o)', kʷelé·t 'hold s-th (in hand)', kʷeθet 'spill it', kʷeθeθaxʸes 'he spilled me (from a canoe)', seq'et (~ séq'et) 'split it, crack it', weθ'et 'tease s-o', weθ'εθəmə 'tease you', lemə·t 'kick s-o (or s-th)', cesə·t 'send s-o', xʷtət 'tear s-th', (probably not
kʷ'ēt 'set s-o free'). Just as kʷ'ēzēt can mean 'spill s-th' or 'spill s-o', the choice of 's-o' or 's-th' or of both 's-o/s-th' depends mostly on the context; I have thus glossed the words in these paragraphs as I obtained them, and the s-o or s-th should be understood to depend somewhat on context. Also it might be noted that a number of these verbs are also attested without the transitivizers (for example, kʷ'ēz 'spill', kʷ(e)ʃ'ēm 'count', and kʷ'ēt 'tear').

-êt: lac'ēt 'fill it up', mez'ēt 'pick it all up', ṭeq'ēt 'pull s-th', ṭeq'ēt 'shove s-th/s-o', xeq'ēt 'store or put s-th away', ṭeq'ēt 'spear it (esp. fish)', ṭeq'ēt 'beat s-o up (lit. 'hurt s-o')', ṭeq'ēt 'cover s-o or s-th (with s-th cloth-like)', ṭeq'ēt 'win it (race, game, etc.)', q'pēt 'gather or collect s-th, pick it up', q'wēt 'launch or push s-th into water, push s-o into water', q'wē'eq'ēs 'he pushed me into the water', xeq'ēt 'pick s-th up from floor or ground', xeq'ēt 'put a spell on s-o', (probably not xeq'ēt 'scold or advise s-o, warn s-o', q'wēt 'pay s-o').

The roots in all these examples (excluding those in parentheses) are C₁C₂ or C₁C₂; in other derivations or inflections of these roots, the roots always
have the shape $C_1C_2$ or $C_1C_2C_2$ or at most $C_1C_2$ (usually when the root appears uninflected or word finally). For example: $p6q^W$ 'broken in two', $\theta^6x^W$ 'wash', $\eta6x^W$ 'crying' (where the stress shift to root is 'continuative'), $s-teq-tel$ 'door', $\varphi-s6q'$ 'half', $x^W0t$ '(to) tear', $\chi6t$ 'hurt', $\kappa6x^W$ 'covered', $s-q^6p$ 'a gathering', $q^W0s$ 'fall into water'. So it seems that these roots are zero-grade or schwa-grade roots. As such they cause an affix vowel to be stressed whenever affixed with a vowel-containing affix. Confirming this is the remainder of transitive verbs in $-(e)T$ which all feature stressed roots or stressed stems.

There doesn't seem to be any way to predict which roots take $\check{a}(\cdot)T$ instead of $-\delta T$ or $-\epsilon(\cdot)T$ instead of $-\delta T$, other than listing the roots. However it seems that those taking $\check{a}(\cdot)T$ all end in a labialized consonant ($C^W$), w, or h, while those taking $-\epsilon(\cdot)T$ never end in $C^W$, w, or h. It is too early to say whether this is coincidence or a phonological class. Roots taking $-\delta T$ seem to include those with final $C^W$ as well as those without.

A handful of transitive examples have an abnormally stressed 3rd person object suffix after the control suffix: $\chi6t-l-6x^W$ 'hurt s-o or s-th (by accident)'
(cp. ϕει-1-άξ&famdash;ες 'he hurt me (by accident)', ϕει-1-έμ 'he got hurt), s-o hurt him, he was hurt'), lekʷ-1-έxʷ 'break a bone, break it (of a bone or sticklike object)' (cp. lekʷ-1-έμ 'he got a bone broken', lekʷ-1-έxʷ-ες tel cέλ&famdash;εx&famdash;Y 'he broke my hand (accidentally)'), c'ε&famdash;εγʷ-1-έxʷ 'hit s-th or s-o accidentally with a piercing projectile'), xΥε&famdash;εγ-1-έxʷ 'complete s-th', ε&famdash;εγ-1-έxʷ 'discover s-th'; kʷε&famdash;ελ-1-έxʷ 'catch s-th (ball, animal, disease)', cε&famdash;m-έxʷ-ες 'he met up with her'; q'ε&famdash;ελ-ετ-έxʷ 'fooled s-o' (cp. q'ε&famdash;ελ-ες-άx&famdash;ες 'he fooled me'), sisi-st-έxʷ-ες 'he's scaring them'. These cases are peripheral to control suffixes but seem explainable in the same way (zero- or schwa-grade roots causing stress and ablaut of suffix vowel which is usually unstressed ε). The exceptions are cε&famdash;m-έxʷ-ες which is related to cά&famdash;m-tel 'meet up with each other, slope' and sisi-st-έxʷ-ες (sisi < sί&famdash;si, certainly not a zero-grade or schwa-grade root).

Some idea of the semantic effect of control suffixes can be obtained from the examples given in 4.5 of Chapter 4, from the examples given in the six preceding paragraphs (especially the first four paragraphs), and from the examples which now follow.

{-(e)T} 'do purposely to s-o or s-th'; tάς-ετ 'mash s-th (berries, etc.)' (tάς 'get hit by s-th mov-
ing, bumped, mashed'), sɪx-ət 'move s-th over' (cp. səx-əyləm 'move over'), ləpəc-ət 'send s-th' (ləpəc 'send'), ləq'sləcəs-ət 'turn the tables on s-o', ?fikʷ-ət 'throw s-th away, discard s-th' (?fikʷ 'lost'), gəiy-ət 'make s-th, fix s-th' (gəiy 'make, fix'), kʷtəxʷ-ət 'let s-o in' (s-kʷetəxʷ 'be inside (a house or cave)'), kəxələqʷ-ət 'pull s-o's hair' (kəxəm-ət 'grab s-o/s-th'), q'á-y-ət 'kill s-th or s-o' (q'á-y 'die'), qiq'-ət 'apprehend s-o, catch s-o' (qiq 'apprehended, caught, grounded').

{-l} 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage to do to s-th or s-o': wəc̣'əḳ-əl-əxʷ 'drop s-th by accident' (wəc̣'əḳ 'drop down (of an object or person)'), cələq-əl-əxʷ 'dropped it' (cələq 'fall'), mələq-əl-əxʷ 'forget s-th/s-o', (Ohkw.) (s)ə-əq̣'əl-əl-əxʷ - (Cheh., Tait) ə-q̣'əl-əl-əxʷ 'know s-th' (q'əl 'believe'), kəxələq-əl-əl-əxʷ 'insult s-o' (kəxəl-əx 'make war'), kəl-wil-əl-əmə 'disappoint you' (kəl-wil 'disappointed'), təp-əl-əxʷ 'blink', q'əp̣'-əl-əxʷ-əs 'he infected me, he passed a sickness on to me, he got me addicted (to an activity, food, drugs, etc.)', əq̣'əkʷ-əl-əxʷ 'lose s-th' (?fikʷ 'lost'), yəq̣'-əl-əxʷ-əs 'he fell a tree, he managed to fell it' (yəq̣'ət 'fall it (of a tree)', s-yəq̣ yeq̣' 'a fallen tree, log').

{-st} 'cause s-th or s-o to do, make s-o or s-th do':
qéx-st-æxʷ 'make it thick, make it lots' (qéx 'be lots, many'), ṣwæ-st-æxʷ '(to) deny s-th' (ṣwæ 'be not, not be, no'), ṣé'yēlæxʷ-st-æxʷ 'keep s-o alive', ṣq'ēxamÊ-st-em 'he was made to kneel' (ṣq'ēxam 'kneel'), mé-st-æxʷ 'bring s-th, fetch s-th' (mē - mí - ?emí 'come'), ḥē'yēx-æxʷ 'make s-o ashamed' (ḥē'yēx 'ashamed'), ṣepalé-st-æxʷ-es 'it costs ten dollars' (?epāles 'ten dollars'), ṣeqtālé-st-æxʷ 'join s-th together', s-xʷá·xʷe-l-st-æxʷ 'holding s-th up' (xʷá·xʷe 'lightweight'), ṣtë-st-æxʷ 'do it', ṣiyāləm-st-æxʷ 'obey s-o' (?iyāləm 'alright, correct, okay, can').

-(e)xʸ 'do purposely to s-th or s-o (especially to s-th)' (including all examples found so far):
léw-æxʸ-es 'he put it in' and léw-æxʸ-em 'it was put in' (lēw 'inside (s-th)'), léw-l-æm 'go inside a hole'), lép'-æxʸ 'eat s-th' (lēp'-æt 'eat s-o'), tē·l-xʸ 'track s-th (or s-c), follow tracks of s-th', kWē·l-xʸ 'hide s-th (an object, not a person)' (kWē·l 'hide (oneself)'), ṭp·l·l-xʸ 'bring it down (from upper shelf or upstairs)' (ṭp·l·l 'descend, go down'), wē·l-xʸ-es 'he threw it (upwards)' (wē·ls 'throw to a crowd, scramble-give' [throw a pole or blankets to a crowd at a winter ceremony; the thrower gives each person a gift proportionate to the portion of
pole or blanket he is able to hold onto'), hákʷ-exʷ-es 'he used it', xʷénl-xʷ-es 'he lifted it', xʷé-mé-xʷ 'open s-th (a door for exi);' and mé-xʷ 'take it off (from something it is attached to);' and memé-xʷ 'to separate or split up people fighting' (all compared with memé 'it came off (a button, etc.)'), t'ém-exʷ 'desire s-th, wish for s-th', t'ém-exʷ 'braid it'.

-méT 'happen to do an action (with little control) not directly affecting s-o or s-th' (including all examples found so far): thénl-mét 'look after s-o' and théél-mét 'admiring s-o' (< thé'elə 'heart'), h'él'el-mét 'get used to it', k'wéckwé-c-mét 'expect s-o, look for s-o', s-ìwél-mét 'sense s-th/s-o' (-ìwel 'thoughts, feelings, insides'), st'êwél-mét 'thinking about s-th' (stê'êwel (AC) - st'êwel (EB, CT) 'guess, think'), ?éliye-mét 'dream of s-o' (?éliye '(to) dream'), sí-sí-mét 'be afraid of s-th/s-o' (sí-sí 'be afraid'), q'énl-mét 'believe s-o' (q'énl 'believe'), x'énlé-mét 'listen to s-o/s-th' (x'énlé 'listen'), sq'eq'á-mét 'stay together with s-o' (sq'eq'á 'together'), ìw-mét 'run away from s-o' (ìw 'run away; cured', ìw - h'ìw 'run away'), ò'éwél-mét 'be fed up with s-th/s-o' (ò'-ìwél 'annoyed'), ò'exʷ-mét 'pity s-o', wawistõlèq-mét 'jealous of s-o' (wawistõlèq 'jealous'), x'á-mét 'look after s-o, take care of s-o', q'áqweł-mét 'bawl
s-o out' and q'Welq'Wel-met 'scold s-o' (q'Welq'Wel 'rowdy', q'Waq'Wel 'talking'; these two examples alone do not fit the gloss proposed for -met 'happen to do action not directly affecting object').

-(e)les '(accidentally, happen to, manage to)
do to s-o or s-th' (including all examples found so far); mélq-elles 'forget s-o or s-th', sk'W'ê-êk'Wëls mélq-elles-âme 'I'll never forget you', hêk'W-elles 'remember s-o or s-th', hêk'W-elles-âx'ës 'he remembered me', hêk'W-elles-âx'ës '(s)he loves or likes me' (s-êl-ës 'want, desire'), ?ê-êl-elles-âx-ës 'he left me' and ?ê-êl-elles-ës 's-th/s-o went away from s-o/s-th' (?ê-êl 'keep on going'; these last two examples may be from ?ê-êl ~ -êl ~ -ôl 'go, come, get', i.e. < ?ê-ôl 'go away, get away', but the -ës is unexplained), pôtem-ës-âx-ës 'he asked for me' (pôtem-êt 'ask s-th'). This -(e)les suffix may involve mental or emotional action and this should possibly be reflected in its gloss:

6.1.2.2. Intransitivizers (-ôm, -ôl-ôs -ôs, and possibly -(e)êt and -ôl -ôel).

{-ôm} 'intransitive' (and {-ôm} 'middle voice' as well) appears to have several allomorphs, namely
-m (after vowels), -ôm (after l or y which follows a high-stressed vowel, i.e. V (l,y)___), -ôm (after l

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or y which follows a mid-stressed vowel, \( \hat{V} (l, y) \), -ɛ·m (after a few morphemes which are either vocalically a weak or zero grade or which become so before the stressed suffix), and -à·m (after a few morphemes with root vowel ɛ· which metathesizes to the -ɛm suffix). Examples of all these are found in 6.1.6 but not in an organized way, so some will be given here. (For further discussion and examples see 6.1.6, where -ɛm 'intransitive' is disentangled from -ɛm 'middle' and -ɛm 'passive'.)

-ɛm: θ'ɛm - c'ɛm 'chew' (θ'et - c'et 'chew s-th'), x'ɛlɛ·m 'listen' (x'ɛlɛ· 'listen hard'), qá·m 'dip water, pack water, fetch water' (qá· 'water'), lɛm 'go, going, go to, going to' (lɛ 'going(to)').

-ɛm: q'wɛlɛm 'barbecue, roast, put in oven' (q'wɛl 'cooked; ripe'), q'sɛlɛm 'to camp', leqɛlɛm 'dirty (of water)', biɛlɛm 'tumble, fall and tumble', lewɛlɛm 'go into an opening' (le-w 'inside (s-th)'), lowɛxɛs 'he put s-th in'), həqɛlɛm 'crawl underneath', t'sɛlɛm 'stick to s-th or s-o', liyɛm '(to) laugh', ɛfiɛm 'bake bread, fix food' (ɛfi 'make, fix'), x'ęyɛm 'sell', ɛgyɛm 'slow', spex'ɛlɛ·lɛm 'breathe, sigh, blow or puff air from throat', mɛəlɛqɛlɛm (\( \tilde{m}\ɛəl-qɛl-f·l-ɛm\)) 'tell a lie, to lie'.

-ɛm: ɛxá·yɛlɛm 'shave oneself' (ɛlx 'scraped,
scratched'), spēxwelē:lēm (variant form of 'breathe, sigh')

-ēm: c'etē:m 'crawl', c'īē:m - c'ic'ē:m 'hear', c'k'ēm - c'k'ēm 'jump', θ'q'eixē:m 'kneel', χ'iyiy'iyē:m 'tell stories' (the i here and in the next word could be analyzed as //a//), k'iyē:m 'refuse, be stingy' (k'iyē:t 'refuse s-o s-th', sk'iyk'iy 'stingy'), q'ē:m 'have a short memory', possibly xwelēm 'over to, towards' and xwelēm 'through'; it seems that kx'ē:m 'counting' has its stress and vowel through 'continuative' stress shift and metathesis (cp. kx'ēm 'count', kx'ē:t 'counting it', and kx'et 'count it').

-ā:m: x'ix'k'wā:m 'swimming' (x'ā:k'wēm 'to bathe (oneself)'), x'ix'pā:m 'whistling' (x'ā:pēm 'to whistle'), x'ix'qē:m (dubious recording of vowels, probably sic for x'ix'qē:m) 'one's mouth hanging open' (x'eq'ā:et 'hang s-th up'), θ'q'wēmēt 'rotted' (θ'ā:q'wēm 'to rot')(-ēt in this example and in words like χseyx'c'ēmēt 'real itching' seems to trigger stress shift to last vowel before -ēt).

It should also be noted that -ēm occurs in four examples (out of the 20 which could be cited) after consonants other than l or y; however, it seems all four have had stress shifting for aspect or derivation or have weak grade vowel roots, accounting for
the -6m: χέγγεσ'6mθετ 'real itching' (χέγγεσ'6m 'itching'), p(e)k'w6m "fly or burst (of airborne seeds or dust), dusty" (probably better glossed as 'blowing of light dust, fluff or snow')(cp. pάκ'6w6m 'blow (of plant fuzz, airborne seeds, or light snow)'), tΧ'w6m 'be early' (τέχ'w6m 'being early', cp. χ'w6m 'hurry, be fast'), Χ'w6m 'win a contest' (Χ'w6leq also 'win a contest').

For a discussion and examples of -(e)θετ 'get, become, go' (which acts somewhat like an intransitivizer) see 6.1.3 in which it is derived morphosematically from -(e)θετ //reflexive//. For a discussion and examples of -fi.1 - -el 'go, come, get' see the chapter on lexical suffixes; it is still unclear whether -fi.1 - -el is a very productive lexical suffix or a productive intransitivizer; it is included in lexical suffixes because it adds a clear lexical meaning, as well as either intransitivizing or not changing the intransitivity of the root.

In addition to -em 'intransitive' and perhaps {-fi.1} and {-(e)θετ}, the suffix -ε1s - -els is also an intransitivizer. The following examples show -ε1s - -els:

ίετqwε1s 'boil' (ίά'tqw6m 'is boiling, (being boiled)'), yεqwε1s 'burn at a ritual, perform a burning'
and ṣeyeq'wels *(performing a) burning at a ritual*
(yēq'w 'burn', ṣeyeq'w 'burning'), ṣeyeq'wels 'dig' and ṣeyeq'wels 'digging' (ṣeyeq'wet 'dig s-th up'), ṣeq'wels 'drag (for ex. drag the river for a body)' (σeq'wet 'drag s-o or s-th') (EB has k'w instead of q'w), ńek'wels 'hook (fish for ex.)' (ńek'wet 'hooked, gaffed', ńek'wet 'hook it, gaff it'), k'wels - k'wels (ć probably mis-recorded for ć ) 'knock (once), rap' and k'wexwels 'knocking, rapping' (ńek'wexwem 'rapping, knocking (in distance)', k'wexwexwesem 'knocking with one's hand', k'wet 'beat or rap on it (drum, wood, etc.)'), ṣeq'ćels 'to spear' and ṣeq'ćels 'spearing (fish for example)' (ṣeq'ćet 'spear s-th', ṣeq'ćes 'he's spearing s-th'), ṣeq'ćels 'buy' (ćilq'ćet 'buy s-th'), ćet'k'wels 'carve in wood' and ćet'k'wels 'carving, whittling', ćec'ćels 'cut (for ex. wood with a saw)' (ćec'ćes 'cut on the finger', ćec'ćet 'cut s-th (off)(for ex. meat, hide, etc.)'), ćex'ćels 'fry' and ćex'ćels 'frying' (ćexk'ćet 'fry s-th', ćexk'ćet 'frying s-th'), ćet'ćels 'cast or throw a spell' (ćet'ćet 'cast or throw a spell on s-o'), ćeq'ćels 'to file (abrasively)' (ćeq'ćet 'file s-th'), ṣeq'ćels 'to rattle (cans, etc.), to shivaree or wake newlyweds' (ćeq'ćes '(make) a scraping or rattling sound (dishes, metal pots, food off dishes, wagon on gravel, etc.)', ćeq'ćes 'he's rat-
ting s-th (dishes, etc.'), pehè·ls 'to blow (of the wind)' (pá·t 'blow with mouth' prob. < *pehá·t, cp. also spehè·ls 'the wind'), possibly žé·lt-elec·è·ls 'spraying (in garden)' (žélt 'sprinkle or splash s-th with water' (this last word may not belong since -elec·è·ls may be a lexical suffix).

pipewels 'freezing cold' (píwet 'freeze s-th/s-o', spípew 'frozen'), qétèxels 'feeling around' (qétxt 'feel s-th/s-o (with hands)'), k'émq'wéls 'making a crunching/cracking noise (ice breaking, eating an apple, etc.)', χépk'wéls 'gnawing, nibbling' (χépk'wt 'gnaw s-th', kw or k'w uncertain, cp. also χépk'wem 'brittle'), χéyxq'èl's 'scratching (without breaking surface)' (χéyxq'et 'scratch s-th (w/o breaking surface)', χéyxq'èt 'scratching s-th'), χéyxq'èl's 'falling (of trees)' (χéyxq'èt 'falling s-th (a tree)', χéq'èt 'fall it (a tree)'), žéq'èl's 'laying down, putting down (bricks, foundation, prob. anything)' (žéq'èt 'putting s-th down'), žéjëwëls '(an Indian doctor) working, curing' (žé'wet 'cure s-o by Indian doctoring', žé'w 'cured by Indian doctoring (by a medicine man)'), t'èq'èls 'farting' (t'èq 'to fart'), c'ètx'wëls '(mice) chewing (a wall, a box, etc.--esp. the sound)', t'èjëq'wëls 'scratching to get in' (t'èjëq'wòs 'he scratched on s-th'), t'èht'èjëq'wëls...
'scratching repeatedly to get in' (t'əikt'seqwtes 'it has scratched s-th up'), háqwels 'smelling, sniffing (of dog, other animals)' (háqwem 'smell, give off smell', háqwet 'smell s-th on purpose', háqwlex 'happen to smell s-th, catch scent of s-th'), səyt'els 'tickling' (səyt'em 'being tickled', səyt't 'tickling s-o', sɨyt't 'tickle s-o'), k'ewels 'barking (of a dog)' (?k'ewéls 'to bark (of animal)'), t'əməls 'to adze, chop' (should gloss be continuative?).

The above examples explain the nature of this suffix's phonological alternation. -əls occurs in non-continuative forms and -els occurs in continuative forms, consistently. Since continuatives are inflected forms and the non-continuatives are the base forms, it follows that -əls is the base form of this intransitive suffix; then, since most of the examples here form their continuatives by ablaut and stress-shifting (2.3.3.2), it is natural to expect -els as the unstressed version of -əls. The stress-shifting even takes place in the continuatives formed by reduplication because morphophonemic rule 2.3.3.4 operates to de-stress, downgrade to schwa and drop root vowels before stressed suffixes like -əls.

The semantics of {-əls} is also interesting. All the examples show: the subject is a semantic agent,
doing the action on purpose (except where the agent is inanimate), and the semantic focus is upon the activity not upon its results. Of these elements, the 'on purpose' element is most interesting because in the few examples where there is an -em intransitive with the same verb root, the -em intransitive has the meaning 'not on purpose, happen to, accidentally'. The 'not on purpose' meaning for -em 'intransitive' is seldom found in the examples in 6.1.6; it seems that either this semantic element is inconsistently present in -em 'intransitive' or it is present only in verbs which also have contrasting -es·ls forms, or the intransitive examples in 6.1.6 still need further sorting out. At any rate, (-es·ls) would seem in part to be the intransitive equivalent of purposeful control transitivizer {-(e)T}!

6.1.3. Beneficiary Suffixes (benefactive, reflexives, reciprocal):

-(e)ξc 'benefactive, for s-o' (precedes control suffixes)
-λá·met 'reflexive, oneself'
-(e)θet 'reflexive, oneself, itself' (replace control suffixes and object pronouns)
-teλl 'reciprocal'

The benefactive is a suffix which was attested only three times in my material from AC; it appeared in a number of examples from EB, at first as -(e)ξ
because the consonant clusters it produces are difficult to pronounce with -(e)ʃc (noticed during elicitation). However, after several elicitation sessions these examples were corrected to -(e)ʃc and Edna began to use the benefactive quite productively. A number of these examples were also verified with the Coqualeetza Elders Group. As examples 16 and 17 will show, -(e)ʃc can also be used as a malefactive but with somewhat humorous force as in the English constructions. -(e)ʃc follows the stem (i.e., follows all the lexical suffixes) and precedes the control suffix -(e)T; it might also, in the shape of -(e)ʃ, precede the control suffix -sT, but this is poorly attested and doubtful. The schwa is dropped from -(e)ʃc after vowel-final stems; otherwise it is present -(eʃc); it is stressed after Θiy 'make, fix'. The examples found so far are:
1. (AC) Θiy-ʃəc-et 'make it for s-o',
   (AC) Θiy-ʃəc-et 'making it for s-o'
2. (AC) qá-ʃc-əθ-áx—even te qá- 'he brought me the water'
   (cp. qá-ːm 'fetch water, pack water')
3. (remaining examples by EB:) Θiy-ʃəc-et-ʃe 'make it for him!, fix it for him!', ḫe-s Θiy-ʃəc-t-es-te sqwəmɛ-y 'he made it for the dog', Θiy-ʃəc-t-em te swłyqeq 'the man made it for s-o' (sic 'it was made for the man'), Θiy-ʃəc-əθ≈(-əxW) '(you) make it for me'
4. cel/cet ?iléq-eíc-tet 'I/we bought it for him',
?iléq-eíc-tet-íc 'buy it for him!',
κ'es ?iléq-eíc-t-es te sqwemè 'he bought it for the dog',
κ'es ?iléq-eíc-t-es κ' Bill te sqwemè 'Bill bought it for the dog',
?iléq-eíc-t-cexw 'you buy it for him(!)',
?iléq-eíc- gàn(-cexw) '(you) buy it for me(!)' (can be either declarative or imperative with -cexw),
?iléq-eíc- gàx-íc 'buy it for me!';
?iléq-eíc-t-á·lxw-íc 'buy it for us!'  
5. k'wè-1xw-eíc- gàx-íc 'hide it for me!'
k'wè-1xw-eíc- gàx-és èkú'à 'she hid it for me'
k'wè-1xw-eíc-t-êm èkú'à 'it was hidden for her'
k'wè-1xw-eíc- gàme 'hide it for you'
k'wè-1xw-eíc- gàme-cel 'I hide it for you'
6. c'èk'x-eíc- gàx(-cexw) '(you) fry it for me(!)'
7. q'wem-ews-eíc- gàx(-cexw) '(you) pluck it for me(!)'
8. q'èls-eíc- gàx(-cexw) '(you) boil it for me(!)'
q'èls-eíc-t-íc 'boil it for s-o (him, her, etc.)'!
q'èls-eíc-t-es te swiyeqe '(s)he boiled it for the man'
q'èls-eíc-t-ès the sëlif te swiyeqe-s 'the woman boiled it for her husband'
9. pìxw-eíc-t-ìc 'brush it for s-o!'
pìxw-eíc-t-es te swiyeqe '(s)he brushed it for the man'
pìxw-eíc-t-ès the sëlif te swiyeqe 'the woman brushed it for the man'
pixʷ-cíc-t-em te swiyeqe 'it was brushed for the man'
10. hícʷ-cíc-thxʷ-cexʷ kʷe sméyeθ 'cut off some meat for me!'
hícʷ-cíc-tháxʷ-cel-çe te sméyeθ 'I'll cut off the meat for you'
hícʷ-cíc-et-cel-çe te sméyeθ 'I'll cut off the meat for him/her/it/Them'
11. cel yeqʷ-eš(c)-t 'I burned it for s-o (him/her/etc.)'
yeqʷ-eš(c)-thxʷ-cexʷ '(you) burn it for me(!)'
(c.p. yeqʷ-ešep-thxʷ-ic 'make a fire for me!')
12. p'óiwiy-cíc-thxʷ-cexʷ te(1) s(e)qíws 'patch my pants for me!'
13. potém-cíc-thxʷ-cexʷ we'suž xʷeʔí tel sʔám 'ask for me if my order is in!'
14. mè·lőc-thxʷ-cexʷ '(you) bait it for me(!)'
15. kʷú-cíc-thxʷ-es 'he took it for me'
16. celóq-cíc-t 'divide it in half with s-o (for s-o)'
17. qá·qe·líc-thxʷ-es tel tf '(s)he drank my tea on me'
18. cexʷ lèkʷá-cíc-thxʷ tel sxšle 'you broke my leg for me'
19? ?i-fit-exʷ-cexʷ (?)tè te sqʷemé:y 'leave it here for the dog!'
, k'es ?i-fit-exʷ-es te sqʷemé:y 'that's what he left here for the dog' (?i-fit-exʷ 'leave s-th here')
20? q'éw-əq 'pay for s-th' (c.p. q'ew-šT 'pay s-o')
-lá·mét and -(e)θet are the two reflexivizing suffixes in Upper Stalo Halkomelem. Both replace control suffixes and following object pronoun suffixes. -lá·mét is less common of the two and seems to contain the -1 control suffix, 'do accidentally, happen to do, manage to do'. It also has allomorphs -là(•)mêt (when high stress precedes in the word), -lêmêt (after ñisté(1)-) and -lág(•)mêt (elsewhere). The allomorph -là·mêt is homophonous with the -1 control + 2nd person sg. passive (after 'negative' and 'impossible' constructions), but the syntactic environments of the two rule out equating the two. Examples include:
c'isemlà·mêt 'grow up, raise oneself' (c'í'sem 'grow')
χeyęxlà·mêt 'shame oneself, be embarrassed' (χeyęxe 'be ashamed')
q'á·lámêt 'make it through the winter'
qitélá·mêt 'fall asleep' (qítət '(to) sleep')
χxylėxYlámêt 'stand up by oneself' (χxylėxY 'stand')
k'wemlá·mêt 'raise oneself, pull through (illness, crisis, or childhood)' (k'wémêt 'raise s-o')
tél·á·mêt - tætel·á·mêt 'understand' (tæl·exW 'understand s-th, learn s-th, find s-th out', tæl·θet 'wonder, think about s-th')
si·silámêt 'scare oneself, do s-th dangerous and get even more scared than expected'
x'ewlama't 'escape, get oneself free (like from a trap)'
    (x'ifw 'run away, escape')
wec'elama't 'bring oneself to a summit (of mountain),
    masturbate'
xw'e'ilama't 'manage to get here'
zelama't 'get to the shore (from water), land'
listolama't 'feel sorry for oneself'

There are many more examples of -(e)s'et:
las'et 'get fat, make oneself fat' (lás 'be fat')
q'āy'es'et 'kill oneself' (q'āy 'die')
q'iw'yees'et 'shake oneself, shake itself (for ex. of the
    earth in earthquake), bob about (of canoe for ex.)'
iyáq'es'et 'change oneself' and iyee'es'et 'get out of the
    way, dodge' (iyee'-q-T 'change s-th/s-o')
qelqelas'et 'go get oneself dirty' (qel 'bad, dirty')
χelc'es'et 'turn (oneself) over or around' (χ-ölc' 'twist,
    turn over or around')
xvá'imae'es'et 'take care of oneself' (xvá'-imaeT 'look after
    s-o, take care of s-o')
χehá'mae'es'et 'cry for oneself' (χehe'-met 'cry for s-th',
    χe'-m 'weep, cry')
ifl'es'et 'bail (water), bail (oneself out)' (if-ilt 'bail
    s-th')
q'al'es'et 'come back' (q'alstaxw 'bring s-th back',
    q'eqla' 'be together with')
pàq'ët 'get decayed, mouldy' and pq'ë-yët 'wood decays' (pq'ë 'split in two, broken', pq'ë-y 'decayed wood, broken wood', pq'ë-t 'break s-th in two')
xéylët 'mark oneself' (xéyl-t 'write s-th, mark it')
x'ët 'wake (oneself) up' (x'ë-x-t 'wake s-o up')
lec'ët 'fill oneself' (lec'ët 'fill s-th')
x'ët 'make oneself famished, starve oneself' (x'ë 'starved')
ëfyët 'fix oneself up' (ëfy 'fix, make')
q'ëxë-kët 'heal up' (sq'ëy-x 'a scar')
q'ëpët 'gather themselves' (q'ëpët 'gather it')
ëxwáët 'disappear on purpose' (ëxw 'disappear')
lëxët 'cover oneself up' (lëxët 'cover s-o/s-th')
k'ëk'ëfyeët 'training oneself (to be a shaman, spirit dancer, canoe-puller (canoe racer), etc.)' (k'ëk'ëf 'climbing up')
k'ëwëemët 'drop oneself into a seat angrily, throw oneself on the floor or ground in a tantrum, throw a tantrum' (k'ëwåët 'club s-o/s-th')
q'ëq'áët and q'áët 'mix, associate or go with s-o' (sq'ëq'á 'together with')
?àt'ët 'to stretch out (oneself)' (?àt'ët 'stretch s-th')
qëfxët 'to slide (purposely slide oneself as in skating, sledding, playing)' (qëfxem 'to slip, skid')
x¹xiw-oet 'to cool off (of a person)'
teml-oet 'to cool off (of food)'
x₂yx-oet 'shame oneself' (cp. x₂yxelα-met above)

It is tempting to propose that the -(e)ə in -(e)əet represents the purposive control suffix -(e)T and that the final -əet in -(e)əet might be equated with that in [-l-α·mət] as the reflexivizer. But neither proposition can be conclusively supported by the evidence; in fact, some words inflected with -(e)əet seem to have accidental and causative translations (or implications) in addition to some which have purposive implications.

A number of examples, not cited above, seem to either have a homophonous suffix -(e)əet '(verbalizer), get, become' or to have extended the semantic content of reflexive -(e)əet to include these meanings. For example: x³ā·məet 'got shallow' (sx³ex³em 'shallow'), hf-kʷəet 'get big' (hf-kʷ ʰbe big'), x₂yα·əet 'getting colder', kʷásəet 'get warm, get warmer' (x₂yα 'cold', kʷákʷes 'warm, hot'), pəəet 'went crooked (like a nail)' (pə-y-t 'bent it'), t₃pìəet 'go dead or die (of a tree)' (st₃pì 'dead (of a tree)'), χalēməet 'getting/turning gray (of hair)' (x₃lαm 'gray (of hair)'), (s)χyα·əet 'aggressive, ready to fight, cruel' (χ₀yα 'cold'), əqʷā·məet 'getting rotten
(berries for ex.)' (θʾá(·)qʾwʾm 'rotten' + continuative metathesis), ḥáʾt’et 'windy' (ḥšʾ 'turbulent, rough (of wind or water)'), qʾeqʾáʾet 'mix, associate or go with s-o' (qʾeqʾá· 'be together with'), tḥ·lʾet 'to clear land' (tḥ·l-t 'clean it, clear it (of a table, etc.)'), ḥáʾlʾet 'to groan', ḥāʾwʾet 'to be in a hurry, to hurry'.

Some of these examples could have a reflexive element ('getting gray (by itself)', 'getting rotten (by itself)', 'mix with s-o (bring oneself together with s-o)'), but others seem to lack any reflexive force ('to clear land', 'windy', 'got shallow'). The most likely rule to account for all this is a morphosememic rule: //reflexive\// \(\rightarrow\) //get, become\// in the environment: //inanimate\//. Also in support of a single -(e)et suffix is the fact that in both the clearly reflexive examples and those with 'get, become' the suffix seems to be accompanied by ε \(\rightarrow\) a ablaut; it seem unlikely that this ablaut would be found co-incidentally in two homophonous suffixes.

The reciprocal suffix, -tel, is an easier matter. When not overtly translated with 'each other, one another', words containing this suffix still can be seen to have this reciprocal meaning present. The
suffix is homophonous with lexical suffix -tel 'device, thing for', but the two are easily kept apart (one is used in verbal context and one is used in a nominal context) (-tel 'reciprocal' could be numbered [-tel₂] if need be). -tel 'reciprocal' may have allomorphs -f·tel and -tá·l, -tà·l (the latter set seems used in contests, perhaps meaning 'against each other'), but there are not enough examples yet to predict their occurrence. Examples are not too numerous, but the suffix seems productive:

qʷélqʷeltel - qʷé·lqʷeltel '(a lot of people) talking together' (qʷé·l 'talk' (~ qʷel in derivations) + R plural subject)

q′eq′átel 'to meet' (q′eq′á· 'be together with')
θēk′w·f·tel 'tug-of-war' (θēk′w 'pull', R 'continuative', possibly θēk′w·fytel with -fy 'wood, bark' if the tugged item was cedar with rope, poles, etc.)
qeqemátel 'having the same parents' (qemá· 'suckle', R 'continuative', -tel here 'with each other')
qelá·qtel 'be siblings (to each other), be cousins (to each other)' (s-qel·q 'younger sibling', -el- 'plural' as in sqelé·q 'younger siblings')
sēk′stel 'elder sister', sēk′stel 'elder sisters'
(sēk′a 'oldest (of children'))
kʷeltá·l 'wrestle'
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'inceptive' is not and can occur with either of the two aspects (thus 'inceptive' suffixes like -íɬ and -eθet and inceptive auxiliary {mə} 'come to, become' are not grammatically aspect inflections).

Since complete lists of examples have been given in the previous sections referred to in the last paragraph, only a brief sampling of examples is necessary here. In the following list, first the process or affix is given which indicates 'continuative', then the non-continuative example, and last its continuative counterpart.

R₁: t'íɬ'em 'sing'; t'íɬt'em 'singing'
kʷíɬ(•)øm 'get red'; kʷíløm 'getting red'
s-t'íɬ-em-s 'his song'; s-t'íɬt'em-s 'his singing'

R₂: qʷól 'ripe'; qʷólqʷ'øl 'over-ripe'
χəɬq'ɬt 'open one's eyes'; χəɬχəɬq'ɬt 'opening his eyes (of Thunderbird esp.)' (as in χəɬχəɬq'ɬt to sxʷexw̓a's 'Thunder(bird) opening his eyes, lightning') (χəɬwəl's 'bark (of a dog)'; χəɬwəl's 'barking (of dog(s))')

R₅: χw̓ì 'wake'; χw̓exw̓ì 'waking'
χəɬylt 'draw s-th, write it'; χəɬχəɬylt 'writing s-th, drawing s-th'
xʷé 'starve'; xʷexw̓é 'starving'

R₆: p'íɬ'w̓ to float, surface'; p'ɛp'íɬw̓ 'floating' (also has Aɛ)
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qʷe·l 'talk'; qʷəqʷe·l 'talking' (with R₁ as well)

Aa': kʷəcət 'look at s-th'; kʷə(·)kʷəcət 'looking at s-th'

həqʷəlexʷ 'smell s-th'; hə·qʷəlexʷ 'smelling s-th'

Au': qʷə·l 'talk'; qʷə·lqʷəl - qʷə·lqʷəltəl 'talking together, all talking'

 hen... → hen... (where S = syllable):

 jelqí 'soak, rehydrate'; jelqí 'soaking, rehydrating'

kʷəwéls 'to bark (of dog)'; kʷəwéls 'barking'

ləxʷəce 'spit'; ləxʷəce 'spitting' (xʷ - xʷ)

ca·ləxʷəm 'bleed'; ca·ləxʷəm 'bleeding'

 hen → hen; kʷəx²tem 'diarrhea'; kʷəx²tem 'continuing diarrhea'

kʷəsuyəl 'throw out a drift net'; kʷəsə·yəl 'drift-netting down the river' (kʷ probably sic for qʷ in each case)

sqʷəlxʷəm 'dry snow that can drift'; sqʷəlxʷəme 'dry snow drifting in'

metathesis: examples above with kʷəx²tem and kʷəsuyəl (q.v.)

viyə·tel 'fight'; viyə·tel 'fighting'

kʷ(e)xʷə·t 'count s-th'; kʷəx²tes 'he's counting s-th'

{hə-}(hə- _1,γ ; hə- _m,w):

yəqʷ 'burn'; həy(e)qʷ 'burning'

lepə·x² 'eat'; həlpə·x² 'eating'
méq'et 'swallow (s-th)'; hēmq'et 'swallowing (s-th)'
wēc'ēk' 'fall, drop (intransitive)'; hēwc'ēk' 'falling'

The phonological details of the above processes have already been described in Chapter 2 in the sections mentioned. Morphologically, all transitive verbs and most simple or lexically affixed intransitive verbs can be and must be inflected for continuative or left non-continuative. On the other hand, interrogative, personal pronoun, demonstrative, and auxiliary intransitive verbs are never inflected for continuative, while many adverbial and prepositional Vi's are. For participles (see 6.1.5) continuative inflection by reduplication is almost obligatory. Participles function as adjectival Vi's, but adjectival Vi's which are not participles (hī·kʷ 'be big', etc.) are seldom if ever inflected for continuative.

The co-occurrence of the continuative with other verb inflections and the internal syntax of verb inflections will be covered in 6.1.10. The allomorphy, semantics and sememics of /'continuative'/ have been discussed in 2.5.12 and 2.5.13. Only a few more remarks are necessary on the semantics of /'continuative'/ and /'non-continuative'/. /'Continuative'/, usually glossed by adding be + -ing to the non-continuative, implies that the action of the root continues
for a moderate length of time after onset (if a time of onset is implied or stated within the speech event) or before conclusion (if a time of conclusion is implied or stated within the speech event). In absence of implication or statement of onset or conclusion, the 'continuative' action is assumed to be continuing indefinitely. It would be inaccurate to gloss the 'continuative' as 'non-completive' and the 'non-continuative' as the 'completive' in Upper Stalo Halkomelem because the focus of aspect here is on duration not completion.

Several affixes and constructions could be termed 'inceptive' and have some semantic features of aspect, for example -i·l - el 'go, come, get, become' (see 5.2.3, pp. 206-207), -(e)et //reflexive//'//('get, become, go'/ in the environment 'inanimate', see 6.1.3), and pre-posed auxiliary verb me 'come to, become' (see 6.2.8). But they are better considered not as aspect inflection because they can co-occur with both 'continuative' and 'non-continuative' aspects.

6.1.5. Participles. Participles can be derived from many verb roots by inflection (usually with s- plus reduplication, often plus -em 'middle voice'). It seems best to consider Halkomelem participles inflective rather than derivational because 1.) the com-
Combination of affixes used simultaneously is more typical of an inflection than a derivation, 2.) participles can be formed fairly productively, and 3.) Halkomelem participles are translated and used much like English participles. The Halkomelem participle however is used like an adjectival intransitive verb and may be classed as a subtype of adjectival verb syntactically. Most participles should be strictly translated with an initial 'be' in the gloss as they are stative in nature; this 'be' is omitted however when participles are used as adjectives in front of nominals (te stépi əeqet 'the dead tree'), and it is omitted in the following lists to avoid tedious repetition.

The most typical and productive type of participle inflection is s- plus reduplication (R probably adds a 'continuative' element): spápiy 'crooked' (pá·y-t 'bend s-th'), spípew 'frozen' (píw-et 'freeze s-th'), stétew 'light (in illumination)' (tét-él 'get light'), səəekʷ 'stretched, straight, pulled' (əekʷ 'pulled'), scocew 'got a wife' (céxʷ 'wife, mistress'), sxwxexw(y) 'awake' (xʷilámət 'wake (oneself) up'), səćəekʷi·wel 'stupified, dumbfounded, surprised' (əć·xʷ 'fly', -i·wel 'insides'), skwxexw(y) 'wild (of animals)', səćəeq 'laying on the ground' (ləqʷ-ət 'lay s-th down'), spépeə 'spread out', sk'ćəkʷəl 'stuck
(like burdock in shirt for ex.), stetf'1 'cleared
(of land)' (tf'1-t 'clear it, clean it (of a table,
land, etc.)'), sēl'ēl 'tied up (of a canoe)'
(īl'āmēt 'land (in a canoe)', when a canoe is landed
or beached it is tied up), sk'imwi y 'stingy'
(k'mwy-et 'refuse s-o s-th'), scex'w 'silent, quiet'
(c'ex'w-ēl 'get quiet, get silent, shut up'), sspf'1
'buried' (pf'1-t 'bury s-th'), sq'welq'w'1 'already
cooked' (qwel 'cooked; ripe'), sp'ēx'ēl 'flattened
(can, bread, etc.)' (p'ēx-et 'flatten s-th'), sq'ēq'ēl
'leaning backwards', sēl'eq'w '(too) loose', sp'ēx'ēl
'sober' (p'ēl 'become aware, come to oneself, sober up'),
sk'ék'atel 'separated in marriage', s?i?ēhā - s?ēhā
'wrapped up' (?ēhā-t 'wrap it up'), sk'ēk'esel 'dark-
colored', sēyēx' - sēx'ēl 'striped' (xēyp'-et
'scratch/scrape s-o or s-th'), sk'ék'we 'boxed, put in a box' (kwēx' 'a box'), s'ē'ēfx or sēx'éf'w
'clean (of house for ex.)' (ēx'w 'wash'), st'el'ēlq
'spotted with many spots' (plural R)(st'ēlq 'spotted'),
sēx'éf' 'stiff (in body)' (ēf'tem is also 'stiff (in
body)')

Some examples also occur with s- plus R which are
translated more as adjectives than participles, but
this may be only fluent translation, and most likely
the following are participles as well (at least in
origin): stiteel 'puny' (titeel 'get skinny', s-ti·e 'skinny, thin'), smeimelq 'rough (of wood)', sxveltem 'shallow' (rveltem 'got shallow'), sxwá·xew 'crazy, insane', sxwixwá·xew 'stupid, a little crazy', (s)lí·leq 'easy', sxéyxe 'ashamed' (xéyxe 'ashamed'), sxwixwé 'ambitious', syémyem 'pregnant'.

A number of examples are also found with s- alone or reduplication alone indicating their participial nature; see the next two paragraphs. (Some whose translation is more adjectival than participial have been included too; this seems to include most of those with reduplication alone).

stúpi 'dead (of a tree)' (túpiet 'die (of a tree)'), sxét (AC) - sxwá·ét (Cheh., Tait) 'deep', scéyxi 'dried' (céyxi 'dry s-th'), selel·le 'fading (of eyesight)', slí' or selí' 'full' (lec'é·t 'fill it'), smok 'found', scowát 'smart, good at, know how to' (also a plain Vi), skwy·lec 'lame' (kvwy 'climb'), slék·lec 'lame' (lekw· 'break (a bone)'), sú·met '(always) lazy' (perhaps ?emét 'sit'), sge·smatl-á·yel 'not fluent in speaking', sti·e 'skinny, thin', sel or selé 'tight, tightly' (adverbial Vi as well), stelá·stel 'sitting side by side' (télas-T 'sit beside s-o'), sef·qel (Sardis, AC) - sxwá·s (Cheh.) 'loud' (Ef· 'big'), sá·wé 'in a hurry, in a rush'.

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(possibly adverbial), stf·m 'hard (of exertion), done hard' (tf·m·et 'do it hard(er)'), sqayš·iyə 'bragging, extravagant in claims, bull-headed', szəyək'·et 'aggressive, touchy, hot-headed', sqw·?lw·el 'hollow' (qw· 'get a hole'), szwałk·swel 'hollow', st'ayə 'brooding' (t'eyaq' 'angry'), səmyə 'cheap', səf·k·w 'lost (and presumed dead)' (?f·k·w 'lost (of a person or an object)'), scəkwəlte 'borrowed, nick- (as in 'nickname') (cakəwəlte 'borrow'), sxwəmə 'open at the top' (xw·m·x·t 'take s-th off that’s fastened, (unfasten s-th)', memə (possibly mə mə) 'come off, (come unfastened)'), sməə'el 'proud', st'ayə 'sad, worried', sə'epy 'scattered all over' (xəepy·t 'scatter s-th'), scəl·w 'turned inside out' (celəw·t 'turn s-th inside out'), scəpy 'dirty (of body, house, etc.)', st's·lq 'spotted', stə? (Chawk., Sardis), st'ε (Tait, Cheh.) 'same, similar (to), like', st'ələk'w 'circular; a circle' (also nominal), sxə·lc·-əməθ ' (grown) twisted (of a tree)' (xəlc' 'twist'),

cećix' 'swollen', çeçek'iwəl 'constipated (wedged in rump)' (çe'k·w 'to wedge'), çeyyə (- əya occasionally) 'ashamed', əfix'q·ə·m ' (mouth) hanging open' (xəeq· 'hang'), əyəq 'soft', wəwist'eq 'jealous', c'ı·c'ək' 'short', c'ı·c'ax·-əməθ 'short (of a person)' (-əməθ 'stature, standing'), əəθ'əmì·l 'thin (of
material, string, dough, etc.'), \textit{xw\textsuperscript{ax}\textsuperscript{way\textsuperscript{iy}-wel} and \textit{xw\textsuperscript{way\textsuperscript{iy}-wel} 'happy', \textit{q\textsuperscript{aw\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{wel} 'tame (of an animal)'}, \textit{met\textsuperscript{met} 'supple, easy to bend (of things, esp. roots)'}, \textit{c\textsuperscript{ic-i\textsuperscript{c-wl} 'be above, high' (\textit{c\textsuperscript{ic}\textsuperscript{ic-wl} 'bushy and uncombed hair ('high hair')'), \textit{k\textsuperscript{aw\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{es} or \textit{k\textsuperscript{aw\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{es} 'hot' (\textit{k\textsuperscript{aw\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{es-get 'get warm(er)'}), \textit{q\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{ey} 'sick; dying' (\textit{q\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{ey 'die, dead'), \textit{f\textsuperscript{f\textsuperscript{f\textsuperscript{e} 'larger, bigger' (\textit{f\textsuperscript{f\textsuperscript{f\textsuperscript{e} 'make it big'), \textit{x\textsuperscript{w\textsuperscript{ax\textsuperscript{w-a or \textit{x\textsuperscript{w\textsuperscript{ax\textsuperscript{w-e 'lightweight', \textit{t\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{sk\textsuperscript{t\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{w} 'muddy' (\textit{t\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{sk\textsuperscript{w} 'get mired in mud'), \textit{k\textsuperscript{ek\textsuperscript{wIs} - \textit{k\textsuperscript{ek\textsuperscript{wIs 'narrow', \textit{k\textsuperscript{aw\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{w-em 'strong (of a person)', \textit{se\textsuperscript{se\textsuperscript{p} 'stubborn', \textit{\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{c}\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{x} 'sacred'}.

Only a few of the examples with reduplication seem to be translated as true participles; in the other examples reduplication forms simple adjectives (often adding a somewhat 'augmentive' meaning to the root, where the root is attested). However a number of examples with reduplication plus -\textit{em} (probably 'middle voice') seem to be more often translated as participles in the English; there are no examples of participial s- plus -\textit{em}, perhaps significantly. Examples with R plus -\textit{em} include: \textit{\textsuperscript{g\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{g\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'chilled, cold (of body)' (\textit{\textsuperscript{g\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{g\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'chilled, cold'), \textit{\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'salty' (\textit{\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{ak\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'salt' (nominal)), \textit{\textsuperscript{se\textsuperscript{se\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'bitter', \textit{\textsuperscript{t\textsuperscript{et\textsuperscript{t\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{h\textsuperscript{em} 'sour (of half-ripe fruit), fermenting', \textit{\textsuperscript{w\textsuperscript{w\textsuperscript{w}\textsuperscript{fix\textsuperscript{y} 'c\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{w} 'stinking', \textit{\textsuperscript{q\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{aq\textsuperscript{et\textsuperscript{et\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{w} 'sweat-tasting', \textit{\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{c\textsuperscript{e\textsuperscript{sem} 'tasty, good-
tasting (of meat, nuts, etc., not sweet things'),
p'êp'xwem (x'w or x'w) 'shy, quiet, not talkative',
páq'wem 'getting' mouldy (taste or smell) (páq'wet 'to rot'), ð'êq'wem 'rotten' (ð'êq'wem 'to rot'),
qêyqëxem - qìqëxem (Cheh.) 'slippery' (qêyqëxem 'slip, skid, slide'), ðêyqëxem 'creepy', tìtëxëm 'slimy'
ðìtìxëm (fish) slime'), p'êp'êk'wem 'smooth (water), calm' (p'êp'êk'w 'floating', pêk'w 'to float, surface'),
(?fìtëtem 'sleepy' has continuative + -ëm though not reduplication).

Functioning in a similar way but possibly not participles are the words inflected with -tem 'be in
a state of (verb)-ness' (probably not from -T + middle
or passive because all examples lack purposeful con-
rol): ðëš'p'q'wëtem 'aching; rheumatism' (also a nominal),
x'wëk'weltem 'numb' (x'wëk'wel 'get numb'), x'wë·x'wëtem
'sexy' (sx'wë·x'wë 'crazy, insane'), ð'ëtëtem 'stretched'
(ð'ët' 'stretch'), së·lc'tëm (c' - ð') 'dizzy' (sel-
'spin', -ëlc 'around, in circles'), q'ëë·mtëm 'absent-
minded' (q'ëë·m 'have a short memory'), ëxëtem 'stiff
(in body, as of arm, leg, etc.)' (cp. synonym šëëk'ë),
që·lpëtem 'cramped' (but cp. q'ëlpëtem 'to cramp, have cramps' and që·qëlpëtem 'cramping'), syëëtem 'poison-
ed' (participial gloss may be from s-; yëë 'to poi-
son'), cx'wëtem 'swelling (of infected sore, balloon,
etc.)' (cp. cecíxw 'swollen'), télstem 'get staggered' (té·lstem 'staggering' and xěxó·welá·stem 'staggering'), and three marginal examples: xěx'ěx·tem '(have) diarrhea' (but cp. xěx'ěx·tem 'continuing diarrhea', root may be xěx'ěx- 'ripped apart'), źětxtem 'tremble' (but źětxtem 'trembling, (thus) shiver, shivering' and źětxó·le·m 'I'm trembling' seems to point to 'passive'), taq'wám·stem 'tuberculosis' (taq'wém 'coughing') may fit here although it seems nominal.

6.1.6. Voice (active, middle, passive). The major question of this section is the middle voice. The active voice in Halkomelem is perhaps best defined as non-passive and non-middle voice. The inflectional affixes and paradigms of the active voice are given and discussed in the chapter on pronouns (4.4, 4.5, 4.8, 4.9, 4.12, and 4.13). The passive voice can be defined as a verb with an object pronoun being acted upon by an unspecified subject pronoun. The inflectional affixes and paradigms of the passive voice are also given and discussed in Chapter 4 (4.10, 4.12, and 4.13). The middle voice can be defined as a verb with a subject pronoun acting on or for itself without an object pronoun. Should this include reflexives and also many intransitives which have a patient (semantically) as subject? In fact, it is difficult to decide
whether there is a middle voice in Halkomelem. In reviewing a list of about 850 intransitive verbs, almost 200 were found with the suffix -ēm (-m - ēm - ē·m - ā·m)(see 6.1.2.2 for this allomorphy). None of the 200 examples are passives. The question is, are all these middle voice or reflexive or intransitivized or are there some of each? Is this -ēm an intransitivizer, a reflexive, or a middle voice, or several of these (two or three homophonous suffixes with the shape -ēm, in addition to the passive -ēm)?

There is no use setting up a "middle-passive" or "medio-passive" -ēm because the nearly 200 examples of the "middle (?)" take pronoun subjects (whether patient or agent semantically) from 4.4 and 4.9, whereas the 'passive' takes its pronoun affixes from 4.10. Compare especially the first and second persons, which contrast clearly in this regard. The term "middle-passive" or "medio-passive" has been used up to now (when used) for third person forms where -ēm 'middle' and -ēm 'passive' forms are homophonous and the voice is unclear, but the terms "middle-passive" or "medio-passive" are probably misleading for Halkomelem.

The nearly 200 examples with -ēm fall into several groups according to their glosses. The first group fits the classical definition of middle voice best.
but also fits as a reflexive:

**Group A:** $x^\text{y}^\text{á} \cdot k^\text{w} \cdot w^\text{em} 'take a bath, bathe (oneself)'  
($x^\text{y}^\text{á} \cdot k^\text{w} \cdot e \cdot t 'bathe s-o', x^\text{y}^\text{í} \text{x}^\text{y} \cdot k^\text{w} \cdot a \cdot m 'swimming''),  
gp^\text{á} \cdot s^\text{em} 'to bend (with one's head down), stoop down,  
put one's face down' (gq\text{p}'\text{á}'s 'face down'), spx\text{w}^\text{e} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'breathe, breathe heavily, sigh, blow  
out one's breath', f\cdot θ^\text{em} 'to dress (oneself)',  
θ^\text{e} \cdot x^\text{á} \cdot s^\text{em} 'wash one's face' (θ^\text{e} \cdot x^\text{w}^\text{es}^\text{em} 'washing one's  
face', θ^\text{e} \cdot x^\text{w} 'wash'), x\cdot x^\text{é} \cdot s^\text{em} - k^\text{w} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'serve one-  
self (food, drink)', pí\text{w}^\text{es}^\text{em} 'cross oneself, make the  
sign of the cross', x\text{w}^\text{ám} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'wash one's head' (-eq^\text{w}  
'on top of head, hair'), t\cdot x^\text{w}^\text{ok}^\text{w} \cdot s^\text{em} 'paint one's  
(own) face' (st\cdot x^\text{w}^\text{ok}^\text{w} 'red clay powder for paint'),  
x\text{w}^\text{ám} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'run (hurry one's feet)' (x\text{w} \cdot x^\text{m} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'run-  
ning', k\cdot x^\text{w} 'hurry; fast'), bow\text{w} \cdot x^\text{ém} 'undress (oneself)'  
(í-owe-iθ'è-m), k\cdot s^\text{p} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot x^\text{em} 'wagging its tail' (cp.  
s-á-k\cdot s^\text{p} 'tail'), h\cdot f\cdot x^\text{e} \cdot s^\text{em} 'cut one's (own) hair'  
(hf\cdot x^\text{e} \cdot t 'cut s-o/s-th'), f\cdot q\cdot x^\text{w}^\text{es}^\text{em} 'wipe one's face'  
(x\text{w} \cdot f\cdot q\cdot x^\text{w} \cdot x\cdot w\cdot f\cdot l\cdot s 'wipe the dishes', f\cdot q\cdot x^\text{w} \cdot s^\text{em} 'rubbed  
off'), seq\cdot w\cdot s^\text{em} - h\cdot q\cdot f\cdot w\cdot s^\text{em} 'put on one's pants'  
(seq\cdot f\cdot s\cdot w's 'pants', -í\cdot w's 'on the body (or covering)')},  
q\cdot x\cdot w\cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot x^\text{em} 'shake one's hips' (q\cdot w\cdot x\cdot w 'shake'),  
t\cdot x\cdot x\cdot s^\text{y} \cdot x^\text{é} \cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'comb one's hair' (tx\cdot x\cdot x\cdot y\cdot l\cdot t 'comb s-o's  
hair'), ex\cdot x\cdot x\cdot θ\cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m - ex\cdot x\cdot x\cdot θ\cdot l^\text{è} \cdot m 'shave oneself (on  
the jaw)' (f\cdot x 'scratch' + -á-θ\cdot o + +f\cdot l + -om),
səə'á'méwsəm 'put on a shawl (shawl oneself)' (cp. səə'á'mes 'a shawl (for the head)' + -əws 'on the body' instead of -əs 'on the face'), root probably < səə'sə̱m 'clothes' + Aa and Aá'), leqə'ləm 'go underwater, submerge oneself' (ləqəm 'dive (into water)'), and possibly qì̱wáq' Wel 'changing one's voice (of an adolescent boy), one's voice is changing' (qì̱wáq 'Wel 'tame (of an animal)', -əm ('one's own'), -qəl 'voice, throat').

More examples could be cited. In all of them the subject is both agent and patient (semantically) and is animate. Most of the examples have somatic suffixes. Other examples which may marginally belong in this set include the remaining examples with somatic suffixes + -əm as well as a few without somatic suffixes:

Group B: melqì̱-wsəm 'to faint' (mélq 'forget', -ì̱-ws 'body', -əm 'one's own'), kì̱wečəwì̱cem 'look back' kì̱weč 'look', -əwì̱c 'on the back (of a person)', -əm 'one's own'), şə̱xə̱xə̱cem 'to itch', sefə̱łəm 'move (oneself), move (oneself) over' (sfə̱T 'move s-th/s-o (over)'), c'ə̱lecem 'take a seat, be seated' (c'ə̱c 'on top of', -lec 'rump', -əm 'one's own'), qey̱xəm 'slip, skid (as of kids on ice or snow for ex.)', ti̱k'á'ləsem and ti̱ə̱θ(i)k'á'səm 'winking' (-ə̱les, -ə́s),

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yeqelcöl 'take his place' (yēq 'change, trade', -lec 'rump', -ēl 'go', -ēm 'one's' > 'go trade one's seat'), qelīyəl 'swear, curse, cursing' (qel 'bad', -áyəl - -eyəl 'lip, jaw', -i-l 'go', -ēm 'one's'), qwashayəl 'make music' ('talk' + 'lip' + 'go' + 'one's'), qwelšəl 'grumble, talk under one's breath' ('talk' + 'in throat' + 'one's')(cp. qwelqwel 'grumble').

If the examples in group B are reflexive they are more covert (semantically) than examples in -lāmət or -(e)əst. However they all seem to have subjects that are simultaneously both agent and patient and are animate. The alternate explanation to an -ēm 'reflexive, one's, oneself' in the examples of the last two paragraphs would be an -ēm 'middle voice'. The examples (especially group A) match examples of middle voice from other languages fairly closely. In any case, it seems that the -ēm of groups A and B is more than just an intransitivizer or else əyəwəsəm, for example, would be 'wash on the face' instead of 'wash one's (own) face'.

A larger group of examples (group C) could be interpreted as reflexives or middles by a stretch of the imagination; in some sense all can be interpreted as action by the subject upon itself or as a state of
being (adjectival, participial) developed by and upon the subject itself with no perceived outside agent. The subject can be agent or patient, animate or inanimate. This group (C) includes the whole list of 15 participles cited in the next to last paragraph of 6.1.5 above (those with -R₁- plus -em). Semantically the following group (C) includes a large number of words for tastes, sounds and visual effects, with some words for smells and tactile feelings and a number for involuntary physical actions (as well as other semantic areas). Omitting those already listed in 6.1.5 (largely tastes ('bitter', 'sour', 'sweet', etc.), smells ('stinking', 'mouldy', etc.), and tactile feelings ('chilled', 'slippery', 'slimy', etc.), these marginal middles include:

Group C: θ'ε'-cem 'to jingle, rattle, clatter, peal, toll', kʷa'-txʷem 'make a banging noise (hammering, banging), roar (falls, etc.), rumble (thunder, quake, slide, for ex.)', ƛ'ε'-yχem - ƛ'ε'-lχem 'to crackle (of fire, firecracker)' (ƛ'ε'-yɛxʷem (y - l) 'crackling'; the variation is unexplained, probably includes errors), ƛ'ɛpʰ̍ʷem - ƛ'ɛmqʷels 'make a crunching or cracking noise (like ice breaking, chewing apples)', lā'-pʰʷem '(make) noise', (possibly kʷa'kʷexʷem 'rapping, knock- ing (in the distance)'), kʷem 'to thud (dull, outside)',

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(possibly së·wc'ém 'sharp rustling (leaves, paper)'
and xʷät'k'wem 'soft rustling (of material); shuff-
ling'), qé·yk'wem 'squeaking sound (tree, chair, shoe,
etc.),' q'wét'c'ém 'gurgling, (make) sound of water
slooshing or gurgling inside', t'sex'q'em 'suction sound
of s-th pulling out of mud', c'wqw'ém 'sizzling (of
grease for ex.),' t'cyfc'ém 'fizzing (of soda, etc.,
of s-th dropped into water)', c' ét'xém - q' ét'xém
'clinking, tinkling (of glass, metal, dishes, ice in
glass, etc.)', wélwel·l'm 'echoing'; p'élq'ém 'sparkle,
glitter, flash', h'sē·wq'em 'to glitter', c'é·lc'ém
'dazzling'; tá·q'wem 'to cough', xë·m 'cry, weep' and
xēyē·m 'sob', hés·em 'to sneeze', x'fq'wem 'snore',
yā·q'wem 'to sweat', k'wēc'ém 'to scream', xéyēm 'to
growl (animals)', xēy'em 'to growl (people)' (xēyeT
'growl at s-o'), k'wā·yē·wem 'to growl (of stomach)',
(q'wélq'wēlel 'grumble' may belong here), q'ëë·m 'have a
short memory'; yā·k'wem 'it broke, to break (of its
own accord)(car, ice, plank, etc.),' pek'wém 'burst
or fly into dust (of airborne seeds, dust, snow), get
dusty', x'wë·yēm 'clear (of river)', t'ē·lk'wem -
té·lq'wem 'warm, lukewarm (of food, drink)', lēq'wem
'warmer (of day)', p'ēq'ém 'to bloom', p'ẽx'wem 'fall
off a plant (of petals, seed fluff, etc.), blow from
plant', leq'élem 'dirty (of water, river)'; q'sē·f'lem
'ancient (of person or thing)', c'f·sem 'grow (of anything animate for ex.)' (c'sí·mt 'grow s-th planted'), ə'q'wém 'to rot (fruit, animal, etc.)', p'á'k'wém 'to smoke' (belongs here when subject is patient; when subject is agent belongs more with intransitivized set)(cp. p'á'k'ámt 'to smudge or smoke s-th out (mosquitoes, flies, etc.)', ḥópl'wém 'brittle', ḥelc'iwélém 'twisted'; x'wëtëlem 'to cloud up' (sx'wëtëtel 'a cloud'), p'á'q'wém 'to foam' and p'á'p'eq'wém 'foaming; beer', p'é·yc'ém 'give off spark(s), sparking' (aspect unclear), ə'ém 'subside, go down (of water or tide)'; sisselc'iyåsem 'turn(ing) around in a circle', q'éwq'é·ylem 'turn around; turn or go around a bend', pálx'wém 'to steam' (pá·léx'wém 'steaming'); c'eté·m 'crawl', léqem 'dive (in)' (hélqem 'diving'), lém 'go, go to, going (to)' (læ is auxiliary verb 'go, going, going (ing) to'), k'wëtx'ì·lem 'go inside, come inside' (sk'wëtx'ì 'be inside (a house, cave, etc.)'), lëw'ì·lem 'go into an opening', x'wëq's'åyëlem 'go downstream', x'wëck'ì·lem '(go) far away' (cák'ì '(be) far'), bim'ëx'åsem 'go for a walk' (< walk (step + upright) + in a circle + middle/reflexive), t'f·c(')ém 'swim (of a person)', x'yëtem 'swim(ming)(of a fish)', sìx'wém 'to wade', ə'q'ëx'è·m 'kneel', x'y'ëpem 'whistle' (cp. x'yìx'pà·m 'whistling'), x'wëf'ì·yë·qëpem '(to) joke'
(xʷə- 'go, become', possibly xʷəʔf- 'arrive, get here', yəʔ- 'change'); qʷóm 'come out (of plants, hair, etc.)', təʔíem 'chilled, cold (of animate being)', sísəm 'feel creepy, fear s-th behind one' (śí:si 'fear, be scared'). All of the examples above (group C) could be alternatively analyzed as intransitivized by an -əm 'intransitivizer'.

The next group shows an -əm 'intransitivizer' which cannot be middle or reflexive. All the examples have subjects which are agents and implied objects which are patients not equivalent to the agent subject. The agent is usually animate. The fact that the agent and patient are different from each other proves that these are neither middle nor reflexive:

Group D: qʷ̑l(•)əm 'to barbecue', bəq̓ли́m 'to button' (łuk šəq̓liš 'it's buttoned'), sîqʷem 'peel (cedar bark)', təm - c'əm 'chew' (tət - c'é: 'chew s-th'), kʷx̓yəm 'count' (kʷx̓yət 'count s-th'), kʷx̓yə:ls 'count'), qá:əm 'dip/pack/fetch water', hím 'pick (fruit, leaves), picking', t'í:əm 'sing', xʷi(y)x̓wiyəm 'tell (children's) stories', ləc'éwtkʷəm 'visit, drop in', rəc'í:əm '(go) through the woods', kʷfí:əm 'get off a canoe' (possibly < kʷwiy 'climb'), təlx̓əm 'tracking, following footprints', cé:1əm 'following (a person)', t'ələfí:1əsəm 'get side by side',

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heqflem 'crawl underneath', xwcems 'he met the place he started' (-es 'in a circle' here; cámteml 'meet each other, elope'), xweqgqeylem 'stick (s-th) down one's throat', táxwsem 'pull a canoe (by rope) (usually in rough water)', p'eskweflem 'eat a snack, throw a meal together of leftovers', cē'eyelem 'spear silver spring salmon (sqwxwsem) in clear water after waiting for them', giyem 'bake (bread), fix (food)' (giyset 'fix oneself up', giy 'fix, make'), kwikwecem 'butchering', ṛxwgeylem 'sit on eggs, brood eggs' ( funcionários 'cover'), kwadlem 'get, fetch' (kwelét 'hold s-th'), giyltxwem 'build a house, make one's home', ṛxwemma 'give, giving' (aspect unclear), ṛeyelem 'marry a sibling of one's deceased spouse' (reye 'sibling of deceased spouse'), cémem 'pack on one's back' (cémel 'pack s-th on one's back'), cmel 'packing s-th on one's back'), cémemē 'pack some (on your back!), pack a bit (on your back)!', kwifyelem 'stingy of food, refuse to give (food)' (kiwyestes 'he refuses s-o s-th', hekwellem 'remember' (cp. hekweles 'remember s-o/s-th'), xwâyem 'to sell' xwáy-met 'sell s-th'), ṛxwem 'win a contest' (possibly cp. rōxw 'cover' or ṛwet 'take advantage of s-o'), ṛxwélwetem 'wash clothes', yēlkwadlem 'close up a meeting, wind up or complete a meeting,
"break the canoe" (give last spirit dance of the season in a given longhouse)'s, csélem 'send for s-th, send with a message' (cséT 'send s-o').

In addition to group D (and possibly group C), the remaining verbs in -em may be examples of an -em 'intransitivizer' as well:

Group E: ḥáq’em 'boiling, boil (?) (of water)', ḥém - hé’m 'finished (of a story), over', x’mé’m 'empty', calé’xem 'bleed', ?iyá’lem 'right, correct, alright, okay, can', (me) txwém 'early', ṭá’yem (e - ð) 'late, slow' (possibly related to ŋá’y 'keep on'), há’q’em 'give off smell' (há’qweT 'smell s-th/s-o', há’q’lex ‘catch scent of s-th', háq’wels 'smelling, sniffing (of an animal)'), ṣ’eq’ém 'drip (once)' and ṭ’eq’em 'dripping continuously', p’á’k’em 'to smoke' (belongs here when agent is human subject and the implied object is a cigarette, pipe, etc.), ḥ’epaxem 'fall down and scatter, drop and scatter (apples, seeds in planting, etc.)', ḥéqem 'whisper' and ḥéq’em 'whispering', hflém 'fall and tumble, tumble', méθ’elqéyélém 'tell a lie, lie' and méθ’élem 'bluff, pretend one knows' (sméθ’el 'proud', -qel 'speech, language' + -íl 'get, go, come'), ?awálem 'play', tè’m - tè’m 'shout, yell, holler', sé’yem 'ache, hurt, sore', ṭeq’olém - ṭeq’lelem 'to still-dip with dip-net' (one or the other is 'con-
tinuative'), ?iʔayá(')m 'walk slow', q'élém 'to camp, make camp', ?i·yá·sem 'having fun', qeliyélem 'swear, curse', q'ewétem 'drumming (for s-o)' (q'ewé 'a drum').

So it seems that there is quite probably a middle voice (if not a reflexivizer) -em, distinct from the -em intransitivizer and from -em 'passive (3rd person)'. The active voice is best defined as non-passive and non-middle. And the passive is used for avoiding specification of subject agent (or for focusing on the object patient), for expressing an impersonal subject (especially with non-second person objects), and for expressing a third person subject with a second person object.

The three voices can also be looked on as Halliday does¹, to paraphrase: a middle clause has only one inherent participant (an actor) ("Hector sneezed", "the cat washed"); a non-middle clause has two inherent participants (actor and goal) but one or the other may not be actualized: the active may lack a goal ("Mary is washing (the clothes)") and the passive may lack an actor ("the clothes have been washed").

6.1.7. Mood (subjunctive ('when, if, uncertainty, with negation), imperative, interrogative). As discussed in detail in 4.9 of the pronoun chapter, with many examples, there is a special set of pronoun suffixes which are used as subject pronouns of verbs prefixed with we- 'if; when', with verbs after negative verbs ꙴ꞉w ꙴ꞉w ꙴ꞉w ꙴ꞉w 'not be, be not', ꙴ꞉w ꙴ꞉w 'if not', ꙴ꞉w ꙴ꞉w 'not yet', and with auxiliary verbs after some interrogative verbs. This inflectional set (4.9) can be called the subjunctive mood, since the term subjunctive mood is used in many other languages for similar syntactic and semantic purposes (hypothetical, negative, and uncertain). It further fits well as a "mood" because it contrasts with the other traditional declarative, imperative and interrogative moods. All four moods are mutually exclusive within a verb; they do not affect object inflection, that is, the same object affixes can be used in all four moods. More will be said of the subjunctive in the syntax chapter, but little needs to be added here to what has been given in discussion, paradigm and example in 4.9. It could be added that even nominals used as verbs (swィyeqeCEL 'I'm a man') can be made subjunctive; (EB) weswィyeqe's qe wesィliyes 'if it's a man or a woman' and (AC) welaleC's 'if it was one person' (both examples show
the morphophonemic rule of vowel combination e + e → ɛ•).

A **declarative mood** can be set up and defined as inflectionally non-subjunctive, non-imperative, and non-interrogative. Most of the verbs given so far in this grammar have been in the declarative mood. More will be said of the declarative in the chapter on syntax since moods have a tendency to be syntactically and semantically transferred to whole phrases and sentences. But here we are discussing verb inflection and there is no overt 'declarative' morpheme (it cannot be the -c- in first and second person subject pronoun suffixes). The declarative verb is merely one which lacks subjunctive, imperative and interrogative morphemes or inflections.

The **imperative mood** gives a command to the hearer or hearers and has several inflective suffixes:

-ɛς [ɛɛ] 'imperative, you (sg.) subject' (not used with negative or auxiliary verbs)

-ɛς [æɛ] 'imperative, you (pl.) subject' (not used with negative or auxiliary verbs)

-ȩ (EB has -tȩ) 'imperative, you (sg.) subject, mildly urging' (used with auxiliary verbs 1ɛ(m) 'go(ing)(to)'
and me - mı 'come, coming')

-ɛɛx 'you sg. subject' substitutes for -ɛς imperative
(most frequent in Cheh. and Tait, less common in Chill., where -ιε is preferred; used also with auxiliaries 1ε(м) and me - me, and used with ιωε or ιωε 'not, don't' in all three dialects; Cheh. and Tait frequently have a more emphatic form -εψ ώα 'you just ...!' < -εψ ώα (ωα - ωα - ωα 'just' as in English "you just do it!"). Also note that since -εψ, -επ, and -ετ are used as imperatives their initial -ε cannot be a declarative morpheme.)

-επ 'you pl. subject' substitutes for -ιε imperative (most frequent in Cheh. and Tait, less common in Chill.; used also with auxiliary and negative verbs in all three dialects)

-ετ, -ετ 'we subject' substitutes as a first person plural imperative when it follows auxiliaries 1ε and me (1εετ - 1εετ 'let's' and 'we're going to', meετ - meετ 'let's (come and)' and 'we're coming to')

-ώε (Chill.), -ώε (Cheh., Tait) 'polite imperative', you sg. subject' (rare, used only in a few phrases: hάγώε - hάγώε 'goodbye (leaver to stayer)' (almost like 'stay well!', hάγ means 'finish'), lέμώε - lέμώε 'goodbye (stayer to leaver, leaver to leaver), go ahead (polite)! ' (like "go well!"); ιειειώε 'you're welcome' (ιειει 'yes'),
"I'm listening" (said while listening to stories)" (AC)

-îq'î 'polite imperative?', you sg. subject' (dubious, only one example: ?emét-îq'î 'Sit down (polite command)!' which contrasts with ?emét-îc k'î 'Sit down then!' which includes k'î 'then').

These imperatives and pronouns used as imperatives are always final in the verb word when they occur. They can be preceded by any intransitivizer, beneficiary suffix (benefactive, reflexive, reciprocal), transitivizer (except -l 'happen to, ...'), object suffix, or voice (except passive). Imperatives have not been attested with continuative aspect, -l transitivizer, participles, nor in the passive, and imperatives cannot co-occur with past or future tense affixes nor with subjunctive or interrogative affixes. Imperative suffixes function in part like subject suffixes and so perhaps also belong in the chapter on pronouns.

The lack of imperatives with -l control verbs and some intransitive verbs (prepositional, adverbial, interrogative, personal pronoun, demonstrative, and some verbs whose action a subject cannot do on command) is quite interesting; it seems the result of morphosememic and/or syntactic incompatibility. The -l
verbs in particular are verbs over which the subject does not have complete control and therefore cannot be ordered to do (see examples below). Examples:

1. (AC): (ʔə)mí-ɨɛ '(you sg.) come!', míy-ɛɨɛ '(you pl.) come!', ʔəmɛt-ɨɛ '(you sg.) sit down!' (also 'sit up!'), ʔəmɛt-ɛɨɛ '(you pl.) sit down/sit up!', ʔɛnyɛl-ɛxɨɛ 'stand up!', pɨxʷ-ɛt-ɨɛ 'brush it!', mɛy-ʔ-ɛxɨɛ 'help me!', mɛy-θ-ɛxɨɛ '(you folks help me!'), ʔɛyelɛxʷ-ɨɛ 'get well!' (not -1 control, cp. ʔɛyelɛxʷɛxʷ 'keep s-o alive'), kʷxɨɛ·m-ɛɛxʷ 'you count!' (said if you already told him once and he stands there stupidly)'

2. (EB): ʔɛsq-st-ɛxʷ-ɨɛ 'put it on board!', pɨxʷ-ɛt-ɛɛxʷ 'brush it!', mɛy-θ-ɛxɨɛ 'help me!', cɛm-ɛt-ɨɛ 'pack it (on your back)!', cɛm-ɛm-ɨɛ 'pack some!', pack a bit (on your back)!', cəxʷɛ·ɛ·ls-ɨɛ 'fry some!', fry a bit!', ʔɛsq-ɛt-ɨɛ 'make or fix it for him!', p'owiy-ɛt-θ-ɛxɨɛ 'patch it for me!', ʔɛsq-st-ɛxʷ-ɛxʷ'à '(just) leave it for him!', ʔəshí-ɛt-ɛxʷ'à 'just you be careful!', tɛsq-ɛet-ɛɛx- miy-ɛɛx tɛsq-ɛt '(you folks) come near!, (you folks) sit in (with us) and eat!' (tɛsq-ɛt 'come close or near', tɛsq 'get up to, approach'), yəqʷ-ɛlɛɛp-θ-ɛxɨɛ 'make a fire for me!', can't say kʷɛl-ɛxʷ-ɨɛ 'find it!' nor kʷɛl-ɛxʷ-ɨɛ 'see it!' (AC agrees)
must use k'w'e'st-ā'ye 'look at it!')

3.(AC): le-ā x'ā'k'w'em 'go bathe!', le-ā mé-yel 'go help him!', le-ā ?ē'yeł 'go away!', le-ā t'ā'k'w 'go home!', le-ā ?eq'et te x'ē'ta 'go widen the path!', mí-tā q'ax'elex' 'come with me!', me-ā q'ā'1-ēt 'come back!', me-ā qá'1-t te qā' 'come get/dip the water!'

4.(ER): lem-tā k'w'é1-em te s(i)yál 'go fetch the wood!', lem-tā ?ē'yeł 'go away!', me-tā ye-sq'ā - mí-tā ye-sq'ā 'come along!' (vs. mí-īs 'come!' and míy-ēs '(you folks) come! (telling them they have to)'), x'ā'1im-eq'éq-ex' 'take care of yourself!', w'6we-cx' w'ātes-et-ex' 'don't touch it!'

5.(AC): w'6we-csp lem-ēp q'ā'1-ēt 'don't you folks go mix (or associate) with them!', w'6we-cx' (we)lem-ex' qelqel-ī'1-ēt-ex' 'don't (when you go) go get yourself dirty!', w'6we-cx' x'ē'ye-eq-eq'ax' ex' 'don't you repeat what I say!', le-ct ?ē'tel 'let's go eat (a meal)!', le-ct hē'we 'let's go hunting!', le-ct t'ā'k'w 'let's go home!; we're going home', le-ct mey-t-āł 'we're going to help you folks'

6.(ER): me-ct ?ē'yel'ex-stex' te s-q'te'1-cet 'let's keep our language alive!', le-ct 1i-ma 'we're going to pick (fruit, etc.), we're going picking', le-ct wimex'y-ās-em 'we're going to go for a walk' (AC 'let's
go for a walk;)

(1œ-ct t'å-k'w (AC) in 5 above could be seen as having the imperative interpretation, 'let's go home!', if the speaker intends first person plural inclusive, and having the declarative interpretation, 'we're going home', if the speaker intends first person plural exclusive.)

The interrogative mood, like the other moods, has syntactic and morphosememic jurisdiction over the whole sentence, and more will be said of it in both Chapters 11 and 13. The most common method of forming interrogatives is syntactic, using interrogative auxiliary verb if at the beginning of the sentence. There are also interrogative verbs which form a distinct set (see 6.7 in this chapter) but which are not inflections. Here we are dealing only with inflections, and the only interrogative inflection found in Upper Stalo Halkomelem is [-e] // -e - -e - -e /// 'interrogative'.

Interrogative [-e] is found in the nine morphological contexts given below. Although only third person sg. is glossed in 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6, all other persons, numbers, and genders occur as interrogative subjects; other persons and numbers are likely in 5 and 8 but are not yet attested.
1. \(\text{li}(\cdot) - \text{li}^{\ominus} - \text{liye}\) (+ pronoun suffixes 4.4) 'Does he ..., Did he ..., Is he ...?' (the latter gloss with statives). \(\text{li}^{\ominus}\) and \(\text{liye}\) are not frequently found, mainly occurring in slow or hyperslow pronunciation; \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) seems to be acceptable in all cases instead, waxing historically while \(\{-\}\) is waning. The answer to \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) (and \(\text{li}^{\ominus}\) or \(\text{liye}\)) questions can be simply \(\text{li}\) 'He does., He did., He is.' (Note that \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) also means 'Does she/it/they ..., etc.' and with suffixes 4.4 interrogates other persons that third person (for ex. \(\text{li}(\cdot)-\epsilon l\) 'Do I ..., Did I ..., Am I ...?). 'He' in 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 is only an abbreviation for these possibilities.)

2. \(\text{li}(\cdot)-\epsilon - \text{li}(\cdot)-\epsilon - \epsilon\) (+ 4.4 suffixes) 'Was he ...?' This is the same interrogative \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) as in 1., but when past tense \(-\epsilon\) is suffixed the \(\{-\}\) follows the \(-\epsilon\). \(-\epsilon\) also varies with \(-\epsilon\), mainly in slower pronunciations of AC. The answer can be \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) 'He was.'

3. \(\text{lème}\) (+ 4.4 suffixes) 'Is he going?, Is he going to ...?' Alternates with \(\text{li}(\cdot)\) \(\text{lém}\) which is translated identically. The answer can be \(\text{lém}\) 'He is going., He is going to ...?'

4. \(\text{sk}^W\text{e}(\cdot)\text{ye} - \text{sk}^W\text{e}\text{ye} - \text{k}^W\text{e}\text{ye} - \text{k}^W\text{e}\text{ye} (+ \text{k}^W(\epsilon) + 4.8 suffixes)\) 'Can't he ...?' Again the \(-\epsilon\) variants seem to appear in slower speech, but otherwise the forms
seem to be in free variation. AC hinted that some people prefer the forms with s- and some do not, but it is unclear whether this is idiolectal or dialectal variation. *lī(·) skʷ́ɛ(·)y is not permitted. The declarative is skʷ́ɛ(·)y (+ kʷ́(ə) + 4.8 pronouns)

'He can't ..., It's impossible that he ...'

5. ?e skʰ'iye 'Do you want ...?' The use of {ə} with skʰ'i(y) is only attested in 2nd person singular so far. skʰ'i(y) is a nominal in Halkomelem but a verb in English; it takes possessive pronoun inflection to show its subject in English (?e skʰ'i(y) is literally 'my want', and becomes 'I want' in smooth English translation). The interrogative lī(·) ?e skʰ'i 'Do you want ...?' is much more common than ?e skʰ'iye; ?e skʰ'iye seems like a remnant of a once more common inflection.

6. ?ewə (+ 4.4 pronoun suffixes) 'Doesn't he ...?'
    ?ewə-ə (+ 4.4 pronouns) 'Didn't he ...?'
    (?ə)wə́.tə (+ 4.6 pronouns) 'Doesn't he have any ...

All three interrogatives are based on ?ewə 'is not, does not, etc.' + -ɛ(·); the second adds -ə 'past tense' before the interrogative; the third adds -tə 'body, -thing'. Compare ?ewə 'he is not, he doesn't', ?ewə́ 'he didn't, he wasn't', and (?ə)wə́.tə 'none, nobody, nothing'. *lī(·) ?ewə (+ 4.4), *lī(·) ?ewə́ (+ 4.4), and *lī(·) (?ə)wə́.tə are not permitted.
7. ḥá', possibly ḥáʔ or ḥáʔə 'Is that...?', Is it ...
? Compare ḥá 'that is ..., it is ...'. The traces of -ə -ɛ here are very tenuous but apparently present.

8. lewɛə 'Is it you?' was recorded twice from AC and seems to indicate the interrogative suffixed to pronominal verbs. Compare lēwe 'it is you'.

9. spɛʔə 'Is it a bear?' and sc'áʔə 'Is it a leaf?' were each recorded once from AC. They seem (if not errors) to indicate that nouns used as verbs can be made interrogative with [-ə]. Compare spɛʔ (used all by itself) 'It is a bear.' and sc'áʔ (used alone) 'It is a leaf.' The cognate construction in Musqueam dialect Halkomelem is spɛʔə ?ə 'Is it a bear?' with ?ə 'interrogative'.² It should be noted however that this construction is not common in Upper Stalo dialects. And the alternates li· spɛʔ (or liye spɛʔə) are found 95% of the time instead.

Examples (from AC except where marked):
1. liyečəxʷ k'M̕y̕əm (slow) 'Are you strong?'
ličəxʷ léyəm (normal), liyečəxʷ léyəm (slow) 'Are you laughing?'

---

liyə me k'wetx'ilem te sq'wemey 'Is the dog inside?'
liyəcəl si'siləmk 'Did I scare you?'
li?e qəx 'Is there a lot?' (li? qəx 'There is a lot.')
(EB) liyəcex' hək'weles 'Do you remember?'
2. li(*Alcəl mməiyət Θ Θ Mary 'Was I helping Mary?'
li*Alcət mməiyət Θ Mary 'Were we helping Mary?'
li*Alcex' mməiyət Θ Mary 'Were you (sg.) helping Mary?'
li*Alcəp mməiyət Θ Mary 'Were you folks helping Mary?'
li*Alc mməiyətes tūk'ə Θ Mary 'Was he helping Mary?'
(EB) li*Alcəp ləm k'we təwəl 'Did you folks go to town?'
(Cp. li*Alc el 'I was.' and li*Alc et 'We were. ')
3. ləmekəl 'Am I going?'
ləmekex' 'Are you going?'
ləme ?e*itəl 'Are they going?'
ləme yiel 'Are those people going?'
(AC,NP) ləmekex' tə*kw 'Are you going home?'
(EB) ləmekəp təwəl 'Are you folks going to town?'
(Cp. li* ləm ?e*itəl 'Are they going?' and li* ləm 'Is he going? ')
4. sk'wəye k'wels k'wəcləx' - sk'wəys k'wels k'wəcləx'
'Can't I see it?'
sk'wəye (~ sk'wəye) k'wəs k'wəcləx' 'Can't you see it?'
sk'wəye k'w(e)s k'wəcləx' 'Can't he see it?'
sk'wəye k'wəs k'wəcləx' 'Can't we see it?'
sk'wəye k'wəs k'wəcləx'cep 'Can't you folks see it?'

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k'wé:ys k'wes k'wéclaxw 'Can't you see it?'
k'wé:ys k'wes k'wéclaxwelc 'Can't you folk see it?'
(Cp. sk'wé:y k'wals k'wéclaxw 'I can't see it.', etc.
and liʔiyá:lom k'wals k'wéclaxw 'Can I see it?')
5. ?e sk'íye k'wé qá. 'Do you want some water?'
liʔ ?e sk'í:k'wé qá. 'Do you want some water?'
6. ?éwé lís yéstáləm 'Did(n't) they tell you folk?,' Weren't you folk told?
?éwé ?e sk'íye k'wes k'wéclaxwcat 'Don't you want us to see it?'
?éwé li te t'ilmeetəm te syiwéls 'Didn't he ever sing his spirit song to you?'
wé:te ?e sméyəθ 'Have(n't) you got any meat?' (lit.
'Is it none, your meat?')
?éwétə k'wé le q'wésə:lm 'Did nobody/Didn't anybody speak to you?' ('Is it nobody that spoke to you?')
(EB) wé:te st'élmexw 'Do(n't) you have any medicine?'
(lit. 'Is it none, the medicine?')(a more strict translation would be 'Is(n't) there any medicine?')
(Cp. ?éwe lís yéstáləm 'They didn't tell you folk,' You folk weren't told.', ?éwe le k'wéclə:m 'He didn't see you., You weren't seen.', and ?éwétə k'wé le q'wésə:lm 'Nobody spoke to you.')
7. k'á:k'wel méle 'Is that my child? (you're talking about' (unclosed parenthesis within a gloss indi-


cates semantic context)

k'á· (- k'á·) k'we spéθel 'Is it the prairie?'

k'á·'e su léms yiθə 'Are those people going?' (k'á· ?ɛsu?)

(Cp. k'á tel méle 'That's my child. ')

8. lwé· 'Is it you?'

lwé·, ídi 'Is it you, Edie?'

(Cp. lwé 'It's you (sg.)')

9. spé·θe 'Is it a bear?' (rare)

sc'á·'eθ 'Is it a leaf?' (rare)

(Cp. spé·θ 'It's a bear.', sc'á·θe 'It's a leaf.',

and lí· spé·θ 'Is it a bear?' (AC, MC, etc.))

6.1.8. Tense (present, past, future). Present
tense is the catch-all tense, used to indicate present
action (which must be continuing as the speaker speaks
---continuative aspect), habitual action (which may be
spread over past, present, and future), momentaneous
action (which the speaker is about to perform --- non-
continuative aspect), and past action (historical
present in narratives, legends, etc.). Present tense
is the unmarked tense. Past tense is marked by {-í}
on a preposed auxiliary verb or syntactically by pre-
posing subject pronoun affixes of 4.4. It can refer
to past time of any depth, duration or iteration. It
can also be used interchangeably with historical pre-
sent in narratives or stories. Future tense is
marked by verb final {-ce} or syntactically by auxiliary la 'going to' (as in English "I'm going to go."). It can refer to future action of any depth, duration or iteration, but it cannot begin momentaneous to the time of speaking -- that is, the action may be imminent in five minutes, five hours or fifty years but not in five seconds with the actor already poised to begin (that would be present non-continuative).

Future is also translated by 'will' + verb + 'in a while'. The same pronoun sets are used for all three tenses. Some examples will contrast the tenses:

p'εθ'cel 'I sew, I'm going to sew (momentarily, holding the needle)', p'εθ'celce 'I'll sew (in five minutes, five hours, or tomorrow)', p'εp'εθ'cel 'I'm sewing', p'εp'εθ'celce 'I'll be sewing', (?θ·ɛ)cel p'ε·θ'et 'I sewed s-th', (?θ·ɛ)cel p'εp'εθ'et 'I was sewing s-th'.

Many examples of the present tense have been given already in this chapter and chapter 4; since there is no inflection for the present, not much need be added here.

Similarly, the inflection for future is quite straightforward: -ce is added as the last suffix on the verb word. There are no complications except for the auxiliary future: le + subject pronoun suffix
(set 4.4) + verb (as in lsecel méyémée 'I'm going to help you'.). In this latter construction some displacement from the site of the speech event is usually also implied — that is, the speaker is literally going somewhere to perform the action. It is unclear at present whether this displacement is future or momentaneous present or either one; AC implied that it could be either one. Some examples of the -ce future follow, showing its co-occurrence with most of the other verb inflections:

p'ékce 'it will float'

k'áce 'that will be, it will be (him, her, them)'

sélci'mec 'how shall ..., how should ...?'

sk'ýce k'swels mélqles 'I'll never forget s-o/s-th'

(lit. 'it will be impossible that I forget s-o/s-th')

lícse sp'sp'ék 'Will it float?'

lýyece lêm 'Will he go?' (Mamie Cooper)

?swecse me k'sélélémé 'I won't be seen., Nobody will see me.'

wécse lemél yewé ' (Won't you take me along?), Will you
take me along?, Can I go along?'

θ'fíq'wamócélcs 'I will punch you'

q'waq'wamócélce 'I'll hit you accidentally'

ste?restwesce 'they will follow him, they will do like
him' ('they' and 'him' could be replaced in other
contexts than the one in which ste?estexwescce was elicited by 'he/she/it/they' and 'her/it/them')

?el?éliyeméamécalce 'I'll dream about you'

κ'f'lsàxwescce - κ'f'lsíxwescce 'he/she/they will like me'

fic'elicamécalce 'I'll cut it off for you'

t'it'elemcalce - calce t'it'elem 'I'll be singing' (AC uncertain on this)

mélqiwsemcalce 'I'll faint'

γeywelemcs 'you'll be warned, s-o will warn you'

k'wéclamcs 'you'll be seen'

?éyselement 'I'll be liked'

licxw sêq'el'exw welémesce 'Do you know if he'll go?'

There are no examples with imperatives. No examples have yet turned up of -ce with reflexives or participles but they are likely to occur.

The inflections for past are somewhat more complex. The following constructions and inflections are employed for past tense:

1. Present forms can be translated as past in a narrative context (as mentioned above), even narrative in conversation, and after past time adverbial verbs (like 'before', 'long ago', etc.).

2. A past tense is formed by pre-posing subject pronouns in set 4.4 as independent words in front of
the verb (see pronoun chapter under 4.4); this is sometimes also translated by present tense, perhaps depending on context.

3. Subject pronouns 4.4 can be suffixed to a meaningless auxiliary verb ?6 ?6 ([?I] - [?6]) and remain pre-posed to the main verb; this construction seems to be used like the past tense in 2 just above. Also {?6} + t'we 'must' + weł 'already' (//?6 t'we weł// → /?6t'wo(w)ž/ - /?6t'wo(w)ž/ 'must have, must have been'.

4. Subject pronouns 4.4 can be affixed to the past tense suffix -ž; -ž usually is affixed to an auxiliary or negative or interrogative verb preceding the main verb. There are many types of these constructions, and none can be translated with present tense;

4.1. ?I-ž-4.4 m.v.(=main verb) past tense

  ?I-ž-4.4 t'we m.v. 'must have, must have been'

  ?I-ž ?iyä.'lem k'w-4.8-s m.v. 'could have'

4.2. d.a.(=demonstrative article) ?f-ž 4.6 s-subord.verb past relative (as in 'what you folks wanted!')

  d.a. ?I-ž (1o) subord.verb past relative
  (as in 'the one who escaped')

  d.a.-4.8-s ?f-ž subord.verb past subordinate
  (as in 'it was loud, your past laughing')

  d.a.-4.6 sxw-subord.verb-ž past relative (as
in 'where I used to walk')

4.3. 1f·-±-±-4.4 m.v. past tense

4.4. 1f·-±-±-4.4 m.v. past interrogative

4.5. 1ém-Œ-±-4.4 m.v. auxiliary past with 1e(m)

mf·-±-4.4 m.v. auxiliary past with mf·

4.6. ?ew·-±-±-4.4 m.v. - ?ew·-4.4-1 m.v. negative past habitual, 'never'

?ew-Œ-±-4.4 (?f·, 1f·)-4.9b m.v. negative past habitual, 'never'

?ew-Œ-±-4.4 m.v.-4.9a negative past habitual, 'never'

?ew-Œ-±-±-4.4 (?f·-4.9b) m.v. neg. past habitual, 'never'

4.7. ?ew-Œ-±-4.4 (1e) m.v. neg. past interrogative

4.8. adverbial Vi-Œ past adverbial

(we± 'already' is an adverbial verb or particle which may have -± 'past' or lack it; its derivation is unclear. le we± m.v. is a completive construction generally in the past because of pre-posed le (note that le we± always → /luž/); but if we± (the interrogative version of le we±) shows present is possible as well as past: if we± lém 'Is he already gone?, Has he already gone?'. we± is often merged with preceding unstressed words and becomes -w± or -u± (as in luž, k'ewθiθ (AC) - k'uwθ (BB, et al), ?st'wež - ?st'wo(w)ž).
Examples:
1. yeestex'cex 'you told him, you tell him'
yeestálxwes 'he told us, he tells us'
lícxw xe?ì-lxw 'did you bring it?'
le héwe 'has he gone hunting?'
liye méyè'm 'were you helped?'
'ýeyèlm 'I was liked, I am liked' (Passives are usually translated with past tense. Questions often are too.)
ýit yót'e k'wes xe?ì's k'we xe?ìët 'He said he'd come on Sunday.'
ylícxw yót'e k'wes me méyè'x 'You said you were coming to help me.'
leis leq'ëlêx 'She knew long ago.'
yélw xe?ìët k'wes xe?ì 'He came after Sunday.'
yélmleks k'wes xe?ì to xe'lëfem 'before the white man came'
2. cel ?á'xwest 'I gave it'
cel yeestex 'I told him'
le petlaxwes 'he recognized me'
le lêm 'he went'
le lêm tláwyë 'he went today'
le lêm héwe 'he's gone hunting'
'ficexw tus?éy?ël k'wes le léym 'you were laughing softly'
temtém k’was le ñiyt 'When did you make it?'

(Normally subordinated past uses le (in any person).)

cel k’wéclámè 'I saw you'
le c’eméex’ès 'he bit me'
le méyè’à’m 'you were helped'
le méytem 'he was helped'
le méyèèlèm 'I was helped'
le k’wéclèlèm 'I was seen'
le q’aq’él 'he was talking'
le q’èlq’élètel 'they were talking together'

(The next four examples show present translation in spite of inversion.)

cel ?f’k’wélà 'I'm here'
le ?f’k’wélà 'he's here'
cel t’ft’élèm 'I'm singing'
cel f’m 'I'm picking (fruit)'
le ?élètel 'he (she, etc.) ate a meal'
le ?f’élètel 'he’s (she’s, etc.) eating a meal'
3. ?élélèm 'I went' (cp. cel lèm 'I went')
(?élélèm, ?éçex, ?éçet, ?éçep) ?élètel '(I, you, we, you folks) ate a meal'

(Note: {?} is not found in third person, only le.)

?élélèm f’í’c 'I got cut'

?éçex x’ylí’s 'you went into fatal shock'
?élél k’wéclèx 'I saw him, I see him'
?écel ʔá·lem 'I got cold'
?écel ʔá·q·q·e·lem 'I'm still cold'
(ʔé)cel cá·léxʷem 'I'm bleeding'
ʔácexʷ xʷéʔiyet (or xʷeʔí·t); ?éwebel xe·áməet 'What did you say?; I didn't understand.'
?écel sí·silàlə 'I scared you folks'
ʔét'éwo(w)í lèm 'He must have gone., He/She/It/They must be gone.'
4.1. ?é lèm 'he's gone, he went'
(?é·í·cel, ?í·í·céxʷ, ?í·í·cét, ?í·í·cép) lèm '(I, you, we, you folks) went'
?é·í·sí·te 'he said'
?í·í·céxʷ ?í·kʷelà 'you were here'
?í·í·céxʷ lí·tf kʷes t'í·te·ləm 'you were over there singing'
?í·í·cel t'í·te·ləm 'I was singing'
?í·í·céxʷ lé·í̑̕lxə 'you were laughing at me'
?í·í·cel (cel, -céxʷ, -cét, -cép) q’áq’ey '((I, you, we, you folks) was/were sick'
?í·í q’áq’ey ʔóq’á 'she was sick'
?í·í·cel xʷé·q·q·el 'I was interpreting'
?í·í·céxʷ ?élcə 'where have you been?, where were you?'
?í·í·céxʷ xʷəf·í·(ye)t 'what were you doing?'
?í·í·cel l’we ?í·tet 'I must have been sleeping/asleep'
?í·í yálem k’ws ?é·te·lələp 'you folks could have
eaten' (lit. "it was alright that you folks eat")

4.2. te ?f•z •se sk'fyselop 'what you folks wanted'
   te ?f•z lë h•f•w 'the one who escaped'
   xeayiwel tel sq'wilwel k'xes lë tës te ?f•z •se sk'wa•l
   'I'm happy (my thoughts/feelings are happy) that
   it has come to (the occasion of) your past birth.'
   (translation by NP of the Happy Birthday song)

?f•zcx'w sef•qal k'xes ?f•z lë(•)yem 'You were laughing
   loudly.'

tel sx'w?f•mex'yel 'where I used to walk' (from a song
   as sung by CT)

4.3. l'f•z(cel, -cx'w, -cet, -cep) q'áq'ey 'I, you,
   we, you folks) were sick'
   l'f•z q'áq'ey (tu•k•e, tøk•k•e, yeøø) '(he, she, they)
   was/were sick:

l'f•z cel hë•we 'I've been hunting'

l'f•z cel le t'ák'w 'I went home'

l'f•z cel 'I was'

l'f•z cet 'we were'

l'f•z ?fysën•m 'you were helped'

l'f•z cel q'weyl•ex'w 'I was dancing'

l'f•z cel le q'weyl•ex'w 'I went dancing'

4.4. l'f•z(cel, -cx'w, -cet, -cep) memiyet òe Mary

   '(Was I, Were you, Were we, Were you folks) helping
   Mary?'
"Was he helping Mary?"
"Were they (those people) there?"
"Were they there?"
"Were you there?"
"Were you crying?"
"Did you folks go to town?"
"I was going to help you"
"You were going to help me"
"You were coming to help me"
"I don't speak to you., I never speak to you."
"You don't speak to me., You never speak to me."
"(He, She) doesn't speak to me., (He, She) never speaks to me."
"We (don't, never) speak to you."
"You folks (don't, never) speak to us."
"I never go"
"I never go mix (with them)"
"He doesn't see you folks., You folks are never seen."
"I wasn't seen., (I was never seen)"
"(cp. I wasn't seen.)"
stand.'
'ëwež tel·ámët 'He doesn't understand.' 
'ëxÆk'wëlcëms/x'ëfät ëss 'ëwež qël'ëlsëlax 'Why is it you don't talk to me?' (ëss probably sic for k'ëss)
(The next five examples are from EB;)
'ëwežcel k'wë-ë-y (and 'ëwežcel k'wëk'wey) 'I'm never hungry.'
'ëwežcel x'ëlsëlëm 'I never listen.'
'ëwež ëfitë 'He never sleeps.'
'ëwež ëlë 'He never cries.'
ëk'wëk'ës ëss ëwež ëc'k'wëlës 'Why don't you (ever) remember?' (k'wës is hyperslow equivalent of k'ës and is found in EB's idiolect but not in AC's)
(The remaining examples are from AC unless noted.)
'ëwežcel ?íl sk'fë.teqëz ëf 'ëwežcel sk'fë.teqëzël 'I wasn't a child., (I wasn't ever a child.)'
'ëwežcel x'ëlf'hëx'ëqe 'You weren't a child.'
'ëwežcel ëf'ëlf 'I was never there.'
'ëwežçx'ël tel·ámët 'You don't understand.'
'ëwežçÇpë tel·ámët 'You (pl.) don't understand.'
4.7. 'ëwež le t'ëlmëtëm te sywëls 'Didn't he ever sing you his spirit song?' (This is the only example of 4.7 but is convincing because 'ëwe is negative interrogative, as in 'ëweçx'ël'mëx 'Will you go?' or 'ëweçx'ël't'ëlmëx 'Will you sing?, (Won't you
sing?)

4.8. ḣeq'e 'used to' as in ḣeq'e ɣet'e yé xʷelxew' 
'the people used to say' (EB) and (EB) ḣeq'e wiyáč
č'el'yéč yé xʷelxew' k'wuñ'čeč 'The (Indian) peo-
ple used to pray all the time long ago.' (AC would
have č'el'č'č'č' 'pray'; k'wuñ'č'č' < k'we wiyáč hčč'
'what' + 'already' + 'is a long time' + past tense)
(AC) lč'etč 'morning' (s-lč't 'night', lč'et or lč lč't
'getting night', -č' 'past')
(AC) spelwč 'last year'
(AC, EB) celéqč 'yesterday' and celéqčč 'it was
yesterday' (latter is used in sentences more than
the former)

6.1.9. Plurals and Diminutive (plural subject,
plural object, plural action, plural completive,
repeated action, and diminuitive). In something over
1200 verbs, 53 were found with special inflections for
plurality. Since all but one or two were volunteered
without being asked for the pattern is apparently
quite productive in the language. Most of the forms
came from the Coqualeetza Elders Group or EB; few came
from AC but she also knew fewer nominal plurals. The
pattern for pluralizing verbs is much the same as for
pluralizing nominals: reduplication R₂-, less often
-R₂, and sometimes infix -le- or -e1-. The suffix
-f·m 'repeatedly' (treated as a lexical suffix in the previous chapter) seems to also belong here. These inflections can semantically pluralize the subject, the object or the action; this pluralizing often includes a 'continuative' aspect; an additional type will also be cited in which pluralization includes a 'completive' meaning.

When the subject or object is pluralized, the corresponding pronoun must be plural too if possible (unless the semantic subject or object is a body part). Note that subject and object pluralizing is done in the examples only with R₂ - or -el- -le-. Action pluralizing is done with -R₂, R₂-, or -f·m.

1. Plural subject (agent):
 Hzem·f·m 'lots of people picking' (Hz·m 'pick, picking (fruit, leaves, etc.)')
 lilek·y·lts 'a bunch playing cards' (1ek·y·lts 'one person playing cards (solitaire or patience)' (-le- and Ai))
 possibly pes·pţ 'get crowded out' (pţ 'get crowded')

2. Plural subject (patient):
 x·w·x·w·x·p·x·yel 'slip with both feet, lose balance with both feet' (x·w·x·p·x·yel 'slip off or lose balance with foot', x·w·x·p·x·yel 'slipping off with foot')
 s·tek·w·f·k·w 'a lot of people lost and presumed dead'
(sʔá:kʷ 'one person lost and presumed dead', sʔá:kʷ 'lost')
meqʷmeqʷ 'squished, crushed (of round plural objects,
like berries)' (meqʷ 'squished, crushed (of round
object'))
ʔá:leqʷ 'a lot rubbed off' (ʔfqʷem 'smear, rubbed
off, fade (of material)')
θ'elθ'oplexʷ '(lots of) eyes being closed; wineber-
ries' (both θ' - c')(θ'elθ'oplexʷ 'one eye being
closed, closing one's eye')
ʔel(e)yámexʷ '(plural) good-looking' (as in θel(e)yámexʷ
sielθ'elθ 'good-looking women') (θyámexʷ '(sg.) good-
looking')
possibly lec'la·c'tel 'be of different colors, be var-
iegated' (lc'c' 'be different')
possibly st'alt'selq 'spotted with lots of spots'
(st'selq 'spotted')
.3. Plural object:
pəqʷpəqʷet 'break it in pieces (with hands)' (pəqʷát
'break it in half with hands (apple, orange, etc.)')
pəqʷpəqʷ 'broken off in pieces (riverbank, etc.)'
seq'seq'et 'chopping lots of wood' (seq'et 'chop wood',
seq'et 'split s-th', sisq 'kindling')
lemlémet 'fold things (like the laundry)(pl. obj.)'
ʔy'eyʔiyem 'tell stories' (ʔiyem 'tell a story')
Išąqʷet 'wetting many things' (Išqʷet 'wet s-th',
Išqʷ 'be wet')
Iščəqʷet 'put down several objects' (Išqʷet 'put/lay
s-th down, put down one object')

.4. Plural action:
xʷexʷemxʷelf·m 'running on and off' (xʷamxʷelem 'run-
ning')

For derivation of other examples in -f·m 'repeatedly',
c'ec'ək'f·m 'jumping up and down, jumping along, jump-
ing repeatedly', tətif·m 'hollering more than once,
shouting repeatedly', t'ec'əxf·m 'splitting roots
unevenly', xʷtətifi·m 'eddy water, to eddy upstream'
(become upstream repeatedly), xʷalk'f·m 'an eddy'
(nominal < petrified verb), x'y'c'f·məet 'repeatedly
smell oneself stink', see lexical suffixes under -f·m
'repeatedly'.

Inflection by reduplication:
t'elət'səqʷels 'scratching repeatedly to get in'
(t'səqʷels 'scratching to get in')
t'elət'səqʷetes 'it has scratched s-th up' (cp.
t'səqʷetes 'he scratched on s-th')
t'elət'səlem 'continuing on singing (songs)'
kʷamkwem 'thudding of footsteps on ground (person,
horse, etc.)' (kʷem 'to thud (dull, earthen sound)')
k'ələkʷələqʷ 'making continuous explosions or shooting
or popping sounds' (λ*nλq\textsuperscript{W} 'to explode, make a pop or shot')
q\textsuperscript{E}λq\textsuperscript{Y}ey 'always sickly' (q\textsuperscript{A}q\textsuperscript{E}y 'sick; dying')
λm\textsuperscript{W}mex\textsuperscript{W} 'rainy (off and on)' (λmex\textsuperscript{W} 'to rain')
y\textsuperscript{E}λy\textsuperscript{E}lesem '(have) a steady toothache' (y\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}s 'tooth')
e\textsuperscript{E}p\textsuperscript{E}p\textsuperscript{E}nex\textsuperscript{W} 'blinking' (e\textsuperscript{E}plex\textsuperscript{W} 'blink once, close eyes once')
q\textsuperscript{W}elq\textsuperscript{W}el\textsuperscript{E}lem 'grumble', q\textsuperscript{W}elq\textsuperscript{W}el 'be rowdy', and
q\textsuperscript{W}elq\textsuperscript{W}el\textsuperscript{E}y\textsuperscript{E}el 'talk(ing) too much' (q\textsuperscript{W}et\textsuperscript{L} 'talk')
l\textsuperscript{T}y\textsuperscript{E}ly\textsuperscript{E}m '(doing) lots of laughing' (l\textsuperscript{T}y\textsuperscript{E}m 'to laugh')
le\textsuperscript{E}mem\textsuperscript{E}Tes 'he kicked them around (shoes, for ex.)'
(le\textsuperscript{E}Tes 'he kicked s-th')
k\textsuperscript{W}\textsuperscript{E}ck\textsuperscript{W}e\textsuperscript{T}\textsuperscript{E}c(m\textsuperscript{E}T) 'expect (s-o)' ('look repeatedly (for s-o')
w\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}m 'echoing'
?\textsuperscript{E}c\textsuperscript{E}c 'stuttering'
possibly q\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}f\textsuperscript{E}l\textsuperscript{E}f\textsuperscript{E}et 'get oneself dirty' (q\textsuperscript{E}l 'bad, dirty', R\textsubscript{3} 'plural, repeatedly', -f\textsuperscript{L} 'go, get, become', -et 'oneself')

5. Plural > 'completive' (often translated by past participle + 'up')
\textsuperscript{X}et\textsuperscript{W}et 'torn up (in pieces)' (\textsuperscript{X}et 'torn (as of clothes, etc.))'
\textsuperscript{L}k\textsuperscript{W}lek\textsuperscript{W} 'all broken up (of sticks, of bones (in multiple breaks like in accident))' (\textsuperscript{L}k \textsuperscript{W} 'broken (of
bone or stick')
\(\gamma\epsilon\rho\gamma\epsilon\rho k^\wedge t\epsilon s\ 'he chewed up s-th hard' (\gamma\epsilon\rho k^\wedge t\epsilon s 'he chewed s-th hard')
\(q^\wedge w^\wedge 'lq^\wedge w^\wedge 'el 'overripe' (q^\wedge w^\wedge 'l 'ripe; cooked')
possibly \(p\epsilon\rho\epsilon\delta\ 'get crowded out' and \(t^\epsilon\epsilon t^\epsilon \delta^\epsilon q^\wedge t\epsilon s\ 'it has scratched s-th up', both cited above (in 1 and 4 respectively)
\(\epsilon^\epsilon x^\wedge w^\wedge 'x^\wedge t^\epsilon m 'badly beaten, really lost (a contest)'

In a few examples there is stress shifting which may be derivational but seems to play no consistent part in the pluralizing process. (Incidentally it seems that both \(y^\epsilon\delta\epsilon\epsilon l^\epsilon\epsilon e^\epsilon l^\epsilon\epsilon s^\epsilon m\ and \(\epsilon^\epsilon x^\wedge w^\wedge 'x^\wedge t^\epsilon m\ have CVCVC roots and must have stressed \(R_3 since \(R_2 is suffixed to roots.)

.6. Diminutivization:

A few examples have also turned up of diminutivized verbs, using \(R_4^\epsilon\epsilon m\ as their inflection just as nominals do. The process is so much like pluralizing that the examples may as well be given here:
\(z\epsilon i\epsilon i\epsilon m 'picking a little (bit)' (\epsilon i\epsilon m 'pick, picking (fruit, leaves)')
\(q\epsilon i\epsilon l 'be a little bad, be naughty' (q\epsilon l 'be bad')
\(k^\wedge w^\wedge i\epsilon k^\wedge w^\wedge c\epsilon \epsilon m 'scream a little, squeal' (k^\wedge w^\wedge i\epsilon k^\wedge w^\wedge c\epsilon \epsilon m 'to scream')
\(\varphi i\epsilon s\epsilon x^\epsilon \Theta 'little baby lying down' (\varphi \epsilon x^\epsilon \Theta 'lie down',

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?e·xøθ 'lying down')
qiqlé·m 'weak' (qelé·m 'weak', presumably more so than qiqlé·m))
sxwixwaxøθ 'be stupid, be a little crazy' (sxwaxøθ 'be insane, be crazy')
ξixøm 'to sob' (ξø·m 'to weep, cry')
seši·si 'scared a little' (se·si '(be) scared', R₅- or a dissimilation from *sisi·si)
qwiqweləc 'to gossip' (little talk on the rump)

As with the pluralized verbs, the diminutive sometimes applies to the subject (?i?=ξøθ), sometimes to the object (ξii·m), and most of the time to the action (all the rest of the examples, perhaps including ξii·m). There is more stress shifting here than in the pluralized examples since R₄- is supposed to be stressed.

6.1.10. Internal Syntax of the Verb and Co-occurrence of Verb Inflections. Verb inflections are prefixed, infixed and suffixed, and these processes are sometimes combined for one inflection. Where there is more than one prefix, more than one infix, or more than one suffix they can be seen to be added in particular sequences. Infixing processes are used for continuative (6.1.4), participles (6.1.5) and pluralized verbs (6.1.9) and include R, A, stress shift,
vowel metathesis, and -el- ~ -le-. It seems these processes occur in a certain order as processes, regardless of the inflections they are used for. From examples like θ'ελιθεξπλενω 'eyes being closed', τισιμ 'picking a little', ηισεξθε 'little baby lying down', and so on, we can infer the order of these processes to be: first reduplication, then ablaut or vowel metathesis, then -el- ~ -le-, then stress shift. Examples from nominal inflection confirm this order.

The following prefixes are used in verb inflection: {hs-} 'continuative', R5- and R8- 'continuative', s- and s- + R 'participle', we- 'subjunctive', R2- 'plural', and R4- 'diminutive'. There are few examples of any of these occurring together (like sxωίςεξ(·)θε 'a little crazy, stupid'), but several things can be noted from what occurs and what does not. There are no examples of reduplication prefixed twice in the same word; there are no examples of participles prefixed with {hs-}; participles are all continuative semantically whether reduplicated or not, but if the participial R is continuative prefixed R5- or R8-, as it sometimes is, note that the participial s- always precedes it. Since the following pairs do not co-occur, {hs-} and R-, {hs-} and s-, R- and R-, the internal syntax of verb prefix inflections can be summed up as:
s- precedes R- ('diminutive', 'continuative', 'participial'), and we- 'subjunctive' precedes s- 'participial' or he- 'continuative' or R- ('continuative', 'participial', 'plural' or 'diminutive').

There are many more verb suffixes than prefixes and infixes, but their internal syntax can be described by charts after grouping them in the following sets:

Subj. = pronoun sets 4.4, 4.8 (3rd person, 1st and 2nd persons pl.), 4.9a
Obj. = pronoun set 4.5
Pass. = pronoun set 4.10
Trans. = control transitive in 6.1.2.1 (-eT, -l, -sT, -eY, -mT, -e1es)
Intr. = intransitive in 6.1.2.2 (-em, -e1s, -eet)
Ben. = benefactive -e+c in 6.1.3
Refl. = -e+l and -(e)et in 6.1.3
Recip. = -tel in 6.1.3
Cont. = -R in 6.1.4 (the only continuative suffix)
Ppl. = participial suffixes -em (probably 'middle') and -tem in 6.1.5
Ppl. (R) = participle suffix -R in 6.1.5
Mid. = -em 'middle voice' in 6.1.6
Imper. = imperative suffixes in 6.1.7 (-e, -e1, -(t)h, -eW, -eP, -eet, -eWet, -eWet, -eWet)
Interrog. = -e - e - e as in 6.1.7
Past = -t (i.e. -t, -et, -e1, -e) as in 6.1.8
Fut. = -ce as in 6.1.8
Pl. = pluralizer -R as in 6.1.9
X = lexical suffix
Aux. = -s, -s, -s, -s, -s
Adv. Vi = adverbial intransitive verbs
**Internal Syntax of**

**Verb Inflection Suffixes**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Main verb root} & \quad \{ -\text{Pl.}(R_2) \} \quad -X-X \\
                 & \quad \{ -\text{Ppl.}(R_2) \} \quad -\text{X-X} \\
                 & \quad \{ -\text{Cont.}(R_2) \} \\
\text{Aux.} & \quad (-\text{Past},-\text{Interrog.})
\end{align*}
\]

- **Past-Interrog.**
- **Past**
- **Past,-Interrog.**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{?ewe} ('\text{never}') & \quad -\text{Past} \\
\text{?ewe}(-\text{Past},-\text{Interrog.},-\text{Past}) & \\
\text{?ewe}(-4,4-\text{Past},-\text{Interrog.}-\text{te})
\end{align*}
\]

some Adv.\( \text{Vi-Past} \)

\[
\begin{align*}
((s)k*W\hat{e}, y, s* f(y), k* \hat{a}*, l\hat{e}w (\text{other 4,1?}), \text{rarely stative nom.})-\text{Interrog.}
\end{align*}
\]

\( (A) = A \text{ is optional} \)

\( (A,B) = A \text{ or } B \text{ is obligatory} \)
### Co-occurrence of Verb Inflections Within the Main Verb Word.

(Here Cont. = any continuative affixes; Ppl. = any participle affixes; Sbjn. = subjunctive affixes; Pl. = any plural affixes and the diminutive prefix; ? = unattested but probable; +A = +A and -everything else.) (notes on p. 319).

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Notes to chart on preceding page:

3. + only if one considered -m- T "transitivizer"
as -m 'intransitivizer' + -eT 'transitivizer (purposeful control)'.

4. or +Subj. (2nd person sg./pl., 1st person pl.)

5. but minus -1 and -(e)les

6. If past tense -I were substituted in this row the row would read nearly as the row above it does (all entries minus except +Subj. in column one)(Past + Interrog. would be plus while Past + Pl. would be minus).
6.2. Types of Intransitive Verbs (Vi's).

6.2.1. Plain Vi. This type corresponds to the English intransitive verb. In Halkomelem there are several groups: unaffixed, intransitivized, and derived but not intransitivized.

Unaffixed: t'égw 'it broke (rope, breath), to break, run out (of breath)', p'égw 'break in two, split', yégw 'burn', m'égw 'burst or pop (of balloon), smashed (of spherical object)', ?á·z 'get aboard, get in a canoe (or later: in a wagon, car, etc.)', k'iwly 'climb (tree or ladder)' (k'iwlyeqel 'climb a rock or mountain'), mī - ?emf 'come', ?exθ 'lie down', x'iwly 'wake, open (of plants)', θexw 'go out of sight, disappear', ?éliye 'to dream', w'égw 'drown', c'eyxw 'to dry', célq 'fall (through air), drop' (cp. hílem 'fall and tumble, tumble' and wécx 'fall off, drop down'), ḥás 'to drift-net', p'ékwl 'to float', há·kíw 'to fly', q'ép 'gather', tês 'get near', lehél 'play slahal'.

These are plentiful; nearly one-fifth of the intransitive verbs appear to be of this type (for example, about 150 out of a list of 850 Vi's).

Intransitivized: See 6.1.2.2 for examples with -é·ls (- -els), 6.1.6 and 6.1.2.2 for examples with -em (- -m - -ém - -é·m - -á·m), 6.1.5 for -(e)θet (possibly an intransitivizer) and 5.2.3 for -í·l - -el 'go, come,
get, become' (another possible intransitivizer). Many examples are given in these sections and include some derived intransitivized forms as well as underived ones.

Derived but not intransitivized: si·si 'to fear, be afraid, be scared' (R), xʷətiyəqəl 'to answer, reply' (-əqəl), c'eqʷəwəz 'weave a fine-cedar-root basket' c'eqʷ 'poke, pierce, weave fine cedar roots', -əwəz), t'əkʷəf·əwəs 'choke on food' (-f·əwəs), qʷəyələxʷ 'dance' (-l·, -əxʷ), kʷəmel 'get red, turn red' and me'l 'get blue, turn blue' and qəməl 'go(ne) dark, get dark' (these three examples belong here unless -l· -əl is an intransitivizer), qə·qə 'drink' (R), wec'əxʷ 'fall off, drop down' (we-), kə(ləp·l· 'go down, go downstairs' (-l·), ḡəxʷəcə 'spit' (-əcə), e'iqʷələcəp 'split or chop firewood' (-ələcəp), ḡəkʷəxʷəl 'to trip (hooked on foot)' (-əxʷəl), xʷəχiwə 'go upstream' (xʷe-, -əl), wə·qəs 'to yawn' (-es), xʷəxʷə's· 'to thunder' (-ə's), əc'elə·xəl 'cut on the arm' (-elə·xəl), xʷəc'ə·wəs 'store away canoe paddles' (-ə·wəs). These verbs are also numerous: They have the same intransitive force as the unaffixed intransitives.

6.2.2. Adjectival Vi. Participles function as adjectival Vi's, and many examples have been given in 6.1.5. Other adjectival verbs are also found in good
numbers; some are unaffixed and some are derived (with lexical affixes, etc.), but both sets are used the same way syntactically and semantically. Adjectival verbs are stative ('be' + adjective); they can be inflected for subject, tense, etc., but only the participles can be inflected for aspect. Adjectival verbs can also precede nominals after a demonstrative article, just as English adjectives can; in such a case the 'be' is omitted. For example, mέστεξʷ te čkʷi·m súkʷə 'bring (or fetch) the brown sugar, give me the brown sugar', te híkʷ xʷétəs mεstíyæxʷ 'a big heavy person', qʷéqʷəl θε ziyá·mexʷ sáč·lf 'the pretty woman is talking', te ḥí sýá·ys 'the difficult work'. Comparatives and superlatives (except in a few cases like tεθε 'bigger') are formed syntactically; they are described in the syntax chapter. In a sample of 850 Vi's, 282 of them were adjectival (including participles). Here are some examples of non-participle adjectival verbs (from a list of about 125):

ʔéy 'be good', qél 'be bad, be dirty', hí·kʷ 'be big', ʔexʷi·l 'be small', qéx 'be many, lots, a lot of', ʔéqʷ 'be wet', ḥí·ɛq̌t 'be long (in length)', ʔé·yəłəxʷ 'be alive', t'eyeq̌ 'be angry, mad', ziyá·mexʷ - ʔexzá·mexʷ 'be good-looking, pretty, handsome', kʷέśl 'be scalded, burned on skin', zéyá 'be cold (of a
thing), q'i'wé 'be dull (of an edge or point)', leq'i'wé 'be in the way', p'i'qé 'be white' (and the other color words listed under lexical prefix c '- c-'), x'i'wé'yé 'be generous, kind-hearted', tséqé 'be half', k'i'f 'be difficult, hard', x'i'wét(s)es 'be heavy', k'i'wé'y 'be hungry', ò'éqé't 'be true, it's true', yf(ó)ki'w 'be lost', x'é'ws 'be new, fresh', x'yelá'k'i'w 'be round', x'yelk'i'wá'ls 'be spherical', mék 'be stout, thick (around)' (EB méq), qeyém 'be strong', qelé'm 'be weak', k'eqtá'méth (á * - é*) 'be tall (of a person)', pélé't 'be thick', cséqéle 'be thirsty' (EB cséqéle), x'éqé 'be unripe', òeqé't 'be wide', k'iwescs 'be burned on the hand', òél(ó)yá'mex 'be (plural) good-looking', q'élx 'be unfamiliar, not known or recognized', k'ép 'be low, deep', léqé 'be level', tewéle 'be tilted', q'éy 'be dead, paralyzed' (also a plain verb 'to die'), lex'si' 'be always afraid', òifò 'be larger, bigger', weqál 'be more'.

6.2.3. Prepositional Vi. There are a small number of verbs which express orientation toward nominals or pronouns, in a way similar to English prepositions. In Halkomelem they are intransitive verbs. They can have noun phrase objects or independent pronoun objects but are not inflected for object; when they are inflected for subject (which is rarely) they are translated
as stative verbs. For example, telîel k'w'e pëstel 'I'm from the United States', k'wûtes telî k'ê'ë'ëlë 'he took it from me' (note the use of pronoun set 4.11 after prepositional verbs), k'wûtes telî te k'wâ'k'w 'he took it from the box', le hâ'k'w telî te câ'k'w 'he flew from far away'. Not all of these verbs are as straightforward as telî 'from, be from'; some are inflected as participles; some also share features of nominals or adverbial Vi's. More research remains to straighten out these latter features. Some prepositional verbs are:

1. li 'at, to, in' (EB sometimes replaces this with lê; both may indicate (besides the gloss given) some displacement from the speaker or actor. Tait and Chehalis dialects also have ?i in place of li, perhaps indicating no displacement from the speaker or actor; almost certainly li and lê and ?i are historically < li(·) 'be there', lê(m) 'go(ing)(to)', and ?i(·) 'be here', respectively.)

2. telî 'from, be from; than (with comparatives)' (related to lexical prefix tel-)

3. êo?è 'via, by way, through'

4. x'welë(m) 'over to, as far as, towards, against, through (?), for (?)'

5. yelîw 'past, after' (-x'Y ~ -T 'pass by s-th/s-o')
6. ye\wn\mls 'before'
7. st\fts 'near, close, beside' (-T 'be near s-o')
8. sc'ec'\ft 'on top of, astride'
9. sq'\at, sq'eq'\at 'together, with' (-meT 'stay together with s-o', (q'\ot)q'\at'et 'mix/associate/go with s-o')
10. slf'\wn 'inside (a container)'
11. sk\wet\wx 'inside (a house, cave)' (k\wet\wx 'let s-o in (a house)')
12. stc'\ft 'similar to, like' (Tait, Cheh. st'c'\ft - st'\ft) (stc'\ftex 'follow s-o, do like s-o')
13. sk'ep\at'lwe\al 'below, under, underneath; the underside'
14. sce\s\at'lwe\al 'over (in the air), above; the upper side'
15. sle\at'lwe\al 'on the other side, across; the other side'
16. sle\at'\et 'across'

Some examples of these verbs in action:

1. l\ft te sk'ep\at'wel 'in the shirt', l\ft te sq\et\w es 'in his throat', k\wet\w etes l\ft k\w et le\lem 'he saw it in your house', l\ft te sq\et'p 'at the gathering', l\ft k\w et se\et'\at mes 'in Victoria', l\ft te ?el\w etel 'in the middle', le k\w iyegel l\ft te c\et'el 'he climbed up high (up a rock or mountain)', l\ft te c\at'k\wn '(way) far away, in the distance'; le k\at'k\wn te m\at'q\wn l\ft te \et'\et 'the bird
flew to the tree' (EB), le ʔá·kʷe te má·qʷ ʔí tel sceḵ(s)á·lweť 'the bird flew over me' (EB), ʔéxem ʔí tel láʔel 'serve yourself (lit. oneself) in my plate' (CT, Tait).

2. Besides examples above and in 4.11: telif kʷé sq'ewlqel kʷíels le ʔímes y qeq'álsu tēs kʷé ʔéxel 'I walked from Scowkale to Soowahlie' (lit. "from the (distant) Scowkale that—I walked and—I-so got-to the (distant) Soowahlie"; both Scowkale and Soowahlie were villages on the Chilliwack River), le ḥeq'ótes te sq'elmél telif kʷéʔelge 'he pushed the paddle (away) from me', lekʷétem telif te qiq'étwtx 'he was let go/set free/turned loose from jail, they let him go from jail', cel ʔílyt te swóq'wēz telif te sêys te p'eq'elqel 'I made a blanket of/from the wool of the mountain goat'; hikʷ telif kʷé sqélwēz 'bigger than last year', yelēwel qel telif kʷéʔelge 'he's worse than me', yelēwel kʷéqt tel ḥeqtel telif te? swé 'my pencil is longer than yours'

3. le ye-ʔeʔé kʷé sq'ewlec 'he went via (by way of) Scowlitz' (Scowlitz was and is a village at the mouth of the Harrison River), cel ye-ʔeʔé kʷé sq'ewlec 'I went via Scowlitz' (ye- is probably the lexical prefix 'travelling by'), li ʔeʔé kʷe łâ 'Did he go through there?"
4. xwéle f xwelém can be seen in the following examples (besides those in 4.11): le xwéle(m) te Agassiz 'he got to Agassiz (instead of going all the way), he reached Agassiz (the speaker is at Agassiz)' (EB), lemélstex'wes k' Bill te sq'émel xwelém k' Bob 'Bill (absent) threw the paddle over to Bob (absent)'; le xi'l bék'w te máq'w xwelém te sc'éxít 'the bird flew toward the branch', le ñk'w xwelém te s'oom'ámél 'she was pulled toward (influenced by) the Thompsons' (note s'ámél 'Thompson Indian'), tiyéléstce'w te? q'swe xwelém te t'ámél 'lean your cane against (towards) the wall!' (tiyélés-T 'lean s-th'), xwelém te méq' 'through the snow' (as in driving through the snow on a sleigh), léc'ë xwelém te siyém, qas te léc'ë xwelém òe sìf'íf, qas te léc'ë xwelém te sk'ix'eqel te k'éléx'w stëtis te x'é 'One for the master, and one for the dame, and one for the little boy that lives in the lane' (translation of "Baa Baa Black Sheep" by Alice Hunt of the Deming Halkomelem Workshop).

5. yélów te syéyq' 'past the log', yélów (k'wë) sëxelëtt k'wës x'ëf'ë 'after Sunday he came'

6. yewélmëls k'wë sëxelëtt 'before Sunday', yewélmëls k'wë 1910 'before 1910'; (also used as adverbial Vi or as conjunction (the rest of which are particles or demonstratives)); yewélmëls k'wëls lë(m) ñë.yel 'before
I go away', wé'lx'yex'lwex'élmel k'wes wé'ck'k' throw
it before you fall off!', luž q'áyel te s'á'k'es yewé'lmels
k'wes melq'inwsem 'her face is turning green (or yellow)
before she faints'.

7. Besides examples in 4.11: lè wé'lx'y es te sq'émél
stifis k'ó'k'loke 'he threw the paddle beside (or near)
me'.

8. sc'ec'se te yá'ásep'lw te (letém, sc'électel,
sx'sélexé) 'the hat is on (top of) the (table, chair,
bed)', sc'ec'se te stiqiw 'on top of the horse, astride
the horse' (cp. we-c'k' 'get to a summit or top')

9. Besides examples in 4.11 (q.v.): ?ák'sel sq'eq'á
to sq'wém'éy 'he's eating with the dog' (other ways of
using this root as vt include: sq'amek'ák' 'with me'
and q'esx'iléax'y 'with me' as in mitl q'esx'iléax'y
'come with me!' (q'á + Ae + -x'ýl + -il + -T))

10. cel slíw te k'wáx'we 'I'm inside a box', (EB)
slíw ?i te k'wáx'we 'it's in the box', stém k'we slíw
?i te sk'wá'wes 'what's in the pail?' (necessity for
?i is unknown).

11. If sk'télx'w 'Is he inside?', sk'télx'w te lélem
'inside the house' (EB sk'télx'w if te lélem)

12. stæ'k'sæcet 'like we are; we are similar', stæ'k'
te k'wéq' 'like a pig', stæ'k'sæcet te x'ýq'ysem 'I'm like
the ant', stæ'k te k'wéq' te Doug 'Doug is like a pig'.

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13. cel š̓əpá·lwe̓l li te q̓əl̓əc̓eqʷtel 'I'm under the umbrella' (incidentally, cp. sq̓əl̓əc̓eqʷ-cel 'I'm under an umbrella', sq̓əl̓əc̓eqʷ 'be under an umbrella' < q̓əl̓əc̓ 'rainshelter', -eqʷ 'on the top of the head', s- participial inflection), le ḥákʷ te má·qʷ š̓əpá·lwe̓l te scə̕lexʷ 'the bird flew under the branch'.

14. le ḥákʷ te má·qʷ sce̕lsá·lwe̓l te scə̕lexʷ 'the bird flew over the branch', ləm̓cət sce̕lsá·lwe̓l te spə̕x̑el 'we're going over (above) the prairie'; but beside these EB also has le ḥákʷ te má·qʷ ?i tel sce̕lsá·lwe̓l 'the bird flew on top of me' which seems to show sce̕lsá·lwe̓l as a nominal.

15. cel sleʔá·lwe̓l te k̓á· 'I'm on the other side of the car', li k̓á·šes sleʔá·lwe̓l te ləlem 'on the other side of the house', sleʔá·lwe̓ls te k̓á· te lem̓el 'the shovel is on the other side of the car', sleʔá·lwe̓ls te Bill 'behind Bill (if Bill is facing) (lit. on the other side of Bill)'

16. ləm̓cət sleʔá·θel te spə̕x̑el 'we're going across the prairie', cel sleʔá·θel te stá·lo 'I'm across the river' (sleʔá·lwe̓l can't be used with 'river')

At the same time, many of the prepositions used with English verbs are included semantically within Halkomelem transitives or are not expressed at all. For example: k̓w̓cət 'look at s-th', ?clexʷ 'hear
about s-th', lēc'łàmoc te lēc'tel 'you'll get cut by the knife', le c'ẽk'smētes te q'ẽlẽxel 'he jumped over the fence' (lit. 'he jumped the fence'), c'ẽk'smētẽxyes 'he jumped over me', le wec'ẽk' te šk'ẽx'eqeł li te sxʷt'sł 'the child dropped off a bridge' (wec'ẽk' 'drop off, fall off'), kʷwaq'ẽxyes te leq-1 'he hit me with a shovel', lēm 'go(ing), go(ing) to (some-where, or to do s-th)'.

6.2.4: Adverbial Vi. These words modify the verb and usually directly precede or follow the verb. They are glossed as adverbs or statives in English but are verbs since they are inflected for subject and tense like Vi's (though not for continuative aspect). About 50 of them turned up in a sample of 850 Vi's. As some English prepositions are semantically included within the Halkomelem plain verbs, so are some English adverbs (usually in verbs with middle voice): yák'ẽm kʷʔel kʷə 'my car broke down', q'ẽm 'come out (at the root)', xʷʔeʃləm 'to cloud up', ŋìxẽ 'lie down', lēqəm 'dive, dive in', ñẽq êt 'beat s-o up'. Control transitivizers also communicate somewhat adverbial ideas like 'purposely', and 'accidentally'. But none of these are syntactically adverbial in Halkomelem. Here are some of the adverbial Vi's found:
1. c'ęč'el 'be very' (often plus -ew intensifier)
2. EB: k'weč'tu 'be very' (also has c'ęč'el)
3. c'ęč'wí 'be really'
4. yewč'el 'be first'
5. táiyá'q'wít 'be last, after, behind'
6. c'chéw 'be upstream' (cp. x'weč'wichel 'go upstream')
7. woq'wéylem 'downstream' (x'weq'woq'wéylem 'go downstream') (woq'wéylem may not belong here because it may be mistranslated for 'go downhill' since -éylem probably < -éyl 'go, come, get' and since there appears to be a continuative, h'éwq'woq'wéylem 'going downhill')
8. telt's 'from downriver'
9. sáq'q'el 'way upriver'
10. t'élyxel 'way upriver', telt'syt 'from upriver'
11. tá'l - cúc'u 'toward the river, (if on a river) away from shore' (cp. stá'lo 'river')
12. c'á'leq'w 'away from the river, toward the backwoods'
13. c'ám 'away from the water'
14. c'ák'w 'be far, far off, far away', telc'a'k'w 'from far away'
15. t'é'k'w '(go?) home, homeward' (t'ék'wstex'w 'take s-o home')
16. x'eléx'w 'be at home; stop'
17. c'f'mel 'be almost, near'
18. x'é·lq 'almost; almost die' - x'é·lqi 'almost'
19. sx'é·ye 'in the middle or center'
20. numerals lec'ëx 'once', σemë 'twice', etc.
21. qelé 'again'
22. ysh 'just, now'
23. qé·ys 'lately, recently'
24. tlaqé·ys 'now (this instant), right now'
25. ?lubay 'the last time' (also conjunction)
26. têx·w - têx·w '(be) later, in a while'
27. ḫqÞal 'used to' (< ḫq 'sometimes' + -al 'past')
28. ḫi·'el 'a long time'
29. wé·h(ø·e)ñ 'a long time ago' (wé-hi·'ø·e)ñ(ØB)
    k'wuñhñ and (CT,AC) k'weñhñ
30. celéqal 'yesterday'
31. tlàwéyel 'today'
32. wé·yes 'tomorrow'
33. lêc (AC) - (Cheh.) ḫqá - (Cheh.) ḫqá 'sometimes'
34. (we)temtëmes(ce) 'someday; whenever'
35. wë·sënes k'wë/k'wë tês 'until (?)'
36. x'el 'still, yet'
37. we?p'al(-sw) 'too (overly)'
38. wiyå 'always'
39. welåy 'only, just'
40. yáswe 'possibly, perhaps, might, maybe'
41. øel 'just, simply' (Cheh. øal - øa - ø (most common))
42. weâte 'already'
43. òen'ôt 'for sure, truly; it's true' (also adjectival)
44. yewé 'along, also'
45. sq'éq'á 'along, together'
46. tus?éy'el 'softly, quietly' (probably compounded)
47. s(e)lé 'tightly, tight' (also adjectival)
48. tx[wém] 'early' (adjectival too) (cp. ?áyem 'late')
49. x[wém] 'fast; hurry' (also plain verb)
50. ?éx'qel '(go) outside' (probably belongs elsewhere)
51. yéléwil 'just past, over, more'
52. -qwí's 'how ____, really ____!'

It is unclear whether the negative verbs belong here
or with auxiliaries; the negative verbs include:
53. òéwe '(be) not, no'
54. òewé 'if not' = 'isn't?, doesn't?'
55. òewéš 'never'
56. x[wèwé] '(be) not yet'

Examples of adverbial Vi's in action (the following
list is thorough because it will be used for the
syntax chapter as well):
1. (Chill.) c'éc'el k'wxák'ws tləwéyel - (Cheh.) (EB)
c'éc'el-ow k'wxák'ws tləwéyel (both mean) 'It's really
hot today., It's very hot today.', (EB) c'éc'el-ow
səəwát 'very smart' (the ò is idiolectal for a /c/ in
this word; other speakers of upriver dialects have
scəwác't or scəwá·t '(be) smart, know how to'), (AC)
c'éc'elcel məq' 'I'm very full'.

2. (Cheh.) kʷečtu otéwl te sʔθ̓e'ams 'her dress is really bright', (Cheh.) kʷečtu (θ̓e·t, ʷëm, sʔə·met, hi·kʷ) 'very (dark, fast, lazy, big)'

3. ʔeθ̓əlcm̕ (ʷëm, ʔəyəm) 'you're really (fast, slcəw)', ʔeθ̓əlcm̕ wəhiə kʷes hák̕wex̣ 'you'll use it a really long time'

4. ses yəwél 'he's to be first', ləwe yəwél 'you're the first', ləm yəwél̓-l - lə yəwél̓ 'go ahead, (go first)'

5. ʔeθ̓əlθəkiyáqʷt 'I'm last', yeθ̓iyáqʷt te Bill 'Bill is last, Bill is behind', yeθ̓iyáqʷt kʷes xʷeʔf̓ 'he arrived last'

6. ləmcel kʷeθ̓e chíw 'I'm going upriver' (nominal), mečəp xʷeθ̓i·wel 'you people come upstream', ləmcelx̣ xʷeθ̓i·wel 'are you going upstream?', le xʷeθ̓i·wel yəθə 'those people are going upstream', ləcel (xʷeθ̓i·wel, xʷəwq̕ʷyələm) 'I'm going (upstream, downstream)', x̣əx̣əwq̕ʷyət xʷeθ̓i·wel 'poling (a canoe) upstream'

11. le tá·l 'he went down to the river or away from shore', xʷəməc tá·l 'hurry down to the river!', ləm kʷe cúc'u 'go toward the river or away from the shore (nominal)

12. Contrary to the consistently adverbial gloss of
the word in isolation I only have examples as nominals:

10. yǒqʷ kʷe cá·leqʷ 'the backwoods are burnt'
13. ləcəl cá·m 'I'm going away from the water', ləcəxʷ cá·m qə təscəxʷ ?à te smé·lt 'you go away from the water till you (just) get to the mountain'
14. lə cə·kʷ 'Is it far?', lə kʷe sʔəx'q qə ?əwe ?əs cá·kʷ 'it's outside but not far'
15. ləcəl/ləmcel tə'kʷ 'I'm going home', ləl tə'kʷ 'go home!' (cp. ləl ?ə·yəl 'go away!')
16. lə təxʷ (kʷəl mə·, sel tə·l) 'Is your(father, mother) home?'
17. wəč c'ímel k'èkʷal 'it's nearly going out (of a fire)', wəc'íemeləc te Christmas 'when it's nearly Christmas'
18. xʷə·lqi tə k'yə 'he almost got hit by a car', xʷə·lqcəl ləl ləm 'I almost went', xʷə·lqəxʷ ləm, ?ətə 'you almost went, didn't you?', xʷə·lqcəl 'I almost died', xʷə·lqi yǒqʷ 'nearly burned', xʷə·lqi ?ə·kʷ (EB)(AC substitutes ?ə·kʷ) 'nearly empty, nearly run out', xʷə·lqi ləc 'nearly full (of a container)'
20. lec'èxʷ səs yáyə 'he only worked once', ləxʷə·tə səs xəyəθəx'yə 'three times he hit me', xəθələ·tə səs xəyəθəx'yə 'four times he hit me', (EB) cel xə·m lec'èxʷ - lec'èxʷ kʷelsē xə·m 'I cried once'
21. ?ewətə səq'əlexʷ wetəmtəmesç kʷes ?ətelceq qəlt
'No-one knows when we'll eat again.'

22. ye[l s?es méq'etes 'he just swallowed it', ye[l s?es técel 'now he comes', ye[l s?es q'âl 'they're just ripe', ye[l s?es le pi'ltes te spí'ls 'he's just gone to plant his crop', ye[lcel xwe'ii 'I just arrived', wye[l[l ses ñiyt (EB) 'I just started to make it', ye[l[l ses c'q'âl 'I started to make a basket' (EB), ye[l[l ses c'q'âl 'she started to make a basket' (EB) (the nature of EB's (we)ye[l 'start to, begin' is unclear; her use of ses in 1st person seems odd also as s?es - ses serves elsewhere as nominalizer + 3rd person possessive for subordinate clauses—see Chapters 7 and 9)

23. qé'ys le q'ây kâel sî'l 'my grandfather just died recently/lately', qé'ys me xwe'ii 'recently/just got here', qé'ysâ 'just now' (EB) as in qé'ysâ le c'eq'â(l) 'he just now made a basket'

24. cet ?i'ítel tlaq'es te Bill qes te?èl?è 'Bill and I are eating right now'

25. ?i'ítel kâclâmè 'the last time I saw you' (EB, whose -cel we[l tends to > -u[l)

26. téx'ce (x - x) 'it will be in a while, later on, after a while', téx'celce kâclâmè 'I'll see you later, I'll see you in a while'

27. èq'ën xót'é yé xêl'mèx 'the (Indian) people used
to say', kəq'əx wiyəx c'if'yeł yəx wələməx k'wul'θeqəx
'the people used to pray all the time, long ago' (EB)
28. ?ewə hiθes 'soon, not long', hiθ k'wes k'wələt
'you'll have it a long time', (k'w's) hiθes k'wes
hək'wəx'y 'you'll use it a long time', weə ?iyələm k'w's
x'f(y)x'ət -- weə ?əlew hiθ k'w's ?itəts (?əlew sic for
weʔəl-ew) 'it's alright for you to wake him up -- he's
already slept too long', ?ewə ləmes hiθ k'w's ləs
ləq'ələq'əl 'he's not going to be long on his travels',
weə hiθ k'w'ses məq 'he was underwater a long time',
weə hiθ ye mə q'əp 'the gathering lasted a long time',
weəθ k'w'es k'wələt 'he'll have it a long time', əθ
ləs stəq'əl'əx'w 'she knew all along (long ago?)',
əθ liθ'w stəq'əl'əx'w ləs ələcə k'wələ lələm 'you knew
all along where my house was'
29. see example in 27.
30. cel ləm celəqəxəl 'I went yesterday', ?ıxəl li
k'w'e celəqəxəl 'I was there yesterday'
31. ləmcəl tləwəyəl 'I'm going today', l sq'əlewəl k'w's
mes ələməx'w tləwəyəl 'I think it's going to rain today'
32. ləmcəl wəyəles 'I'll go tomorrow', ?ətelcəx'wəs
wəyələs 'you'll eat tomorrow' (wəyələs - wəyəles),
?ətelcə yiθ wəyəles 'they (those people) will eat
tomorrow'
33. ləc k'w'es stələs, ləc k'w'es swəyeqəs 'sometimes
it's a woman, sometimes it's a man' (AC), ṭeq'cel - ṭeq'cel 'sometimes I do' (EB), ṭeq' st'eq 'Sometimes, Sometimes yes' (answer to a question)' (EB), (RM of Sardis: ṭeq' 'yes' (~ ṭeq'eq 'yes') but no ṭeq' 'sometime')

34. wetamtesca x_wewetesc_e k`wes k`w`lec`w (x_wewetesc_e may be sic for wewetesc_e) 'someday somebody will see it' (also used as conjunction in ex. 21 above)

36. li x`wel ṭeq`yelex`w 'Is he still alive?', le x`wel ɛ’eq`' they're still unripe', x`wel sc`eq`eq te stiq`w 'he's still astride/on top of the horse', ṭu x`wel hip`eq` 'it's still burning' (EB)

37. ṭeq`alwe-l s`eq(y)-l siye`ye 'I like my friend a lot', ṭeq`alwe ləp`eq`wem '(making) too much noise', ṭeq`alwe x`w`etes ṭeq`esu miq` 'it was too heavy and it sank', ṭeq`we ṭeq` is ṭeq`alwe k`w`ak`wes 'lukewarm, it's not too hot', ṭeq`alwe ṭeq`es ṭeq`es u`as`esu sq`eq`eq`eq`es ṭeq`es te st`eq`es 'he felt so poorly that he stayed with his wife', ṭeq`alwe qeq` 'too much', ṭeq`alwe qeq` te sq`eq`eq`eq`es 'an awful lot of (lit. too much) spit', ṭeq`alwe qeq` te sc`eq`eq`eq` 'too many leaves', ṭeq`alwe ṭeq`eq`w 'too wet' (EB prefers ṭeq`alwe, AC prefers ṭeq`al(e)we)

38. wiyaθ k`wes ṭeq`eq`eq`eq`es te siy`eq`eq`eq` 'the old man is always spitting', wiyaθ k`w`els su m`m`elq`eq`eq` 'I'm always forgetting', wiyaθ k`w`els su m`m`elq`eq`eq` 'I always
forget', k'wë wiyēθ(cs) ?à - k'wë hēlômc s ?à 'forever' (a nominal)

39. welây (te'êxelôc, telôw, tūx'â, telîmeḥ, telwêlep) 'just (me, you, him, us, you folks)'

40. yâswe k'âs te mē'ls 'maybe it's his father', yâswecel lâl welê'm 'I might go', yâswecel x'êlq (?e li (?) melqî-wsem - yâswe x'êlqcel melqî-wsem 'I guess I nearly fainted', yâswe ?ê 'maybe yes' (EB)

41. cel x'wîelē· ?el 'I just listened', we?i·mex' ?el qē (k'asôsu, lë) hiqsel 'He was just walking and he dropped dead.', sôhîqet-cx'â 'just you be careful!' (EB, who has -â frequently, see 22, 23 and 46 also in this section)

42. lîcx'w we? ?êtel 'Have you already eaten?', cel k'wê xe? (me ḥê·m, lâm) 'I began to (cry, go)', we? k'êk'wel te hîyæq'w (EB) 'the fire's (already) gone out', li we? lâ ?ê·yel 'has he gone away?', luž meθ'f·l 'they're gone blue' (luž < luwâ < lê we?), luž c'eté·m tel mâmele 'my baby's already (been) crawling', luž (c'ê·yx'w, slic') 'it's (already)(dry, full)', (EB has ñâ frequently for we? or luž, and cuw for we? as in ñâ lê·m 'he's already gone' and cuwî hêyêθêmê 'I (already) warned you'; there are frequent examples; it is too early to tell if this is true for Cheh. as a dialect.)(see also examples 17, 28 and 43).
43. cel θεʔiʔt siʔq̓eʔləxʷ kʷses weʔ ləm 'I know for sure he's gone', cəc̓eʔl weł θεʔiʔt səʔiʔ met 'he's really truly lazy!' (weł θεʔiʔt 'it's really true', cəc̓eʔl weł θεʔiʔt 'it's really true!')(ʔəwe ləs θεʔiʔt 'it's not true')
44. lec̓el yəʔəl 'I'm going along', skʷiʔ kʷwels le yəʔəl 'I want to go along', wəc̓ə ləməl yəʔəl 'Can I go along?, Will I go along?'
45. lɨc̓xʷ le y(e)sq̓eqəʔá 'Did you go together?'
46. ?lɨc̓xʷ tusʔiyəʔl kʷwes ?əʔ ləyəm 'you were laughing softly', tusʔiyəʔl kʷwes me xəʔeqəxʷ (you push me softly), le weʔiyəʔl kʷwels mələ 'my child is fine', lɨc̓xʷ wəʔiyəʔl (Chil.) - lɨc̓xʷ wəʔiyəʔl - lɨc̓xʷ wəʔiyəʔl (Cheh.) 'how are you?, (lit. 'are you going gently/softly?'), tusʔiyəc̓xʷ ʔəl 'go gently!, go slowly!', tusʔiyəc̓xʷ 'you be careful', tusʔiyəc̓el 'I'm careful', cel tusʔiyəʔl 'I was careful'
47. q̓eʔyəset kʷwes selə tə selə kʷwes q̓eʔyəset 'tie it tightly'
48. me txʷəm xʷəʔiʔ '(he) got here early', me txʷəm qʷəl te ?əɬiʔəl 'the salmonberries are ripe early' (cp. (tu) ?əʔyəm kʷs mes qʷəl te ?əɬiʔəl 'the salmonberries are ripe late')
49. xʷəm (kʷwels, kʷwes, kʷses) me ?əʔyəlexʷ '(I, you, he) got well fast'
50. leʔ ḥʔʷqel 'go outside!', leʔ ḥʔʷqel te sqʷeméy 'the dog went outside', wélémexʷ ḥʔʷqel 'when you go outside'

51. yéléwel láš telí ḥʔʷqelθes 'he's fatter than me', cel yéléwel láš telí ḥʔʷelθes 'I'm fatter than you', yéléwel ḥʔʷθē tlaʔwyel telí kʷθe celēqθ(θ) 'today is colder than yesterday', yéléwel qelθ 'worse', yéléwel ḥʔʷqθ telə ẓəltel telí teʔ swe 'my pencil is longer than yours'

52. yúʔwqθθθes - ḥʔʷqθθθes 'how beautiful!', yúʔwqθθθes teʔ qθθθθyθθel 'you have really beautiful shoes!' (yúʔw 'beautiful!' (said while admiring s-th')

Several things should be noted before concluding with examples of negative verbs. Several of these adverbial Vi's are unstressed and could be particles functioning as adverbial Vi's since I have no examples of them being inflected (kʷθehθtu, wθθ, yθθ, ḥʔʷelθ, θel). With others the Vi either begins in we- 'subjunctive' ((we)temtθemθ(es)), wetθesθes kʷθθ's tθs) or in an unexplained we- (weʔθelθwe - weʔθelθ - ʔθelθwe, welθy, wiyθ (could be //θweθ//), weθ, weθθθθθ)). There is also an unexplained unstressed particle, tu, which may well be adverbial. Some of the listed adverbial Vi's have not been elicited in sentences yet but seem suspiciously adverbial in translation.
Negative constructions will be dealt with in the syntax chapter, and negative verb inflection has been covered in the pronoun chapter, but a few examples of each of the negative verbs are given here to show why they might be considered adverbial Vi's (they modify the verb, occur adjacent to the verb or verb auxiliary, their inflection is limited with no continuative or object inflection allowed, etc.).

53. ?ewecel lémèl 'I don't go, I won't go'
?éwe lémès 'he/she/it doesn't/won't go'
?éwe sc'eláx'wemès 'he's not a spirit dancer'
?éwex'w lix'w h'fleax'j 'you don't like me'
cel méytałe k'wes ?éwep liyámelép 'I helped you folks not to laugh'  

54. ?éwé lis yéthestàlèm 'Weren't you folks told?, Didn't they tell you folks?'
?éwé ?s sk'fyes k'wes k'wèclex'w cet 'Don't you want us to see it?' (sk'fyes sic for sk'f)
wèce lémèl yewé 'Won't I go along?'
?éwés lis-l sk'f 'if I don't want it'
?éwés lis sk'lis ?éwéyex'w (?) ?æx'wesáx'yes 'If he doesn't want it, will he give it to me?'
?éwés lis (?) sk'fyelep lècel k'wít 'If you folks don't want it, I'll take it.'

55. ?éwecel' q'wésáx'j 'I don't/I never speak to you'
?6weə le k'6cèlèlm 'I wasn't seen'
?6weəcel k'6cèly 'I'm never hungry'
?6weə xè:m 'he never cries'
?ewè'îcèl li:l li 'I was never there'
?ewè'îcèl sè'îæeqèl 'I wasn't (ever) a child'
56. x'ewècèx'ewè'îx'ewè sîyè'îlex'ewè 'You're not old yet,.

You haven't yet become old.'

x'ewècèx'ewè'îx'ewè tætelæ:met 'You don't understand yet.'
x'ewè'îs mèq? 'He's not yet full (of food).'
x'ewè'îs mè q'èl 'They're not ripe (yet).'

6.2.5. Interrogative Vi. There are 14 or 15 of
these verbs (not counting lexically suffixed versions
of k'6y'i:l (there are eight) and sèlcì:m (there are two
or three)). They fall into a separate class mainly
because they are all interrogative. All are mainly
sentence-initial (except sentence-final ?6tî 'tag-
question'), and some are only attested sentence-initi-
ally (n'ak'sèlcì:ms,
li, lə'yè'ix'ewè). When
sentence-initial they can be followed by subject pro-
nouns and future tense (except lə'yè'ix'ewè and the two
words for 'why?'). A few can also occur after pre-
posed pronouns or auxiliary + pronoun. None can be
inflected for continuous or passive of course, but
some can be inflected for subjunctive and used as rela-
tive interrogatives (tel'ècè 'where s-o is from',

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x'nce·l 'where s-o is going', x'ncek Wel 'where s-o is headed for', c ceilings 'where s-o is', tewet 'who s-o is', stem 'what s-\text{th} is', and possibly others; the glosses just given are those used when the words are used as relative pronouns; otherwise they have the interrogative glosses listed below).

The verbal status of interrogative Vi's is further borne out by their nearly exclusive occurrence before demonstrative articles (which occur before nominals or which nominalize verbal constructions that follow). Exceptions to this occurrence before articles include the following: temtem, layex\text{e}, and selci·m attested before subjunctive verbs; li before declarative verbs; c ceilings once before adverbial Vi weyeles 'tomorrow'; and tewet before nominals in constructions like 'what man?', 'whose dog?'). A fuller and more definitive treatment will be found in the syntax chapter, but the above give the semantic and syntactic reasons for this class of verbs being set up. The interrogative verbs found so far are:

1. li 'am/is/are \_\_\_, do/does \_\_\_' (sometimes inflected with interrogative -e)

2. selci·m 'how?\_, how is it?\_' (also affixed: selci·mame\text{v} 'how does it look?\_, what does it look like?\_, what color is it?\_, selci·mel\text{e}qep 'how does
it smell?')
3. k‘wî·l 'how many?, how much?' (also affixed:
k‘wî·les 'how much money?, how many dollars?',
k‘wilè ‘how many people?', k‘wilè·k ‘how many
trees?', k‘wilè·l ‘how many times?', k‘wilòwe·l ‘how
many canoes?', k‘wilòwe·l ‘how many paddles?’, te
sk‘wil(·)l (nominal) 'the hour', (Tait) k‘wilìtx ‘
‘how many houses?')
4. stèm 'what?, what is it?'
5. x‘we·f·t or x‘we·iyet ‘what is s-o doing?, what's
happening to/with s-o?, what's doing with s-o?,
what is s-o saying?'
6. temtèm 'when?, when is it?'
7. ¿elèce (EB of Cheh. usually has lèce) 'where?, where
is it?'
8. x‘we·g·l - x‘we·g·l - x‘we·g·l 'where is s-o going (leav-
ing for)?, which way did s-o go?'
9. x‘we·g·l - x‘we·g·l ‘where is s-o going to (destined
for)?'
10. tel·èce - tel·èce ‘from where?, where is s-o from?'
11. teweit 'who?, who is it?' (used also in 'what's your
name?' and 'what man is it?')
12. x‘akw‘selcf·ms ‘why?, why is it?, how come?'
13. x‘w‘f·t ‘why?, why is it?' (can't be used as an inde-
pendent utterance unlike #12)
14. lāy\textsuperscript{w}e 'does one have to?, do I have to?' (a semantically reflexive interrogative, this verb has an impersonal subject 'one' which can also refer to the speaker, 'I')

15. ?ētē (usually [ʔēw]) 'tag-question' (always final in sentence)

Here are some examples of these interrogative verbs in sentences:

1. līc\textsuperscript{w} yāwes 'Are you working?', līc\textsuperscript{w} sp'ɛp'ɛk\textsuperscript{w} 'Will it float?', līwē lēm 'Is he/Are they gone?', līye ti 'Is it over there?'

2. (1a) selcī·m k\textsuperscript{w}es le əiyt 'How did you make it?', selcī·mec wē·mi·t ?əmâst\textsuperscript{w} 'How should we bring it?', selcī·m k\textsuperscript{w}es hīws qe (yē s\textsuperscript{w}es me x\textsuperscript{w}e sy\textsuperscript{w}ymem, k\textsuperscript{w}el·ɛx\textsuperscript{w}es te mēles) 'How long before she (came to be(come) pregnant, got her child)?', lēc\textsuperscript{w} selcī·m wēlēm\textsuperscript{w} t\textsuperscript{ā}·k\textsuperscript{w} 'How are you going home?'

3. k\textsuperscript{w}i·l tē (sk\textsuperscript{w}ō·lm\textsuperscript{w}, scī·ye) 'How many (blackberries, strawberries) do you have?', k\textsuperscript{w}i·l (sə'āq\textsuperscript{w}i, mūsmēs, swē·yel) 'how many (fish, cows, days)?', ʔec\textsuperscript{w} wēz k\textsuperscript{w}i·l mēqē 'How old are you? (lit. "You were already how many fallen snows?")', wēz k\textsuperscript{w}i·l syi\textsuperscript{w}ilām k\textsuperscript{w}es yāwes 'How many years have you been working?', tēs tē sk\textsuperscript{w}i·lēs 'What time is it?' ("It's gotten up to what hour?")
4. stém te ṑe 'What's that (visible, present)?', stém te ṗi·xʷ (kʷelé·t, ṑe·yt) 'What is it you're (holding, making)?', stém te lyph ti c'ic'esem 'What is that growing?', stém kʷe  ṗeq'wi  ṑe sx'elcə 'What kind of fish did you catch (is your catch)?', stém te sqʷɑlqʷel 'What's your news?', stém kʷe ṗeq xet'iyeq'əmeq - stém kʷe xet'iyeq'əmeqəxʷ 'What are you mad at?'
5. xʷeq'i·tcexʷ - cexʷ xʷeqət 'What are you doing?', ṗi·tcexʷ xʷeqət 'What were you doing?', xʷeq'i·tcex - cex xʷeqət 'What are you folks doing/saying?'
6. təmtəmce weləmexʷ t'åkʷ 'When are you going home?'
    təmtəm kʷes le əqyt 'When did you make it?', təmtəm kʷes ləm 'When are you going?', təmtəm kʷes ṗeq'el li te swiçi 'When do you "pull" at Cultus Lake?'
   "pull" is a popular term for 'to paddle in canoe-racing', ṗeq'el is also the normal word 'to paddle')
7. ṗečəq kʷes le əqyt 'Where did you make it?', le ṗečəq ṑeq səqli 'Where is the woman?', ṗečəcexʷεc wəq'yəles 'Where are you going to tomorrow?, Where will you be tomorrow?', ṗečəq tel ləm 'Where's my liquor?', cexʷ ṗečəq 'Where are you?'
8. xʷ(ə)cə·ləqəl 'Where am I going?', xʷcə·l əq'təl 'Where/Which way are they going?', le xʷcə·l 'Where is he going?', xʷecə·ləcexʷ 'Where are you going?'
9. xʷčəkʷelcexʷ 'Where are you going to?', cexʷ
ye-x'c̓ałkʷ̓e1l 'Where are you headed for?', ?exʷ yəɬ xʷc̓ałkʷ̓e1l 'Where are you going now (this time)'

10. təl?ələcəʔəx̣ʷə (CT) 'Where is he from?', (subjunctive example, EB) chú ᐄq̓əlex̣ʷ weʔis təl?ələcə (- təl̓əcə) 'I know (already) where he came from.'

11. ləwə (te)wət - təwətcex̣ʷ 'Who are you?', təwət te(?) skʷίx̣ʷ (some prefer stém te skʷίx̣ʷ) 'What's your name?' (Chill. te, Cheh. + Tait te?), təwət te swihyeq̓ 'Who is the man?', təwət swihyeq̓ kʷəe ?fxʷ sê·q̓ʷət 'What man are you looking for?', wət kʷəe le yəʔəseʔəmə 'Who told you?'; təwət kʷəe le yəʔəwelcep 'Who lit the fire?'; təwət kʷəe le təc̓ələmə 'Who cut you?'; təwət kʷəe ?fxʷ əc̓əyəscet te səl̓x̣ʷəɬ 'Who are you making the canoe for?'; təwət kʷəe k̓ č̓əl kʷəs ləms 'Who wants to go?'; təwət sqʷəməc̓'y 'Whose dog?'

12. k̓əx̣ʷəc̓əlci·ms kʷəs le əgiy̓t 'Why did you make it?'; k̓əx̣ʷəc̓əlci·ms kʷəs le ʔewəstálx̣ʷ kʷəs kʷəc̓əlex̣ʷəcet 'Why is it you don't let us see it (lit."deny us to")?'; k̓əx̣ʷəc̓əlci·ms kʷəs əwə ʔi·p ləm təl̓x̣əlep 'Why didn't you folks go?'

13. xʷʔət kʷəs əwə lix̣ʷ ləm 'Why didn't you go?'; xʷʔət kʷəs əwəʔ (q̓ələsəx̣ʷ, ləm) 'Why don't you (ever)(speak to me, go)?'; xʷʔət kʷəs ətə te əc̓ 'Why did he do that?'; xʷʔət kʷəc̓ 'Why (do you)?, What for? (reply to an assertion)'; cex̣ʷ xʷʔət əəse ətə·scex̣ʷ
te Ñe 'What did you do that for?, Why did you do that?'
(Ñose is a variant of k'w'ses)
14. láyéxwë (jéws-es k'w k'å's, c-tiqiw-es) 'Does one
(or Do I) have to have (a new car, a horse)?', láyéxwë
x'ìxq'èm-es 'Does she have to have her mouth hanging
open?', láyéxwë p'ap'eq'èm-es k's sòwës 'Does one
have to have foamy urine? (from drinking beer'
15. nòwecxw ?ìxw x'èl'hèlmet, Ñètì 'You never get used
to it, do you?', x'ìwèl'qecxw lèm, Ñètì 'You almost went,
didn't you?'
16. Subjunctive (relative pronoun-ized) examples from
EB of Cheh.:
cúl ñç'ëlexw (westèmes, wetewètes, we?is lèces, wetwèxèlès,
wefis telèce) 'I (already) know (what it is, who it is,
where it is, where he's going, where he came from).',
cúl ñç'ëlexw (wetewètes k'wè xÈstexw te Ñe, westèmes
k'wè le k'wùtes) 'I know (who did it, what he took).',
wéwètes sx'êlèsf wetwèxèlès 'no matter where(ever) I go',
weflxw x'êwècak'wèl 'wherever you're going'.

Note: some of the interrogative Vi's are also
inflected and used as indefinite pronouns: tewfètesà
'anybody', etc. (see nominal chapter).

6.2.6. Personal Pronoun Vi. This set includes
pronouns of sets 4.1 and 4.2. Nothing more needs to
be added here to the discussion + examples of Chapter 4.
6.2.7. Demonstrative Vi. This set includes ?f· 'be here' and lf· 'be there', and may also include their derivatives, x^we?f· 'come to be here, come here, get here, arrive' and x^welif· 'go there, get there'. ?f· and lf· are also used as prepositional Vi's and auxiliary Vi's; but while they seem related historically and semantically, they nevertheless are three distinct usages with distinct syntactic features and glosses. It seems best at present to consider them separately.

As demonstrative Vi's, ?f· and lf· can be inflected for subject, future tense, and subjunctive mood; past and interrogative suffixes must be attached to a preceding auxiliary; no continuative, imperative, participle, passive or pluralizing inflection is possible with these verbs. The reason ?f· and lf· form a special class of demonstrative Vi's, is that in addition to their demonstrative glosses they can precede and combine with demonstratives unlike other verbs. (x^we?f· and x^welif· cannot do this but do have demonstrative elements 'here' and 'there' in their glosses.) Some examples will illustrate:

cel ?f· - ?f·cel 'I'm here', cel lf· - lf·cel 'I'm there' ?f·cel ?f· 'I was here', ?f·cel lf· 'I was there',

?f· ?f· 'he/she/it was here, they were here'
lf ?f· k^wes më·l 'Is your father here?'
we?f: celce ?e k'we là qe xwe?f: celce 'I'll stay (or be) right here till you get here.', we?f: celce ?e k'we là qe tesc te sléc'eq 'I'll be here till one o'clock.' (function of we- unclear)
cel ?f: k'we là 'I'm here' (?f: k'we là 'here, this place' (là 'this') is so frequent as a unit that it is pronounced and regarded as one word, and I have usually written it ?f:k'welà), liye ?f:k'welà 'Is it here?, Is he/she here?'; le ?f:k'welà 'He's/She's here., etc.'
cel. ?f: ti 'I'm over here', cel lf: ti 'I'm over there', le lí: ti 'he's over there'
cel. ?f: te lélém 'I'm here at your house.', le ?f: te lélém 'He's here at your house.', le lí: te lélém 'He's there at your house.' (The last three examples apparently show that lí 'at' is sometimes omitted after lí: 'there' or ?f: 'here'.)
le xwe?f: 'he arrived, got here', ?wête kapí k'wes xwe?f: 'He came without a coat.', k'ác Bill k'we méyénè wexwê?f: 'It will be Bill that helps me when he gets here.', le xwí: te lélém 'they got to their house'.

6.2.8. Auxiliary Vi. This group includes: me f mf '(come to)' (< ?emí - mf 'come'), le 'go, go to, going to' (< lém - lèm 'go(ing)(to)'), ?f: '(here)',

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and li· 'there'. These verbs directly precede the main verb (of the phrase or clause) and can receive some of its inflective affixes, i.e., subject pronouns 4.4 and 4.9b, future -ce, past tense -i (with ?i·, li· and mi only), imperative -tə - ə (with me and mi and le), subjunctive we- (with ?i·, li·, mi)(+ 4.9b pronouns).

Though all four verbs contain semantic oppositions of emplacement ('here', 'come to') and displacement ('there', 'go to'), these semantic elements are rarely translated (except for le). Thus the glosses parenthesized are usually omitted, though often implied. As Edna Bobb explained it, le means you have to go somewhere else to do the action; me means you have to come to do the action. With me - mi,'(come to)' also has the sense of 'come to pass, become' as in archaic English phrases like "and so he came to dwell there".

Plenty of examples have been given already of auxiliaries ?i· and li· in 6.1 and 4.9; some have also been given of me - mi and le in 6.1. A few more examples of me - mi and le will now be given:

cel le t'āk'w 'I went home'
cel me t'āk'w 'I came home'
le cel t'āk'w 'I'm going home'
me cel t'āk'w 'I'm coming home'
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CHAPTER 7. PARTICLES

Particles are a small class of words which cannot be inflected and which includes subsets of interjections, conjunctions, modals, and adverbials. Not all conjunctions, modals or adverbials are particles in Halkomelem; many of them are intransitive verbs, and some conjunctions are Halkomelem demonstratives. But interjections are all treated like particles. In Halkomelem, conjunctions, modals, interjections, and adverbials are syntactic classes while particles, intransitive verbs, and demonstratives are inflectional classes. Within the class of particles, interjections are always stressed but conjunctions and modals seldom are and adverbials never are. Since particles can't be inflected there is little more to be said about them here except to list those found so far, with some examples. More will be said of them in the syntax chapter.

7.1. Interjections. These are mostly used in syntactic isolation; length can be stretched to : or even :: (three morae). The following have been found so far: qēlēmēʔ 'oh my goodness!', also lā qēlēmēʔ -

qēlēmēʔ 'oh my goodness!'
qēcele 'gee!, good grief!, my gosh!
qēlēlfi? 'yipes!, eek! (said to oneself or s-o else when
scared)' (some younger speakers (middle-aged, moderately fluent) say ?enem?)

?éê [?Iê] 'you're kidding! (slang popular at hop-picking 30 years ago)' (possibly < English slang, cp. "ish-kabibble", etc.)

lé?e 'hey!'

?í? 'stop!, (you're close to) danger!' (slang)
qíW¿qíWelex 'excuse me!, watch out please!'

lélse 'well! (if surprised)'

yuw 'how beautiful! (said when praising s-th beautiful you're admiring)', also yí:waqíwe and ?éyí:we 'how beautiful!, really beautiful!' (the -qíwe is an intensifier (adverbial) and may convert yu into a verb)

tu s?áí kíwe (perhaps tu s?áí-qíwe ?) 'that's terrible! (of s-o's actions)' (tu is probably an adverbial particle with intensifying force as listed below; s?áí may be the possessive pronoun 'our' or something entirely different)

?ó 'oh!' as in ?ó te xét'età 'oh the talking! (said when fed up with s-o talking too much)', ?ó telèwe sqímeey '(oh) you dog!', ?ó telèwe sipiyxýel '(oh) you crooked leg: (person)!', ?ó telèwe skíWeiy 'oh, you're stingy!', or ?ó te skí Weiy(y)ó 'oh, the pitiful person! (used of kids when hurt, etc.)'
(sk'wók'we 'pitiful person' may < sk'wíyeθ 'slave'
so I have added a parenthetic (y), thus sk'wók'we(y)θ)
ʔéʔé te swók' 'oh-oh, (here comes) the dandy!' (swók'
's-o who overdresses, a dandy', swók'lec 'a show-off,
comedian')
lew 'say! (said to get attention politely), hello
(greeting)', also le lew 'say! or hello! (to spouse)'
χː 'a sound of glad greeting to see children, made
while patting kids under chin with palm upright)'
(used by the oldest generations now remembered --
grandparents and great grandparents of today's eld-
ers who are themselves great grandparents and grand-
parents, but seldom used since)
ʔéʔé 'yes' (sometimes even [ʔóʔó]), also ʔé (apparently
when not initial in sentence) as in yáswe ʔé 'maybe
yes', li t'we ʔé 'must be', and li ʔé 'I guess so'
li ʔé (Cheh.) - li mè (Seabird Is.) - ñq' (RM of Sar-
dis) 'I guess so' (li is present in affirmative
reply to yes-no questions, see next item)
li 'I am, I do, yes, he is, he does, etc.' (affirmative
reply to yes-no questions which have interrogative
li)
(?iʔé·y - ʔéʔówéθ 'uh-huh (keep on going)(said to a
storyteller to show you are listening and awake)'
(all upriver dialects have the first form, ?iʔé·y
which is probably diminutive $R_4^-$ plus $\gamma \cdot y$ 'keep on (going)'; AC has it too but also uses $\gamma \delta \lambda \omega \varepsilon \tau$ (as do some others) in the same way as $\gamma i \gamma \cdot y$; since $R_4^-$ and $-\lambda \omega \varepsilon \tau$ ('polite imperative') are both inflections, neither word probably can be counted a particle.)

7.2. Conjunctions. Those which are particles include:
$qe$ 'and, but, or' (gloss depends on semantic environment though 'but' is also sometimes $qe$-$w$ or $qe$-$-$-$w$) (conjoins verbs, phrases, sentences, and sometimes even nouns) ($AC$ $qe$-$qes$)
$qes$ 'and' (conjoins numerals, independent pronouns, and nouns (nominals); precedes demonstrative article)
$su$ 'so, then' ($EB$: $qew$-$-o$-$-$ ($AC$) $qe$-$-$o 'until' (probably inflectable and not a particle))

Some of these can occur in combination with $qe$, modal $\delta e$, $we\tau$, and inflectable $\lambda a$ and $\gamma e$:
$qesu$ 'and so, and then'
$\gamma esu$ '(and) so'
$su\tau$ 'so (already)' ($su$ + $we\tau$)
$qew\tau$ 'and (already)'
($qe)\lambda a-_-su$ (pronoun set 4.8 can go in the blank) (used especially in narratives and stories)(the paradigm with 4.8 pronouns is as follows):
(qe)κ'α-λ-su 'and so I, and then I'
(qe)κ'α-ς-su 'and so you, and then you'
(qe)κ'α-(ς?ς)ς-su (~ (qe)κ'a(sē)su) 'and so/then he/she/it/they'
(qe)κ'α-ς?ςct-u 'and so/then we'
*(qe)κ'α-ς?ςlep-su 'and so/then you folks' (not yet attested)
κ'αςε su 'then he will, so it will be him that'
κεκ'αςεςε su 'and then they say he, and so it is said he/she/it/they'
(?e)wēs ... qe 'if not ... then'
Examples:
1. 1e ?εκ'qel qe ?εwēts ?α kapūs qe yīyeq 'He went outside without a coat (lit. "and he just had no coat") and it was snowing.'
1e lemēlsetexwēs te Bill te sq'ämēl x'welēm te Jim qe Bob 'Bill threw the paddle to Jim and Bob.'
cel k'welēmē qe Bob 'I saw you and Bob.'
c'εc'fc'εk' qe mōk' 'short and stout'
κ'αςεsu q'weylēx'q qe t'si'lem tel siye'yē 'My friends will sing and dance.'
2. κ'α swēs ?isēlē sqwemēy qēs te qēx pūs 'He has two dogs and lots of cats.'
cet ?itēl tlqē'yēs te Bill qēs te?ςεlēs 'Bill and I are eating right now.'
cet 'á'itél te Bill qes te 'Bill and I ate.'
qälqal qes te lêc'é 'eleven'
tux'elsx'è qes te tú'x'è 'ninety-nine'
sê t qes te swêyel 'night and day'

3. li lêm k'ìwe Bill qe Bob 'Did Bill or Bob go?'

k’á Bob qe k’á Bill 'It’s Bob or Bill.' (presumably
the second k’á would be absent if qe were 'and' here)

k’á Bob qe k’á Bill 'Is it Bob or is it Bill?

k’á t’we Bob qe k’á t’we Bill 'Maybe it’s Bob or maybe
it’s Bill.'

lîcx'w lîyêm qe lîcx'w xê'm 'Did you laugh or (did you)
cry?' (last five sentences by EB)

(AC) li cák'w te lêlêms qe li stêfîs 'Is his house far
or is it nearby?'

(AC) lîcx'w lî te sêfîws qe lîcx'w ūêk'êl 'Are you
on the outside (upriver side) or the inside (back
by the wall side) (of a bed)? (cp. lêmçex'w te ūêk'êl
'you go to the back (near the wall)')

4. lêmçex’âl qe cel ?áwe ?à 'I was going but I’m not now.'
cel wék’wák’wécet qe 1e-w lép’èxes ‘I was watching him
but he ate it.’

xéyëwetêm qe-w le x’ak’wêm ‘He was (being?) warned
but he bathed.’

The -w in the last two sentences may be an intensifier
suffix as with adverbial Vi's.
The page contains a passage from a text, possibly from a document or book. The text is written in a language that uses characters or symbols not commonly seen in English. The content seems to be a narrative or dialogue, possibly in a historical or cultural context. Due to the nature of the text, a precise translation or interpretation is not possible without advanced knowledge of the language. The text appears to be discussing events or situations involving people and actions, but the specifics are not clear due to the lack of context or familiarity with the language.
7. qēsu lēm 'and then he went'
qēqst te mēcēs qēsu yōq't k'we sīsq' 'strike the match
and light (burn) the kindling'
c'q'wēt te sqē·wē qēsu me lid·xem ḥtel lātel 'poke
the potato and put it/serve it on my dish'
qēsu tātel·ā·met yuq'ā·lem 'and (so) they understand'
8. qēsu lēm ye lī·k'w 'and so a few (people) came'
qēsu k'ē sqēlq'wels 'So that's their news/story/narrative'
qēsu ēt te sā·seq't, "k'áxc k'wel swē" 'So the young-
est (sister) says, "That (man) will be mine."
qēsu lēm yuq'ā·lem 'So they went and went.'
qēqēsu me hi·k'wēt te qā· 'and then the water got big'
qēqēsu k'wē·clēx'wes te sqēq'wē lī te smē·lt 'then he
saw the hole in the mountain'
qēqēsu le ē·m 'then it subsided/went down (flood
water)'
9. k'ēl·su:l xē·m k'wels ye'f·mex ' (so) I cried when
(while) I went walking'
k'ēl·su:l lēm t'ā·k'w 'I have to go home.'
su:l me k'wē·clēx'wes 'so he's got it' ('already', 'come,
come to' and 'happen to' are implied but not dir-
ectly translated in this example)
10. su le k'wē·clēt te hiyeq'tuk'a qswē lī te hiyeq'w
'So he looked at the fire and it was already in the
fire.' (CT)
le k'wélect xté ti ʔúk'a qewl k'esp'ólscem te stqá'ye
'She looked over there and the wolf was (already)
wagging his tail.' (CT)
qewl lc'm 'and he went'
11. ʔ'alsu tés k'we lq'é·loc '(So) I got to Vancouver.'
ʔ'alsu cié·met tel sk'í·xí. ʔ'alsu šategorie·wível,
ʔ'alsu tnet, 'lèw, siyéye' 'Then I heard my name.
I was dumbfounded, and so I said, "Hi friends"
cel lém te stá·lo ʔ'alsu k'wéclax' te qéx şéáq'í
'I went to the river and saw a lot of fish.'
ş'çel tatí·lt te hslq'eméylem sq'é·l ʔ'alsu ʔexé·ylt
'I'm learning the Halkomelem language and I'm writ-
ing it.'
le šemélstex'wes te sq'émöl qe¿'alsu k'wél'óx'w 'He threw
the paddle to me and I caught it.'
12. ʔ'asésu lém (?e - ?e here) 'then you go'
méx'íes te st'ale·áléstel qe¿'asésu k'wéclax'w 'Take off
your eyeglasses, and then you can see it.'
13. k'útes te lepél ʔ'esu k'waq'weáx'yes 'He took the
shovel and hit me.'
ʔ'asu tés te smé·lt qesu lc k'wetch'í·lem yuht'álem 'and
so they got to the mountain and (they) went inside
(into a cave)'
ʔ'esu le tés k'we semše te q'ax'wéle 'Then the big canoe
got to Sumas.'

mòk'wil slét k'wes ?emí(s) te lelémecet te ?isle spé. ?sasu ?éitel(s) te q'we?áp 'Every night two bears come to our house and eat apples.' (parenthesized -s possibly errors).

gék'asasu méytemét túx'a 'and so he was helped'
(čéyet, hewe?ét) gék'asu čé ms '(fight him, teasing him) till he cries'

14. ?as?éasu x'elmox'qel 1í te ôé 'Then they spoke Indian language there.'

?asésu ?átes te mestiyéx'w 'and so he called the people'

?asésu ?emí te steqá'ye 'then the wolf came'
(AC, hyper-slow) [le ?iyá'téél qé-?á-s?ís-su čam] 'they had a fight and he/she cried'

le ?iyá'qéet te smimoxétl gek'as?éasu x'é (xaliquát, smimayéθ) 'The caterpillar changed itself into a (moth, butterfly).' (lit. "and so it became a moth/butterfly")

le ?i¢e'tem gék'as?éasu calg'em 'he was cut and he bled'

gék'asésu le x'é (hyper-slow x'é) mestiyéx'w 'and so he turned into/became a person'

le òek'wétes gék'asésu òe?étes gék'asésu célq 'He pulled it and then pushed it and it fell.'
xʷáməxʷəlem qəh'əsəsu ʔəkʷxʷəl qəh'əsəsu (wəc'əxʷ, cəlq)
qəh'əsəsu ʔəkʷxʷəl 'He was running and he tripped
and fell and broke his leg.'

15. ʔəsəcətu wələm sqəeq'á 'so we'll go together'
ʔəwe lis ʔi qəh'əsəcətu ʔəcitəl 'He wasn't here and so
we ate (without him).'</n
16. ʔəcəsu qʷəyíləxʷ qə t'ʃəlem təl siyə:yə 'my
friends will sing and dance'

17. qəh'əə ʔəcə səsə (ləm, kʷütəm) 'and then they say he
(went, was grabbed)'

18. wəs ʔəsə te méles qə ʔəsə te ʔəʃəmees 'if it's not
his son, (then) it's his grandson'

7.3. Modals. Some particles have meanings associated
with English modal auxiliaries (probability of action,
obligation to perform action, etc.). A few words also
have such meanings but can be used otherwise as inflec-
ted Vi's (yáswe 'maybe, perhaps', ʔiyə:lem 'can, could;
(be) right, correct, okay', skəwə(·)y 'can't, be impos-
sible; be wrong', and ʔəʃə 'want'); these may be words
used both as Vi's and particles (they will be marked
as possible particles). The modal particles include:
θəc - ʔəc 'it is said, they (impersonal) say, so they
say'
t'we - t'əwe 'must, should', also in combinations like;
ʔət'əwehə 'must have', əl t'əwe 'I guess (uncertain)'
(probably contains interrogative if), and ?éy t'we
'it's better if, s-o had better'

k'wé 'anyway' (perhaps adverbial)

(related: yáswe, sk'wé'y, sk'í, and ?iyá'lem (but cp.
li ?ále 'Is that right?', ?iyá'lem probably < ?iy-
(affixed version of ?éy 'good'), ?ále 'right, cor-
rect', -ám 'middle voice' or < ?éy + ?ál as in
tus?éy?ál 'gently, softly' and lícx' we?éy?ál 'Are
you doing alright?') (modal but verbs not particles).

Some examples:

1. c'es 'so they say' (in a story by Mary Peters)(EB é's)
   (EB) é's lém 'they say he went'
   (EB) é's čét'estém k'wés k'wéclem 'they say he was seen'
   (čét'estém also means 'it is said')

2. t'we ?tset 'he must be sleeping'
   qóx t'we k'wé telé 'you must have a lot of money'
   spalaje'se t'we 'it must be a ghost'
   lí'á t'we 'must have been'
   ?tsetcel t'se ?tset 'I must have been asleep'
   yáswe t'we 'maybe it was' (?)
   sk'wé'y t'we k'wés lémso tóh'à 'It might be impossible
   for her to go.'
   sk'wé'y t'we k'wés lémnét 'We might not go.'

3. ?t'weññ łém 'He must have gone.'
   yáswe ?t'weññ há'yéél 'They may be finished eating.'
Perhaps they're finished eating.'

4. If t'we 'I guess.' (only attested in isolation)

5. ?ęy t'we k'wels lém 'I'd better go.' (lit. "it must be good that I go")

6. lém k'wë 'he went anyway'

stém k'wë k'we q'álstes 'What is he boiling (anyway).DOMINANT?

k'wek'ce'm k'wë "serves her right she's screaming now",

probably 'she's screaming anyway'

7. yá(•)swe (welêmèl, welêmex, welêmët, welêmëlep,

welëmes tū•k'á/a/θi•k'á/yuk'álem) '(I, you, we, you folks, he/she/they) might go.'

yá•swe welêmèl 'I don't know if I could go.'

yá•swe welís ?iyálem k'wels lém 'I don't know if it is/would be alright for me to go.'

yáswe k'wës ?iyálem k'wës lëms tū•k'á 'I don't know if it's alright/okay for him to go.'

yáswe wesk'wëyes k'wës lém 'I don't know if I'm able to go., I might not (be able to) go.'

yáswe wesk'wëyes (k'wës lém, k'wës lëms θi•k'á, k'wës lëmçet, k'wës lëmelep) '(You, she, we, you folks) might not be able to go., It might be impossible for (you, she, we, you folks) to go.' , (probably also 'I don't know if (you, she, we, you folks) are (un)able to go.')

8. ?f•? ?iyálem (k'wëls, k'wës) ?ètel '(I, you)
could have eaten.'

?í·ã ?iyá·lem kí·wí (í·že·els, í·že·el·cet, í·že·el·lép)

'(He/etc., we, you folks) could have eaten.'

9. For other examples of yá(·)swe 'perhaps', ?iyá·lem 'can', skí·w·é·y 'can't', and skí·fí 'want' see pronoun chapter, 4.8 and 4.9.

7.4. Adverbials. The following morphemes, listed as adverbial Vi's, are unstressed and uninflected and so may be particles: wez 'already', yez 'just, now', xí·al 'still, yet', í·el 'just, simply', kí·wá·tu 'really', and tu '(intensive)'. For examples of these adverbial particles or Vi's see the chapter on verbs, section 6.2.4.
CHAPTER 8. NOMINALS

8.0. Nominals include many morphemes which are underived nouns, plain and simple (such as q'w'əl 'ear', Θ(ε)q'εt 'tree', etc.). But even more common are words which have verb roots and a nominalizing prefix, s- or sx_w-. These function in every way like true nouns, but they are formed from verbs and are nominalized by the prefix just as even inflected verbs, verb phrases and sentences can be nominalized by the same prefix. So it seems best to call the whole class (including underived nouns) "nominals".

In addition to the s- and sx_w- prefixes, nominals can also be derived from other nominals or verbs by some lexical affixes (see Chapter 5). Verbs can also be relativized (nominalized?) by preceding them with a demonstrative article (tel s'f'k_w 'what I lost', te q'εq'εt'em 'something sweet'), but that is a matter for syntax; pronoun sets 4.3 and 4.11 are nominalized in this way too from the pronominal verbs of 4.1 and 4.2. Some interrogative verbs are also nominalized by affix or article to form the indefinite nominals. Numerals are nominalized by lexical affix, s- prefix, or article pre-position. Particles are the only inflectional class which cannot be nominalized by any means.

With some nominals: once the s- or sx_w- nominal-
izer is removed the root cannot be identified as a verb or anything else; the root is no longer attested elsewhere. With other nominals the s- or sx'- nominalizers are present in some dialects or idiolects and absent in others; in these cases the unprefixed form is still a nominal and is a synonym with the s- or sx'-prefixed form (or nearly so). Here are some examples of nominal derivation:

sp'a:k'em 'smoke' < p'a:k'em 'to smoke'
st'i:lem 'a song' < t'i:lem 'to sing'
s?fe'em 'clothes' < ?fe'em 'get dressed, dress oneself'
sq'ep 'a gathering' < q'ep 'gathered'
smák'w'em 'something second-hand' < mák'w'em 'use second-hand'

sk'wex'yë: m 'number' < k'wex'yë: m 'count'
sx'qeyqeyá:et 'sled, toboggan, ice skate' < qeyqeyá:et 'slide oneself, make oneself slip or slide'
sx'qá:ye:lep 'fire poker' < qá:y 'making, fixing' + Aa- + -lep 'firewood'

(Chill.) sc'e:lecture - (Tait) sx'c'e:lecture 'bench, chair' < c'e: 'be on top of', -lec 'rump, bottom', -tel 'device'

sqel's:w 'beaver' (root unattested elsewhere)

læx's-t'i:lem 'a person that always sings' < t'i:lem
cak'w'ales 'goatsbeard plant' < cák'w 'be distant, far'
+ R₁ - 'continuative'? + -á·ləs 'in the eyes'
ɪq'ɛ·c-əle 'five people' < ɪq'ɛ·ces 'five' + -əle
'people'
s-ɪq'ɛ·ces-s 'five o'clock' (/sɪq'ɛ·ces/) < ɪq'ɛ·ces
tələwe 'you' < ləwe 'it's you'
sʔəyi·ws 'the right side' < ʔəyi·ws 'be on the right'
(in turn < ʔəyi 'good' + -ʔ·ws 'on the body')
stəmɛstwe - kʷstəmɛs 'something' and stəmɛcɛlə 'some-
place, somewhere' < stəm 'what is it?, what?'
swátle 'somebody' < (tə)wɛt 'who?, who is it?'

Nominals cannot be inflected for case in Upriver Halkomelem; here case does not exist, not even the
relative case found in some other Coast Salish languages.
Syntax, prepositional verbs and co-ordination with pro-
noun affixes on the verb do the job of case. However,
nominals can be inflected for possessive, diminutive,
plural, and past tense. The sections to follow will
treat derivation of indefinite nominals, then the in-
flections of possessive, diminutive, plural, and past.

3.1. Indefinite nominals.
1. kʷ stəmɛs, kʷə stəmɛs, kʷə stəmɛs 'something'
2. təwɛtəs 'someone, somebody (unknown)'
3. stəmɛstwe 'something' (probably 'something unspeci-
fied')
4. təwɛtɛstwe 'somebody' (probably 'somebody unspeci-
5. k'wiléstwe 'unstated how many, "it doesn't say how many", an undetermined number' 
6. swátle 'so-and-so, somebody known (whose name is not known), what's-his-name' 
7. stámcole 'someplace, somewhere' (EB only) 
8. twétèsà 'anybody' 
9. k' stémés 'anything' 
10. ye twé 'k' (AC) - ye k'wétè (EB) 'a few, several (people or animals)' (contrast ?émímel 'a little bit, a small amount, a few') 
11. mésk'w stém 'everything' 
12. mésk'w(ə)wét(es) 'everybody'

From following examples it will be seen that the above are all nominals. They are all derived from interrogative verbs (stém 'what?, what is it?', (te)wét 'who?, who is it?', and k'f'il 'how many?, how many is it?'). Those deriving from stém and tewét could be said to be nominalized by s- and te- (though these are already present on the original verbs) because stém and tewét do have a nominal flavor as well and because tém (in temtém 'when?') and wét 'who is it?' are also found.

Indefinites 2, 3, 6, 7, 11, and 12 above are all attested following demonstrative articles. 1, 9 and 10
are not attested following demonstrative articles because they include the articles: 1 is really kʰ, kʰθe or kʰwe + stēmóš, but is not an indéfinite without the article; the citation form is kʰstēmóš. The same is true of 9 and 10; 10 includes the plural demonstrative article, and AC's form apparently has a metathesis of consonants deriving it from kʰfʰº.1. In addition to these features 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, and 9 have the suffix -es which seems derivational but is otherwise unclear. 3, 4, and 5 have the suffix -twε which seems to mean something like 'unspecified, unstated'; possibly it means 'uncertain' and relates to t'we as in lí t'we 'I guess so'. 6 and 7 have Aa (ablaut of root vowel e to a) as well as -cεle and -lε suffixes of uncertain significance; -cεle could be a metathesis of lεcε, EB's variant of lεcε 'where?'. 8 ends with -à 'just' (see adverbial Vi's), and a similar variant of 9 may exist too. 11 and 12 both have either prefixed or preposed məkʰ 'all, every' or use stēm and wēt(es) as suffixes.

Examples:

1. cel hékʰwεleś kʰ stēmóš 'I remembered something', sētqctes kʰwε stēmóš 'he lights something, he set something on fire' (cp. sētqctes kʰwε pîp 'he lights paper (on fire)'), yōqʰt kʰwε (stēmóš, sîsq) 'burn (some-
thing, kindling), c'q'wét k'wəe stəməs 'pok something, pick something up by spearing, spear something', ləwəʁyəs k'w stəməs li te sx'wət'kwəwel 'he/she sticks something into something hollow', x'wəyaləmt k'w stəməs 'measure something, weigh something' (x'wəyaləmt 'weigh/measure him/her/it/them' < x'wəyaləm 'rope, string, thread').

It may be good to retain abbreviation of transitive third person objects as "s-th/s-o" which really stand for "him, her, it, them" and to contrast these with "something" and "someone" (written out in full) which are only impersonal (and indefinite) as in k'w stəməs and təwətəs.

2. c'éc'aq'wəlm k'w təwətəs 'someone got shot', le təlstem k'w təwətəs wəls əq'fəməʁy's 'somebody stumbled while he was walking' (wəls appears to be an adverbial Vi or adverbial particle), le q'welq'weləses təwətəs 'he's telling on somebody' (sic lack of article)

3. k'weləses te stəməstwe 'he's holding something', ləcx'w k'wäti stəməst'we 'let go of something', and stəməstwe ṣəyə'te xəyp'et k'wel ṣəq'weləc 'something sharp scraped/scratched my back' (it would seem xəyp'et followed by an article should begin this sentence; the syntax seems unusual)

4. təwətəstwe sq'wəməʔ 'somebody's dog' (cp. təwət
sqwemę́y 'whose dog?')

5. ḡasę́su le ḡepį́l kʷwiléstwe yułálem swáwele
   'And so the young men went down, it doesn't say how
   many of them' (perhaps smoother in English: 'and so
   an unstated number of young men went down/descended')

6. c'c'eq wleq kʷswále 'so-and-so got shot,
   what's-his-name got shot', cel wawistelagmet te swále
   'I'm jealous of somebody', séiyę́p te swále 'somebody
   (who I know) is wearing a loincloth' (seiyę́p 'wearing
   a loincloth' > or < seiyę́p 'loincloth, dog hair cloth
   aprons'), (te) skʷį́x sy te swále 'somebody's name'

7. lémcel kʷwe stámcele 'I'm going someplace, I'm
   going somewhere'

8. tewéstasá kʷwe Ɂiyem 'Anybody can do the baking;',
   tewéstasá kʷwe Ɂem sqá́ 'Anybody can come along;',
   tewéstasá kʷwe kʷfį́ls kʷs mes yesqá́ 'Anybody that
   wants to can come along.' (without preceding article
   tewéstasá may be a verb in these examples)

9. No examples in sentences, just the citation form
   kʷ stámės 'anything'

10. (AC) Ɂesu Ɂem ye Ɂf·kʷ 'and so a few (people)
    came', (EB) sʔf·kʷ ye kʷfį́lė́s 'several people were
    lost (and presumed dead)' (kʷfį́lė́s 'several (people,
    animals)(exact number unknown)' as in kʷfį́lė́s t'we
    te múxmes 'there must be several cows'. Incidentally
the latter example within this parenthetical note contrasts t'we with -twe quite clearly), (EB) 'sxwəθəx'cexw k'w'emimel 'give me a few (berries for ex.), give me a little bit (water for ex.').

11. liq'wel te mək'i'wstəm 'all is calm, everything is calm', téwəl te mək'i'wstəm 'all is bright', mək'i'wstəm 'əy k'wəs θəyəm 'you cook (fix/make) everything nice (good)' (syntax is a little odd), mək'i'wstəm sxwə'ɛys 'good for everything' (cp. 'əswětə sxwə'ɛys 'good for nothing'), mək'i'wə sxw'lis te qাস. 'There's water everywhere.' (sxw'lis 'where it is'). (mək'i'w - (AC) mək'i'w seems to be an adjectival verb '(be) all, (be) every' as seen in the following: mək'i'w sələt 'every night', limləmetcəxw mək'i'w tel ə'xʷelwəstəm 'fold all my laundry!', sk'i'wəy k'wəs mək'i'wəlep ləm 'you can't all go', qək'asəsu ə'əm mək'i'w yək'yələm 'and so they all got in the canoe/got aboard'.

12. sk'is k'we mək'i'wəwətəs 'he likes everyone', wət əiyə'ələm k'we mək'i'wəwətəs 'enough for everybody', mək'i'wəwət ləm - mək'i'w ləm 'everybody went', mək'i'wəwətəs k'ək'ɛx'ələtəs 'he/she/they invited everybody', mək'i'wəwət le ə'yələs 'everyone left him'. Apparently mək'i'wstəm and mək'i'w(ə)wət(əs) have some syntactic features still to be figured out.

13. Although they formally resemble indefinites,
relativized interrogatives do not belong here as they are clearly verbs: westémesc kʷes ᖃbedtls 'what we'll eat, what it will be that we eat', ᖃwę_longitude_ 1ẹ ọt yaw'álem westémes te qá 'They didn't say what the water was (fresh or salt water)' (EB) cuł ᖃq'élexʷ (westémes, wetew̕êtes, we?is lécə, wexʷcó·les, we?is tel·ósc kʷses xʷe?i·) 'I know (what it is, who it is, where it is, where he's going, where he came from).'

14. ᖃwę_longitude_ 'none, nobody, nothing' either belongs here or with negative verbs ('be/have none/nobody/no-thing'); its class is unclear as yet. Thus ᖃwę_longitude_ me xʷe?i· 'Nobody came.', ᖃwę_longitude_ i· 'He's not here.', ᖃwę_longitude_·še i· m 'I didn't pick anything.'

8.2. Possessive Inflection. Possessive inflection has already been described in the chapter on pronouns; see 4.6 and 4.7. The third person possessive suffix is used instead of a genitive case: te sléxʷes kʷes te swiyeqe 'the man's canoe' (lit. "the canoe—his the man"). Partitives use prepositional Vi telí 'from': te látécə telí te swáweles 'one of the young men' (lit. "the one-person from the young men"), or látécə telíxʷeilíməz 'one of us'.

8.3. Diminutive Inflection. Diminutive inflections of nominals is done by several types of reduplication: most often by R₄ (C₁i-), but also by R₁ (-C₁o-
after $V_1$), $R_3$ ($C_1 e C_2$) (once), $R_5$ ($C_1 e$), $R_6$ ($-e C_2$ before $V_1$) and $R_7$ ($C_1 e$). Since this has been treated in detail in the morphophonemics (2.5) only a few examples need be given here; 'pet name' belongs here as a morphosememic variety of 'diminutive'. There are also diminutive lexical affixes (for example $-iyə$ in Chapter 5), but they are clearly derivational.

**Examples:**

$R_1$: q'eq'emi 'little girl' $< q'e·mi$ 'adolescent girl', stätəlo(w) 'creek' $<$ stā·lo(w) 'river', x̱eqəse 'little lake' $< x̱ə·ce$ 'lake', hůheliyə 'small-sized humpback salmon' $<$ hů·liyə - hó·liyə 'humpback salmon', tétəl 'Mom (pet name)' $<$ tē·l - tē·l 'mother', sísele 'grandparent' $<$ sí·le 

$R_3$: sycler 'a little bluff' $<$ycler 'a bluff, cliff'

$R_4$: sqiqwəθə 'small rabbit' $<$ sqēwəθ 'big rabbit, rabbit', θeteqət 'little tree' $<$ θ(e)qət 'tree', sqwećəmcy 'puppy' $<$ sqwećə(y) 'dog', mîmxəyat 'little navel' $<$ mọxəyat 'navel, belly button', xʷixəlmečə 'little Indian' $<$ xʷəlmečə 'Indian', limskʷwil 'small cross' $<$ lēskʷwil 'cross (grave or rosary)', θieθə'yət 'bead' $<$ θeθə'yət 'gravel (smaller than pebbles)', sqiqemel 'puberty hut' $<$ sqemel 'pit house', sk'ix'əleqəm 'little supernatural creature' $<$ sk'e·leqəm
'supernatural creature (generic)'

\[ R_5: \quad wq^{\text{w}e}\text{g}^{\text{w}e} \cdot l \quad 'small (singed cedar) float for nets', \]
\[ sx^{w}e^{x}wiy'em \quad 'story, fable' \quad < \quad (E + S) \quad sx^{w}ey^{x}m \quad 'myth' \]

\[ R_6: \quad spal\{\cdot\}l \quad 'small crow' \quad < \quad sp\{\cdot\}l \quad 'crow', \]
\[ x^{w}e^{x}wiy^{x}ye \quad 'housefly' \quad < \quad x^{w}e^{x}w^{x}ye \quad 'big fly, blowfly' \]

\[ R_7: \quad m\text{m}e\text{m}elh\{\cdot\}l \quad 'bird egg' \quad < \quad m\text{m}el \quad 'child', \quad h\{\cdot\}l \quad 'young' \]

Only \( R_4 \) and \( R_1 \) are still productive diminutive inflections.

\[ 8.4. \text{Plural Inflection.} \quad \text{Plural inflection of} \]
\[ \text{nominals involves a great variety of processes and} \]
\[ \text{affixes, most of which have already been dealt with} \]
\[ \text{in the morphophonemics (2.3 and 2.5, q.v.). Nominals} \]
\[ \text{can be pluralized by reduplication (} R_2, R_3, R_5, R_6, R_7, \text{and } R_8), \text{by ablaut (} A\text{i}^{	ext{.}}, A\text{e}^{	ext{.}}, A\text{e}^{y}, A\text{a}, A\text{w}) \text{and by} \]
\[ \text{plural infix -}e\text{1- } -le-. \]

\[ \text{Inflected plurals usually imply ['many'] not just} \]
\[ ['more than one'] \text{or ['a few'] (even with paired body} \]
\[ \text{parts). Since this is true, they are seldom used} \]
\[ \text{with the lower numbers -- for example, } l^{x}w^{x}\text{le} \]
\[ s\text{i}\text{y}^{a}l\text{ex}^{w}\text{e} \quad 'three old people' \text{uses the singular rather} \]
\[ \text{than the plural } s\text{i}^{\cdot}y\text{a}^{\cdot}l\text{ex}^{w}\text{e} \quad 'old people'. \text{Further,} \]
\[ \text{not all nominals can be pluralized; those that cannot} \]
\[ \text{can be preceded by the plural demonstrative article} \]
\[ ye \text{or modified by } q^{x}y \quad 'many' \text{or some other verb or} \]
context implying multiplicity. If the nominal is not pluralized by inflection, modification or context it can be assumed to be singular.

Diminutives with R₄⁻ are almost always pluralized by A̱ on the vowel /i/ in the reduplication; diminutives with other types of R tend to have plurals made with the -el- -le- infix rather than an additional reduplication. Nominals with reduplication for other purposes (derivational, continuative, etc.) sometimes replace that R with R₂ plural reduplication. All these adjustments reflect a dissimilation of processes. Inflection (if possible) is preferred to other ways of indicating plurality of nominals. But AC had noticeably fewer inflected plurals than speakers of Tait and Chehalis dialects; it is unclear whether that is idiolectal or dialectal.

Following are some examples of nominals inflected for plural:

R₂: syéq'yeq' 'a lot of logs' < syéqq 'a log', possibly st'él't'él 'person that sings all the time (any song), a singer' (probably pluralized action)

R₃: qélqélém 'lots of eyes' < qélém 'eye', cēlēx₇ 'hands' < cēlēx 'hand', st'él't'ilém 'songs' < st'ilém 'song', sewsəwálem 'games' < sewálem - səwálem 'game', xʷey̓x̌wiyəy̓əx̌əm 'movies, motion pic-
tures' (/əy// → /iy/ here) < sx'uyGi 'image, picture, photo', siłle-lí '(lots of) women' < sje-lí 'woman, female', smètèxw'tel 'husband's brothers, wife's sisters' < smètèxw'tel 'husband's brother, wife's sister', sp'eq'p'iq' 'white spots on skin' < sp'iq' 'white spot on skin', se'èk'sèik'w 'lots of sores' < se'èk'sèik'w 'a sore', sqwèməq'məmxʷ 'lots of lumps (any size); anthills' < sqw'áməmxʷ - sqw'áməθ' 'lump', mèxć'emx c'el 'lots of lice' < mèxć'el 'louse', təeq'eq'et 'trees, timber' < təeq'et 'tree' + Aθ, smèlamałt 'rocks, mountains' < smèlnt 'rock, mountain', sʔem'amélc 'Thompson Indian people' < sʔamélc 'Thompson Indian'

R₅: sxəg'ctype 'legs, feet' < sxələ 'leg, foot' + Aεy, spələ(•)l 'bunch of small crows' < spələ(•)l 'small crow', q'eq'elu'mi 'lots of little girls' < q'eq'emu 'little girl' (diminutive R₁ → R₅ and infix -el- is added), skwèkləlws 'child's in-laws, in-laws from any side' < skwèkləws 'child's in-law, in-law from any side' + Ai

R₆: sc'iuyáyə 'twins', seléleç' 'two different things' < sel~c' 'different (thing)'

R₇: mémełə 'children (kinterm)' < mêlə 'child (kinterm), offspring', txw'mémełəm 'stepchildren' < txw'mélem 'stepchild'
Rg: stɛfi·wel 'sibling's children' < stɛ·wel 'sibling's child (nephew, niece)', (EB only) lɛlɛlɛm 'houses' - AC qëx te lɛlɛm 'houses, a lot of houses' < lɛlɛm 'house'

Ai: si·yá(*·)lex*we (possibly - si·yalɛx*we) 'old people' < siyá(*)lex*we 'old person; old', si·yɛ·m 'high people, chiefs, leaders' < siyɛ·m 'chief, leader, high person', si·yɛ·ye 'lots of friends' < siyɛ·ye 'friend', si·wìiyeqe 'men' < swìiyeqe 'man, male', sɛ·wele·k 'sons-in-law, daughters-in-law' < sɛwele·k 'son-in-law, daughter-in-law', ɛ·wil·p'ayeqw - ɛ'eš·p'ayeqw 'great great grandparents or -children' < ɛ'p'ayeqw 'great great grandparent/-child' + additional -el- or R5-

Asy: sxɛxɛyle 'legs, feet' < sxɛle 'leg, foot' + R5

Ae*: sk'wɛ·to - sk'wel·to 'in-laws' < sk'wifto 'in-law (parent/-child/-sibling-in-law)', sxwem·le·lekw 'parent's siblings' < sxwem·lew 'parent's sibling' (both this and the previous example have an additional -le- plural infix), sɛ·k'etel 'older siblings, older cousins (children of older siblings of parent, etc.)' < sɛk'etel 'older sibling, older cousin'

Aa: swáwëleš 'adolescent boys' < swíweleš 'adolescent boy'

Ae: ɛeqeqset 'trees, timber, forest, thicket' <
θ(e)qést 'tree' + R₃, qʷqʷe̍lə̱̑y 'lots of little pieces of driftwood' < qʷi̱x̂ə̱y 'driftwood' or more likely from an R₄ diminutive of qʷi̱x̂ə̱y so far unattested

Aœ + diminutive: xʷqʷelə̱̑mə̱xʷ 'little Indians' < xʷiqʷelə̱̑mə̱xʷ 'little Indian', sqʷqʷə̱mə̱y 'puppies' < sqʷqʷə̱mə̱y 'puppy', sqʷə̱qʷə̱mə̱yces 'pussy willow (lit. "puppies in the hand")' < sqʷqʷə̱mə̱y, mə̱mə̱leqə̱l 'small containers (a number of them)' < mə̱mə̱leqə̱l 'small container', mə̱me̱stə̱tə̱mə̱xʷ 'kids (slang)' < mə̱me̱stə̱tə̱mə̱xʷ 'little person', sče̱čə̱sə̱m 'small plants' < sče̱čə̱sə̱m 'plants, things growing', qʷə̱qʷə̱mə̱lə̱̑qə̱l 'lots of minnows' (singular unattested yet)

-ə̱l- -ə̱-: qʷe̱(*)lə̱̑mi 'adolescent girls' < qʷe̱mi 'adolescent girl', sq̌elə̱̑q 'younger siblings' < sq̌e̱q 'younger sibling', sxʷə̱mə̱lə̱̑kə̱  'parent's siblings' < sxʷə̱mə̱lə̱̑kə̱ 'parent's sibling', (AC) sčə̱lə̱̑mə̱qʷ - (Tait) sčə̱lə̱̑mə̱qʷ - (Tait) sčə̱lə̱̑mə̱qʷ 'great grandparents, great grandchildren' < sčə̱mə̱qʷ 'great grandparent, great grandchild', θə̱lə̱̑pə̱yə̱qʷ 'great great grandparents/-children' < θə̱pə̱yə̱qʷ 'great great grandparent/-child', skʷə̱lə̱̑kə̱ - skʷə̱lə̱̑kə̱ 'in-laws' < skʷə̱lə̱̑kə̱ 'in-law', sq̌elə̱̑qə̱l 'babies' < sq̌e̱qə̱l 'baby' (< sq̌e̱q 'younger sibling' + -e̱lə̱̑ 'lacking'), (Tait) cə̱lə̱̑xʷ(s) 'wives' < cə̱xʷ 'wife', swə̱lə̱̑qə̱θ 'husbands' < swə̱qə̱θ 'husband', sxʷə̱lə̱̑qʷiyə̱θ 'ancient

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people (over a hundred years old, can't move, just lay
there in pit house, take liquids; in spring they dig
out the roof to get them out into the sun)' < sxwex'iyem
'story, legend', sléxe'ex 'fingers' < sléxe'ex 'finger',
slénx'el 'toes' < slénx'el 'toe', steliq'ixw 'horses
(like a herd or bunch)' < stiq'ixw 'horse', stelq'aye
'wolves' (used of as few as four in one story) <
stiq'ye 'wolf', x'elq'tele 'deer (lit. "long legs")',
x'elq'telec 'pheasant (lit. "long tails")', x'eleqtx'el
'long legs, long-legged' as in x'eleqtx'el q'esq'osecel
'daddy long legs, long-legged spider' and x'eleqtx'el
q'eq'él (spelw'él q'eq'él) 'leatherjacket, long-legged
mosquito (not actually a mosquito)' (spelw'él q'eq'él
is lit. "last year's mosquito")
-él- ~ -le- + diminutive or other R₁
q'esq'elé'emi 'little girls' < q'esq'émi 'little girl'
(R₁ → R₅ 'diminutive'), sc'emc'á'leq'w 'eldest great
grandchildren' < sc'emc'á'leq'w 'eldest great grand-
child', čelič'elsá'lél 'baby chicks' < čič'elsá'lél
'baby chick' (so far unattested) < čič'el(s) 'chicken',
heheléwt or heheléwt 'a few little rats' < hihiwt
'little rat, small rat' < háwt 'rat', teléqsexl
'baby ducks' < teléqsexl 'duck' (< tá'1 'go to the
river' + xé + -q'al 'nose', i.e. "nose goes to the
river" or "river-nose")
8.5. Past Inflection. Nominals can be inflected with the same past tense suffix used with some verbs and auxiliaries, -_tE -e_T -e_I. Here it seems to have allomorph -e_I also, but this is probably from morphophonemic rules of vowel combination as it replaces final schwa in several vowel-final words (e + e → e_I). The past morpheme has the alloseme ['deceased'] in the affixed environment of animate nominals (and demonstrative independent pronouns); with inanimate nominals it has the alloseme ['former']; it seems sometimes to combine a past tense meaning first with the verbal root of nominals which have clear verbal roots, rather than the adjectival meaning 'former' with the resultant nominal.

The past inflection seems to be used with nominals mainly for deceased animates; there it is optional, implying respect and reverence just as the words 'late' and 'deceased' do in English. However it is obligatory with three or four kinship terms where it has become derivational as a lexical affix (see Chapter 5). The past suffix also occurs on some nominals for time which can also be used as adverbial Vi's (i.e. without an article). Its use with inanimate nominals is only attested in two examples and seems rather rare; more frequent is the interposition of ?I_T between the
demonstrative article and the nominal (and its possessive, if present)(see 6.1.8.4.2 examples).

Examples of past inflection of nominals (and of some demonstrative pronouns)(all examples from AC unless noted):

k'wel sī.lē·'i 'my late/deceased grandfather' (CT gives the same forms and also gives k'wel sī.lē·'i 'my late/deceased grandfather')
k'wel sī.selē·'i 'my late/deceased grandmother' (CT gives instead k'wel sī.selē·'i 'my late/deceased grandmother' with feminine article k'wē; AC used k'wel for both sexes at times and used sī.lē for 'grandfather' and sī.selē for 'grandmother' at times).
k'wel selsī.lē·'i 'my late/deceased grandparents'
k'wel mēlē·'i 'my late/deceased child'
k'wḗ.h'ā·'i 'that was him (deceased)' (demonstrative, q.v.)
k'wḗ.h'ā·'i 'that was her (deceased)' (demonstrative)
k'wḗ.h'ā·lēmēž 'that was them (deceased)' (dem.)
swēlmēž (possibly sic for swēlmēz ?) 'child of deceased sibling' (< wēlem 'orphan')
smestiyḗ 'sibling of deceased parent'
sx'wēmēiyḗ·'i - (Tait) qeyē·'i 'deceased uncle/aunt/grandmother/s-o who is responsible for you directly
or indirectly!

(EB) sq$έ·ls τε? syuwé·le± 'words of your ancestors'
when used as nominals: spelwé± 'last year' and
celéqet(ε±) 'yesterday'

lím me k$έ·k'ewé± te stalo lí te sx$é± 'Is the river
flowing (spilling) into the old riverbed (former
place where it was)?)

(CT) tél sx$έ·f·mexγέ± 'where I used to walk, my former
place of walking' (EB, EL, and others from Cheh.
have θε νε instead of tél as if the person who sings
this song had lived downriver and learned downriver
or island Halkomelem dialects).

8.6. Internal Syntax. From the examples and the
nature of their inflections it can be concluded that
if all nominal inflections were to occur within a word
'diminutive' would be first, then 'plural', then 'past',
then 'nominalizer', and finally possession. The rea-
sons for this conclusion are: 1. Plural inflections
sometimes bisect and sometimes ablaut the diminutive
inflection itself, but the reverse is not true,
2. Diminutive and plural are usually infixed or pre-
fixed and when suffixed they are reduplication; past
is only suffixed and suffixes occur after internal
processes like reduplication and ablaut, 3. Nominal-
izers s- and sx$- are added after diminutive and plural,
and if past is a verbal tense nominalization must follow it too. 4. Possessive inflection must be physically attached after nominalization because it precedes it in several persons and even attaches to nominalizing articles.
CHAPTER 9. DEMONSTRATIVES

9.0. There are six types of demonstratives in Upper Stalo Halkomelem: 1. Demonstrative Articles (required before every nominal but expressing sex gender, proximity, visibility, indefiniteness, genericness, and sometimes plural human or absent human), 2. Demonstrative Conjunctions (used to conjoin verbs and verb phrases but clearly related to the indefinite/abstract/distant article k'w'e), 3. Nominal Demonstratives (demonstrative morphemes with preceding articles, used as nominals such as 'this thing here' and 'that person (nearby)'), 4. Adverbial Demonstratives (demonstratives which modify verbs and can be conjugated like adverbial Vi's, these are compounded mostly of verbs ?i' or li', followed by the nominal demonstratives (article + demonstrative morpheme)), 5. k'á 'that's __, it's/he's/she's __' (doesn't fit any of the other categories of demonstratives; it seems verbal but is not clearly a verb; however, it has a clear demonstrative translation), and 6. Pronominal Demonstratives/Demonstrative Pronouns (used as independent personal pronouns but derived from k'á + demonstrative articles and used to express sex gender, number, proximity, past (deceased), and diminutive of 3rd person personal pronouns). Each of these types
of demonstratives will be dealt with in a section of this chapter. The demonstrative system discussed is that of AC with confirmation by EB (Chehalis) and CT (Tait) in most cases.

Halkomelem demonstratives are hard to translate because most are indefinite and incomplete without a context. Furthermore, the context is seldom expressed within the sentence containing the demonstrative; it is often completed in other places in a text or conversation or by gestures or not at all. Most of the examples cited here of demonstratives in sentences or phrases are not from texts but were elicited as independent sentences. However, translations of the demonstratives were possible because, in addition to textual sentences, some of the sentences do contain the semantic context, and in other phrases or single-demonstrative elicitations the speaker gave parenthetical explanations of the semantic context. Especially helpful were demonstratives given in sets and contrasted with each other or in sentences identical except for changing demonstratives. Such examples will be given wherever possible.

9.1. Demonstrative Articles. These are used as articles in the true sense of the word: obligatory before nominals, translated by 'the', 'a', 'some', etc.
But the Halkomelem articles also express the following semantic components: masculine sex gender, feminine sex gender, gender unspecified, human, inanimate, present (in proximity), near, distant, proximity unspecified, visible, not visible, indefinite, generic, deceased, abstract or hypothetical, and plural. These components are combined into semantic bundles which are inflectional categories and can be indicated as follows (using abbreviations similar to those in Suttles\(^1\)): m. = masculine sex gender, gender unspecified, or inanimate; f. = feminine sex gender; h. = human and gender unspecified; p. = present and visible, or proximity unspecified; n. = near and not visible; r. = remote, distant (and not visible), abstract (or hypothetical), indefinite, generic, or past (perhaps also deceased); pl. = plural. These categories are combined paradigmatically in the demonstrative articles as seen in the following table:

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>m.</th>
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<th>h.</th>
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<tr>
<td>p.</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>te</td>
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<tr>
<td>n.</td>
<td>k(^w)oe</td>
<td>se, k(^w)se</td>
<td>k'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r.</td>
<td>k(^w)e</td>
<td>k(^w)oe,k(^w)se</td>
<td>k'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pl.</td>
<td>any m.</td>
<td>any f.</td>
<td>ye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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1. Wayne Suttles; op. cit.
Thus ðe, for example, means 'the (masculine/gender unspecified/inanimate + present and visible/proximity unspecified)'. When appearing before a nominal which is already masculine (like swiyeqə 'man' or swéqeθ 'husband') the masculine component is merely in agreement; when appearing before an animate nominal which is not marked for sex otherwise (like siyálexʷə 'old person' or sk'ít'áeqəθ 'child'), ðe can specify the sex clearly (ðe siyálexʷə 'the old man') or remain ambiguous depending on the context and specificity of the speaker (ðe siyálexʷə 'the old person'). Again depending on the context and specificity or focus of the speaker, any of the preceding examples could be either present and visible or proximity unspecified. When used with an inanimate nominal (like smé·It 'rock, mountain'), ðe may also mean either present and visible or proximity unspecified, depending on the context or specificity desired. In some cases the context conflicts with either masculine or present and visible components and yet ðe is still used; in these cases the unspecified alternates are called for (ðe stá·les 'the wife', lí ðe cá·kʷ 'far away'). ðe can also be used with human plurals though ye is the article for that especially (ðe sté·xʷəθ 'the children'). Since ðe can be either specific or unspecific it is some-
times ambiguous when the context is incomplete.

k'w'e means 'the (masculine/gender unspecified/inanimate + near but not visible)'. With k'w'e, m. works the same way as it does with te. The contrast is with 'near but not visible'. A few examples will illustrate: li ?i· k'w'e məl 'Is your father here?', li, sk'wetex' k'wel məl 'Yes, my father's inside.', ?e'ləce k'wel x'wylem 'Where's my thread?', le li te s?ə·h'q k'wel məle 'My child is outside.', cel səq'əleh' k'w'e si·le 'I know your grandfather (absent).', k'wel si·ləz 'my deceased/late grandfather' (AC also uses k'w'e with 'deceased (past time) human').

k'w'e, like te, can also be interpreted in a number of ways: 'the (masculine/gender unspecified/inanimate + distant (and not visible)/abstract (or hypothetical)/indefinite/generic/past), some, a'. (EB has k'w'e - k'we). With respect to m., k'w'e works much like te. With respect to r., k'w'e also depends on the context and the specificity or focus of the speaker. k'w'e can imply 'distant (and not visible)' with subjects or objects of verbs (especially prepositional verb li 'at, to, in'): li(yə) qəx k'w'e siyəz li k'w'e lélem 'Is there a lot of wood at your house?' ("Is it lots, the (distant) wood at your (distant) house?"), h'alsu təs k'w'e həq'ə·lac 'So I reached Vancouver',

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le qé·1tem k·W Bill 'Bill was robbed.' k·We is used for abstract nominals (and especially for conjoining dependent verb phrases and clauses, see 9.2); stém k·W e sk·l 'What do you want?', stém k·W e sk·ix·y's te ?i·le 'What is the name of this?, What is this called?'. When desired, k·W e can be used as an indefinite article, translated by 'some', etc.: l sk·l k·W e qá· 'I want water., I want some water.', le Giyqw·tes k·W e sθ·6k·W 'He dug for worms.', lifx·lθ·yt k·W e p·áθ·es 'Are you making a baby basket/cradle?', mecx·l?i· k·W e lėt k·W e s?é·tēl 'Come here and bring some food!', le hē·wē k·W e sp·θ 'He went hunting for bear.' (EB: k·W stémēs 'something', k·W s?é·tēl 'some food', as well as examples with k·W e). k·W e also seems generic at times (some of the preceding examples could be so interpreted as can the following): stē?e k·W e sθ·áqwi 'It's like a fish.', stē?e k·W e sq·mey 'like a dog', te?á·mex·y k·W e swiyeqe 'looks like a man', stē?e k·W e stá·lo 'like a river'. k·W e used for 'past' can be seen before some adverbial words which otherwise seem like adverbial Vi's: k·W e celéqēθ(eθ) 'yesterday', k·W e spelwēθ 'last year' (EB: k·W spelwēθ, k·W celéqēθ(eθ)); the k·W e (or k·W) can be omitted with no change in meaning or syntactic position but perhaps with more of a verbal function. At any rate, te and
k'wëe are not attested before these words. k'wë 'past' also turns up in yewelëmels k'wë 1910 'before 1910' and yewelëmels k'wë s'ëx'ëxët 'before Sunday'. Wayne Suttles reports that k'wë is used in the Musqueam dialect (at Vancouver) to show that a following human nominal is deceased; CT has such forms in variation with k'wëe (k'wël/k'wël s'ëlët 'my deceased/late grandfather'), though my notes for AC show only k'wëe with such past tense nouns (possibly more elicitation of past nominals would have turned up a k'wë). When referring to deceased persons without using the past tense suffix AC, EB, CT, and others seemed to freely use any of the other articles. Perhaps k'wë - k'wëe - k'wë are only required in Upper Stalo dialects when the nominal has the -ët (etc.) suffix (compare the pronominal demonstratives in 9.6 which shed additional light).

The f. articles are used only with animate nominals and are less complex. p. works with them as it does with te. There are few examples of the n. and r. forms, but it seems that se - k'wëse for n., and k'wëe - k'wës for r. Examples:

2. Wayne Suttles: op. cit.
k'wámét ᑕ ᑎ ᑎ 'raise a girl child', meyáxwes ᑎ ᑎ 'Mary (present and visible) helped me.', le xwécák'wel ᑎ 'Mary 'Where is Mary going? (she's present)', cel stîq'elxw ᑎ stâ·lēs 'I know your wife (present or absent)', le li k'wē sâ'á·mes ᑎ smèle 'My daughter is in Victoria.' cel k'wéclexw ᑎ stîlî·lî ᑎ (mîmèle, ᑎ ᑎ) 'I saw your (daughters, hens).' li ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ 'Is my mother there (sic here)?' li ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ 'Is my mother (at home)?' liyē sk'wetēxw ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ 'Is Mary inside?'; cel k'wéclexw k'wē (sî·sēlē, stâ·lēs, sx'wəmlî·k'wē, stî·wel) 'I saw your (grandmother, wife, aunt, niece).', (CT) k'wēl si·sēlē·h 'my deceased grandmother'; sî·lî (k'wē) sâ·mēl ᑎ 'her/his child is a girl', lêmcel k'wē sî·glî·ip 'I'm going to the strawberry patch.'

'k' means 'human, gender unspecified, absent'; it is attested in 17 examples (AG and EB) but only before proper names. Some of the examples are: mey(-áxwes, -tálxwes, -gâm, -tâ'lêm)-cē k' Bill wexwē'f's 'Bill will help (me, us, you, you folks) when he gets here.', le ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ ᑎAlbert stət̓ís ᑎ 'Albert sat beside (near/next to) Amy.', le ᑎ ᑎ ᑎ 'Oliver Wells qe Casey Wells tē sq'wēl'î·lēs ᑎ 'Daniel Milo qe Bob Joe li tē machines tē xwēlītēm
'Oliver Wells and Casey Wells made the voices of Daniel Milo and Bob Joe on the white man's machines.',

k'á te əé les ʔiléqeq̩təs k' Bill te sqʷəmɛ'ɬy 'That's what Bill bought for the dog.', mêyékəx̣̱es k' Bill

'Bill (absent, even if in next room) helped me.',

mêyékəx̣̱es k' Méli 'Mary (absent, even if in next room) helped me.', mêyəx̣̱m k' Méli 'Mary (absent)

helped you.'

ye means 'human, gender unspecified, plural'

but in a few cases may be used with non-humans. It is apparently used quite sporadically. Sometimes it appears as yi, and sometimes as ye with stress at a higher pitch than any high stress on the fol-

lowing nominal (a feature shared with the other articles, see Chapter 1, section 1.2.19). Examples include: q'eqeqəet ye xʷəlməxʷ 'the Indians gathered',

qéł ye xʷəlməxʷ 'bad people, the people are bad'

(Indian people but at a time before other races were known, therefore also 'people'), ḣeq'ež ʔəst'ə ye

xʷəlməxʷ 'the (Indian) people used to say',

ʔəst'əestex̣̱es ye xʷelítem "cave" 'White people call it "cave".', (NP) ɬí'm ye sèləsəlɪf 'the women are picking (berries)', qéx ye qʷəl 'lots of mosquitoes',

ye li'k'šʷ k'ə Kamloops 'some (people) from Kamloops',

ʔesu ləm ye li'k'šʷ 'and so a few (people) came',

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s'i:k'w ye k'i:flè's 'several people were lost (and presumed dead)' (EB), yi əɛ - ye əɛ 'those people, them' (see 9.3), mêyt yi əɛ (or ye əɛ) 'help those people', ličx'w k'i:clèx'w (yiəɛ, yi ?i:me?) 'Did you see (them, them walking (those people))?', yux'áləm 'they, them (gender unspecified)' (see 9.6)(contrast ?i:xtəl 'they, them (known to speaker)(gender unspecified)'), qəx yi ?i:xtəl 'many people fighting', ?i:ya ye q'áq'vel 'the speeches/talking went on (and on)', (EB) la q'ep'łax'wes wiyaθə k'w su hələms ye mêləs 'He got me addicted to always going to spirit dances.' (From the examples seen it appears yi may be an allomorph before words beginning with /ʔ/ and in free variation with ye before əɛ.)

Before presenting some final examples contrasting the articles, a few more comments should be made about some uses of articles in general. Articles are seldom fully translated, especially in regard to proximity and visibility. They are not translated at all before proper names. Before nominals inflected by possessive pronouns the sex reference is translated when it is not redundant (təl sələ 'my grandfather'), but the proximity is usually just implied, and of course an English article cannot be used ('the my grandfather'). Similarly in constructing numerals
over ten and not even multiples of ten, the articles are required but are not translated (ʔ'apəl qəs ʔe ʔisələ - ʔ'apəl qəs k'wə ʔisələ 'twelve', etc.); it is not clear yet whether they retain any implications of proximity (see Chapter 10). Hours are felt to be nominals and so are nominalized by s- and require an untranslated article (te s-ixʷ-s 'three o'clock').

k'we is the article used to nominalize (relativize) verb phrases and sentences (which are probably considered abstract or not visible). But rarely te can be used also, perhaps when there is a concrete object or person which is present and visible which the verb phrase is semantically equivalent to:

ʔ'eq'eqʷtes te q'eq'et'əm 'he's sucking something sweet'

stəm te ?i·xʷ ʔeq'yt 'What are you making?' (cp.

təwət k'wə ?i·xʷ ʔeq'eqət te swətel 'Who are you making the net for?')

stəm te ?i·xʷ k'welet 'What is it you're holding?' (cp. təwət swiyeqe k'wəe ?ixʷ sə·wəq'et 'What man are you looking for?'), k'ə k'wele k'wəe ?ixʷ hə·yət 'Is that my child you're talking about?', k'ə k'wəe xʷk'ə·qtes 'That's the one with a long face.', and cel k'weklexʷ k'wəe lu·ləm 'I saw the one who went.'
(Notice how the syntactic structure differs when it is the object from when it is the subject of the subordinate verb that is nominalized/relativized:
main verb $k^{w}e/_{\text{te}}(-4,8)$ verb = subject of subordinate verb is relativized/nominalized
main verb $k^{w}e/_{\text{te}}$ $l{\text{i}}/_{?i}(-4,9b)$ verb = object of subordinate verb is relativized/nominalized.
The second construction however is only in questions. See syntax chapter.)
$qf^{\text{i}}e/_{\text{t}}es$ te $?i/_{\text{le}}$ $k^{i}e/_{\text{w}}$ 'He caught the one who escaped.'
$k^{w}ak^{w}elx^{?e}$ es te sq^{i}?ls 'He's hiding what he stole.'
$cel$ tat$i/_{\text{lt}}$ es te sq^{w}e/_{\text{l}} 'I'm thinking of what you said (your words).'

Another point that might be mentioned here is that adjectival verbs can modify nominals in the following order: article adj.verb nominal. This means that articles can precede adjectival verbs; however the adjectival verb is never inflected for subject or tense in this position -- it behaves more like a traditional English adjective. For example:
$te$ $hik^{w}$ sq?e/_{\text{e}} 'a big bear', $te$ $hik^{w}$ x^{w}et$es$ mest$iyex^{w}$ 'a big heavy person', $te$ qel sq?aq^{\text{ey}} 'a bad sickness', $te$ $qiya/_{\text{mex}}^{y}$ stx?li 'the good-looking woman', $sk^{i}/ce/_{\text{t}}$ $k^{w}e$ qex te/_{\text{le}} 'We want lots of money.'
Contrastive examples of demonstrative articles:

1. liye sk'etexʷ kʷθč swíyeqč ḷč mělə 'Is your son inside?'
   liye sk'etexʷ se Mary 'Is Mary inside?'
2. me stítis kʷθč yəwəl 'He came close to the first.'
3. cel k'íləs təl (měl, swéqč) 'I love my (father, husband).'</n
   cel k'íləs θəl (təl, stá'les, q'čmí) 'I love my
   (mother, wife, girlfriend).'</n
4. cel k'wčleexʷ tə (měməles tə spčθ, swéqčes)
   'I saw the (bear's children, husbands).'</n
   cel k'wčleexʷ θə (steltá'les, sśčl spčθ, sśčl ḷč
   stí'wəl, sślc'čl ḷč méməle, sślc'čl ḷč ččk'wəl)
   'I saw (the wives, a female bear, your niece, your
   daughters, your hen).'

   cel k'wčleexʷ kʷθč (sťle, swéqčθ, k'wiyá's, sx'wəmlč'lekw,
   sľsťle, měməle, ststl'wəl) 'I saw your (grandfather,
   husband, uncle (ceremonial usage), parent's
   siblings, grandparents, children, sibling's child-
   ren).'</n
5. cel sśq'čleexʷ (tč sťle, kʷθč sťle, tč měməle,
   ḷč stá'les) 'I know your (grandfather (present),
grandfather (absent), children (present or absent),
wife (present or absent)). '
6. ?I'k cel lI kWsc 'elxWiyq 'I was at Chilliwack.'
cel ?I' te sc 'elxWiyq 'I'm here at Chilliwack.'
7. le x'Wel sm te Agassiz 'He went to Agassiz instead
(speaker is at Agassiz).'
le x'Wel sm kW Agassiz 'He went to Agassiz instead
(Agassiz is far away).'
8. le x'cák Wel kW Mary 'Where is Mary going? (she's
not here)'
le x'cák Wel Qe Mary 'Where is Mary going? (she's
here with speaker)'
9. meyáx Y es kW (Bill, Mél) '(Bill, Mary), absent
even if in next room, helped me.'
meyáx Y es te Bill, Qe Mél 'Bill, Mary), present,
helped me.'
10. lém kW (cúc, ?shífw) 'go (toward the water,
upstream)'

9.2. Demonstrative Conjunctions. There are
several conjunctions derived from the m.r. demonstra-
tive articles kWsc and kW(sc). All of them end with
an -s which nominalizes the phrase that follows and
is related to the s- nominalizer; all of them use
pronoun set 4.8 to express the personal pronoun sub-
ject of the verb phrase nominalized. So the verb
phrase is first nominalized, then possessed by its subject pronoun. The k'w'e forms alternate freely with k'w forms in the third person. In addition the k'w forms (which seem to occur only in the third person) have another free variant, k'w'ses, with the possessive pronoun -s attached to the conjunction after the -s nominalizer, instead of being suffixed to the verb following the conjunction. This produces the following set:

1st person sg. k'w'e-1-s 'that I'
2nd person sg. k'w-ε-s 'that you'
3rd person  k'w'e-s.  __-s  →  k'w's __-s  →  k'w'ses
                   'that he/she/it/they'

1st person pl.  k'w'e-s __-cot 'that we'
2nd person pl.  k'w-ε-s __-elep 'that you folks'

The demonstrative conjunction 'because' is formed by prefixing k'a- or k'e- to the above set (k'ak'w'els, k'ak'w'es, k'ak'w'ses, etc.).

The set glossed above as 'that I', etc. really has many glosses depending on the English syntax of the translation: 'that, to (infinitive), for, when (simultaneous), while, as' and sometimes not translated at all (especially after adverbial Vi's). (The 'when' is simultaneous, not conditional like that of we- 'subjunctive'; it is more synonymous with 'while'
or 'as'). Besides the examples below, examples can be found in 4.8.

1. cel *éclexʷ kʷes q'élexʷes te swíykg te spéθ
   'I heard that the man killed a bear.'
   ?ewétel sk'élq'elwexʷ kʷes q'espsce k'wē ?I·kʷelä
   'I didn't know there was going to be a gathering here.'
   sk'élq'k'wels q'él k'wēs lēwes
   'I couldn't believe it was you.'

2. If? *é sk'f kʷes xwiyšeqeqšax'y
   'Do you want to interpret for me? ("Is it your wish that you interpret me?")'
   s'éwät k'wel mel k'wēs k'welšax'y
   'My father knows how to shoot.'

3. Le *f·wesšax'y es k'wels t'f·cem
   'He showed me how to swim.'

4. lixʷ weq'ey *él q'wáq wel k'wēs me[s] k'wētxweltem te
   xweltem 'Were you still talking softly when the white man came in?'

5. wiyaθ k'wēs ?I·wálems te stē·xwel, t'it'elem k'wēs
   ?I·wálems 'The children are always playing, singing as they're playing.'

6. wiyaθ k'wēs *éwáhelcs 'He's always spitting.'
   sk'élq'k'wēs k'welšclaxʷ cet
   'We can't see it.'
sk'wε'y k'wεs k'wεclew'elep 'You folks can't see it.'
liʔiyálem k'wεl's k'wεclew' liʔ te ʔε 'Can I see it from there (in that place)?'
s(ε)lε k'wεs q'εyset te x'wεylem - q'εyset te x'wεylem k'wεs s(ε)lε 'tie the rope tight' (no subject)
x'wεm (k'wεls, k'wεs, k'wεses, k'wεsct, k'wεs(es)elep) me
?εylex'w 'I, you, he/she/etc., we, you folks) got well fast.' (the k'wεsect and k'wεs(es)elep forms may be errors of AC or alternate forms)
6. cel sɛq'εelix'w k'wεses spɛ•ʔ - cel sɛq'εelix'w k'w's spɛ•ʔs 'I know it was a bear.'
(EB) (ε)l sq'εleweł k'w's mɛs ʔɛmɛx'w tlaʔewyel 'I think it's going (lit. "coming") to rain today.'
(EB) lɛcɛ'w cesɛ•t k'w's les k'wɛl•em k'w sʔɛtɛl 'Send him to get food!'
(EB) ?fɛ•ce k'we lə k'w's q'εlɛmɛt 'This is where we'll camp., It will be here that we camp.'
7. le hə k'wɛx'yes ʔεl tə•l te x'wɛylem k'wεses p'ɛwiytes tɛl s'fɛ•ʔɛm 'My mother used the thread to patch up my dress.'
ʔɛmɛx'w k'wεses wek həy te slɛx'wεls 'It rained when their canoe was done (completed).'
x'welɛmɛx'qεl k'wεses q'wâq'wel 'he's speaking in Indian'
(cel x'welɛmɛx'qεl 'I spoke Indian, I spoke in the Indian language')
temtém k’w’ses lém 'When did he go?'
λ’as’esu tsá’s k’w’ses q’áy ḡe stá’les 'and so he was heartbroken/ he felt really bad when his wife died'
x’wis k’w’ses cëlq te qá: 'where (it is that) the water is falling'
c’i’tcel mok’w yuł’álem k’w’ses ?i’wesèx’yes x’welé:m te sx’el’méx’èḵ s’i’wes 'I thank them all for teaching me about (toward) the Indian way of teachings.'
cel x’welé:mét te siyá lex’w’k’w’ses t’i’lém’t te swés sy’uwl' ḡ 'I listened to the old man (or old person) sing his (own) spirit song.'
8. lecel t’á’k’w λ’ak’w’ses ?e’k’w tel téle 'I’m going home because my money ran out.'

(The remaining examples in number 8 here are from Mamie Cooper and Susan (Malloway) Jimmie, both speakers of Chilliwack Halkomelem originally from Sardis but now living near Deming, Washington.)
lecel ?e’yal (λ’ak’w’els, λ’ak’w’ws, λ’ak’w’w’ses) ?e t’et’iyeq' 'I left because (I was, you were, he was) mad.'
cet le (or lecel) ?e’yal λ’ak’w’cet t’et’iyeq' 'We left because we were mad.'
cép le (or lecep) ?e’yal λ’ek’w’selep t’et’iyeq' 'You folks left because you were mad.'
le ?e’yal ?e’itél λ’ek’w’w’w’ses t’et’iyeq' 'They left
because they were mad.'

Q. xʷ?ít kʷ'ex ḥ̓eˈwe l̓íxʷ lėm 'Why didn't you go?'
A. kʷ'akʷ'ses ḥ̓eˈme ḥ̓eˈme 'Because it was raining.'

Q. st̓em kʷe t̓st̓iy̓ eq'eq'meˈte ḥ̓eˈme 'What are you mad at?'
A. kʷ'akʷ'es q̓eˈls̓eˈme ḥ̓eˈme 'Because you stole my oolcans (eulachons).'

9.3. Nominal Demonstratives.

te ṭ̓eˈle 'this thing here, this one, this'
te ḥ̓aˈle 'this (person here), this' (> t̓la- or t̓la- with temporal words).

θe ḥ̓aˈle 'this (female person here)'
kʷ'e ḥ̓aˈle 'this (abstract thing, manner or place), here
(after ḥ̓me 'come')
t̓e ḥ̓aˈe (EB often has [t̓θ̓a]) 'that thing there, that one (usually inanimate)'
kʷ'e ḥ̓aˈe or kʷeˈh̓aˈe 'that person (near, perhaps visible)'
ye ḥ̓aˈe - yi ḥ̓aˈe 'those people (there), them (human)'
t̓e ḥ̓iˈliˈe 'that one (yonder), that one over there
(probably inanimate)'

From the articles present and the nominal translations it is easy to see why the above are called nominal demonstratives. They are used as nominal subjects and objects of verbs; occasionally they are used as adjectives syntactically, but then nominals can be so used anyway (θe s̓eˈleˈl̓e s̓eˈl̓e 'the female
bear', etc. -- see syntax). The core of these expressions seems to be a small group of demonstrative words: ?i·le, là, òë and lì· tì. Only li· tì 'over there' can appear without a demonstrative article (see 9.4), though all four words (without the articles) seem somewhat like Vadv's or Vajs and both li· tì and ?i·le seem to derive from demonstrative verbs (?i· 'be here' and li· 'be there'). It may be less difficult to account for the demonstrative words separate from the articles when more examples are obtained; right now it is difficult to explain why te ?i·le, te òë, and probably te li· tì are inanimate and te là is animate; with more examples too perhaps all the articles would turn up before each of the four demonstrative words. At present it seems safest to treat (article + demonstrative word) in these cases as a single unit, a nominal demonstrative.

Examples:

1. tewët te ?i·le 'Who owns this?, Whose is this?', el skët te ?i·le 'This is the one I want.', k'ë te ?i·le 'It's this one., That's this one.', stëm këwë skët us te ?i·le 'What do you call this?, What is the name of this thing?', stëm te ?i·le 'What's this?', tewët këwë òët te ?i·le 'Who made this?'

2. te làswëyëqe 'this man', te là mestìyëw 'this
person', te là 'he's here (present)', ḥ'à te là 'Is that your child there (present + visible)?' ('that' probably sic for 'this'), tlaq's-ys 'right now (this moment)', tlà x'welalt 'tonight, this evening', tlàwēyâl - tlàwēyâl 'today (this day)'

3. ṭe là sêlif 'this woman (near the speaker)', ḥ'à ṭe là sêlif 'Is it this woman? (pointing)'

4. le xéstxʷes kʷe là li te sqélxʷes 'He was doing this in his throat (sticking a twig down it)', Q. How do you pick hops? A. xéstxʷes kʷe là 'One does like this (gesturing)' (in both sentences so far xéstxʷes is I believe an error for xéstxʷes 'he does s-th'), (EB) st'ē kʷe là 'like this' (vs. st'ē te ṭe 'like that'), (EB) ḥ'à kʷe là 'Is this it?', (AC) mīzi kʷe là 'come here! (to s-o farther away who can see the speaker)', mīcel kʷe là 'I'm coming here.', (EB) cel mī kʷe là kʷ celqelqel qe ?éwacxʷ ?Ixʷ xʷəʔi. 'I came here yesterday and (= but) you weren't here (you didn't get here).'

5. (EB) st'ē t(e) ṭe 'like that', tēltel te ṭe 'that's a bailer', ḥ'à te ṭe 'Is that the one?', ḥ'à te ṭe 'That's the one.', (EB) ḥ'à te ṭe les ?ilēq̓ełctes ḥ' Bill te sqwemèy 'That's what Bill bought for the dog.', (AC) ḥ'à te ṭe le ?ēystxʷ tel sqwemèy 'Is that the one (a cow) that was chas-
ing after my dog?", stém te _EOF  'What's that (visible)?', smeilt te _EOF  'That's a rock.', te _EOF  lî  tî 'that thing yonder', qêx te tîles te _EOF  swîyes 'That man has lots of money.'

6. k'â k'wê _EOF  'It's him (right out there, visible?)', k'â  k'wê  'Is that the one?', k'â k'wê  'That's the one.', stêm k'wê  'What's that?' (the context given for this is "you've got a fish caught in front of you" (near but invisible?)), k'wê .EOF  'that's him (a person)' (cp. te _EOF  'that's it (a thing)')

7. lê x'ehîwel yi _EOF  'Those people are going upstream.', k'â ye _EOF  'that's them (if you see them)', yu'k'âlem ye _EOF  'That's them there.', méyt ye _EOF  'help them (those people)', k'â têls yi _EOF  'That's their mother.', stotîs yi _EOF  'She's near/close to them.', lîc'w k'wêclex'w yi _EOF  'Did you see them?'

8. te lî  tî 'that's the one, that one over there (motioning)', stêm te lî  tî c'îc'êsəm  'What's that growing (over there)?'  

9.4. Adverbial Demonstratives.

?î  k'wê là 'here, in this place' (often written ?î k'welâ and ?îk'welâ)
lî k'â là 'way over there'
lî te _EOF  'there (close), over there, in that place'
lî k'wê _EOF  (EB lî k'wê _EOF  'there (distant)'

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tī 'over there' (?)

?ī· tī 'over here'

lī· tī 'over there'

possibly ɣtē tī 'over there, around there' (?)

?ī· 'be here' and lī· 'be there' belong here too but have already been considered as verbs (see 6.2.7).

Adverbial demonstratives modify verbs and can be conjugated like adverbial Vi's (by inflecting the demonstrative verbs they contain, ?ī· and lī·). They are compounded mostly of verbs ?ī(·) and lī(·), followed by the nominal demonstratives (9.3); an exception to such derivation is tī which seems to be adverbial on its own account as well as in combination with ?ī· and lī·. Another exception may be lī ɣ‘ā lā because ɣ‘ā, though demonstrative, is not a demonstrative article, and ɣ‘ā lā is not independently attested as a nominal demonstrative. It is interesting that combinations like *?ī· te lā,

*lī· k‘wē lā, *lī· te tī, etc. have not been attested. With adverbial demonstratives the articles do not always express proximity in the same way as they do with nominals (the use of k‘wē 'distant' with ?ī· k‘wē lā or ?ī·k‘wēlā 'here' is a case in point). At any rate, adverbial demonstratives behave as adverbial phrases and are so positioned syntactically too.
Examples:

1. Íéq'et ?ík'welà 'lay/put it down here', cel ?í· k'wë là 'I'm here' (cp. cel ?í· - ?í·cel 'I'm here', cel ?í· tí 'I'm over here', cel ?í· tí 'I'm over there')), cexw ?í k'wë là t'ít'ílem 'You're here singing.' (cp. ?í·cexw li· tí k'wës t'ít'ílem 'You were there singing. '), liye ?í·k'welà 'Is it here?', le ?í·k'welà 'He's over here.', ?í·cexw (?ík'welà, li· tí) 'You were (here, there).', sk'wëy k'wës k'wëclexw ?ík'welà 'You can't see it here.', me ?ák'w teli k'wë cák'w k'esu ?ík'welà k'wës òiyéltx'wem 'He flew from far away and he makes his home here.', ?éw'tél s'iéq'éliexw k'wës q'épsce k'wë ?í·k'welà 'I didn't know there was going to be a gathering here.'

2. ?í·ce k'wë là k'wes q'élsmeet 'It will be here that we camp,. This is where we'll make camp.', ?ícel ?à k'wë là 'I'm staying right here.' (?à - ?à - ?àl 'just'), ?í·celce ?à k'wë là qe x'wë?í·cex'wce 'I'll stay right here till you get here.', ?í·celce ?à k'wë là qe tèsce ?à te sléc'es 'I'll be here till one o'clock.' But ?ík'welà te sc'á·k'wëls 'This is a fork. (sic? 'The fork is here.') and ?ík'wëla lélem 'this house'; the latter seems ungrammatical (probably an error), and the former was probably a mistranslation.
3. No examples was obtained of 1í k'á là in a sentence, just a citation as 'way over there'.

4. 1í te əë 'over there, there close' (cp. 1í· ti 'there (a little farther), yonder, over there', and 1í k'wə əë 'there (far away)'), lec'ō·mx' 1í te əë, lec'ō·mx' 1í k'wə əë 'a different tribe here (lit. 'there (near)'), a different tribe there (far)', əí·əcal 1í te əë 'I was there.', cel mélgæles 1ís k'wí·l sw'ýel kw'ses sk'wótx' 1í te əë yuñ'ə·lem 'I've forgotten how many days they were inside there.', 1í ?iy'ə·lem k'wels kw'sclox' 1í te əë 'Can I see it from there (in that place),'

5. See 4. above for examples of 1í k'wə əë. EB has 1í k'wə əë as follows: 1í k'wə əē tlaq'ys 'He's there now (speaker at Sardis, subject at Seabird Island, 20 miles away or so and not visible', 1í k'wə əë kw'ses k'elóx' 'He's living there.', tewt k'wə 1í k'wə əë 'Who's there?' (and cp. 1í te cák' 'way far, far away' and têlí k'wə cák' 'from far away')

6. le hél·əm ti 'They're on their way there.'

7. cel əí· ti 'I'm over here.'

8. cel 1í· ti 'I'm over there' (farther than 1í te əë, close than 1í te cák''), le 1í· ti 'It's over there., He's over there., etc.', liye ti 'Is it over there?', te əë 1í· ti 'that thing yonder', əí·əcem'
li· ti 'you were (over) there', ?f· i·ces t· k·wes
t·it'elem 'You were (over) there singing.', le q·eq·ip
li· ti 'They're together over there.', li· ti te
sc·elstel 'The chair's over there.'

9. mecx· χet· ti 'come around over there!', χet· ti
'over there' (cp. ?x·w·ft k·wes χet· t(a) θε 'Why did he
do that?' which implies that χet means 'do', cp. also
χet'stet·ex·wes 'he did s·th').

9.5. χ'á 'that's ___ , it's/he's/she's ___ '.

This word is used to refer to animate things according
to EB but even in her speech is sometimes used to refer
to inanimate things. This seems true of AC and NP as
well. In the semantic frame, 'That's a bailer.',
VELO te θε must be used and χ'á te VELO is not
allowed. But at the same time, χ'á te θε 'that's the
one, it's that one (inanimate)' and similar phrases are
allowed, and χ'á seems to conjoin abstract concepts
and verb phrases as well (see chapter on particles).
In addition to such examples, the following are typical
examples, and show the kind of verbal demonstrative
character which χ'á has:

χ'á sêl'k·a 'that's/he's/she's the older (sibling)'
χ'á sáseq·t 'that's/he's/she's the younger (sibling)'
χ'á sék'stel·k·a 'that's her older sister'
χ'á têls yi θε 'that's their mother'
κ'ά ʔε swé 'that's yours'
κ'ά ʔε swé, ʔε swéʔelǝp, sʔáti tɛl 'that's (your, you folks's, our) mother'
κ'ά tûʔκ'ά 'that's him, it's him'
κ'άl (séręstel, sqɛq, stáles) 'that's my (older sibling, younger sibling, wife)'
κ'ά ʔiʔ memíyet 'that's the one that was helping s-o'
κ'ά te sʔeʔi-wces 'it's his right hand'
κ'ά te (Bill, mísme, xwexwèye) 'that's (Bill, a cow, a fly)'

Notice that κ'ά is always first in a sentence, and that it can allow the demonstrative article to be omitted before following nominals. κ'ά can receive possessive pronoun inflection for the following nominal. Other examples have been given of κ'ά inflected for future tense as well (κ'άce Bill 'it will be Bill').

9.6. Pronominal Demonstratives (or Demonstrative Pronouns). These words function as independent pronouns (several have been discussed already in 4.3 and in 8.5). Some of the less common ones are added here, showing inflections for 'absent', for 'deceased', and for 'diminutive'. I have not obtained any of these less common types in sentences, but I think they can be presumed to function syntactically like the more common ones, tûʔκ'ά, ʔeʔκ'ά, yuʔálem, tuʔálem and ᵁʔuʔálem. They
are listed as demonstratives or demonstrative because they change their demonstrative article prefixes (or roots?) to reflect sex, gender, proximity and number. They begin with demonstrative articles which have their \( e \rightarrow \ddot{u}w \) (\( u \) in plural forms); these articles are prefixed to demonstrative root \( \ddot{h}'\dot{a} - \ddot{h}'\dot{a} \). In the plural and diminutive a final \(-m\) is added as part of the root, and then the plural infix \(-le- -el-\) is added, or diminutive reduplication \(-R_{\ddot{u}}\) is added, or both. The past (deceased) forms are suffixed with \(-\ddot{e} - -el-\) past tense suffix. AC readily produced all these forms, but I suspect they are reserved for formal usage (perhaps in speeches or texts) rather than being used in normal conversation.

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<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>h.pl.</th>
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<tr>
<td>sg.</td>
<td>tū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )</td>
<td>θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )</td>
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<tr>
<td>pl.</td>
<td>tū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )le</td>
<td>θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )le</td>
<td>yū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )le (\dddot{e})le</td>
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<tr>
<td>absent</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )le</td>
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<tr>
<td>deceased</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )(\dddot{e} )</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )(\dddot{e} )</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})θū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )le (\dddot{e}) le</td>
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<tr>
<td>diminutive</td>
<td>tū(^{\dddot{w}})(\dot{a} )(\dddot{e})lem</td>
<td>(?)</td>
<td>k(^{\dddot{w}})(\dddot{e})la (\dddot{e})m</td>
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(also diminutive pl. (m.?) tū\(^{\dddot{w}}\)\(\dddot{e}\)la \(\dddot{e}\)m)

These are translated:

- tū\(^{\dddot{w}}\)\(\dot{a} \) 'that's him, he, him'
- θū\(^{\dddot{w}}\)\(\dot{a} \) 'that's her, she, her'
- tū\(^{\dddot{w}}\)\(\dot{a} \)le 'that's them (male), they (male), them (male)'

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θ'αləm 'that's them (female), they (female), them (female)'

yuθ'αlem 'that's them (gender unspecified), they, them'

k'θ'α 'that's him (absent), that's her (absent), it's him (absent), it's her (absent)'

k'suθ'α 'that's her (absent)'

k'θ'αlem 'that's them (absent, not present)'

k'θ'αζ 'that was him (deceased)'

k'suθ'αζ 'that was her (deceased)'

k'θ'αləm 'that was them (deceased)'

tuθ'αem 'that's a little one (male, about one to five years old) (insulting to use for old person)'

k'suθ'ələm 'that's them (little kids), they're little kids' (not used much says AC)

tuk'suθ'ələm 'that's them (little ones) (male?)'
CHAPTER 10. NUMERALS

10.0. Introduction. The paragraph on numerals in Chapter 3 (pp. 134-135) serves as the best introduction to Halkomelem numerals and should be reread at this point. The lexical suffixes added to numerals as classifiers have been discussed, with their distributions, in 5.2.2 (pp. 190-194). Morphophonemic changes are numerous in the stems and even in some of the suffixes of numerals. Most have been mentioned in the morphophonemics chapter: stress shift (2.3.3.3), vowel deletion (2.3.3.4), ablaut (2.3.4)(e* → e, e* → á*, e → á*, i* → e, á* → e, some of it triggered by specific lexical suffixes), -insertion (2.3.5.1), vowel combination (2.3.5.2), suffix allomorphy with vowel alternation (2.3.6). What remains in this chapter is to give the basic numeral system with analysis and derivation (10.1), the rules of allomorphy of the numeral roots when affixed (10.2), and samples of the sets of numerals for illustration.

10.1. The Basic Numeral System. The basic system could be called cardinal numbers, if there is any use for such a term here, or perhaps better, unclassified numerals. These are the numerals which are used to refer to anything not covered by the numeral classifier lexical affixes. Thus this set contains the
unmarked forms, used to refer to animals, mountains, leaves, days, years, etc.; these forms can even be used to refer to classified things like houses, garments, etc. when the nominal for house, garment, etc. follows or when a person wants to be less specific or emphatic. This is typical of unmarked forms.

These forms also contain the base forms which yield the allomorphs and input to the morphophonemic rules.

léc's 'one'

?isé'e 'two'

zí'x'w - lí'x'w 'three'

xe'á'qel - xe'á'qel 'four'

z(e)q'c'es 'five' (< z(e)q'c't 'be wide', -c's 'in the hand')

t'x'em 'six' (probably < the root in s-t'ex-léc 'fork in a tree, fork at the bottom' and t'x-'qet 'forks in a stream')

?e'á'k's 'seven'

taq'é'ces 'eight' (possibly related to taq'é't 'close s-th')

tú'x'w 'nine'

?á'qel - ?á'qel 'ten'

θem- is a root for 'two' which appears in θemé 'twice, two times' and sθemélts 'Tuesday'

mós is a root which appears in the Tait dialect of SP.
and AD, but only in s-mós, a rare alternate form for sxeʔá(·)ól's 'Thursday'; SP and AD reported that their parents used s móś for 'Thursday' sometimes).

ʔápel qes te/kʷe lóč'e 'eleven' (ten and the one)
ʔápel qes te/kʷe ṭis’e:le 'twelve' (ten and the two)

etc. 'thirteen' through 'nineteen'
c’kʷex'y' 'twenty' (possibly c'- lexical prefix + kʷex'y- 'count'; the word for 'number' is s-kʷex'y-m, from the same root)
c’kʷex'y qes te/kʷe lóč'e 'twenty-one'

etc. 'twenty-two' through 'twenty-nine'
ɪélxʷelsx'y' '30'
ɪélxʷelsx'y qes te/kʷe lóč'e '31', etc.
ɬəɛxʷelsx'y' '40'
ɬəɛxʷelsx'y qes te/kʷe lóč'e '41', etc.
ɪɬq’ecelsx’y ( (NP) ɬq’ecelsx’y) '50'
ɪɬq’ecelsx’y qes te/kʷe lóč’e ‘51’, etc.
t’q’emelsx’y ( (NP) t’q’emelsx’y) '60'
t’q’emelsx’y qes te/kʷe lóč’e ‘61'
ɬ’əxʷecelsx’y' '70'
ɬ’əxʷecelsx’y qes te/kʷe lóč’e ‘71’
t’əq’ecelsx’y' '80'
t’əq’ecelsx’y qes te/kʷe lóč’e ‘81’
t’u’xʷelsx’y’ '90'
t’u’xʷelsx’y qes te/kʷe lóč’e ‘91’
lē·c'ewec '100' (< lē·c' 'different', -ewec 'in the back')
lē·c'ewec qws te/k'wē lēc'o '101', etc.
lē·c'ewec qws te tu·x'wesx'ág qws te tu·x'w '199'
?isē·le lē·c'ewec '200'
etc. '300' through '900'
?ápēl k'w's lē·c'ewec '1000'

The system is a decimal system. Traces of a quaternary system can be seen in the facts that 'one' through 'four' are not analyzable at present but 'five', 'six', and 'eight' can be derived, and that 'eight' may signify a 'closing' from its derivation and since it is two cycles of four, the sacred number. (Things are often done four times in religious ceremonies, etc.) Many of the most fluent speakers could not count much above ten in Halkomelem; I believe this reflects the pre-contact situation too, since qēx was and is used to replace any higher numbers the person does not know or doesn't want to specify; qēx 'many, lots' is especially used (even by those who know the forms) to replace classified numbers over 40 people, over five times, etc.

The use of qws is explained in the chapter on particles (see section on conjunctions). The use of te or k'wē has been explained in the chapter on
demonstratives (see demonstrative articles). The function of k's in '1000' is unclear but it looks like a demonstrative (q.v.). It is also unclear why 'twenty' has the form and root it does (instead of ?isf·le or θem-).

10.2. Allomorphy of Numeral Roots.

1. lōc'ē → s1ōc'ē/ ___-ē lp
2. ?isf·le → θem/ ___-ē Σ
   → θemēlt/ s-_s
   → yēys/ ___-ē lē
   → ?isf/ ___-ē lp (which later → -ē lp)
   → ?isl/ ___-vC (related to rule 2.3.3.5)
3. ḫ·x → ḫxʷ/ ___-v ... (but not before -mā·t)
   (related to rule 2.3.3.4; perhaps all that's needed here instead of rule 3 is a statement that ḫxʷmā·t is an exception to rule 2.3.3.4)
4. χē?ā(·)θēl → χēθēlē/ ___-ē lē, -lpw, -ē lp, -ē s
   → χēθēl/ ___-ē Σ, -ōwēs, (prob. -ē pwtxʷ,
   -ē lwt)
5. ε'k'wɔs → ε'k'wɔc/ ___-elsx'vē
   → ε'k'wɔs/ ___-ē lē, -ē Σ
6. ?ā(·)pēl → ?āpē·le/ ___-ē s
7. c'k'wex v → c'k'wex vē/ ___-ē lē, -ē s
8. υl, υs → υ/ ___-elsx'vē, -ē lē
9. υs → υ/ ___-ē s
10. #C(C)v → #C(C)v/ ___-elsx'vē (in addition to
unrounded vowel → e/ -elsxˈʃə (see rule 5, p. 83, under ablaut triggering)

(Two additional rules are needed for affix allomorphy not involving vowel alternation and not mentioned in 2.3.6:

11. -ełə 'people' → R₁₂ : 'person'/ lęcˈə

12. -ełə 'times' → -exˈw/ lęcˈə

→ -e/ əem)

10.3. Numeral sets with lexical affixes (or classifiers). The lexical affixes for these sets include: -es 'dollars', -ełə 'people', s- -s 'o'clock', s- -s 'day of the week', -əwəs 'canoe paddles, paddlers', -ełə 'times', -iəw 'fish (heads)', -elsxˈʃə 'times ten, -ty', -əlp 'trees', -mət 'piles', -əlwət 'garments', -ələwxˈw 'houses', -əweł 'canoes', -əyiəs 'pants', -ələs 'spherical objects, fruit', -eqəl 'containers', -ələlə 'young', -əltəwxˈw 'wives', -əmcə 'poles, upright', possibly -ı́wəs 'birds'.

Counting dollars: lęcˈes 'one dollar', ʔisə́les 'two dollars', ələwxˈwes 'three dollars', ʔəθə́les 'four dollars', ʔəqˈə́xes 'five dollars', tˈxə́mos 'six dollars', ələwxˈwes 'seven dollars', ʔəcə́cə́s 'eight dollars', tələwxˈwes 'nine dollars', ʔəpə́les 'ten dollars', ʔəpə́les əeses kwə́ lęcˈes 'eleven dollars', cˈəkwə́xˈʃə́s - cəkwə́xˈʃə́s 'twenty dollars', ʔəlxˈwelsxˈʃə́s 'thirty
dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'forty dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'fifty dollars', t'eq'melsx'y's 'sixty dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'seventy dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'eighty dollars', ḡeq'melsx'y's 'ninety dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'one hundred dollars', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'four hundred dollars'. The count of cents is also interesting: ck'w'lm téle 'penny' (literally "red money", téle 'money' < English "dollar" via Chinook Jargon), ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'one penny', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'two pennies, two cents', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'lots of pennies', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'silver money' (ników 'iron, silver' < Chinook Jargon) (cp. léc'es pipe téle 'one paper dollar'), mít 'dime, ten cents' (< Chinook Jargon < English "bit" in "two bits"), ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'a nickle, five cents' (lit. "half dime"), mít qēs k'we ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'fifteen cents', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'twenty cents', ḡeq'eczlsx'y's 'thirty cents', etc., and k'we 'quarter, twenty-five cents' (< English "quarter").

Counting people: láléc'ẽ 'one person', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'two people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'three people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'four people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'five people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'six people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'seven people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'eight people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'nine people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ 'ten people', ḡeq'ez'ẽ qēs té láléc'ẽ 'eleven people', c'eq'eczlsx'y's 'hundred people'.

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'twenty people', ṭebx'sx'le -  respuesta, 'thirty people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'forty people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'fifty people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'sixty people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'seventy people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'eighty people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'ninety people', ṭeq'acelsx'le 'one hundred people'.

Counting hours: (all nominals, preceded by demonstrative article te or k'we) te slécs '1:00, one o'clock', te ?isélse (s- unexplainably missing) '2:00', te sfi'x's '3:00', te sebáq'cels '4:00', te sáaq'cés '5:00', te st'ximos '6:00', te sebáq'k'ws '7:00', te st'éq'cés '8:00', te st'x'ws '9:00', te sáq'pels '10:00', te sáq'pels qes te slécs - te slécs (root unclear) '11:00', te sáq'pels qes te ?isélse '12:00' (also tex'sw'éyél 'mid-day, noon' and text'slét 'midnight'), some people say the half hour and quarter hour were indicated respectively by qes te/k'we íséq' ('and a half') and qes te/k'we k'wa'te ('and a quarter') but more people maintain that the most precise it ever got was yiyelsw te sfi'x's 'a little after 3:00' and wes'ímel te sfi'x's 'a little before 3:00, nearly 3:00'. There are no words for minutes or seconds.

Counting days of the week: yilé-wehiłt 'Monday' ('after day'), sëmélts (or sëmélc) 'Tuesday', sfi'x's 'Wednesday', sëbáq'cels - (SP, AD) smós 'Thurs-
day', sīq'ecces 'Friday', t'áq'wtem -(Deming)
t'áq'wtem 'Saturday' ("broken (of rope or string)(on purpose")), sāxegłēt (AC) - sāxegłēt (CT, NP, etc.)
'Sunday' ("sacred day"). (Of the moons or months, only one was named with a numeral, ēpālōstal 'July'; the new year began with the first sliver of moon appearing after the black moon in October, thus making the tenth moon begin in July). There is no word for a week.

Counting canoe paddles: (all of these forms are also used to refer to 'canoe paddlers' as well)
lēc'ēwes 'one paddle', ēsilēwes 'two paddles',
laxwōwes 'three paddles', ēsōlēwes 'four paddles',
lq'ēcesōwes 'five paddles', t'xemōwes 'six paddles',
ēpēlowes 'ten paddles', ēpēlowes qes te lēc'ē 'eleven paddles' (the number on the largest racing canoe).

Counting times: lēc'ēlxw 'once', ēsem 'twice',
laxwél 'three times', ēsōlél 'four times', lq'ēcesél 'five times', t'xemél 'six times', ēskwél 'seven times', tægél 'eight times', tūlxwél 'nine times', ēpælél 'ten times'.

Counting fish (probably dead ones, lit. counting heads): lēc'ē 'one (fish)', ēsilīqw 'two fish',
laxweq 'three fish', ēsōlīqw 'four fish', lq'ēcesīqw 'five fish', t'xemīqw 'six fish', ēskwīqw 'seven
fish", teqwcifw 'eight fish', txwfiqw 'nine fish',
\text{\textipa{\textmu}}pel 'ten (fish)'.

-\text{\textipa{\textnu}}sxwG isn't really a classifier at all since it
has been attested with the 'dollars' and the 'people'
classifier suffixes. Its forms have already been
given in 10.1.

Counting trees: slëc\textipa{\textnu}ip 'one tree', \textipa{\textnu}isë\textipa{\textnu}ip -
s\textipa{\textnu}isë\textipa{\textnu}ip 'two trees', \textipa{\textnu}xwG\textipa{\textmu}ip 'three trees', \textipa{\textnu}x\textipa{\textmu}f\textipa{\textnu}y\textipa{\textnu}ip
'four trees' (note the same \textipa{\textmu} \rightarrow \textipa{\textnu} \textipa{\textnu} -\textipa{\textnu}ip operating here as with plant terms)(2.4.1), \textipa{\textnu}q'cècës\textipa{\textnu}ip
'five trees'.

Counting piles: lec\textipa{\textnu}em\textipa{\textmu}t 'one pile', \textipa{\textnu}isë\textipa{\textnu}em\textipa{\textmu}t
'two piles', \textipa{\textnu}xwO\textipa{\textmu}m\textipa{\textmu}t 'three piles', \textipa{\textnu}x\textipa{\textmu}f\textipa{\textmu}f\textipa{\textnu}l\textipa{\textmu}m\textipa{\textmu}t 'four piles', \textipa{\textnu}q'cècësm\textipa{\textmu}t 'five piles'.

Counting garments: \textipa{\textnu}islèlwët 'two garments',
\textipa{\textnu}xwO\textipa{\textmu}l\textipa{\textmu}wët 'three garments', \textipa{\textnu}x\textipa{\textmu}f\textipa{\textmu}l\textipa{\textmu}wët 'four garments',
\textipa{\textnu}q'cècësl\textipa{\textmu}l\textipa{\textmu}wët 'five garments'.

Counting houses of one person: \textipa{\textnu}islèwtxw \textipa{\textnu} 'two
houses (of one person)', \textipa{\textnu}xwG\textipa{\textmu}wtxw \textipa{\textnu} 'three houses (of
one person)', \textipa{\textnu}x\textipa{\textmu}l\textipa{\textnu}wtxw \textipa{\textnu} 'four houses (of one person)',
\textipa{\textnu}q'cècëwtxw \textipa{\textnu} 'five houses (of one person)' (all Tait).

Counting some other things (fragmentary sets):
\textipa{\textnu}q'cècëwët \textipa{\textnu} 'five canoes (of one person)' (contrast
\textipa{\textnu}q'cècë slëxwët 'five canoes (of different people)'),
\textipa{\textnu}q'cècëyiws \textipa{\textnu} 'five pants', \textipa{\textnu}q'cècë\textipa{\textmu}ls \textipa{\textnu} 'five spherical
objects, five fruit, (five rocks, five balls, etc.)'
 iq'c(s)eql 'five containers', iq'ces?ll 'five young (animates)', ?isel?ltx 'man with two wives',
 ?iselémec 'two poles standing', iq'cesís 'five birds'.

Ordinals: there are none; only yewe't 'first',
 stetís 'next' and ñi?t 'last'.

(The numerical interrogative verb k'?f.1 can be
 inflected with the same lexical suffixes; see the ex-
 amples in 6.2.5, although they are verbs not numerals.)
CHAPTER 11. SYNTAX

11.0. Introduction. Considerable syntactic data (in the neighborhood of 700 sentences) and a moderate amount of syntactic analysis has already been given in the chapters on morphology (Chapters 3 through 10). Inflectional classes have been divided into syntactic classes. Some independent pronoun sets have been found to be syntactically nominal, some verbal, some either. Verbs have been divided into syntactic classes such as intransitive, transitive, adjectival, prepositional, adverbial, interrogative, auxiliary, etc. Particles were found to be syntactic interjections, conjunctions, and adverbials (modal particles are found in this chapter to be syntactically adverbial). Demonstratives were found to be syntactic articles, conjunctions, adverbials, nominals, pronouns which function like nominals, and semi-verbal ḡá. Numerals were found to include syntactic adverbials, adjectivals, or nominals. In this chapter we will also see how nominals can be used as verbs and adjectives, as well as how verbs can be nominalized and relativized.

This chapter will deal first with syntactic classes and abbreviations (11.0), then with nominal phrases and how they are expanded (11.1). 11.2 deals
with verb phrases and clauses and how VP's are expanded with subject and object NP's (11.2.1), how VP's are expanded with internal modifiers (11.2.2), how clauses and sentences are expanded with appositives and non-conjoined VP's (11.2.3), how clauses are expanded with dependent or subordinate VP's or clauses (11.2.4), how clauses are conjoined with co-ordinate conjunctions (11.2.5), and concludes with a discussion of comparatives and superlatives (11.2.6). 11.3 mentions interjections, and 11.4 discusses syntactic limits and how much phrases, clauses, and sentences can be expanded.

Syntactic classes, abbreviations, and cross references to syntactic information in the morphology:

Pron = pronoun (usually cited by number of the set)
Vpron = 4.1, 4.2, 4.7 (as Vaj)(verbal pronoun)
Npron = 4.3, 4.11, 4.7 (nominal pronoun)
-Pron = -4.4, -4.5, -4.6, -4.8, -4.9, -4.10 (noun suffix)(also shown as -S, -0, -Pass, -Poss)
-X = lexical affix (whether prefix, infix, or suffix)
  (Chapter 5)

V = verb
Vi = intransitive verb
  Vi plain = plain intransitive verb (6.2.1)
  Vaj = adjectival verb (6.2.2)
Vprep = prepositional verb (6.2.3)
Vadv = adverbial verb (6.2.4)
Vneg = negative verb (6.2.4)
Vq = interrogative verb (6.2.5, 6.1.7)
Vpron = verbal pronoun or pronominal verb
(6.2.6, 4.1, 4.2, 4.7)
Vdem = demonstrative verb (6.2.7)
Vaux = auxiliary verb (6.2.8)
-Intr = intransitivizer (6.1.2.2)

Vt = transitive verb
-S = subject suffix (4.4)
-0 = object suffix (4.5)
-S3 = 3rd person subject suffix
-S1,2 = 1st or 2nd person subject suffix
-Spl = plural subject suffix
-S2pl = 2nd person plural subject suffix
-Sc ... Sc = subject corresponding in person + number
-S- sc or -0- sc = subject or object not corresponding in
person and number
simply with -03 , -01,2 , -0pl , -02pl , -0c ... 0c
and with 03 , 01,2 , 0pl , 02pl
-Pass = passive (4.10)
-Sbjn = subjunctive (6.1.7, 4.9)

Other V inflections can be abbreviated as on p. 316
P = particle
  Interj = particle interjection (7.1)
  Pconjunction = particle conjunction (7.2)
  Pmod = modal particle (7.3)
  Padv = adverbial particle (7.4)

N = nominal
  Nindef = indefinite nominal (8.1)
  -Poss = possessive inflection (8.2, 4.6)
  -Dim = diminutive inflection (8.3)
  -Pl = plural inflection (8.4)
  -Past = past tense inflection (8.5)

D = demonstrative
  A = demonstrative article (9.1)
    A-4.6 = article carrying possessive inflection
    for following NP
    A-4.8-s = article carrying subordinate subject
    inflection for following VP
  Dconj = demonstrative conjunction (including
    A-4.8-s)(9.2)
  A D = nominal demonstrative (9.3)
  Dadv = adverbial demonstrative (9.4)
  ἀ = semi-verbal demonstrative ἀ (9.5)
  Dpron = pronominal demonstrative or demonstrative
  pronoun (9.6, 4.3)

Num = numeral (Chapter 10)

NP = nominal phrase (see 11.1 below)

VP = verb phrase (see 11.2 below)
11.1. Nominal Phrases (NP's).

11.1.0. NP's begin with a demonstrative article and end with something serving as a nominal. Unexpanded NP's include: A N, A D, A Num, A V, Dpron, Npron (4.3, 4.7, 4.11). With the pronouns the A is prefixed to the word in forming it, and so the A is not shown as a separate word. No examples of A P occur.

Except for 4.11 (which can only be object of a Vprep), all of these NP's can serve as subject or object of a verb without further modification. Syntactic position and agreement in person and number determine whether S or O is intended.

NP's are expanded by adding things either after the A or after the element serving as the nominal or after both.

11.1.1. NP Expansion With Modifiers. NP's which consist of A N can be expanded in a number of ways:

1. A (Vaj,N,D,Num) N  (D is acting as N > Vaj; the first N and Num each are > Vaj. Also when a lower numeral (1, 2, or 3) modifies an N, the N need not be inflected for plural; the N is inflected for plural, if possible, after numerals 'four' and above.)

2. A (Vaj,D,Num)(Vaj,N) N  (Note that an N acting as Vaj must immediately precede the original N of the NP,
also that the D must remain immediately following
the A to retain its N > Vaj status; Num probably
precedes N as well as Vaj before N. There are no
examples of A Vaj Vaj Vaj N to date.)
3. A Vadj Vaj N (In superlatives like: 1 sə̂¹ if te
we?ál c’ic’ic’sə̂ k xwéylem. 'I want the shortest rope.'
(AC), 2 e yeléwel ?iyá’mex’q’ê’mi 'the prettiest girl',
té yeléwel k’ámk’ém swíyeqé 'the strongest man'.)
4. A 4.6 N-4.6 (4.6 is shown attached to both A and
N because it is suffixed to the word before the N or
to the N or to both, depending on the person and num-
ber of the possessor.)
5. A N-4.6 N-4.6 and probably A (Vaj,D,Num)-4.6 N-4.6
6. A 4.7 N (for emphasis of possession)
7. A N-4.63 A N (4.63 = 3rd person possessive -s.
This construction is used to indicate when one A N
(the first one) is possessed by another (the second).
Apparently tewét and tewéttestwe do not require -4.6
in this construction, and the A of the second N is
then also omitted: tewét sqWeméy 'Whose dog?' and
tewéttestwe sqWeméy 'somebody's dog'.)
8. A N-4.63 A-4.6 N-4.6 (For example, té léléms
tel mè'1 'my father's house'.)
9. A N telf NP (Partitive, as in té lèlece telf te
swáweles 'one of the young men' or té lèlece telf
If the NP begins as a V, other expansions are possible, but they are covered in 11.2 because such constructions are nominalized VP's (see especially 11.2.4). A more favored way of adding Vaj's to an NP (after one or two have already been added) is adding them as dependent verb clauses (k'o étape 4.8-8 Vaj 4.8 after the NP).

11.1.2. NP Expansion With Apposition.

1. 4.3 N
2. N 4.3 N
3. A N N (where the second N is a proper name)

Each of the three above can function as NP in several different contexts. For example in insults like ?o téléwe hów 'Oh you rat!', ?o téléwe splipiyxel 'Oh you crooked-leg!', etc.; in sentences like k'aséjë le k'epi.1 k'wiléståwe yuñálem swáweles 'And so an unstated number of them, young men, went down/descended.' (k'wiléståwe = Nindef used as Vaj; it cannot follow A because the A is included within yuñálem; swáweles follows in apposition), su me c'ñéjëm yuñ'å sà seq'x 'So/Then the youngest girl jumped.' (literally "So she came to jump, the youngest girl.") (CT), le t'èk'stæwes yuñ'åelem q'èlëmi te swáweles 'They, the girls, took the
young man home.' (OT), ?eitéalstexw cet k'we sisele sc'iqw 'We'll feed your grandfather Sc'iqw.'
(Sc'iqw is the name of the grandfather)(OT).

11.1.3. NP Expansion With Conjoining.
1. A N qe N: the A can be omitted after qe in conjoining NP's. For example, le lémístexwes te Bill
te sqa'mél xwelém te Jim qe Bob 'Bill threw the paddl
dle to Jim and Bob.', lî lêm k'we Bill qe Bob 'Did
Bill or Bob go?'

2. -O qe N: the A can also be omitted after qe in conjoining object pronoun suffix and object NP. For
example, cel k'wesclâme qe Bob 'I saw you and Bob.'
(Presumably Vi-S could have its -S conjoined with an
N in a similar fashion, Vi-S qe N. Vt-O-S could not
conjoin its -S with an N however by adding qe N
because the N (even with omitted A) would be inter-
preted as an 0.)

3. A (4.7)(Num) N qes A Vaj N: the A is not omitted
after qes in conjoining NP's or Num's. For example,
κ'á swés ?iséle sq'we'mey qes te qe'x pús. 'He has two
dogs and lots of cats.' (A usually omitted after κ'á).

4. A Num(-X) qes A (Num-X, Num N) : conjoining numer-
als which are nominal or adjectival. For example,
te ?epélé qes te làlec'e 'the eleven people'.

5. A N qes 4.3: conjoining NP and independent Npron.
For example, cet ḥitxel tlaqę́:ys te Bill qes te?e?čełe
'Bill and I are eating right now.' (probably permit-
ted also are (Dpron, Npron, A(N, D, Num, V)) qes (Dpron,
Npron, A(N, D, Num, V)), i.e. NP qes NP.)

6. A N-4.63 A N qe N : conjoining NP possessors of
a single NP. For example, le géytes ḥ' Oliver Wells
qe Casey Wells te sq'élteł-s ḥ' Daniel Milo qe Bob
Joe li te machines te x'wiltem 'Oliver Wells and
Casey Wells made (or fixed) the voices of Daniel Milo
and Bob Joe on the white man's machines.'

11.1.4. Omission of the Article in NP's. The A
is omitted before nominals (N, or D or Num or V func-
tioning as N) with nominal status retained only in a
few contexts:
1. A is omitted after conjunction qe 'and, but, or'
(as seen just above).

2. A is omitted before NP's used vocatively. For ex-
ample, lémox̂ ᵃy ?e:y siyém 'Keep on going (away),
chief!' (said to a wolf), leęep ᵃy ?e:y siyém 'You
folks keep on going, chief!', léw sǐ'le 'Hello
grandmother/grandfather!', mitx̂ k'etx̂ lf:em l siyę́
'Come inside, my friend!'
3. A is omitted after ?ewę́te 'be none, nothing, no-
body, have no', ?ewę́teł 'be nobody' (AG only), and
?ewę́(•)te 'is it none?, are they none?'. These words
nominalize what follows (frequently verbs) because the -tc acts as an A, ?ewē- acts like negative verb ?ēwe, and ?ewē(·) is really negative verb ?ēwe plus interrogative suffix -ē -ē. Examples: ?ewēts kapū k'wes x'wē?i. 'He came without a coat (The coat was none when he came).', le ?ēx'qel qa ?ewēts ?ā kapūs qa yīyēq 'He went outside without a coat and it was snowing.' (lit. 'He went outside and it was just none, his coat, and it was snowing.'), qēx te k'ik'wiyēpq qa ?ewēts k'ik'wel 'There's a lot of bean vines but no beans.', ?ewēts me x'wē?i 'Nobody came.', (?e)wēts yi 'He's not here.', ?ewēts-1 s-him (or) ?ewēts-1-s him 'I didn't pick anything.' ('My pick- ing is none.'), ?ewēts-1 sīqēlex k'wes qēpsce k'we ?ī·k'welā 'I didn't know there was going to be a gathering here.' (Cheh.) (?e)wēts-1 ḳqēlex 'I don't know' (lit. 'My knowledge of it is none., I have no knowledge of it.'), ?ewēts sīqēlex wetemtēmesc k'wes ?ētelqet qelēt 'No-one knows when we'll eat again.' (lit. 'The knowledge of it is none when it will be our eating again.'), ?ewēts sk'īyēxtēmēt 'Nothing could be done.', ?ewētsā sīqēlemet te sk'īx'y 'Nobody knows his name.', wē·te ?ē smēyēθ 'Do(n't) you have any meat?' (lit. 'Is it none, your meat?'), wē·te st'ēlmex 'Isn't
there any medicine?' (lit. 'Is it none, the medicine?').

4. A is omitted after demonstrative semi-verb k'á 'that's ___, that's him/her' and verb x'ë - x'së - x'es 'become' (probably because both involve existence, perhaps calling for N > V (stative) and leaving the syntactic analysis as k'á V and x'es V instead of k'á N and x'es N. For example: x'eswésel ?í:í x'es siyá:lex'es 'I'm not old yet., I haven't become old yet.', qeq'asésu le x'es (hyper-slow x'es) mestiyëx'w 'And so he turned into/became a person.', le ?iyá:qést te smímxatí qeq'asésu x'es taliq'át 'The caterpillar changed itself into a moth.' (lit. 'The caterpillar changed itself and so it became a moth.'), selcí:m k'w's hiës qe ye'll s'ées me x'es syémyem 'How long before she came to be(come) pregnant?', le x'es sëé:li 'She became a woman.', le x'es swiyëqe 'He became a man.'; k'á sék'etels 'That's her older sister.', k'á télis yi òë 'That's their mother (the mother of those people).', k'á ?ë swë 'That's yours.', k'á ?ë swë tél 'That's your (own) mother.', k'á tél xe 'That's him., It's him.', k'ál stálès 'That's my wife.', k'á te (Bill, músme, x'es'ëye) 'That's (Bill, a cow, a fly).

k'á ?if memiyet 'That's the one that was helping s-o.' (Note that even the A can be omitted which is the only marker nominalizing or here relativizing a VP!)
5. A related case follows where A is omitted and the words following are inflected as nominals for possessive, but the words function as verbs. This occurs when A is omitted before nominal verbs šk'í(·) 'want; like' and sq'wilwel 'think; thoughts, feelings'. These words function as regular nominals in some examples and follow a demonstrative article. However both words can also appear without the demonstrative article and are then translated as verbs 'want' and 'think'. The thing that makes them unique is that their subjects are indicated only by possessive pronouns of 4.6 without an article and never by 4.4. When not following an article (when not regular nominals), they also can (and must) take an object (NP or A-4.8-s V-4.8 for example) though neither is inflected for transitivity; in this respect they resemble Vprep's (see 11.2). šk'í has allomorph šk'íy before -elâp, -l, and -?ê.

Examples as nominals: ?ý tél sq'wilwel 'I'm glad., My feelings/thoughts are good.', Œeht÷cew tél sq'wilwel 'Concentrate!, Keep your mind (thoughts) on what you're doing!'; (Tait) cêce tél sq'wilwels 'He (or She) is emotional.' (lit. 'His/Her thoughts/feelings are tender.'); x'we?i·t tél sq'wilwel 'What are you thinking about?' (lit. 'Where are they going, your thoughts?'), stém k'we šk'í 'What do you want?'.

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As nominal verbs with omission of A (4.6a, 4.6b and 4.8a, 4.8b indicate possessive pronoun suffixes attached to word before and/or word possessed, depending on person and number):

1. 4.6a (sk'í, sq'ë1ëwel)-4.6b k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
2. sk'í k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
3. 4.6a sk'í-4.6b NP
4. Vadv-4.6a sk'í-4.6b-4.6a NP-4.6b
5. 4.6a sk'íyes-4.6b NP
6. lít-4.6a (sk'í, sq'ë1ëwel)-4.6b (4.3) k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
7. ?éwe lít-s-4.6a (sk'í, sq'ë1ëwel)-4.6b (4.3) k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
8. ?éwe-4.4 lít-4.6b-4.6a sk'í-4.6b
9. ?éwe-4.6a sk'í-4.6b k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
10. ?éwe sk'íyes k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
11. ?éwe-s lít-s-4.6a sk'í-4.6b, VP-4.4
12. ?éwe-?é sk'íyes k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b (sk'íyes sic? for sk'í?)
13. V-4.4 we-lí-s-4.6a sk'í-4.6b k'w-4.8a-s VP-4.8b
14. 4.4 (Vaux) V-O A ?í-lít-4.6a sk'í-4.6b (The A is added to relativize the VP.)

These 14 structures represent over 80 elicited sentences with paradigmatic variations and also expansions of NP and VP. Many others are surely possible. An example of each type follows:

1. sk'íst k'wës k'ás (yút'á·lëm, k'wax'íat, òe stá·lës)
k'wes k'éclex's 'He wants (them, k'axwilát (Dorothy Wealick), his wife) to see it.'
sq'léwels k'wes k'ás túx'á lém 'He thinks he's the one to go.'
2. sk'í k'wels le yewé 'I want to go along.'
3. l sk'í k'we qá. 'I want some water.'
4. we?álwe-1 sk'íy-1 siyé:ye 'I like my friend a lot.'
5. ?e sk'íyé k'we qá. 'Do you want some water?' (less common structure than li ?e sk'í k'we qá. 'Do you want some water?')
6. li ?e sk'í k'wes x'wiyéqeqéax? 'Do you want to interpret for me?' (lit. 'Is it your want that you interpret/translate/repeat me?')
li ?e sq'léwel k'wes mes x'wéétémém wéyélés 'Do you think it will be cloudy tomorrow?'
7. ?éwe lí-s-1 sk'í k'w-é-s liyém 'I don't want you to laugh.'
?éwe lí-s-1 sq'léwel k'w-é-s lém 'I don't think you should go.' (lit. 'It's not my thought that you go.')
8. ?éwec? x?é-s ?k'í 'I don't want you.'
9. ?éwe sk'í-s k'wes méyálx'-s welémét sóqw'tále 'He doesn't want to (or won't) help us find you folks.'
10. ?éwe sk'íses k'wels le k'wecéétémé 'He doesn't want me to go see you.'
11. ?éwés lis (?e) sk'íyélep lacel k'ú-t 'If you folks
don't want it, I'll take it.'


13. l?mcel we-li-s-l sk?i k?wels l?m 'I'm going when I want to go.'

14. cel me mestexw te ?i?e sk?i 'I brought what you wanted.'

11.2. Verb Phrases (VP's), Clauses, the Sentence.

11.2.0. A verb phrase consists of an inflected verb plus its subject and/or object NP's, if any (see 11.2.1), plus its internal modifiers if any (11.2.2). A VP can also consist merely of an inflected verb, if no subject or object NP's or modifiers are present. A VP which can stand by itself as a sentence is called an independent clause if it has subordinate VP's (11.2.4, 11.2.3), co-ordinate VP's (11.2.5), or words in apposition (11.2.3) attached within its sentence. A subordinate VP usually cannot stand by itself as a sentence because it is nominalized or subjunctivized.

11.2.1. Types of VP, Subject NP and Object NP.

Vi and Vt. Unless noted, all VP's follow the next rules on subject and object placement:

1. Vi-S S. Vt-O-S S O. Vt-C-S O. Vt-O<sub>c</sub>-S<sub>c</sub> S<sub>c</sub>. Vt-Pass C (S). Vt-Pass<sub>c</sub> S. In other words, a single NP after a Vi is the subject; a single NP after a Vt
is the object unless it corresponds in person and number only with the subject suffix, in which case the NP is the subject; if two NP's follow a Vt, the first is the subject and the second is the object; this order is reversed to indicate an agent after a passive Vt (Vt-Pass O S 'O was V-ed by S'); a single NP after a passive is the object if corresponding if corresponding in person and number with the passive object suffix, otherwise the NP is interpreted as agent (i.e. subject); a single NP after a passive can also be interpreted as agent (S) if the O has been defined differently as an NP in the preceding context.

2. With benefactives, the O is the beneficiary (indirect object) when animate and the direct object when inanimate. In addition, when V-Ben-0\textsubscript{1,2}-S is followed by NP, the NP is the direct object when inanimate; when V-Ben-0\textsubscript{1,2}-S is followed by an animate NP (4.3) which does not correspond in person and number with the -O, the NP is the subject. (If two NP's follow V-Ben-O-S the order is V S O as expected; O is the beneficiary if animate, the direct object if inanimate. I was unable to elicit sentences with both direct and beneficiary objects, but I seem to remember having heard one with the direct object preceding the beneficiary object.)
3. When Vi is a Vprep, Vi-S O (S) occurs; in fact Vprep's must have an O even though Vprep's are inflectionally Vi's. (An alternate analysis could class Vprep's as almost the only Vt's without a control suffix and object suffixes, the only Vt's to take 4.11 as pronoun object, and nearly the only Vt's to have V O S; ʔəmí, lém, sk'í, and sq'illéwél might be the other Vt's having V O S order and lacking control and object suffixes.)

4. (ʔə)mí 'come (to), coming (to)' and lém 'go(ing) (to)' also allow Vi-S O (S) order when the NP following is a place (semantically). These verbs have allomorphemic rules that read: (ʔə)mí /'come (to), coming (to)'/ → ['come to, coming to'] and lém /'go(ing) (to)'/ → ['go(ing) to'] (both) in the environment before A N where N contains the semantic element ['a place']. As a result, a prepositional element becomes obligatory, and the A N following becomes the object of that preposition. A second NP following the A N becomes the subject of (ʔə)mí or lém because both verbs are inflectionally Vi's.

5. As mentioned in 11.1, sk'í 'want' and sq'illéwél 'think; thoughts, feelings' when not preceded by A must be followed by an O (either NP or subordinate clause kʷ-4.8-s V-4.8), and this in spite of
the fact that they are inflectionally intransitive. With an NP subject the order is almost certainly V S O since *skef*-s and *sqvelwel*-s would have to be followed by their NP possessors if present; but I have no examples to quote on this.

6. In addition, some Vi's suffixed with -em intransitivizer (6.1.6 Group D) or -els - -els intransitivizer (6.1.2.2) can take O as well, and the syntax is then Vi O (no examples are attested of S with Vi O). The O always seems to be inanimate or dead, and the Vi always seems to be one requiring an animate or alive subject. Thus for semantic reasons an O is possible here. If the NP after these verbs is animate it is interpreted as the subject. There is a further refinement with -els - -els verbs (and some -em verbs): a following O is often translated generically (without an article in English) thus joining V and N in a single activity repeated many times with accent on the activity ('burn food at a ritual', 'barbecue salmon', 'carve wood', 'fry bread', 'fetch wood', 'pick blackberries', 'chew gum', etc.).

7. In all the above formulae -S may instead be preposed to the V (the ambiguous past tense) without otherwise changing the syntax.

8. Though more examples and further work are
necessary, some tentative statements about the syntax of words like 'everything' and 'nothing' can be made here. These words include mękʰʷ 'all, every; everybody, everything', mékʰʷstêm 'everything', mékʰʷ(e)wét(es) 'everybody, everyone', mákʰʷ tewét(es) 'everybody, everyone, (possibly) anyone', ñewôte 'it is, there is) none, nobody, nothing', ñewôte kʰstêm 'nothing', and ñewôte tewét 'nobody'. All these words are translated as pronouns and serve as NP subject or NP object of verbs but precede the verb (O Vt S, or S V (O)). The situation can be summed up as follows

\[ E_1 = mekʰʷstêm, mekʰʷewet - mokʰʷ tewet, ñewote kʰstêm, ñewote tewet; E_2 = mokʰʷ - mokʰʷ; E_3 = ñewote) \]

.8.1. \( E_1 \) (underlined) can occur as subject or object of a verb while preceding that verb; when \( E_1 \) is the object, the verb (or auxiliary \( ?I \) or \( I \) before it) takes a subject suffix which appears to be subjunctive (O (\(?I, I\))\textsuperscript{4.9b Vt-0. O Vt-0-4.9a (S). O-es Vt-0-4.9a. are three sentence structures attested); when \( E_1 \) is the subject, the verb is lacking a subject suffix (S Vt-0 0. S Vi. S le Vt-0. are attested). \( E_1 \) can also be preceded by an article and both then follow the verb (skʰI-4.6 A O-es.); the -es is unclear, perhaps the same -es as derives Mindef's in Chapter 8.
8.2. $E_2$ (underlined in this section) can occur preceding a verb as a sort of Vpron, or it can occur following a verb as part of the NP subject or object. $m\hat{e}k'w$ (and for some speakers $w\hat{e}t\epsilon$) can be inflected with $4.4_{pl}$ (and $-4.8_{pl}$ in a subordinate clause), and somewhat like a pronominal verb ($4.1$ or $4.2$) modify the subject or object of the verb that follows ($Vpron-4.4_{pl}$ V or $k\hat{w}w-4.8-s$ $Vpron-4.8$ V as a subordinate clause); an alternate structure is allowed, $Vi-4.4$ $m\hat{e}k'w$ Vadv (instead of $m\hat{e}k'w-4.4$ Vi Vadv) and is used interchangeably. $m\hat{e}k'w$ can also serve as Vaj modifying the N in an NP, and then it precedes anything else in the NP, including the article ($Vt-4.4$ Vaj A-4.6 N-4.6. or $Vt-4.4$ Vaj A Vaj 4.6 N-4.6. or $Vt-0-S$ A N Vaj A N. or Vi Vaj $4.3_{pl}$. or $Vt-0-S$ Vaj $4.3_{pl}$ $k\hat{w}se\epsilon$ V-0-S Vprep A Vaj N.). An alternate structure is allowed here too with Vi's: $m\hat{e}k'w$ Vi A N where $m\hat{e}k'w$ is a Vaj modifying the N and really part of the NP but even so preceding the verb.

8.3. $E_3$ can occur as an independent verb all by itself (3rd person only): $w\hat{e}t\epsilon$ 'It/There is nothing/nobody., There is/are none.' It can also occur inflected for interrogative, ($e)\hat{w}e(\cdot)t\epsilon$ 'Is it none?, Is there none?, Is there nobody/nothing?' (see Chapter 6). In either form $E_3$ only occurs first in the sen-
tence or independent clause. It can be followed immediately by an N with no A before the N; this N can be possessed or otherwise modified (E₂-4.6 N-4.6, etc.) and serves as syntactic subject of E₂ (or it can be viewed as a nominal without A serving as a main verb which is modified adverbially by ?ewēte); the translation is rarely 'The N is none.' (for E₂ N) or '4.6's N is none.' (for E₂-4.6 N-4.6) but usually is 'There is no N.' (for E₂ N) or '4.6 has/have no N.' (for E₂-4.6 N-4.6). Subordinate clauses can of course expand these sentences further: E₂ N k'wes V for example, 'There was no N when he V-ed., He V-ed without an N.' More common are: E₂-4.6 s-V-4.6 '4.6 didn't V., 4.6 V-ed nothing.' (where E₂ is translated as a simple negative or as a negative object if the V is transitive), and E₂ k'we V 'Nobody V-s.' (where k'we V is syntactically a relative clause 'the one who V-s' as in 'The one who V-s is nobody.' > 'Nobody V-s.'). Even E₂ V occurs (where the V is expandable into an expanded VP, for example, E₂ me V); here the E₂ is translated as subject, 'Nobody V-s.' Finally E₂, ?ewēte that is, also has partitive constructions: ?ewēte k'we V tèlì 4.11_pl - ?ewēte tèlì 4.11_pl k'we V 'None of (us, you, them) V(-ed).' and ?ewēte k'we V tèlì a(-4.6) N(-4.6) - ?ewēte tèlì A(-4.6) N(-4.6)
k'wé  v  'None of (my, your, etc.) N's V(-ed).' (the N is inflectionally plural if possible).

Here are some examples of each of the sentence types above (the numbers correspond with the paragraph numbers above):

1. ?iválem te mémele  'The children are playing.'
k'wé?c-l-ex'w-es te swiyéqé te spé'è  'The man saw a bear.'
me?c-l-ax'y-es tel siyéye  'My friend helps me.'
tés-l-em òùx'á te swiyéqé  'She was bumped into by the man.' and tés-l-em òùx'á te kár  'She was hit by a car.' (cp. téslex'w-es òùx'á te swiyéqé  'She bumped into the man.' and téslex'w-es òùx'á te kár  'The car hit her.')</p>

?i?wes-t-em (òùx'á, te swiyéqé)  '(She, The man) is being taught.'
k'wé?c-lx'y-t-em òùx'á  'She was hidden., They hid her away.'
le k'wé?c-lx'y-t-em ye siyé'ye-s  'She was hidden away by her friends.' (The NP is interpreted as agent S because the O has already been specified previously as òùx'á).
k'wé?c-lx'y-éloc-t-em òùx'á  'It was hidden for her.'
c'èc'eq'?w-l-em k'w (tewétès, swátla)  '(Someone, So-and-so) got shot.'

2. òiy-éloc-t-es te sqwéme'èy  'He made it for the dog.'
Hic'-eįc-ct-cel-cs te smeyə? 'I'll cut off the meat for someone.'
qá'-ləc-ə-áx'-es te qá' 'He brought me the water.'
kʷələc-əc-ə-áx'-es θuk'á 'She hid it for me.'
pix'-eįc-te ssəl Então te siyəqə 'The woman brushed it off for the man.'
3. kʷələcotes lə kʷəl leləm 'He saw it in your house.'
cel ñiy tə swəq'-wəl telí tə sə'yəs tə pq'ıqləl 'I made the blanket from the wool of the mountain goat.'
cel ye-łoʔə kʷə sq'ęwləc 'I went/travelled through/via Scowlitz.'
le lə te sʔək'-q kʷələm mələ 'My child is outside.'
le lə kʷə sə'ąməs θəl mələ 'My daughter is in Victoria.'
lí te xj'-ə tel mələ 'My child is in the road.'
st'ə kʷə spə'ə te Bob 'Bob is like a bear.'
4. ləm te smelt 'He went to the mountain.'
ləm te stəqtəq túk'á 'He went to the jampile.'
ʔəmí te leləmcət te ?isə'le spə'ə 'Two bears come to our house.'
5. l sk'í kʷə qá' 'I want some water.'
ʔə sk'íye kʷə qá' 'Do you want some water?'
lí qə sk'í kʷəs jáys 'Do you want to work?' (lit. 'Is it your want that you work?')
ʔəwə lís ləqʷələwəl kʷəs ləm 'I don't think you
should go.' (lit. 'It's not my thought/feeling
that you go."

6. (All EB) q\"Wélém coct{ k\"W se\'áq\"Wi 'We'll barbecue
salmon.'
q\"Weq\"Wélém te se\'áq\"Wi 'barbecuing salmon'
k\"Wíém te k\"ápí 'pour coffee (lots, as a function or
activity);'
lémt\" k\"él\"em te siyáž 'Go fetch (some) wood!'
lecx\"W cesé t k\"Ws lès k\"él\"em k\"W qá. 'Send him to get
water!'
cel lí\"m te sk\"Wó lmex\"W 'I'm picking blackberries.'
θiyém te seplí\'l 'to bake bread'
c\'ém te k\"Íx\"W 'to chew gum'
ºek\"Wéls te se\'áq\"Wi 'He went hooking salmon (gaff-
ing), He gaffed a fish.' (cp. ºek\"Wéls te swíyeqø
'The man went gaffing/hooking.')
hýeq\"Wéls te s\"Ežt\"el 'He was burning food at a ritual,'
He was performing a burning.' (cp. hýeq\"Wéls te
swíyeqø 'The man was performing a burning.')
ºétk\"Wéls te siyáž 'He carves wood.' (cp. ºétk\"Wéls
te swíyeqø 'The man carves.')
cel c\'ek\"xéls te se\'áq\"Wi 'I fried (the) salmon (there
is lots).' (cp. cel c\'ek\"xélt te se\'áq\"Wi 'I fried
the salmon.')
ºfí\"ícel c\'ek\"xéls te seplí\'l 'I was frying bread.'
lə tə'cə'ls (~ tə'cə'els) te siyəł 'He's gone cutting wood.'
cəl qələqəl sə peplə' l 'I bought (the) bread.' (cp.
cəl qələqət te səplə' l 'I bought the bread.') (cp. kʷaxʷet te qəqwət 'beat the drum' but *kʷəxʷəl s te qəqwət; xʷəkəwətes te Bill əə Məli 'Bill drags Mary.' but *xʷəkəwəls te Bill əə Məli; xʷayəmetəs təə'ətə te sə'əqəi 'He sold the fish.' but *xʷayəm təə'ətə te sə'əqəi.)

7. See examples in past tense treated in Chapters 4, 6, and later in 11.

8.1. mekwəstəm qəll kʷəcəlexʷ 'I saw everything.'
qəwətc kʷəstəm qəll kʷəcəlexʷ 'I saw nothing.'
qəwətc təwət (qəll, qəll) kʷəcəlexʷ 'I saw nobody.'
qəwətc təwət kʷəcəlexʷes te swəyəqə 'The man saw nobody.'
mekwəwət kʷəcəlexʷes te swəyəqə 'The man saw everybody.'
mekwəstəm kʷəcəlexʷes yi swəyəqə 'The men saw everything.'
məkʷət təwət (~ mekwəwət) kʷəcəlexʷes 'He saw everybody.'
mekwəwət lépə'exəs te xəyəkəłə 'The grizzly bear ate everybody.'
(lépə'exəs te xəyəkəłə mekwəwətes 'The grizzly ate
everybody (that was there)' and Lap'ex'as te xeyak'leb mëkw' tewëtes 'The grizzly ate anybody (that came along).' show normal V S O order is an alternative and also show a possible semantic distinction between mëkw' tewëtes (es) and mëkw' tewët (es)."
mëkw' tewëtes k'ëk'ëx'eltes 'He/She/They invited everybody.'
mëkw' tewët k'ëk'ëx'elte k'woclex' te swiyeq' 'Everybody saw the man.'
mëkw' tewët lëm - mëkw' lëm 'Everybody went.'
mëkw' tewët le (or le ?) ?eyalas 'Everyone left him.'
?ewëtes k'wstëm sl'w 'There's nothing in(side) it.'
sh'is k'we mëkw' tewëtes 'He likes (wants) everyone.'
wez' ?iyal'lem k'we mëkw' tewëtes ' (It's) enough for everybody.'

8.2. mëkw'cet lëm 'We're all going.'
mëkw' (q'dy, wóq'w, t'it'oc'om) '(They're) all (dead, drowned, swimming).'
mëkw' slët k'wes ?emis te lcelmoct te ?isë'le spë't 'Every night two bears come to our house.'
mëkw' swëyel k'wes lëm 'Every day I go.'
yelëwal lás te li'k's mëkw's 'He's fattest of all.'
sk'wëy k'wes mëkw'elep lëm 'You can't all go.'
lecet mëkw' ?eyel k'ëk'woc te t'ët'iyaq' 'We all left because we were mad.'
lemlëmolcox' mëkw' tel òx'welwëtem 'Fold all my laundry!'
lemlémetcxʷ məxʷ yəl ?ə·wkʷ 'Fold all my clothes (lit. belongings).'
lemlémctxʷ məxʷ yə chʷi·m-1 ?ə·wkʷ 'Fold all my red clothes!'
kʷέcmexʷes te swíyeqw məxʷ yi səl̓íčəl̓í 'The man saw all the women.'
qəx'asəsu ᵇə·i·məxʷ yəx'əlem 'And so they all got aboard.'
c'í·tcəl məxʷ yəx'əlem kʷə̕səs ?ə·wəsəax̓əx̓es xʷələkʷm te sxʷelmexʷəl̓ s?í·wes 'I thank them all for teaching me (about) the Indian (way of teachings).'
məxʷ ?i (te)l məməle 'My children are all here.'
8.3. wé·te st'əłmexʷ 'Is(n't) there any medicine?'
(ʔə)wéte qʷə̕l̓·ls 'He has no ear(s)., They have no ears.; It has no handle (especially of a cup).'
wé·te qə sm'éy̓ə 'Do(n't) you have any meat?'
qəx te h'ikʷə̕yəlp quʔəwéte k'ík'əl 'There's a lot of bean vines but no beans.'
ʔəwéte kəpə kʷə̕səs xʷeʔf. 'He came without a coat.'
('He had no coat when he arrived.')
lə ʔəx'qəl quʔəwéte ᵇə kapúss qu yíyeq 'He went outside without a coat and it was snowing.'
(Chill.) ʔəwéte·l səq'əl·exʷ ~ (Cheh., Tait) wé·te·l ᵇəq'əl·exʷ 'I don't know.'
ʔəwéte·l səq'əl·exʷ kʷə̕s qəpsce kʷə ᵇək'ələ
'I didn't know there was going to be a gathering here.'

\[\text{?ewête s\text{-}q\text{-}é\text{-}el\text{-}ex} \text{ wetemtèmesce k}\text{\text{'}es} \text{ ?é\text{-}telcet qelét}
\]

'Nobody knows when we'll eat again.'

\[\text{?ewête} \text{-}1 \text{s\text{-}hī\text{-}m } 'I didn't pick anything.'
\]

\[\text{?ewête s\text{-}k}\text{\text{'}ify\text{-}xt\text{\text{'}emēt} } 'Nothing could be done.'
\]

\[\text{?ewête} \text{-}1 \text{s}\text{\text{'}wī\text{-}gēy } 'I'm good for nothing.'
\]

\[\text{?ewête s}\text{\text{'}wī\text{-}gēys } 'He's good for nothing.'
\]

*(cp. mek\text{-}wistēm s\text{\text{'}wī\text{-}gēys } 'He's good for everything.)*

\[\text{?ewête k}\text{\text{'}e} \text{lēm } 'Nobody's going.'
\]

\[\text{?ewête k}\text{\text{'}s} \text{ k}\text{\text{'}etē\text{-}wēmēt } 'Nothing was inside (a building, esp. a house).'
\]

\[\text{?ewête k}\text{\text{'}e} \text{ le q}\text{\text{'}él\text{-}lē\text{\text{'}am } 'Nobody spoke to you.'}
\]

\[\text{?ewête k}\text{\text{'}e} \text{ le q}\text{\text{'}él\text{-}lē\text{\text{'}am } 'Did nobody/Did(n't) anybody speak to you?'}
\]

\[\text{?ewête k}\text{\text{'}e} \text{ le mé\text{-}yē\text{\text{'}am } 'Weren't you helped?, Did(n't) anybody help you?'
\]

\[\text{wē\text{\text{'}emē\text{-}l wētē t\text{-}\text{\ltext{\text{'}wē k}\text{\text{'}wē\text{-clā\text{-}v} } 'If I hurry, nobody will see me.'}
\]

*(?a)wētē ?if. 'He's not here., Nobody's here.)*

\[\text{?ewête me x\text{\text{'}e\text{-}if. } 'Nobody came/arrived.'}
\]

*(cp. ?ēwē\text{-}el līl k\text{\text{'}wē\text{-}clē\text{\text{'}x} tēwē } 'I didn't see anybody.' and ?ēwē ?is ?if k\text{\text{'}wē\text{-}clē\text{\text{'}x es k}\text{\text{'}etē\text{\text{'}es k}} Bill 'Bill didn't see anything.)*

\[\text{?ewētē k}\text{\text{'}e} \text{ lēm telī k\text{\text{'}sīlīmēl } ?ewētē telī k\text{\text{'}sīlīmēl}
\]
k'\text{w}o\text{(s)} \text{lém} 'None of us went.'

(One speaker of the Chehalis dialect also gives
\begin{align*}
\text{\textw\textsc{ep} lém} & \text{ 'None of you folks went.' and} \\
\text{\textw\textsc{et} lém} & \text{ 'None of us went.' as alternatives.}
\end{align*}
\text{\textw\textsc{e} k'\text{w}e lém těl tēl mēmēlē} 'None of my children went.'

In addition to the eight rules above, it is also necessary here to make some statements about Vi's, Vt's, and types of Vi's which have their own syntactic properties. Excluded from these will be statements about syntactic properties of Vadv, Padv, Pmod, Dadv, Vaux, Vneg, auxiliary past, and li questions; all of these will be treated in 11.2.2.

Other types of verbs and syntactic classifications:

9. Pronouns of set 4.7 can occur as verbs; 4.7 can be a complete sentence as can 4.7-ce; 4.7 is more nominal in the sentence type k'\text{â} 4.7. Vpron's are those in sets 4.1 and 4.2. They can be used syntactically like other Vi's but are limited to 3rd person subject when inflected for subject by the other pronouns (4.4_2 (unmarked), 4.6_2 -s, 4.8_2 -s, and 4.9 -s). Vpron can be inflected for future (-ce) as well as subjunctive (wa-- 4.9a). Examples in sentences show that no k'\text{w}-4.8-s --4.8 is needed to conjoin
Vpron to a following VP; the VP is merely added without subject pronoun and the Vpron becomes the subject of the following VP. Thus ðwélep-ce lém 'It will be you folks that go.' le ñk'f·s k'wë-s ?ëlqë-s k'wëclex 'He wants me to see it.', le stëf·wel ðwëk'k'wë-s ?ëlqë-s-ce lém 'He thinks (lit. 'guesses') I'm the one to go.' tewet can also follow 4,1 in examples such as lëwe tewet 'Who are you?'

10. V-Reflex, V-Recip, and V-Mid function syntactically as Vi's.

11. V-Ppl functions as Vaj.

12. ðk'á 'that's, it's/he's/she's ___' is mainly verbal in syntax, but it also functions with particles to conjoin abstract concepts and VP's as well (see 11.2.5). ðk'á always occurs first in the sentence; it allows A to be omitted before N or even before V > N; it can receive possessive inflection for the following N when A is omitted; it can also receive -ce 'future', -ë 'interrogative' and we-___-s 'if/when, subjunctive, 3rd person'.

13. Numerals behave syntactically like N's, Vaj's, or Vadv's depending on the affixes added to them, i.e., -ël 'times' on numerals produces Vadv's, -ëlsx'yë is only used internally within the class to produce more numerals (multiples of ten), and A can precede numerals
with all other affixes, yielding N's when no other N follows the Num. If a Num- X N is found, the Num is acting like a Vaj. Num + -ěle 'people' is attested affixed with 4.4 and also with we- 'if, when' + -4.9a 'subjunctive', in both cases as an N > V (a nominal being used as a verb). Num + s- -s 'o'clock, hour' or s- -s 'day of the week' are clearly N's with the s- nominalizing them. Numerals between 10 and 100 but not multiples of ten are formed like N's, using Num qės A Num, but they may be used as V's in the ways mentioned, without omitting the A after qės (?epelecet qės te lálec'ė 'We are eleven people., There are eleven of us.' ). Num + -ės 'dollars' is sometimes attested as an N without a preceding A; and two examples have been found of Num N acting together as a main verb before conjunctions (similar to the way mék'y slėt 'every night' is used); the Num N is translated as an adverbial phrase. Since no examples of numerals in sentences were given in Chapter 10 the following are quoted:

méx'y cex'y k'wė lęc'ė. 'Take one off!', cel ęfyt k'wė (?isę·le, lęc'ė). 'I made (two, one).', q'wę·l te lálec'ė. 'One person spoke/speaks.', lėm te lálec'ė. 'One person went.', metę ?āx'węsęx'y tū·x'węs! 'Give me nine dollars!', Num-ěle-cet. 'There's Num of us.' ,

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lálec’écel. 'I'm alone., I'm one person.', sk’wey k’wes k’weis welaléc’é’es ʔe k’we ʔek’wét. 'He couldn't climb/get up if there was only one person to pull him.', lálec’e mestiyex’ telí k’we north. 'There was one person from the north.', k’á yáswe lis ʔeʔéel le’c’ewec mestiyex’ lí te ē. 'There were maybe four hundred people there.', le x’wil’l ses ʔe siyá’lex’e, lí ḥx’lec’le siyá’lex’e, ʔámét, qe sk’wey k’was k’wéclex’w. 'He got there to the old people, is it three old people?, sitting, and they couldn't see.' (CT), ḥx’swéyel k’wés yá’yes tük’a 'He was working three days.' (CT), léc’e x’welé’lt su ʔemí te stelqá’ye, l sq’welwéel k’wes ʔeʔá’čél te stelqá’ye q’č’lemi. 'So one night (the) wolves came, I think it was four wolf girls (adolescent)' (lit. 'my thought is that the wolves adolescent virgin girls were four')(CT), ḥx’westem tük’a te ʔeʔá’čél se’á’m. 'He was given four bones.', móx’w slét k’wes ʔemís te lelémcet te ʔisé’le spé’θ. 'Every night two bears come to our house.' , cet ʔéx’wét te sq’weméy te léc’e se’á’m. 'We gave your dog one bone.'

Some syntactic requirements due to inflection:

14. Reflexives: 4.4 usually precedes V-lámét and often precedes V-(e)θét in forming the present tense.
15. Reciprocal: V-tel almost always requires $S_{pl}$ if an $S$ is present.

16. Pluralized verbs: agreement in number between verbs with pluralized subjects or pluralized objects and their -S, -O, S, and O is obligatory when these occur, but only as shown in the following formulae: 

$$V_{pl}S^0S_{pl}A\; N\; (A\; N_{sg,pl};\; 4.3_{pl})$$

$$V_{pl}0^0O_{pl}S\; (A\; N_{sg,pl};\; 4.3_{pl})$$

$$V_{pl}S^S_{pl}A\; N_{sg,pl};\; 4.3_{pl})$$

(As usual, items separated by commas within parentheses are alternatives, one of which must be chosen. $V_{pl}S$ and $V_{pl}O$ stand for verbs pluralized (as in 6.1.9) for plural subject and plural object.)

17. Interrogative inflection (with the one exception noted in 26 below) does not change normal syntactic order or syntactic requirement, whether the V so inflected is lêm, sk'w'gy, sk'í, ፋወ ቪ, ፋው ቬ, ፋው ቭ, ፋን ቬ, ይ ቬ, ይ ቭ, or N > V. Thus, lême still behaves as a main verb, sk'w'gye still requires k'w-4.8-s V-4.8, sk'fye still requires NP or k'w-4.8-s V-4.8, ፋወ ቬ still requires (ľf, ቭ)-4.9b V or V-4.9a (or 4.6 sk'í-s k'w-4.8-s V-4.8, etc.), ፋወ ቬ still can be followed by a non-subjunctive verb (as ፋወ ቬ can) despite being a Vneg, ፋወ ቬ still can be followed by N or V > N or the other constructions outline above.
in 11.2.1.8.3, ֶ֗אֶ ב still can be followed by N without an article, and (4.1, 4.2, N)-e still stand as main verbs requiring ֶ֗אִ ו -4.8-s ֶ֗א ָ֗י-4.8 for subordinate verbs following.

Syntactic properties of Vq:

18. Vq are mainly sentence-initial (except ֶ֗אֶ ת "(tag-question)" which is sentence-final).

19. Some Vq are only attested sentence-initially: ֶ֗אֶ כֶ֗י שֶ֗י ms, ֶ֗אֶ ל, and ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י לָ֗י ו.

20. When sentence-initial, all Vq but ֶ֗אֶ כֶ֗י שֶ֗י ms, ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י and ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י ו are attested followed by ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י and ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י.

21. A few Vq can also occur after preposed ֶ֗א (ֶ֗אֶ אֶ לָ֗י, ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י, ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י, ֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י) or after Vaux-4.4 (כֶ֗י שֶ֗י, ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י, ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י, ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י) (Vaux here includes ֶ֗א, ֶ֗א ֶ֗א, and ֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י).

22. Some Vq can follow Vadv (or Padv)(as in וֶ֗א ֶ֗א ָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י or יֶ֗א אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י), and тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י can follow тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י (a Vadv?) or 4.1 verbal pronouns.

23. Some Vq can be inflected for subjunctive and then used as relative interrogatives (as discussed in Chapter 6); these include: тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י, тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י, and тֶ֗אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י אֶ לָ֗י are made subjunctive by following the subjunctivized auxiliaries тֶ֗א and тֶ֗א, that
is, wo-(?f, lî)-4.9b (?elôce, telêce, xʷ(e)câkʷel).

24. selci·m and kʷfl·l can be inflected with lexical affixes.

25. Vq occur almost exclusively before A (either in NP, subordinate VP, or relative clause), but exceptions include: temtem and selci·m before V-Sbjn, lî before declarative verbs, ?elôce before wéyelas (a Vadv), and kʷfl·l and tewêt before N in constructions like 'how many snows/years?', 'what man?', 'whose dog?'.

26. When a Vq or interrogatively inflected verb is followed by a relative clause containing a Vt, and it is the object of the Vt which is relativized ('What is it that you're holding?'), the subject of the Vt is indicated by (?f, lî)-4.9b inserted between the A and the Vt. The marking of subject and object in relative clauses is discussed fully in 11.2.4, but the preceding construction is noted here because it is triggered by the interrogative (Vq or V + -e 'interrogative').

27. There are no examples of Vq in a subordinate clause other than those put into the subjunctive and tês te skʷfl·ls 'What time/hour is it?' where kʷfl·l is inflected with the lexical affixes for 'hour' and nominalized or relativized ('It approaches/gets up to what hour?').
Examples of everything discussed in 18. through 27. above are quoted in 6.2.5.

Syntactic properties of Vdem:

28. Vdem's have special characteristics in the way they combine derivationally with other demonstratives to form new demonstratives. This has been described in Chapter 9. Their only other special syntactic characteristic is that a Vprep, if 'in, at, to,' is omitted following a Vdem. Otherwise Vdem's behave syntactically just like ordinary Vi's: Vdem-4.4 (NP) is declarative, 4.4 Vdem (NP) is ambiguous past, \( ?i \cdot i \) Vdem (NP) is auxiliary past, \( 1f - 4.4 \) Vdem (NP) is interrogative, Vdem-4.4-oe is future, we-Vdem-4.9b is subjunctive, etc.

11.2.2. Expansion of the VP With Internal Modifiers: Vaux, Vad, Padv, Pmod, Dadv, past tenses, Vneg, 1f questions. A maximally-expanded VP would look like the following, showing the positions of the various possible modifiers (M.V. = main verb): (see chart on next page)
A maximally expanded VP:

\[ (?f, 1f) - \text{Past}(-\text{Interrog}) - 4.4 \]

\[ \text{?6-4.4} \]

\[ \text{Vneg(-Interrog) (-Tense) - 4.4 (-Tense)} \]

\[ (?f, 1f) - 4.9b \]

\[ 1f - 4.4 (-\text{Tense}) \]

\[ \begin{align*}
\{ 1e \} & \text{(M.V.)} \\
\{ \text{m} \} & \text{(Pmod Dadv Vadv)} \\
\{ \text{m} \} & \text{(S0)} \\
\{ \text{S0} \} & \text{(S0)}
\end{align*} \]

Notice how the VP is defined by putting its -4.4 pronoun subject inflection at the beginning and its S or O at the end. If nothing is present before the first Vadv, the first Vadv can receive the -4.4 and Padv can receive the -4.4, as well as -4.9, auxiliaries can accept -4.9, and (with ml only) -Imper, and (with 1e only) -Shin.

This formula is not a complete one for all constructions and inflections; it would have to be modified in some cases discussed below, especially for Vneg. But it is a good rough outline. Each type of modifier will now be discussed, from those added exist which are not shown (especially for Vneg).
closest to the verb to those added furthest.

11.2.2.1. Vaux: le and me - mf; Ꞷf(·), Ꞷf(·), Ꞷe.

Vaux's divide into two groups syntactically. The first group, le and me - mf, directly precedes the main verb of a phrase and receives some of its inflections: -4.4, -4.8, -ce 'future', -₁ 'past' (only with me - mf), -t₁ = -₁ 'imperative', wo- 'when, if' + -4.9b 'subjunctive' (with mf only). le and me - mf add either an inceptive sense, a directional sense, or a future sense (auxiliary future) to the VP.

Ꞷf(·) and Ꞷf(·) are both used a.) to form an auxiliary past tense (as is Ꞷe) but suffixed with -₁ 'past' before -4.4 is added, b.) in an alternate method of forming the subjunctive after negative verbs and some Vadv's of uncertainty (like yáswe), and c.) to carry the pronoun subject suffix in the structure (Vq, V-e) A ___-4.9b Vt-0, where the object of the Vt (in the relative clause) is relativized to serve as the subject or object of the interrogative verb (main verb). Ꞷe is used only in the auxiliary past tense so far as attested.

With le and me - mf the following are also attested (as well as other structures):

Vaux-Imper V (A N). (Imperative)

4.4 Vaux V. (Ambiguous past)
1f-4.4 lē V. (Allowed even though it is Vaux Vaux V; this construction establishes clearly the division of Vaux's into the initial group and the group immediately before the main verb.)

Vaux-4.4 Vq. (Where Vaux = lē, ʔē, and ʔī-ʔ, and Vq = selcf·m, kʷf·l, xʷeqf·t, xʷcakʷel.)

Vadv (lē, mē) V (NP).

(1ē, mē) Vadv V (NP). (A departure from the order listed above, either exception or error.)

(1ē, mē) V Vadv.

4.4 Vadv Vadv mē V.

1f-4.4 Vadv lē Vadv. (1ē is either Vaux or M.V. here; if it is Vaux, the last Vadv is the M.V.)

11.2.2.2. Vadv. When a Vadv is the main verb it can be expanded for tense, interrogative, subjunctive, and so on, like any plain Vi. When Vadv is modifying a main verb it usually precedes or follows it directly. In this section ten types of structures have been identified with Vadv's, based mainly on over 80 sentences cited in 6.2.4.

1. Vadv as M.V.: Vadv-4.4. and 4.4 Vadv. (ambiguous past) occur, as do 4.4 Vadv A N., Vadv-4.42 A N., and ʔē-Vadv-4.42 A N.

2. Vadv as M.V. but in expanded VP:

1f-4.4 Vadv (A N.). (Interrogative)
?éwe-4.4 ?i: -4.9b Vadv. (Negative)
(we- Vadv -4.9a A N. (Subjunctive); not the main verb but expanded subordinate VP.)

3. Vadv modifying a V:
Vadv-4.4(-cs) V (NP). (The Vadv can take the subject and tense inflection from the verb it modifies but not the object or other inflections.)

V-4.4(-cs) Vadv (NP).
V-Imper Vadv.
4.4 Vadv V (NP).
4.4 V Vadv (NP).

if V = šk’i : Vadv-4.6 šk’i-4.6 NP.
if V = V-Sbjn: we-V-4.9a Vadv is attested.

From the examples in 6.2.4 it can be seen that Vadv’s can be grouped into those which occur before the verb they modify and those which occur after the verb they modify (and perhaps a few that can occur in either place).

Those attested only before the verb they modify are: c’eça’el(-aw) 'very', k’weatu 'very', ?šě’el 'really', c’imel 'almost, near(ly)', x’ělq - x’ělqi 'almost', ysh 'just, now' (only before subordinate conjunction s’es which precedes the verb modified), qe’ys 'lately, recently', ?fiužay 'the last time', ñq’el 'used to', hifiθ 'a long time' (only before
subordinate conjunction k'w's V-4.8), lāc 'sometimes'
(only before subordinate conjunction k'w'-4.8-s V-4.8
so far as attested), lāq' 'sometimes', x weld 'still, yet', wə?ál(-əw) 'too (overly)', wiyəθ 'always' (with or without a following subordinate conjunction k'w'-4.8-s V-4.8), yáswe 'possibly, perhaps, might, maybe', wəθ 'already', θəʔi-t 'truly, for sure', tx'əm 'early', x'əm 'fast' (only before subordinate conjunction k'w'-4.8-s V-4.8), yeləwel 'just past, over, more'.

Those attested only after the verb they modify are:
yəwə-l 'first', ḥiyá-q' 'last, after, behind',
x'əhiwel '(go, come) upriver', woq'xel 'go, come downriver', tá-l - cúcuc 'toward the river, (if on a river) away from shore', cá-m 'away from the water', t'á(·)k'w 'go) home, homeward', qeḻt 'again', tlaqəs 'now (this instant), right now', cəḻqəl 'yesterday', tləwew̱el 'today', wəyeles 'tomorrow', wəl - wə(l) 'just, simply', yəwə 'along, also', sq'eqə-l 'along, together', wək'qəl 'go) outside'.

Those attested both before and after the verb they modify: several numerals + -əθ 'times' are attested after and (when followed by subordinate conjunction k'w'-4.8-s ---4.8) before the verb they modify, and s(e)lə 'tightly, tight' is attested before and after the verb it modifies but in either case only conjoined
to it by subordinate conjunction \( k^{W-4.8-s} \) (as in
\( s(\varepsilon) k^{W-4.8-s} V^{4.8} \) and \( V k^{W-4.8-s} \varepsilon \)).

It is possible that semantic groups determine
which Vadv’s occur before and which occur after the
verb they modify. Those occurring before seem to be
adverbials of degree ('very', 'very', 'really', 'al-
most', nearly', 'almost', 'too (overly)'), of indefin-
ite or uncertain time periods (especially in the past)
('just, now', 'lately, recently', 'the last time',
'used to', 'a long time', 'sometimes', 'sometimes',
'early'), and of degree of certainty (or uncertain-
ty)('possibly', 'truly'; possibly 'always', 'still,
yet', and 'already')('fast' alone does not fit these
categories). Those Vadv’s occurring after the verb
they modify seem to be adverbials of direction ('up-
river', 'downriver', 'toward the river, away from the
shore', 'away from the water', 'homeward', 'outside'),
of precise time ('right now', 'yesterday', 'today',
'tomorrow'), of sequence ('first', 'last', 'again'),
and of accompaniment ('along, also', 'along, together')
('just, simply' alone does not fit).

A VP with Vadv V or V Vadv can be expanded thus:
with Vaux: Vadv V \( \rightarrow (l_{\varepsilon,me}) \) Vadv V (NP) or
Vadv (l_{\varepsilon,me}) V (NP)
V Vadv \( \rightarrow (l_{\varepsilon,me}) \) V Vadv
with Vq l1: 1l-4.4 V Vadv or 1l-4.4 Vadv V
with Vneg (so far): ?éw6tê V Vadv
wê-ce V-4.9a Vadv
?éwê-4.4 ?í-4.9b Vadv V (This latter example may negate the Vadv rather than the
main verb ('It's not too hot.' for example), but see
the last chapter for more discussion of this.)

4. Some Vadv's can or must be followed by k'-W-4.8-s
-4.8 when occurring before a V. This may be either
a syntactic requirement or alternative for these verbs
or it may be a process of focus, to emphasize the Vadv
by making it the main verb of the clause and subordinat-
ing the following verbs to it. Not enough examples
have been obtained yet to establish whether the pre-
sent examples (in 6.2.4) show a syntactic requirement,
a syntactic alternative, or syntactically expressed
semantic emphasis. It seems alternative or emphatic
with Num-ê and ye-êiyâ=q't because both can also
appear directly after the main verb (the latter as
êiyâ=q't). It also seems alternative or emphatic
(though more common) with wiyâ because wiyâ can also
(rarely) precede the main verb without k'-W-4.8-s. It
may be a requirement with yeê, hi-ê, lêc, and êWêm,
since these are not attested otherwise as Vadv's syn-
tactically; nevertheless, these could also be cases
of an alternative structure or emphasis if these Vadv's were to be attested without $k^w$-4.8-s —-4.8 in later data or following the main verb. s(s)lē is a peculiar case from the single attestation; it can either precede or follow the main verb but only conjoined to it with $k^w$-4.8-s; it may well be a Vaj rather than Vadv.

5. In some cases a Vadv requires (1f, ?f)-4.9b between it and the main verb that follows, or requires $k^a$-4.9b where $k^a$ is the main verb. This is often the case with yáswe 'possibly, perhaps, might, maybe', $x^w$-1q 'almost', and $w$ē 'all along, long ago' (probably short for $w$ē $h$ē 'a long time ago'). As explained in 4.9 and elsewhere the subjunctive is used where there is doubt, uncertainty or negation. This is clear after yáswe, and yáswe is attested in the following: yáswe-lēl $w$-lēm - yáswe $w$-lēm-ēl 'I might go.', yáswe $w$-sk$^w$-ēs $k^w$-als lēm 'It may be impossible for me to go.', yáswe ($w$-) $k^a$-s te mēl's 'Maybe it's his father.' The same explanation may be possible for $x^w$-1q found in the following example:

$x^w$-1q-cel lēl lēm 'I almost went.' (but cp. $x^w$-1q-cex$^w$ lēm, ?ētē 'You almost went, didn't you?'). It is so far unclear why $w$ē requires the subjunctive, but several examples show it: $w$ē lī-s $s'ēq$-a'l-ex$^w$ 'She
knew all along (long ago?).', \( \text{ lié } \text{ if-}x^W \text{ sitq'el-x}^W \)  
\( \text{ lí-s ?ešel } \text{ k'w}^\text{él } \text{ lelem} \) 'You knew all along where my house was.',  
\( \text{ lié } \text{ lí-s háy} \) 'It was finished long ago'.

6. Vadv + Vadv + V: The same rules seen above also 
apply to cases where the VP is expanded by two Vadv's: 
those Vadv's which precede the main verb still do, and 
those that follow still follow; VP with two Vadv's are 
expanded by negation, interrogation, and le and me 
auxiliaries just as the single Vadv VP's are; those 
Vadv's which require \( k'W-4.8 \)-s before the main verb
still require it; and those Vadv's needing subjunctive 
on following (lí, ?í, ká) still use it. The 
following constructions are attested in 6.2.4:

Vadv V Vadv (as in c'éc'el \( k'W^\text{k'es } \text{ tlàw'yél} \))
Vadv Vadv V (as in wež c'ímel \( k'W^\text{el or c'éc'el} \)
wež \( \text{ ét?í'} \)')
Vadv(-ce) Vadv \( k'W-4.8 \)-s V-4.8 (as in \( ?\text{ét}^\text{el-cc wehi} \)
\( k'W^\text{es hák'wex}^V \) or wež hiž \( k'W^\text{es misq'} \))
Vadv-4.4 Vadv V = Vadv Vadv-4.4 V (as in yáswe c'el
\( x^W^\text{el(?el)} \) mélq'í-wsem = yáswe \( x^W^\text{elq'cel mélqí-wsem} \)
(?el is possibly sic for -él-í or lí-í))

4.4 Vadv? Vadv (mé) V (as in c'el \( k'W \) wež lém or c'el
\( k'W^\text{é} \) wež mé \( x^\text{é}^\text{m} \))

lí-4.4 Vadv V (or Vaux) Vadv (as in lí wež le \( ?\text{ét}^\text{yél} \))

Presumably either the first or second verb in each
of the above has a subject pronoun inflection (-4.4), but since -4.4 in the 3rd person is unmarked on Vi's one cannot be sure which verb is so inflected. When both modifying Vadv's occur before the verb, some may be required first and some second. There are too few examples in my data so far to say much, but those attested first are qēθ'el, wēl, c'c'ēl, yāswē, probably lēq'ēl, and k'wē (if a Vadv); those attested second are hīθ, c'īmel, x'wēl'sē, probably wiyāθ, and wēl (if a Vadv). (For lēq'ēl and wiyāθ see 7. below).

7. Vadv + Vadv + Vadv + V: Three examples of this construction have been attested so far, and everything said in 6. just above appears to apply here as well.

Vadv Vadv V A N Vadv. (As in: lēq'ēl wiyāθ c'f·yēl yē x'wēl'sē x'wēl'sē k'su'llēθ 'The people used to pray all the time long ago.'

Vadv Vadv Vadv k's-4.8-s V-4.8. (in 3rd person k's-4.8-s V-4.8 can be replaced optionally with k's V's or k's ses V, as noted in Chapter 9). (As in the example: wēl (wē)'yāl·ēw hīθ k's ĭtēt-s 'He's already slept too long. ')

Vadv Vadv Vadv Vaj. (As in: c'c'ēl wēl θē'yē t sādēmēt 'He's really truly lazy.')

Again there are not enough examples to be definitive about whether certain Vadv's must occur first,
others, second, others third when all three precede the main verb. In the examples found here weə and c’έc’εl come first, (we)άl-εw and wel come second, and hθε and θε?l-t come third. The first example shows an additional example of the order of two Vadv’s before a verb and ίθq’ε and wiyθε should be added to the statement of order in 6. just above.

8. Vadv’s modifying verbs can occur also in dependent or subordinate VP’s. Examples include:

?ewέc V Vadv k’W-4.8-s V-4.8 Vadv: ?ewέc ίθq’εl·εw wetemέmesεl k’wεs ίεlεlεcεt qεlεt 'No-one knows when we’ll eat again.'

l sq’έlewεl k’wεs me-s V Vadv: l sq’έlewεl k’wεs mes ίέmeεW tlaεwεyεl 'I think it's going to rain today.'

4.4 Vadv V k’wεs Vadv V: ίεl θε?l-t ίθq’εl·εW k’wεs wel lεm 'I know for sure he's gone.'

sk’l k’W-4.8-s V-4.8 Vadv: sk’l k’wεlεs le yεwε 'I want to go along.'

All the examples show V Vadv in the subordinate VP except for one example of Vadv V; the same rules apply here as above regarding expansion with me and which Vadv’s precede or follow the verb they modify. The first verb in the subordinate VP (whether Vadv or Vaux or Vt, etc.) receives a -4.8 suffix as expected if the subordinate VP has a third person or a plural subject.
(i.e. k'w-4.8-s v-4.8)(as usual -4.8 is only realized on the word preceding the first verb in singular 1st and 2nd persons, k'w-el-s and k'w-ε-s).

9. Some Vadv's can be preceded by an article and still function adverbially: the A Vadv acts as a unit Vadv, occurring where its Vadv would occur and modifying the main verb of the VP. This combination of A Vadv never functions as an NP and can never be the subject or object of a verb except after Vprep where A Vadv can be the NP object. The best explanation may be to say that the A is prefixed and loses its function; the resulting Vadv would be treated as a variant of the original Vadv. Examples found so far include: ḋehiw, cúcu, cá-leqʷ, cá-kʷ, wēl·θ(aē), celēqent(aē), and wēyəls. tlə̊wəyəl functions in the same way at times but already has its A prefixed (te-lə̊-wəyəl, see Chapter 9). Examples in sentences include:
lémocel k'we ḋehiw 'I'm going upriver.'
lém k'we cúcu 'He's going toward the river (or away from the shore).'
le yəqʷ k'we cá·leqʷ 'The backwoods are burnt.'
k'wəčləxʷes te lélém li te cá·kʷ 'He saw a house in the distance/far away.'
ɨq'vej wiyaθ c'j·yej yə xʷeləməxʷ k'we-wēθəqəl 'The people used to pray all the time long ago.'
cep ?élqel (k'we) celγqel(e) 'You folks ate yesterday.'

?élqel lí k'we celγqel(e) 'I was there yesterday.'

lémcelæ k'we wéylees 'I'll go tomorrow.'

yeláwel x'ék' tlâwéyle telí k'we celγqel(e) 'Today is colder than yesterday.' or better (and lit.) 'It is colder today than yesterday.'

10. A few adverbial elements are affixes, namely
- q'è 'how __!', really __!', and -à 'simply, just'
(< ?è1 ~ ?à(1) with same meaning). These are merely affixed onto the verb they modify (whether it be Vadv, Vt, or the like); they are word-final. Examples can be found in 6.2.4.

11.2.2.3. Padv. Padv's function syntactically just like Vadv's (where they are described as Vadv's,
see Chapters 6, 7, and 11.2.2.2 just above); the only difference is that Padv's cannot be inflected.

11.2.2.4. Pmod. Pmod's function syntactically like Vadv's but cannot be inflected. They modify the main verb and occur adjacent to it like Vadv's. Like Vadv's some Pmod's occur before the verb they modify, some after. θé and ?et'weæ occur before the verb they modify, while t'we - t'we and k'we occur after (there is one attestation of t'we before, either an error or showing t'we - t'we can occur in both places).
?št'weâ is a compound, but within it t'we may be seen following a verb: ?š is an auxiliary verb used with past tense (see Chapter 6); weâ is left to precede the verb which follows the compound. Regarding the possibility that semantic groups help determine membership in groups of Vadv's (and Pmod's) which occur before and which occur after the verbs they modify, ?š and ?št'weâ express "a degree of (un)certainty" and precede their verbs just like the similar group of Vadv's. But t'we - t'we fits this semantic area too and yet follows its verb. k'we 'anyway' is semantically similar to ?šel 'just, simply' (both expressing intention or attitude) and like ?šel follows the verb it modifies. So three of the Pmod's confirm and one denies the idea of semantic determination of membership in classes which precede or follow the verb modified. If the single attestation of t'we before its verb is multiplied in later data then it too would tend to confirm.

11.2.2.5. Dadv.

1. Dadv's modify V's and can be conjugated like Vadv's (by inflecting the Vdem's they contain). For example, Dadv-4,4-ce ?à is really Vdem-4,4-ce ?à (A) D since all Dadv's are really adverbial phrases consisting of Vdem (A) D. The one exception is tî, which is
unfortunately not attested with any suffixes yet (-e or -4,4 for example). It is best to treat Dadv's as single syntactic units because they are positioned syntactically like Vadv's. Dadv's can be the M.V. or can modify other V's.

2. Some Dadv's are followed by k'w4-4.8-s V-4.8 where the V is the V they modify. For example:
me ลำก'w teff k'we cák'w h'asu ?ök'welà k'wes
θiyéltx'wem 'He flew from far away and he makes his home here.'
If k'we θé k'wes h'eléx'w "He's living there."

3. Sometimes Dadv's are nominalized and continue to function adverbially (like some Vadv's). For example: ?ewéts-1 s'éq'elex'w k'wes q'ëpsequ k'we ?f·k'welà 'I didn't know there was going to be a gathering here.' and tewé t k'we If k'we θé 'Who's there?' (this may be relativized instead and not functioning adverbially, i.e., 'Who is it that is there."

4. Sometimes A D is used adverbially (like some cases of A Vadv), as in k'we là after mì. For example: mì-le k'we là 'Come here!', mìcel k'we là 'I'm coming here.', and cel mì k'we là k'w celéqéelé 'I came here yesterday.'

5. Like Vadv's some Dadv's occur before the verb they modify, some occur after, and some (when M.V.'s)
don't modify another verb. However the only Dadv's which precede the verb modified are those followed by k'w-4.8-s V-4.8 (i.e., f{k\r}elà and lî k'we òë); when Dadv's are not followed by k'w-4.8-s V-4.8 they can only modify a verb by following it. For example:

f{eq\r}'et f{k\r}elà 'lay it/put it down here'

sk'wës k'wëclex k'wëclex òf{k\r}elà 'You can't see it here.'

lec'ë-mëx lî te òë, lec'ë-mëx òf{k\r}e òë 'It's/

There's a different tribe here (lit. 'there (near)'),
a different tribe there (far).'

c{
élqeqle} lîs k'w'ës lîs yëk'ses sk'wëclex lî te òë

yuk'â-lëm 'I've forgotten how many days they were inside there.'

lî f{i}ya-lëm k'wëls k'wëclex lî te òë 'Can I see it from there (in that place)?'

le hôl'ëm tî 'They're on their way there., He's on his way there., She's on her way there.'

le q'eq'ip lî tî 'They're together over there.'

mëcx xëtë tî 'Come around there!'

6. Since all Dadv's occur after the verb they modify and all have meanings having to do with direction (or location), they confirm the idea that semantic groups help determine which adverbials occur before and which after the verb they modify. All the Vadv's
attested with the idea of direction or location occur after the verb they modify.

11.2.2.6. Past Tenses. This is the place to mention the syntactically formed past tenses: a.) proposing 4.4 at the beginning of the VP, b.) ṣ-4.4 VP c.) (?f(·), lf(·))-4.4 VP, d.) lf·-4.4 V, (and ṣf·-4.4 Pmod V). These have already been discussed and exemplified in Chapters 4 and 6 (q.v.). The main point to be made here is that all these past tenses are expansions to the VP, added at the beginning of the VP and modifying it. There are several syntactic complications that should be mentioned also:

1. The ṣf·- past tense when found in subordinate clauses usually has 1e replacing ṣf· in any person (not just third), i.e., kv-4.8₁,₂,₃-s 1e V. This is attested after Vq, after ṣf·-4.4 Vadv, and in numerous other examples. One example where ṣf· is retained is the example in 4.2 on p. 305.

2. The ṣf· auxiliary past can also separate Vadv and the following main verb, as in ṣf·-4.4 Vadv kv-4.8-s V-4.8 (examples also in 4.1 and 4.2 on pp. 304 and 309). The ṣf· doesn't separate them itself but causes the kv-4.8-s subordination, apparently.

3. Even Vq can follow ṣ-4.4 and ṣf·-4.4 as well as proposed 4.4 past tenses.
11.2.2.7. Vneg.  ?ewòte as explained earlier in this chapter can serve in several capacities and before a nominal without A can be seen either as an adverbial verb or as a main verb (see 11.2.1.8.3). ?ewòte seems to be a negative verb (perhaps only used in the 3rd person with -4.43 which is unmarked), but its status is still unclear. It is tentatively considered here with Vneg's. Negative verbs are also discussed and exemplified in 6.2.4. Inflection of negative verbs is discussed in 6.1.7 (subjunctive, imperative, and interrogative all are possible, as well as declarative), 6.1.8 (present, past, and future all appear with Vneg's), and 6.1.10 (internal syntax). The syntax of those constructions has been dealt with to some extent in the sections mentioned and will not be reviewed here. Instead, this section will concentrate on how Vneg's fit into the VP and the sentence and will round up whatever syntactic observations have not been made so far about negatives.

In most cases negative verbs modify a main verb, much like Vadv's do, but preceding any Vadv by occurring at the beginning of the VP. As discussed in the chapter on pronouns (4.9 especially), negative verbs for the most part take -4.4 subject inflection and require subjunctive subject inflection on the verb.
following; the verb following can be the main verb or an auxiliary, ʔi(•) or li(•). When Vadv's are present before the main verb the auxiliary ʔi(•) or li(•) is obligatory; it, rather than the first Vadv, takes the subjunctive inflection; semantically this negates the Vadv, but in Halkomelem this negation also carries over the whole VP too. Double negatives are not used in Halkomelem.

Further indications that double negatives are not used are sentences like ʔəwətəs-1 s-ʔi·m 'I didn't pick anything.', and ʔəwəcel li1 k1WəclexW təwət 'I didn't see anybody.'

Like most Vadv's, Vneg's take the -4.4 subject inflection of the VP and require no k1W-4.8-s_-4.8 to be attached to the verb following, though they require the subjunctive -4.9 to be attached to the verb following. These observations are true even of ʔəwə-Imper which is merely ʔəwə-4.42 V-4.9. However, there is one case in which -4.9 is not applied to the verb following a Vneg. ʔəwə-4.4-2 or ʔəwə-1-4.4 can be followed by V without -4.9a on the V and without preceding the V with (li(•), ʔi(•))-4.9b. Examples can be found in 6.1.8.4.6.

11.2.2.8. 1f Questions (Yes-No Questions). 1f can be added in front of almost any independent verb
phrase to form yes-no questions; lf receives the -4.4 subject inflection. lf-4.4 of course cannot interrogate imperatives or subjunctives because they are mutually exclusive moods. It is unnecessary before other Vq's. And lf-4.4 is not found before negative verbs or skw'ey 'can't, impossible' or k'á 'that's __, it's him/her', each of which can only be made interrogative by the interrogative suffix -e ~ -e. (When skw'ey is used as Vaj meaning '(be) wrong' however it can be made interrogative by lf-4.4.) Other verbs which can be inflected for interrogative with -e ~ -e are also attested with lf-4.4 interrogatives; this includes lém, sk'í, and N > V. lf-4.4 interrogative is also absent before past tense VP's; past interrogatives are formed inflectionally as follows: (?i·, lf·)-e-4.4 VP. ?i· and lf· are auxiliaries which accept the past tense suffix -e; then the interrogative suffix -e is added and then subject suffix. So it seems that interrogative verb lf is not used otherwise in the past tense. Another way to form a yes-no question (even in past tense) is by using ?étá 'tag-question)' at the very end of the sentence.

Returning to lf-4.4 questions, they are only attested inflected further with -ce 'future' (lf-ce sp'ep'skw 'Will it float?', lfy-e-ce lém 'Will be
go?, etc.). But 11-4.4 can also interrogate VP's beginning with Vadv (11 weł 1em 'Is he (already) gone?') or VP's beginning with Vaux 1e or me (11 le hêwe 'Is he going hunting?' (or 'Did he go hunting?' with ambiguous past translation) and 11(ve) me kwełxwiləm te sq'wemēy 'Did the dog come in (into the house)?'). When 11 interrogative is used with a VP it questions the whole phrase not just the word it precedes. Thus the answer can be affirmative (11. or ?e·?e., etc.) if the hearer agrees with everything in the VP question; the answer can be negative (?ëwe. or some other Vneg) if the hearer disagrees with anything in the VP question.

11.2.3. Expansion of the Sentence With Appositive and Non-conjoined VP's (Prepositional phrases, Subjunctive phrases).

11.2.3.1. Apposition of N (Vocative) and VP (Parenthetic). Not many vocative constructions have been elicited, but a few number have been heard at gatherings where Halkomelem is spoken (Elder's Meetings at Coqualeetza, spirit dances, funerals, banquets, etc.). On these occasions, as well as in the sentences recorded in field work, an N (usually proper name or kin-term) can be used vocatively by placing it without an article at the very beginning or end of any sentence.
The N may also be possessed, i.e. 4.6 N-4.6. Naturally an N can be so used as an entire utterance when calling someone, as well. Examples: ḟiy̕əsəq, m̕estexʷ te skʷáws 'Son (or Male friend), bring over/fetch the pail.' (m̕estexʷ is often used as an imperative without any imperative inflection), ḟ̱ey tel sq̓wlewal k̕wels sq̓’eq̓’á ̕̕ k̕s̕kw̕l̕lep 1 siy̕əye 'I'm glad to be with you, my friends.'; l̓ew, síl̓e 'Hello, grandmother/grandfather.'

Parenthetically a VP may rarely be appended to the end of a sentence as the following examples show:

wiyə k̕wes ḟi-wálems te st̓e-xʷəl, t̓'it̓'eləm k̕wes ḟi-wálems 'The children are always playing, singing as they're playing.' and cexʷ ḟi k̕we lə t̓'it̓'eləm 'You're here singing.' (cp. ḟi-xeckʷ li· ti k̕wes t̓'it̓'eləm 'You were (over) there singing.' which shows the more usual method of conjoining the parenthetical VP), and perhaps st̓em te li· ti c̓ic̓esəm 'What's that (over there) growing?'.

11.2.3.2. Prepositional Phrases. The composition of prepositional phrases has been mentioned in 11.2.1.3 (Vprep-4.4 0 (S)). Vprep must be followed by an NP object (4.11 if pronominal) even though it is inflectionally a V; the syntax with an NP subject is Vprep-4.4 0 S. Vprep-4.4 0 (S) can be a complete
sentence or a main VP; as such it can be expanded like any other VP with a Vi. Prepositional phrases (when the Vprep is not a main verb) are attached at the end of another VP. They have the shape Vprep-4.4 0 (4.4 0 is unmarked after Vi's). Such a phrase is a dependent VP attached after the main VP without any conjoining k^W-4.8-s __-4.8. Vprep-4.4 0 (S) cannot be a dependent VP.

ёёё 'via, through' often has яе- 'travelling by' prefixed to it; it remains a prepositional verb when so prefixed however and occurs in Vprep-4.4 0 (S) or 4.4 Vprep 0 (S) (past tense). The latter constructions have Vprep as a main verb.

One additional peculiarity of Vprep's is that of ли 'in, at, to', which forms a dependent prepositional phrase but then is deleted after demonstrative verbs, leaving the Vdem to carry the obligatory object. Thus sentences like цел ?и· тэ лёшм 'I'm here at your house.' and ле ли· тэ лёшм 'He's there at your house.'

11.2.3.3. Subjunctive Phrases. Subjunctive phrases consist of во-V-4.9 plus the remainder of the VP. The first V in the VP receives the subjunctive affixes whether it is a modifier or the central verb of the phrase. Subjunctive phrases are always dependent; they can either precede or follow the main VP.
without further modification. When the main VP (independent clause) is followed by a prepositional phrase, the subjunctive phrase follows the prepositional phrase or precedes the main VP. Most types of verbs and VP's can be made into subjunctive phrases (even N's serving as V's). With Vq's however this subjunctive inflection makes them into relative constructions (as seen in 6.2.5, p. 349, q.v.); such relativization is attested for ʔɛl̃èce, tɛl̃ɛce, xʷəc̓ɛl̃ə, xʷəc̓əkʷəl, ʔəwət, and stəm. Of these, ʔɛl̃èce, tɛl̃ɛce, and xʷəc̓əkʷəl are made subjunctive with auxiliaries, i.e.

we-(ʔi̊, li̊)-4.9b precedes them. These subjunctive relatives function as NP subjects or objects of the main verb according to the regular rules of subject and object placement, but they lack the article which relative clauses otherwise begin with. ʔəwe can be made subjunctive too, as ʔəwès (li̊, ʔi̊)-4.9b preceding the verb in its VP. Thus a few examples like the following were found: ʔəwès lîs (ʔɛ) səˈiyəlp, ləcəl kʷət 'If you folks don't want it, I'll take it.', and yeəəst̓əl̓xʷəsəl̓ wəl̓əismet ʔəwès məl̓qələses 'He'll tell us when to go if he doesn't forget.'

A few more examples will illustrate the placement of subjunctive phrases:

yəswə wəl̓əməl 'I might go., I don't know if I'm going.'
yáswetwék'eyes k'Wel's lém 'I don't know if it's impossible for me to go.'
(ʔéwe sk'ís, sk'Wéy) k'Wel's meytálx's welémets sówq'tálè
'(He won't/doesn't want to, He can't) help us when we go find you folks.'
lícw síq'el ox'w welémesc 'Do you know if he'll go?'
témtemc welémex ták'W 'When are you going home?'
(lit. 'When will it be when you go home?')
wélíš-1 sk'í k'Wel's lém, lémcal 'If I want to go, I will go.'
wmí·p c'šéyèt, ʔéweɛp mi·p hàk'ax'y te s?í̥εm
'When you come to pray, don't come to use your clothes.'
wélémex ʔéq'el, ʔéweɛx' lémex qelqel·lëet 'When you go outside, don't go get yourself dirty!'
ʔács Bill k'Wa méyèlàx'y wex'wé's 'It will be Bill that helps me when he gets here.'
(EB) cuł ʔq'èlxw (wetewéstes, wé'ís lécæ, wetémes k'Wa le k'Wá'tes) 'I (already) know (who it is, where it is, what he took).'
(EB) wélíx' wéçák'Wel 'wherever you're going'

II.2.4. Expansion of the Sentence With Subordin-ate Conjunction of VP's. VP's can be made into relative clauses (preceded by A or by A-4.6a and the first word followed by -4.6b) or into regular subord-
inate clauses (preceded by këw-4.8a-s and the first word followed by -4.8b). In both cases the VP is nominalized and can be possessed by the pronoun suffixes to show its pronominal subject. The A also can be considered as a conjunction (for example see 9.2 where it is considered as a demonstrative conjunction or Dconj).

11.2.4.1. Relative Clauses. When a VP is relativized by a preceding A without -s nominalizer (këwélém or te q’êq’et’sem for example), it is interpreted as subject or object according to the usual rules for VP’s (given in 11.2.1). Thus VP can take the place of N in the formulae such as: Vi-S A N (A N is subject, except after Vprep and a few other verbs noted in 11.2.1 when A N is object), Vt-O-S A N₁ A N₂ (A N₁ is subject, A N₂ is object), Vt-O-S A N (A N is object unless the person and number differ between -O and -S; in the latter case A N becomes either subject or object depending on which it agrees with in person and number (the -S or the -O)), Vt-Pass A N₁ (A N₂) (A N₁ is object, A N₂ is agent, i.e. "A N₁ was Vt-ed by A N₂"), Vt-Pass_c A N (where the passive object pronoun suffix does not correspond with the person and number of A N, the A N can be the agent). When VP substitutes for N, VP’s subject (shown by -4.6) must agree in number and person
with the -S or -O.

Now, within the VP which is so relativized, the V can be a Vi or a Vt. If it is a Vi (including middles, etc.) there is no further syntactic adjustment required: cel k'weclexk'wee lu le'm 'I saw the one who went.' or q'aqq'etem te siyálexte q'aqq'etem 'The old man is sucking something (that is) sweet.' Thus the subject of the Vi is relativized. The relative pronoun in the English translation refers to the grammatical subject of the Vi in the relative clause. (Even tel s?i.k'w 'what I lost', te sqe'ls 'what he stole', and te sqw'e '1 'what you said, your words' probably work the same way. They appear to be loose translations, probably more accurately translated as 'my thing that was lost', 'his stealings', and 'your words, your talk'.)

If the V within the relativized VP is a Vt instead, the subject of the Vt is relativized with the added loss of the 3rd person possessive suffix which would normally show 3rd person subject. For example, k'á (te) ?i memiyet 'That's the one that was helping her.' (te usually omitted after k'á). When the object of the Vt is what is relativized, the subject of the Vt is marked by (retained) possessive pronoun suffixes (4.6) when the main clause is not a question.

If the object of the dependent Vt is relativized,
the subject of the Vt (of whatever person) is marked by 4.9b suffixes when the main clause is a question. The 4.9b suffixes are further attached to the auxiliary ŋf(·), and both (i.e. ŋf(·)-4.9b) are inserted between the article and the Vt in the relative clause. For example: stēm te ŋf·xʷ əé·yt 'What are you making?', stēm te ŋf·xʷ kʷelés 'What is it you're holding?', tewēt switseq kʷee ŋf·xʷ sē·wq′t 'What man are you looking for?', ət′a· kʷel méle kʷee ŋf·xʷ hē·y̱et 'Is that my child you're talking about?', tewēt kʷe ŋf·xʷ əé·y̱itzet te swēltəl 'Who are you making the net for?'.

When the main clause is a question but the relative pronoun refers to the subject of the Vt, the subject of the Vt is shown by possessive pronoun (tewēt kʷe ət′a· l-s kʷs lēm-s 'Who is it that wants to go?') unless the construction is Vt-O₂-S₂. In the latter case (Vt-O₂-S₂) the 3rd person possessive suffix is usually replaced by 4.4 (that is, le) preposed. For example, wēt kʷe le y̱eesə̱lə̀mə 'Who told you?', or tewēt kʷe le ət′a· y̱ee′lə̀mə 'Who cut you?'). (This replacement is necessary because it may be recalled that a third person subject acting on a second person object is never realized with Vt-O₂-S₂ but by passives and other circumlocutions.)
In all these relative clauses the relative pronoun refers only to 3rd person S or O so far as I have attestation.

Relative clauses produced with we-Vq-4.9 or we-(1f,?1f)-4.9b Vq, as mentioned above, begin without an article. The Vq is intransitive and so the relative pronoun in English refers to the subject of the Vq. Sometimes however, a relative clause as described in this section, is conjoined to the Vq, as in the following sentence: (EB) cu± 1q'61ex wæstëmes k'we le k'w'otes 'I (already) know what he took.' The 'what he took' is actually 'what it is' + 'something he took', and the wæstëmes could be omitted without altering the translation.

11.2.4.2. Regular Subordinate Clauses. To subordinate a VP to another VP Halkomelem uses a Dconj to introduce the subordinate VP (i.e. the subordinate clause). The pronoun subject of the subordinate clause is never deleted, even if it is the same as that in the superordinate clause. In regular subordinate clauses the conjunction is k'w-4.8-s -4.8 'that, to, for, while, as' or k'æk'w-4.8-s -4.8 'because' (see Chapters 4 and 9). k'w(e) can be seen as an article nominalizing the VP that follows, and the -s can be seen as a version of s- which also nom-
inalizes what follows. The -4.8 is shown within the conjunction (or attached to the article) and suffixed to the first word of the VP which follows because possessive pronouns of that set occur in either or both places depending on their person and number. The -4.8 suffix(es) substitute for the -4.4 subject suffixes which would occur if the VP were independent rather than dependent (subordinate). In the 3rd person, kʷses or kʷs (-s) can substitute for kʷes _-s. This is true for 'because' as well as for 'that, to, for, while, as'. No further modification of the VP is necessary in most cases when it is so subordinated; it may even include a full expanded VP or just a bare verb or anything in between permitted by the rules given for independent VP's. Only in a few cases (mentioned in the next paragraph) are further modifications required.

Dependent VP's with past tense can have structures like (kʷe)kʷ-4.8-s ?í·áz-4.8 V ... or (kʷe)kʷ-4.8-s ?éwəz-4.8 V ..., but more common is for le (preposed 4.4) in any person to replace the ?í·áz, i.e., (kʷe)kʷ-4.8,1,2,3-s le 4.8 V ... For example, ?ísíxʷ tusʔéyʔəl kʷes le léyəm 'You were laughing softly.' or təmtəm kʷes le ʔiyt 'When did you make it?'.

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Since the subject marker -4.8 is an integral part of the conjunctions or subordinating nominalizers, the question arises as to what subject markers passives (without subjects) take. It turns out that they have 3rd person 4.8 subject markers: $(\lambda^\prime e)k^Wes \_\_s - (\lambda^\prime e)k^Wses - (\lambda^\prime e)k^Ws \_\_\_\_\_\_\_s$. Many examples can be seen in 4.10 and some in 9.2. Third person subject for passives is also required after negative verbs; questions with li and auxiliary past tense construction with passive could be seen as requiring 3rd person subject (unmarked) or as having no subject markers. This is all perfectly consistent with the translation of the passive, often given, with an impersonal 'they' subject; it is also consistent with the use of the passive second person object affixes as a substitute for (and often translated by) a third person subject plus a second person object (which inflectional combination is not permitted).

The $k^W-4.8-s \_\_\_\_\_\_\_4.8$ subordinate clause is used in the same circumstances as most English subordinate clauses. It is also frequent in some constructions which would not be expected from the English translation. These will be mentioned in the next paragraph. But first a word needs to be said about where $k^W-4.8-s \_\_\_\_\_\_\_4.8$ clauses occur syntactically in respect to
non-conjoined VP's and appositives. \( k'W-4.8-s -4.8 \) clauses occur after: the main VP, a prepositional phrase, or another \( k'W-4.8-s -4.8 \) clause. They occur before or after subjunctive phrases, and before appositives, when these occur after the main VP. 'Because' clauses follow everything mentioned as far as attested, probably including appositives.

Subordinate clauses with \( k'W-4.8-s -4.8 \) are frequent after sk'W\( \dot{y} \) 'can't', sk\( W\)\( \dot{y} \) 'can't?', is it impossible?', and \( ?iy\dot{a}lem 'can, may' unless these are used as Vaj's (respectively 'be wrong; be impossible', 'be wrong?', and '(be) right, alright, okay'); after sk'I 'want' (and sq\( W\)\( \dot{s}\)\( \dot{w}\)\( \dot{e}\) 'think'); when infinitives would be used in English with deleted subject; and after some Vadv's and Dadv's. These are a few of the places where English would perhaps not lead us to expect \( k'W-4.8-s -4.8 \) subordinate clauses to be necessary.

11.2.5. Expansion of the Sentence by Co-ordinate Conjunction of Independent VP's. Independent VP's, clauses and sentences can be conjoined by preceding the one to follow with a Pconj (conjunctive particle or particle conjunction). These conjunctions are discussed in 7.2 and include qe 'and, but, or' (also means 'then' after an independent VP or clause begin-
ning with (?e)wés 'if not'; thus (?e)wés VPindep qe
VPindep 'If not VP then VP'), su 'so, then', qesu
'and so, and then', ?esu '(and) so', suː 'so (already)',
and qewz 'and (already)', as well as (qə)a-4.8-su
'and so/then 4.8 (subject)', ḵ'acɛ su 'then he will,
so it will be him that', and qək'aθ'esɛsu 'and then
they say he/she/it/they, and so it is said he/etc.'
The last three are not strictly particles but are
conjunctions; they contain qe or su which are Pconj's
but also contain -4.8 (and in one case -ce) inflec-
tions within. The -4.8 apparently must be placed en-
tirely within the conjunction and may not be attached
to the first word following in 3rd person or plural.
However, these inflected conjunctions remove the
necessity and possibility of -4.4 inflection and -ce
inflection and θ'e modification as VP expansion for
the conjoined VP. After the inflected conjunction
-4.4 is omitted, and -ce and θ'e if present in the
conjunction needn't be repeated in the VP to follow.
Similarly, weː 'already' needn't (and probably can't)
be repeated as a verbal modifier after suː or qewz.
The uninflated Pconj's quoted first however re-
quire normal -4.4 inflection in the VP's which they
precede. Many examples have been given in 7.2. qe,
su, qesu, ?esu and (qə)ḵ'a-4.8-su are the most common
co-ordinate conjunctions in texts and narratives and are even used to begin every sentence for long passages. Few speakers vary from one to the other for stylistic reasons very much.

11.2.6. Comparatives and Superlatives. Comparatives and superlatives have the syntactic structure of a VP or a VP followed by a prepositional phrase. Also within NP's, the N can be modified by a Vaj which is in turn modified by an augmentative Vadv like c'éc'el(ów) 'be very, really' or several others; a bare handful of Vaj's may have inflectional comparatives with reduplication (ēiōe 'larger, bigger' and ?i?exw'wl 'smaller' — the latter only because diminutive reduplication can be added to the Vaj ?exw'wl 'small', making it 'smaller').

Comparative sentence structures found so far are:

yéléwel-4.4 Vaj (NP) télî (4.11, 4.7, A N)
Vaj-4.4 (NP) télî (4.11, 4.7, A N)
4.4 yéléwel Vaj télî (4.11, 4.7, A N)

Superlative sentence structures found so far:
c'éc'el-4.4(ów) Vaj télî (4.11, A N, probably 4.7)
Vaj-4.4 k'w su mēk'w cet
Vaj-4.4 we?áλ (~ Vaj-4.4 ?u?áλ (EB))
and even yéléwel-4.4 Vaj (A 4.7)
and as an NP: A yéléwel Vaj N
(Presumably NP would follow Vaj in the first, Vaj-4.4 in the second, and we?á1 in the third of the above superlatives.)

Examples:

yeléwel qél telí k'és?eíel 'He's worse than me.'
yeléwel x'éel telí k'we celéqéf(él) 'Today is colder than yesterday.'
yeléwel k'ésqt telí x'élteí telí tæ(?) swé 'My pencil is longer than yours.'
yeléwel p'él telí swéte 'My seater is whiter.'
yeléwel ?ey telí k'és?eíel 'He's/She's/It's/They're better than me.'
?ey telí k'és?eíel 'He's/etc. better than me.'
hík'í telí k'we spelwé 'He's/etc. bigger than last year.'
(hík'í, ?es?ésx'í-1) telí sc'électel telí tæ swé 'My chair is (bigger, smaller) than yours.'
cel yeléwel lás telí k'elówe 'I'm fatter than you.'
mi.setí te éíte 'Pick out the larger one(s)!'
mi.setí te éíte q'wé?áp 'Pick out the larger apple(s)!'
éíte te (q'wé?áps, se'áq'í) 'His apple, The fish is bigger.'
'éíte te se'éqi tlaq'éys 'The sockeye is bigger now.'
yeléwel qél 'It's worse.'
c'éc'el qél 'It's real bad., It's the worst.'
qál wé?ál 'It's the worst., It's real worse.'
c’éc’el-ew láš télí k’sélímež 'He's the fattest of us.'

?iyá’mex? télí k’w’su mák’w’cot 'She's the prettiest of all of us., He's the handsomest of all of us.'
yéléwel láš télí k’w’s mák’w’s 'He's fattest of all.'
(NP) ?iyá’mex? wá?á? 'She's (the) prettiest.'
(NP) ?éyom wá?á? 'He's (the) strongest.'
yéléwel p’óq’ te liq’qey 'Mt. Cheam is the whitest.'
yéléwel q’óq’ té swé 'I've got the most.'
yéléwel ?iyá’mex? q’óq’mi '(She's) the prettiest girl.'
yéléwel k’w’ámke’w’m smíyé qé ' (He's) the strongest man.'

k’á yéléwel ?éy 'That's the best., That's better.'
(AC) wé?ál éq’é’et 'wider (of a person for example)'

(probably lit. 'too wide')
(AC) wé?ál sáséw’t 'the youngest sibling'
(AC) l sk’í te wé?ál c’éc’íc’ewk’ x’yílém 'I want the shortest rope.' (probably lit. 'I want the too short rope.')

It may be that forms with wé?ál - wó?á? are the preferred superlative in the Chilliwack dialect but not in the other dialects. Also note the blurring of the distinction between comparative and superlative in some constructions.
11.3. Interjections. Interjections occur in syntactic isolation (as a complete utterance) or followed by a nominal used as a vocative, or in cases of "oh!" and "oh-oh!" followed by a N (as attested so far). 4.3 (N, Vaj) also occurs; other constructions probably occur, but so far are not attested. It seems likely from the examples seen that interjections must be sentence-initial. (tag-question) can occur as a complete utterance and refers to the previous sentence spoken, after a considerable delay; however is more an interrogative verb than an interjection.

11.4. Syntactic Limits. Many of the processes of syntactic expansion described can be done cyclically. But there are limits on the number of cycles permitted by each process and combination of processes. These limits should probably be described as claiming only that a certain number of cycles for a particular process are rare -- because the line is hard to draw between what is not attested and what cannot occur. None of the following are attested in my data, thus suggesting syntactic limits or cyclic limitation rules:

*A Vaj Vaj Vaj N (Vaj's can be put into subordinate VP's)

*A Vadv Vaj Vaj N
*A Vadv Vadv Vaj N
*A N-4.63 A N-4.63 A N
*A N qe N qe N
*-O qe N qe N
*NP qes NP qes NP

(but Num qes A Num qes A Num qes A Num is permitted as
the highest number of conjoined numerals allowed,
as in '1999; '2000' and higher are unattested)
*A N qes 4.3 qes (A N, 4.3)
*A N-4.63 A N qe N qe N (conjoined possessors of a
single NP)
*Vadv Vadv Vadv Vadv (Fmod)(Vaux) M.V. ... 
*M.V. (Fmod)(Dadv) Vadv Vadv (Vadv's can be put into
subordinate VP's)
*Fmod Fmod either before or after M.V.
*Dadv Dadv after M.V.
*VP, VP, VP (appended parenthetically as appositives)
*VP Vprep O Vprep O Vprep O (though VP Vprep O Vprep O
is attested)
*VP we-VP-4.9 we-VP-4.9 (perhaps one 'if' and one 'when')
*we-VP-4.9 VP we-VP-4.9
*we-VP-4.9 we-VP-4.9 VP
*Vt k^W-4.8-s VP_1-4.8 k^W-4.8-s VP_2-4.8 where
k^W-4.8-s VP_1-4.8 is S, and k^W-4.8-s VP_2-4.8 is O,
both for the same verb (Vt)
*No maximally expanded VP attested as given in the first paragraph of 11.2.2.

There has not been time to try to elicit these constructions; some may occur which are not rare, but I believe most will prove to be rare and many non-existent due to syntactic limits. For some (as noted) alternate constructions can be used; it may be that alternate constructions must be used because the unattested construction cannot occur due to syntactic limits. Future field work should shed some light on these limits if they exist in Upriver Halkomelem.
CHAPTER 12. SEMANTICS AND SEMEMICS

12.0. Introduction. This section contains an explanation of the theoretical and analytical approach used in Chapters 12 and 13. It is one I have developed in papers presented to several of the International Conferences on Salishan Languages held in the Northwest\(^1\). Since it has not appeared in print elsewhere and introduces a few new terms and notations a discussion of it begins this chapter.

Both phonetics and semantics impinge on the real world (using "semantics" in a narrow sense parallel to phonetics from here on and retaining "semology" for the broader field parallel to phonology). Phonetics is the analysis and description of the physical sounds of language, while semantics is the analysis and des-

cription of the physical meanings of language. In both cases the linguist is faced with a continuum with a myriad of possible gradations. No matter how narrow a transcription he makes, a narrower one is always conceivable.

For example, Chilliwack [səˈwɪθək] is glossed as 'soapberries, Indian ice cream' with notes that they are red berries, ripen in late June (late July in the mountains), last about a month or two, grow on the roadside from Hedley to Penticton, B.C. (the nearest spot from Chilliwack), taste like bitter cranberries, can be beaten with water to form a white lather (for soap in the old days and for "Indian ice cream" made by adding sugar to the foam or in the old days sweet berries). To this could be added their size and shape, shape of leaf, size of bush, and the botanical name Shepherdia canadensis (L.) Nutt., not to mention the type of terrain they prefer, how they are harvested, how they are stored, and more details on how the "ice cream" is made (what was used to whip it with and in, how no grease can be present and how wooden paddles were used to eat them), etc.

So the semanticist, like the phonetician, must set operational limits on how narrow a transcription (in general) is useful in the field. Then he should
use this narrowest semantic transcription, making
careful inquiry into the meanings of each morpheme in
its semantic context. This gloss is the semantic
version of the phonetic symbol.

The similarity of distinctive features in phono-
logy and semantic components (from componential anal-
ysis) in semology is fairly well known. All speech
sounds can be described in terms of a finite set of
articulatory or acoustic features. The success of
semantic features or components has only been limited
because the method has only been applied to a small
number of tight semological sets (domains), such as
kin terms, plant terms, color terms, classifiers,
verbal paradigms, etc. But the domains are similar
across languages to a certain degree, and the seman-
tic features used in a given domain are often much
alike across languages. This is very encouraging.

Perhaps the first step should be taking a com-
plete inventory of the domains in a given language.
In doing this, good anthropological descriptions (if
available) can provide insight and many clues to the
culturally relevant domains and probably also to some
semantic distinctive features. A domain (like kin-
ship terms, for example) may be analogous to the set of
all stops or all spirants in a language. It also seems
to contribute its label ("plant term", "kinship term", etc.) to the semantic components of each member.

Next each domain could be subjected to a componential analysis if allosemic patterns cannot be seen without it. Domains with semantic features in common could be compared, and perhaps some domains could be combined (similar to categories like obstruent?). Or the division into domains may be comparable to the phonetic divisions of stress, pitch, length, consonant, and vowel (except more numerous). The features involved in these phonetic divisions can only be combined into a single unified set (if at all) by somewhat ad hoc means. So it may also be that we will have to be satisfied with largely domain-specific semantic components.

There are probably several reasons why linguists have been reluctant to tackle componential analysis of all the domains in a language. There appear to be a very sizable number of domains and semantic components involved, although the number is surely finite and probably not as large as it seems. It seems to me that we could use semantic features as we use phonetic features: in rules only when they are economical and called for, and in grids showing members of domains when necessary (like phones in phonetic grids), other-
wise using the semantic symbols or glosses (parallel to the phonetic symbols). In other words, it is uneconomical and profitless to over-use features, either of sound or of meaning.

Componental analysis sometimes helps us to see patterns in allophones and sememes. But first, what is an allophone or a sememe? Allophones of a single sememe are meanings which are in complementary distribution in the semantic environment and are semantically similar. (An allophone may also be the only meaning of a sememe.) Allophones are narrow glosses (in the sense of narrow transcription), while sememes are the broad glosses from which the narrow glosses are predictable. The following notation seems best to distinguish these glosses and levels:

- semantic
  - ['narrow gloss'] or ['allophone']
- sememic
  - '/broad gloss/' or '/sememe/' (or the sememe can be shown as '/allophone; allophone/' or '/allophone, allophone/')
- morphosememic
  - '/morphosememe/' or '/sememe'-sememe'/'

Several clear examples are the following:

- /q\w s\l/ has allophones ['cooked'] and ['ripened'],
- /x\w s\yl\m/ has allophones ['rope (any kind, native or white)'] and ['string (any kind, native or white)'] and ['stringy fiber from plant'] and ['thread (any
kind, native or white'), and /sméyəɡ/ has allophones ['animal'] and ['meat']. With each of the three words the allophones are in complementary distribution; ['ripened'] occurs only with 'plants' (harvested or not), ['cooked'] occurs with some of the same 'plants' when harvested and also with any other 'food caught or gathered' (including 'fish', 'meat', 'fowl', etc.); ['rope ...'] occurs with 'large objects that can be tied (like a canoe, an animal, a log or pole, etc.)', ['stringy fiber from plant'] occurs only with 'certain plants such as dogbane, cow parsnip, Indian rhubarb (dock), etc.', ['string (...')] occurs with 'smaller objects that are tied or wrapped', and ['thread'] occurs with 'things that are sewn, actions of sewing, needles'; ['animal'] occurs with 'living or dying mammals', ['meat'] occurs with 'dead mammals intended for food'. If these semantic environments are not provided within the sentence or speech event and cannot be inferred, the word in question remains ambiguous; if it is important to find out which allophone is intended, the hearer must either ask the speaker about it or wait to see if the necessary environment occurs before the end of the speech event. On the speaker's part there are also cases of intentional ambiguity: conversations where the exact meaning is unnecessary.
or undesired, puns, songs, normal conversation where implications of all allophones are desired, etc.

Part of the information in alloemic rules is the distinctive combinations of meanings which each language groups together ('cooked' and 'ripened' for example are grouped together by Halkomelem but not by English). The other part is the semantic environments required to distinguish allophones. In semantic domains patterns and pattern congruity can be seen in such combinations and environments.

A single morpheme can have several allophones, but can several morphemes also be allophones of a single sememe? The answer is unclear. With ḥɛɬəɬ 'cold (of water, weather)' and ḥə̓ɬə̓m 'cold (of mammal or bird), chilled' the language keeps separate two similar and complementary meanings. If there are sememic or morphological reasons for this separation (such as pattern congruity with other animate vs. inanimate divisions) the two morphemes could be separate sememes related morphosemantically. If there are no such reasons, they could conceivably be allophones of a single sememe or merely unrelated sememes with similar meanings. More work needs to be done to determine which is the case here, as well as whether several morphemes can be allophones of one sememe.
The criterion of semantic similarity for allophones allows one to separate homophonous morphemes. Semantic similarity of allophones probably extends to the same extent as phonetic similarity of allophones. For English /t/ we have allophones such as \([t^h]\), \([t]\), \([r]\) (voiced flap \(r\)), and even \([?]\). The examples of Halkomelem allophones above seem to show similar distance. In both cases too the speaker feels the "allo's" to be part of a single unit (the "eme").

Morphosememics forms a very important part of the semological description of a language. It is the chapter (or level) in which meaning changes as a result of derivational processes or inflectional processes should be described. These are often systematic, applying to large classes of morphemes and showing a high degree of structuring. All other systematic alternations of sememes resulting from combination with other morphemes, other lexemes (words), or taxemes (meaningful arrangements of order, meaningful transformations if the syntax is described with transformations) should be described here. Notice the word systematic. Small piecemeal alternations showing no pattern or structure are probably best left to the lexicon (just as some allomorphs are).

Thus when morphemes are attached to one another
to make up lexemes (words), either derivationally or inflectionally, the meaning changes (where they occur and especially where they are systematic) should be described. When words are combined into phrases, idioms, metaphors, etc., the meaning changes should be described (especially where systematic). When morphemes, words or phrases are combined with meaningful arrangements of order (taxemes, transformations; etc.), the meaning changes (especially where systematic) should be described. Morphosememics is the place for these descriptions.

For example, when {-ẽp} 'tree, plant' is removed from any words for 'fruit-bearing plant', the resulting word refers to the fruit (derivational morphosememics). When Vq's are inflected with the subjunctive we- + 4.9 they lose their 'interrogative' feature and become relativized (relative verbs or relative clauses) (inflectional morphosememics). A number of verbs (at least nine) combine with a following A-4.6 sq'ẽ1ewel-4.6 to form idioms which express 'attitudes'; these are systematic shifts of meaning exemplified by ?ẽy têl sq'ẽ1ewel 'I'm glad.' (< 'My thoughts or feelings are good.'), ẽl têl sq'ẽ1ewel 'I'm sorry.' (< 'My thoughts or feelings hurt.'), hĩk'êl sq'ẽ1ewel 'I'm conceited or proud.' (< 'My thoughts or feelings are big.'),
and me qolqêy tel sqwisłowl 'I'm discouraged, I've lost heart.' (< 'My thoughts or feelings have come to be destroyed.') (these exemplify phrasal morphosememics).

The change to 'ambiguous past tense' when 4.4 pronouns are preposed rather than suffixed to the verb, the change to 'object' of the verb when NP₁ is exchanged with the following NP₂ after a Vt, and the 'emphasis' of a Vadv or Vaj when it subordinates the verb or nominal it precedes (respectively) and modifies—all these how syntactic morphosememics.

It is interesting to notice the many parallels between morphophonemics and morphosememics. We can almost take statements about morphophonemics, substitute "sem-" for "phon-", "meaning" for "shape", "shape" for "meaning", and "sememic alternant" for "allomorph" and have workable statements about morphosememics.

The branch of grammar which deals with the phonemic shape of morphemes, words, and constructions, without regard to their meaning, is morphophonemics. (2)

The difference in the phonemic shape of alternants of morphemes are organized and stated; this constitutes morphophonemics. (3)


Morphophonemics ...[covers] every phase of the phonemic shape of morphemes: the typical shapes of alternants, the types of alternation, and the various environmental factors (phonological or grammatical) which elicit one alternant or another of those morphemes which appear in more than one shape. (4)

Many of the morphemes have parallel sets of allomorphs with similar conditioning. It is, therefore, possible to make certain general morphophonemic statements which apply quite universally in the system. (5)

Within morphophonemics, processes such as assimilation, consonant or vowel merger, loss of consonant or vowel after an identical consonant or vowel, vowel harmony, affrication, and ablaut are described. Some of these have parallels in morphosememics: assimilation of sememes, merger of two sememes into one (common in derivation), loss of redundant sememes within phrases or sentences, and concord (agreement in gender or number) are parallel respectively to the first four morphophonemic processes mentioned.

Also within morphophonemics is the phonotactics or phonemic canon (treating permitted clusters of phonemes, phoneme distribution, and word and syllable structure). Within morphosememics similarly are found


sememic co-occurrence restrictions, sememic structure of phrase and sentence, and distribution of sememes or classes of sememes within domains (showing what sememes are grouped into classes and domains, what sememic distinctions are made and emphasized, and how the world is divided up into sememes).

Some additional elements can be described in the semology: sound symbolism and onomatopoeia directly link semantic elements with phonetic ones. For example Upriver Halkomelem has: /q'á:w/ 'howl', /yɛ·t/ 'vomit', /pá·t/ [pʰá·tʰ] 'blow' and /hɛsɔm/ 'sneeze' (all four are verbs), /xʷet·əs/ 'heavy' beside /xʷaxʷə/ 'lightweight', and sound symbolic tastes: /sɛsɔm/ 'bitter', /q'ɛq'ət·əm/ 'sweet', /t'ɛt'əəm/ 'sour, fermenting', /c'ɛc'əəm/ 'tasty, good tasting but not sweet', etc. When these links are systematic they should be described in the grammar (when not systematic they can be mentioned in the lexicon). Also providing a direct link between phonetics and semantics are intonation and rhythm (for example super-lengthening 'really').

Meaning is also affected by things like "tone of voice", style-switching, and other sociolinguistic effects. Irony is the communication of a meaning opposite from the literal statement, through use of
such sociolinguistic effects. These could be described in the semology or in a chapter on sociolinguistic phenomena.

The semological system of a language clearly has effects on the other major levels of a language's structure: syntax (via meaningful changes in clause, word or morpheme order and via sememic co-occurrence restrictions), morphology (via semologically determined classes and allomorphs and via morphosememics), and phonology (via sound symbolism and lexical shapes). These effects have almost always been described in levels or chapters other than that of semantics and sememics or morphosememics. This is probably one reason why many grammars which lack semological chapters are nevertheless serviceable. There is enough semological information scattered throughout and of course in the dictionary or lexicon (where it is sometimes partially systematized) to enable the linguist and student to begin to comprehend the language.

The present grammar has much semological information scattered throughout previous chapters. Chapters 12 and 13 will organize some of it but not all. Chapters 12 and 13 will also be surveys of the semantics and sememics and the morphosememics of Halkomelem, rather than complete treatments. More in-depth treat-
ment of Halkomelem semology will follow this grammar along with a lexicon, but for now there is only time for a survey of the semology.

12.1. Semological Domains in Halkomelem. Some of the semantic areas which appear to be domains are listed in this section. They can usually be seen as domains more clearly in their morphosememic features than in their allosemic patterns. The word "functions" in the list below means actions or processes which the nominal members of that domain do as members in the domain (the examples will illustrate). Some domains have been listed together under headings combining them because they share semantic components; this is analogous perhaps to combinations like obstruents or front vowels in phonology. At the end of the list are some inflectional categories which also seem to be domains. The following list is tentative and is bound to be incomplete:

1. Land features and functions ('to rockslide', 'to cave off', etc.) and place names.

2. Weather features (of air, sky, sun, moon, stars) and functions ('to rain', 'stop blowing (of wind)', etc.).

3. Water features (mainly of rivers) and functions ('be turbulent', 'subside (of high water)', etc.).

4. Fire and its functions ('burn', 'go out', etc.).
5. Time periods and tense.
6. Flora (names, parts, functions).
7. Fauna (names, parts i.e. anatomy, somatic affixes, pēsq'wel 'body insults', body functions and dysfunctions).
8. Categories of humans (age terms, kinship terms, status terms (social, occupational, tribal, national), proper names, functions ('raise a child', 'marry spouse's sibling', etc.).
9. Religion and the spirit (spirits and powers, ceremonies, spirit dancing, Christianity, Indian doctoring, functions ('train to be shaman', 'give a burning', 'pray', 'cross oneself', 'cast a spell on s-o', 'blow on patient', 'to spirit dance', etc.).
10. Man-made things (Indian and non-Indian), their parts and names, how to make them, their functions: buildings, constructions other than buildings, household goods (for furniture, food, grooming, misc. (such as 'flashlight' (< 'lantern being squeezed'), 'purse', 'umbrella')), clothing and ornaments, musical instruments; devices and their parts and functions: for hunting + processing the catch (including even weaving and tanning), for fishing + processing the catch, for gathering + processing the harvest (including 'digging stick', 'tumpline', 'picking (fruit or leaves)', etc.), tools for making things ('hammer', 'awl', 'needle',

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'net measure and shuttle', etc.), baskets (types, parts, how to make them, functions), canoes and boats (types and parts, how to make them, equipment, how to repair them, how to use them, etc.), modern transportation.

11. Food (types, how to cook).

12. Games and play (including 'make a point in slaha-l (the bone game)', 'the feather game', 'footraces', 'doll', etc.).

13. Conversation and speech.

14. Emotions and feelings, attitudes and mental processes.

15. Senses and perceptions: visual and qualities of light, tactile perceptions, sounds, tastes, smells.

16. Other qualities (Vaj): descriptive, value judgements.

17. Directions and qualifiers (adverbials).

18. Demonstratives and Vaux's.

19. Personal pronouns.


21. Transitives, intransitives, benefactive.


23. Voice: active, middle, reflexive, reciprocal, passive.
24. Continuative and plural.
25. Vprep's.
26. Interjections.
27. Pconj's.
28. Perhaps verb domains like: travel and motion, acting toward, act on inanimates, act on animates, change physical state (inanimates).

Some words may have memberships in several domains, just as in phonetics an [n] can be classified as a sonorant, resonant, nasal, etc. There are perhaps as many alternate ways of dividing Halkomelem words into domains as there are sets of words with semantic components in common. All may be relevant to our thinking processes and therefore valid. I have tried in the above list to find those which also share morphological features. I am sure many domains have been omitted because more words have yet to be gathered, and much work remains to be done on those already gathered. My files contain 8000 to 9000 words at present, but Bloomfield⁶ estimates at least 20,000 to 30,000 words in the speech of the adult speaker of English and many more if the speaker knows technical and learned words.

Jespersen\(^7\) cites a number of figures: for English, 25,000 to 35,000 and some as high as 50,000 words are used by the average speaker without college; one professor had his students use dictionaries to estimate words they could define without context, and the majority reported a little below 60,000 words; another professor counted all the words he knew in Webster's Dictionary and found his vocabulary was 33,456 words; linguists investigating speech of Swedish peasants and Danish and French dialects agreed that 26,000 is probably too small a figure in each case; and a missionary in Tierra del Fuego compiled a dictionary of 30,000 words in the Yaagan language. I have estimated that Kuipers has about 9600 words (excluding inflections) in his two volumes on Squamish\(^8\), and this is all from one speaker in a matter of a few years of field work.

Halkomelem had and has many technical and learned words, and a dictionary of 50,000 words might have been compiled a hundred years ago. But today even the most fluent speakers seldom get a chance to speak and

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hear their language more than several times a week, and the old crafts which required many technical and learned words have nearly died out, though some are being revived with non-speakers as students. I have been fortunate in having the weekly assistance of the Coqualeetza Elders Group (a majority of the fluent speakers of Upriver Halkomelem) and tapes of their weekly meetings since 1972 to gather vocabulary and texts. Through this group's efforts and the tapes of Oliver Wells who gathered vocabulary, ethnography and some stories, and my own field work, we may be able to preserve 30,000 words or so, eventually. This all goes to show that the list of domains above is bound to be incomplete and in need of later revision.

12.2. Allosemic Patterns of Several Domains.

12.2.1. Categories of Humans. Kinship terms show the clearest structure of the domains within this group. The following terms have been found:

sc'á. /'relative of any kind'/(Cheh.)

yá(•)'yetel /'blood relative'/

mè•l - mè•l /'father'/

tè•l - tè•l /'mother'/

(mèmol /'father (vocative), Dad (pet name)'/)

(tètel /'mother (vocative), Mom/Mum (pet name)'/; tét can also be used, short for tètel; tè? /'Mom, Ma
(slang)(pet name)'/
mōl(•)e (~ mōl(•)e ~ mōl(•)e in some idiolects, less common) '/son, daughter, child (kinship term)'/
(mimēle '/pet name for son or daughter'/)
sīle '/grandparent, grandparent's sibling, grandparents cousin'/
(sīsēle '/grandparent (pet name), grandparent's sibling or cousin (pet name)'/)
(sī'si '/grandparent (pet name, perhaps baby talk)'/)
?fēmeθ '/grandchild'/
sc'ā'meq '/great grandparent, great grandchild'/
(sc'ā·c'emeq '/great grandparent (pet name), great grandchild (pet name)'/, sc'emc'ā'meq '/eldest great grandchild'/, sc'emc'ā·lemeq '/eldest great grandchildren'/
?k'wiyeq² (Chill.) ~ ?k'wiyeq² (other dialects) '/great great grandparent, great great grandchild'/
θ'p'iyeq² (~ θ'p'ayeq²) '/great great great grandparent, great great great grandchild'/(Note: a minority of speakers of Upriver dialects exchange the glosses on ?k'wiyeq² and θ'p'iyeq².)
tāmiyeq² '/great great great great grandparent, great great great grandchild'/
syewè'l '/ancestors, lineage'/
sx'ewɛlf '/parents, (ancestors)'/
γελοξ' /'sibling (Chill.), brother (Tait, prob. Cheh.)/
sólha /'eldest child, (prob. also child of parent's eldest sibling)/
sólhetel /'elder sibling, child of parent's elder sibling'/
sqé'q /'younger sibling, child of parent's younger sibling'/
(q'je:k' pet name for sqé'q; sqiqgeq /'little younger sibling, little child of parent's younger sibling'/)
sá(·)seq'w /'younger sibling, child of parent's younger sibling'/
we?á·l sáseq'w /'youngest sibling, (prob. also child of parent's youngest sibling)/
sx'melí(·)k' /'parent's sibling, (possibly also parent's cousin)/
k'iwá's /'uncle or aunt (used in respect, especially in the longhouse)/
stitwól /'sibling's child, (possibly also cousin's child)/
swéqəθ /'husband'/
štàles /'wife'/
(Tait) cé'x' /'wife (slightly disrespectful)/
sk'Miyo(w) or sk'Miye /'spouse's parent, parent-in-law, (wife's brother also?)'/
sciwte'z /'child's spouse, son-in-law, daughter-in-law,
sister's husband'/
sexʷsi·le /'grandparent-in-law'/
smétexʷtel /'spouse's sibling, sibling's spouse'/
sxʷ?̣éléX̣ /'husband's sister, woman's brother's wife'/
x̣cépθ /'spouse of parent's sibling (i.e. uncle or aunt by marriage)'/
skwélwés /(relative's/sibling's spouse's relative), in-law's relative, in-law from any side'/ (Cowichan dialect has 'parent/sibling/grandparent of child-in-law' for this word)
slec·éléq /'spouse's sibling's spouse (for ex. husband's brother's wife), mothers-in-law of two sisters'/
syč(/)tel /'widow, widower'/
wélom /'orphan'/
smestiỵa /'sibling of deceased parent'/
swélmè(/)ỵ /'child of deceased sibling'/
G·̣ỵe /'relative of deceased spouse'/ (for example, mother, sibling, cousin or other relative of deceased wife)
c̣ẉe·m /'deceased son or daughter'/ (root is x̣·m 'cry' because "your brother or sister is mourning along with you for your lost child", c̣m - means something like 'along with' as in c̣ṣ(/)G·ỵ 'sweetheart, someone you keep going with' and c̣ṣ(/)x̣ẉélmexʷ 'neighbor')
sxwemòiyə:ɬ, (some use) qəyə:ɬ /'deceased uncle/aunt/
    grandmother/someone who is responsible for ego directly or indirectly' /
chilə:ɬm /'step-parent' /
texweməlem /'step-child' /
skwemfəlem /'child raised by someone other than parents' /
slec:əweyaɬ /'half-sibling' /
sxwa:yə:ɬ /'co-wife, female rival of wife' /
sxwa:yə:seq /'ex-wife's husband, wife's ex-husband,
    male rival of husband' /
?isɬə:ltexw /'man with two wives' /
There are plurals for most of these and diminutives
for some (indicated in parentheses), but they are in-
flexions.

A number of allosemic patterns can be seen here.
1. Of the above 58 kintersms, 44 have ['male'] - ['female']
alosemes. The ['male'] alloseme occurs after
a 'masculine' article or swiyeqa 'male'; the ['female']
aloseme occurs after a 'feminine' article or sìčəli
'female'; some other semantic environments can also
determine which alloseme is present, for example
gender-marked words in another phrase referring to the
kinterm (such as 4.3 pronouns, sex-marked proper names,
etc.). stí·wəɬ /'sibling's child, (prob. also cousin's
child)' / → te (swiyeqa) stí·wəɬ 'the nephew' and əə
(síle) stí:wél 'the niece'. The 14 kin terms which have only one gender are mè:1, tè:1, mé:mel, té:tel, tét, té?; swèqea, stá:les, ce:xw, sxvá:yæ, sxvayè:seq, ?islé:ltèxw; sxw?ôléxj and Tait dialect ?ôléxj; these are all various words for 'father', 'mother', 'husband' or 'wife' except the last two words.

2. Words for ancestors more than two generations above ego each have an allophone three or more generations above ego and an allophone the same number of generations below ego; thus for each allophone like 'great grandparent' there is one like 'great grandchild' for the same word. Since one allophone is three, four, five or six generations above the other it is usually quite clear from the semantic context which allophone is meant; such semantic factors as relative age, tense, actions which could be done only by a mature person or ancestor or by a child or descendant, matching reference to a person whose age is known to the hearer, etc. are diagnostic. This rule applies, of course, to scâ:maqw, ?ôkwiwaqw, tâp'iyeqw, tâmiwaqw and their derivatives or inflections.

3. The word for 'grandparent', sí:le, has an allophone 'grandparent's sibling' which is predictable from features in the semantic environment such as: gender of the article if the grandparent and the sibling are
of different sex (the gender of the article indicates
the gender of the sibling), who the descendants, fami-
ly, and associates of the person in question are,
whether the person lives where the grandparent does
or where the grandparent's sibling does; present or
future tenses can even bear on the determination of
allophones if the grandparents are dead but a grand-
parent's sibling lives (or vice versa). The mind of
the hearer searches all such aspects of the semantic
environment and makes an interpretation the moment
the relevant information is found.

4. The words for siblings and 'grandparent, grand-
parent's sibling' (with the possible exception of
?ëlex') each have an allophone which refers to a 'sib-
ling' and an allophone which refers to the 'child of
parent's sibling'; the sibling is modified in both
allophones by 'elder', 'younger', 'eldest', 'youngest',
'grandparent's' or whatever the gloss calls for. This
applies then to: sëlëa, sëkëtël, sqëq, këq, këq,
sëseq*t, we?ël sëseq*t, and sëlë and inflected ver-
sions of these words. (It may also apply to sti-wël
and sxemlf-k as it does in the Cowichan dialect.)
By the rules given, sqëq has allophones ['younger
brother, younger sister, son of parent's younger sib-
ling, daughter of parent's younger sibling'] for ex-
ample. The semantic environments determining which allophone is meant would be similar to those seen in 3. just above. With sqē·q for example a preceding feminine article, əə, would limit the allophones to ['younger sister'] or ['daughter of parent's younger sibling']. The precise allophone could then be selected if the hearer knew or could detect from the semantic environment of the speech event, for example, that no 'younger sister' existed, or that since the 'son of the parent's younger sibling' had just been discussed it must be the 'daughter of the parent's younger sibling' now being discussed.

5. There are nine terms for in-laws. One allophone is reported by Elmendorf and Suttles but not yet attested in my data, ['wife's brother'] for skʷ̓?x̣ənow. But a pair of in-law words follow one allosemantic pattern: smētə̌xʷtəl and sxʷ̓?eləxʷ̓əl both refer to sibling-in-law with two allophones ['spouse's sibling'] and ['sibling's spouse']. It seems that sxʷ̓?eləxʷ̓əl has the same allosemantic pattern as smētə̌xʷtəl and even has the same gloss except that sxʷ̓?eləxʷ̓əl also has a required ['female'] component (thus /'husband's sister,

woman's brother's wife'). The allophones of slec'éléq seem to require the slec'éléq to be the same sex as ego, i.e. ['husband's brother's wife, wife's sister's husband, daughter-in-law's sister's mother-in-law (ego is female')]]. It is unclear whether slec'éléq also has allophones ['son-in-law's brother's mother-in-law (ego is female)'] or whether ['father-in-law (ego is male)'] can replace ['mother-in-law (ego is female)'] or whether ['child-in-law's sibling's'] can replace ['daughter-in-law's sister's'] in the gloss of the term. Also needing comment is the allophony of skw'élw̓es including ['sibling's spouse's relative'], more generally ['relative's spouse's relative'] or ['in-law's relative'], and ['in-law from any side']. These are not all mutually exclusive terms and not all are clearly attested; some more elicitation seems required. The in-law terms can be divided into three groups: one including spouse's relatives (spouse's parent, spouse's grandparent, relative's spouse's relative, relative of deceased spouse), one including spouses themselves (child's spouse, parent's sibling's spouse, spouse's sibling's spouse), and one including both spouse's relatives and spouses themselves (spouse's sibling - sibling's spouse, husband's sister - woman's brother's wife). This last observation is perhaps
morphosememic rather than allosemic.

6. There are eight kinterms with a 'deceased' component present; in four cases the 'past' suffix is present, but it is derivational rather than inflectional here (as discussed in 8.5). Five of the eight terms refer to a surviving relative of a deceased person and three refer to the actual deceased relative himself. Thus syɛ(•)tel 'widow, widower' is componentially 'spouse of a deceased person', wɛlɛm 'orphan' is componentially 'child of deceased parents', smɛstiyɛl is 'sibling of deceased parent', swɛlmɛ(•)yɛl is 'child of deceased sibling' (the root is wɛlɛm 'orphan' so the term may have implications of the death of the sibling's spouse as well, i.e. 'orphan child of deceased sibling'), and tɛɛɛ·yɛl is 'relative of deceased spouse'. cɛɛɛ·m remains as 'deceased son, deceased daughter', but I suspect the gloss is in error and should be more complicated than I have shown; qɛyɛ·ɛl - sxwɛmɛstiyɛl is 'deceased person (other than parent, such as uncle, aunt, grandmother) who is responsible for ego'. The Stalo way of viewing the first five of these terms is that you are related to a person who dies or you are related to a person through another person who dies. These terms are looked at as a process, perhaps as a suppletive inflection such as
(swęqəθ, stá·1es, cę·x\textsuperscript{W}) \rightarrow syę(\cdot)tel
męl(\cdot)e \rightarrow wélöm
sx\textsuperscript{W}emli·k\textsuperscript{W} \rightarrow smęstiye_aspect
stlı·wél \rightarrow swəlmę(\cdot)y\textsuperscript{S}
sk\textsuperscript{W}ółwēs \rightarrow ə'eye_aspect

7. sx\textsuperscript{Y}á·ye and sx\textsuperscript{Y}ayę·seq show parallel allosemy:
the first has allosemes ['co-wife'] and ['female rival of wife']; the second has allosemes ['wife's ex-husband'], ['ex-wife's husband'] and ['male rival of husband']. Both words combine multiple spouses with rivals.

8. A number of verbs share in some of the allosemic patterns mentioned and belong in the domain of kinterms as functions of the kinterms: ə'eyę·m 'marry one's ə'eye_aspect, marry a relative of one's deceased spouse',
tex\textsuperscript{W}melę·m 'to adopt', k\textsuperscript{W}šmet 'raise s-o', qalá·qtel
'be siblings to each other, be cousins to each other',
x\textsuperscript{Y}ix\textsuperscript{Y}á·tel 'two co-wives jealous of each other',
qeqemátel 'having the same parents (as each other)' (\langle qeqemá_aspect 'suckling'), sk\textsuperscript{W}ek\textsuperscript{W}átel 'separate in marriage', melyı 'marry', and others.

Age and status terms show more morphosememic patterning than allosemic patterning. I have so far found about 14 age terms ('baby', 'adolescent boy', etc.) and 62 status terms (9 social, 11 nationality or race,
8 tribal, and 34 occupations or roles). Half of the age terms have sememes with only one sex gender possible; the others either are unmarked for gender or more likely have allophones of each gender, determined by semantic environment as with kterms (te siyá·lexwe 'the old man', øe siyá·lexwe 'the old woman', etc.). siyá·lexwe, swiyeqe, and sê·lf all have adjectival allophones as well, respectively 'old person; old (with animate or inanimate nominals)', 'man; male (with human or other animates, even plants)', and 'woman; female (of human, animate, plant)'. Social status terms show no particular adjectival patterning, but siyé·m has an adjectival allophone as well as its nominal one, 'chief (a leading person in the community, generous, wise, sought for decisions and advice), upper-class person; boss (since coming of the whites); rich'.

The terms of racial or national status all also have allophones both nominal and adjectival, as with pelcmeel 'Frenchman; French'. It is not certain yet whether tribal status terms also show nominal and adjectival allophonic patterning, but I believe they do. Occupational or role terms do not show any allophonic patterns that I can detect, though a few show interesting allophones (x′a·lemíff 'baby-sitter; "baby-sitter" of new spirit dancer during the dancer's initiation and
first winter dancing season, any of the workers who help initiate a spirit dancer').

Many verbs are related to the terms of social status and role or occupation. A verb like yëyetel 'make friends' seems to belong in the same domain as social status terms siyë:ye 'friend' and sxvemé:1 'enemy'. But many occupational or role terms belong in domains with the activities (as tewit 'expert hunter' and 1ëxwshë:we 'a person that always hunts' appear to be grouped more productively with the domain of hunting than with that of occupations). Personal names (other than nicknames) may belong in the domains of categories of humans since they are usually marked for sex gender as seen in Chapter 5, q.v.); but this would include proper names of some fauna which are characters in stories and texts.

12.2.2. Flora. This domain shows patterning of allophones as well as morphosememic patterning. The following plant terms each show allophones of a native plant and of a plant brought in by the white man or non-Indian: qëwë:pe:l 'crabapple tree (native), apple tree', skvë:lmex慰 'wild trailing blackberry (rubus ursinus)(native), evergreen blackberry (rubus laciniatus)(native), Himalaya blackberry (rubus pro-cerus)(all three refer to the whole plant with -ë:lp)',

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má'lsém 'big marsh blueberry (native or commercial)',
xʷé wéq 'wild carrot (native), domestic carrot',
λ'iik'wé łwép 'kinnickinnick plant (native), pea vine,
bean vine', sqé·we 'arrowleaf or wapato (sagittaria
latifolia)(native), domestic potato (solanum tuberosum)
(but the 'arrowleaf or wapato' is also called by an
exclusive name, xʷoq'wé·ls), sá·y'éq'wép 'raspberry
plant (rubus pedatus perhaps)(native), domestic rasp-
berry', t'émá'ss 'wild rhubarb (dock, rumex occident-
alis)(native), domestic rhubarb', qé·lqép 'wild rose
bush (rosa nutkana)(native), domestic rose', and
sci·yé·ip 'wild strawberry plant (fragaria glauca or
fragaria virginiana)(native), domestic strawberry
plant'. This pattern doesn't apply to all plants
however because st'x'é·et 'wild onion (esp. nodding
onion, allium cernuum)' and q'ómeyls 'domestic onion',
c'á·k'wé 'skunk cabbage (lysichitum americanum)' and
képec 'domestic cabbage' exist as pairs.

Further alloseeny exists in that several terms
include several varieties of native plant as does
sk'wé·lwxép t'xé·mxép 'gooseberry (ribes divari-
catum, ribes lobbii)', sá·x'wel 'grass (any kind)',
q'emxém 'horsetail reed (equisetum arvense, equisetum
fluviatile)', sk'óleq'w 'chocolate lily, rice root',
mó·dá 'dogbane, also a kind of grass used as hemp (as
dogbane is), ?elfle·ip 'salmonberry plant (with yellow berries as well as one with red berries)', χαχρ'elē·ip 'False Solomon's seal (smilacina racemosa), Twisted-stalk plant (streptopus amplexifolius), Hooker's fairy bells (disporum hookerii)' (the latter two varieties of χαχρ'elē·ip are also known as sθf·ms te ?eθqey 'snakeberries').

Another feature is that several plants are prepared as food or craft material or medicine, and the preparation (an allophone) is called by the same term as the plant. Thus: sxWśsem 'soapberry, Indian ice cream', θ'ε·χεy 'white straw grass for basket designs (probably bluejoint reedgrass (calamagrostis canadensis)) (used for both the growing grass and the scalded bleached product)', θ'el?e·ltel 'juniper, heart medicine', sqWelip 'beard moss, black moss bread (baked underground till it forms a licorice tasting black bread)', θ'εθg'ax 'stinging nettle (the plant and the cooked shoots with 'stingers poured off; these shoots are sometimes called Indian spinach)', st'εx'et 'wild nodding onion (plant or bulbs)', and perhaps others.

12.2.3. Fauna. As with flora this domain has a great deal of morphosememic structure. There are no large-scale patterns of allosemic structure in the names of fauna except that almost all terms have both male and female
allophones; in all but a few cases these can be pre-
eced by sáč 'female' or sávéqe 'male' to disambi-
guete; kinship and age category words can be used too
where applicable (for example, stá'łes 'wife', q'élemi
'adolescent virgin girls', etc.).

Some alloscopy is shown by q'ayk'iyé 'snail, slug
(rarely)', së'śk' 'worm, bug (rarely)', spaxelq'w#'e
'screech owl, saw-whet owl, pygmy owl', smq'w' 'heron,
crane', xemximéls 'large hawk, chicken hawk',
sq'w'eyá·qé1 'big older rabbit, jackrabbit', hé(·)wt
'rat, large vole', spé·q 'bear (generic), black bear,
(probably excludes the grizzly which has separate
names)', sméyq 'animal; meat'. If there is any pat-
tern in these it is in xemximéls, sq'w'eyá·qé1, and
hé(·)wt which link allophones of 'large (generic)'
fauna with those of (large) 'specific varieties'.

Within the area of fauna anatomy (including human
anatomy) and functions and dysfunctions of the body
there are several systematic features of alloscopy.
With somatic suffixes, there are at least three alle-
sumes for each suffix: ['(body part)'](usually sub-
ject of the verb root they are attached to) in body
function words and many place names, ['of the (body
part)'] partitive in independent words for body parts,
and locative ['on or in the (body part)'] elsewhere.
In addition to this overall pattern further allosemic patterns exist for sets of somatic suffixes.

In 'place names' or 'geographical features' the following suffixes take their figurative (and geographical) allosemes: -í·ws ['on the covering'], -eq\textsuperscript{W} ['head'] of a river, -qal ['at head or source'] of a river, and also ['head'] of an island, and also in ['inlet of river'] < ['the inside'] + ['at the head (of the river)'], -es - á·s ['face'] of a mountain, -é(1)qsel ['point or end'] of land/island/mountain, -á·qel - (é)qel ['mouth'] of a river, -epsem ['neck'] of land, -eqel ['throat'] of a cliff or mountain, -(é)lec - -léc ['bottom'] of island, river, etc.

Some somatic suffixes have figurative allosemes with a number of other nominals (-á·s, -é(1)qsel, -eléqel, and -í·wel have such allosemes, as do -á·ymel and -eqel). The latter two are systematic in this; -á·ymel - -eyemel - -ey(íl) has allosemes ['in speech'] and ['in music'] with language and music environments, and -eqel has allosemes ['language'] in the environments of 'nationalities' or 'tribes' and ['voice'] in the environment of 'descriptive' words.

Some somatic suffixes have allosemes for more than one part of the body: -í·ws ['on the body, on the skin'], -eq\textsuperscript{W} ['on top of the head, on the hair'],
-á·λes ['on/in the eye(s), on the eyelids'], -á·γελ ['on the lip, on the jaw'], -ά·ψημ ['on the back of the head and back of the neck'] (either a continuous area or ['on the back of the head, on the back of the neck']), -κες ['on/in the hand, on/in the finger(s)'], -έ·ξ ['on the genitals, on the penis/male'] ('on the penis') may be subsumed under ['on the genitals'], -ί·γελ ['in the rump, in the anus, on the inside(s)'], -ξέλ ['on/in the foot, on/in the leg']. Sometimes semantic compatibility determines which of these occur (χέγμ-λεξ'-'t 'grab + on hair + on purpose + s-o' > 'grab s-o by the hair' since one is not likely to grab s-o by the top of the head), sometimes either one or both would fit (qêt-i·νσ-ωμ 'take a sweatbath'), and sometimes one is chosen over another for derivational purposes (to produce the word for a given thing). It should be noted that although these are lexical suffixes functioning derivationally so that one would expect morphosememic phenomena, the above rules are sememic to determine allosemes. When all the allosemes are selected and combined a new meaning sometimes results from morphosememic rules (qêt-i·νσ-ωμ ['warm up (by fire or steam)'] + ['on the body, on the skin'] + middle voice/ˈonsself' → 'take a sweatbath').

I can find little systematic in the allosemy of
independent terms for body parts (human or other fauna) and $p^6^q^w^t^e^l$ (body insult) words, unless it is the few words for body parts which can apply to different types of fauna (human, fish, animal, bird, insect and reptile, $sh^e^l^q^e^m$ (supernatural creature)) and are translated by different words in different cases. For example, $k^w^e^l^s^w$ 'skin, hide', $q^w^x^d^l^c^e^s$ 'fingernail, claw', $m^e^l^q^w$ 'human uvula, fish heart'. A few pairs of terms also behave systematically such as $x^w^e^s^q^w^x^d^e^s$ 'wrist joint, sprained wrist' and $x^w^e^s^q^w^x^d^v^e^l$ 'ankle joint, sprained ankle'. But otherwise all the patterning in these areas are morphosememic and will be covered in the next chapter where anatomy is treated in detail.

Functions and dysfunctions of the body show a little more systematic aloosemy. Allosemes are listed with all the terms in Chapter 13. One of the most systematic is the use of many of these terms with animals, birds, and less often fish, insects and reptiles, as well as with humans. The terms are divided in Chapter 13 into the five categories of fauna mentioned but more for convenience (though some terms belong exclusively to one type of fauna). Many of the words are glossed the same way in some or all of the five categories of fauna; the creatures may perform the func-
tions in different ways (especially from humans), but we have no terms in English or Halkomelem to express this. With some of the words English does have separate words and these may be allophones. Examples include: qʷəl 'talk (of human), talk (of animal) (no better term applies in English), chirp/twitter/cheep/coo/caw/cluck/quack/etc. (of bird), croak (of frog)', qʷəlqʷel 'talking together (humans), warning (birds such as ravens and owls, a different cry than qʷəl')', qʷeləyələm 'make music (of humans), sing (of birds), croak melodically (of frogs)', t'íəlem 'sing (of humans, birds), buzz (of insects, for ex. bee, mosquito, fly)', ʔəqəm 'whisper (of humans), hiss (of snake)', kʷeləx̣ 'shoot s-o or s-th (of human actors), sting s-o (of reptile or insect actors)'. Another systematic feature of allophony in this domain is seen with terms of health or sickness: ʔələlelxʷ 'alive, in good health', me ʔəlelxʷ 'come alive, come back to life (literally and figuratively); get better, get well', q'áq'yəy 'sick; dying', sq'áq'yəy 'sickness; dead for awhile'. These terms join the allophones of life and health together, and those of death and sickness together. q'á·y also joins 'die, dead; paralyzed'.

12.2.4. Land features, Weather features, Water
features. These domains show small bits of allesemic patterning mainly in pairs of words. For example, tēmexʷ has allesemes 'dirt, earth, land (in any quantity from a clump to a continent), world' and smē·lt similarly covers 'rock (any size larger than a pebble), mountain' (the pattern includes plural and diminutive inflections of smē·lt, i.e., smelmē·lt 'rocks, mountains' and smēmelet 'little rock, pebble, little mountain'). There are no smooth grassy hills in the Upper Stalo area, all hills and mountains are basically 'rocks'. Perhaps in similar fashion swēyel has allesemes 'sky, weather, day'. Other than such bits of patterning there is little allesemic patterning observable yet; most of the semological patterning in these domains occurs in morphosememics.

12.2.5. Religion and the Spirit. There is morphosememic patterning in this domain as well as a little allesemic patterning. One allesemic pattern is for the following group of words to have secular and spiritual allesemes, that is secular words are used also for a number of spiritual things or actions where one might expect special terms: smestfyexʷ 'conscience, one's soul or spirit (which can be lost and recaptured)', spaleqʷθe's 'corpse, ghost', ḡwet 'chase s-th away from s-o, cure s-o by Indian doctoring', sʔéliye 'a
dream (ordinary type), a spirit vision in which one's spirit power or guardian spirit comes to him or communicates', q'êwê 'cane, staff (of s-o old or infirm for example), long staff or pole of a new spirit dancer (fashioned in special ways and decorated)', k'êx'ê 'box (ordinary type), grave box (pre-white), coffin', xîêmî 'babysitter (ordinary), babysitter or worker in the initiation of a new spirit dancer', sqqê is 'baby (ordinary), new spirit dancer during his/her first dancing season'. Of course there are also many special terms which only have religious, spiritual, or ceremonial allosemes.

Another pattern is for the following words to have allosemes referring to different spiritual roles or functions: k'êx'êq'ê 'training oneself to be an Indian doctor (shaman), training oneself to be an Indian dancer (spirit dancer)', hêywîleq 'a burning ceremony song', a sq'êyq'ê 'song', sqwuq 'power to do witchcraft for good or evil, a person with such power (witch)(he or she can shoot power or objects into people or remove these), ritualist (one who does burning ceremonies at funerals, purifies the longhouse or smokehouse upon its opening, etc.); an evil spell'. Perhaps similar is the word ñuxô 'paint one's face red or black (for spirit dancing, Indian doctoring,
etc.)' since red paint implies a different power or strength of power or manner of obtaining power than does black paint: The word syuwîl also shows a third pattern, words having both allosemes referring to a power or role or object and allosemes referring to a song, dance or spell done with same: syuwîl (as glossed above), syûwé'l 'spirit power or guardian spirit; spirit song', and sxwąył wę'y 'sxwąył wę'y costume (with pegged-eye mask), sxwąył wę'y dancer, sxwąył wę'y dance or ceremony' (inherited, done on special occasions by groups of dancers as a chorus of women (or men) sings a special song).

12.2.6. Man-made Things and Their Functions.

This collection of domains is very extensive, and most of the domains contain a number of morphosememic patterns as well as some allosemic patterns. I will just give a sampling here from some of the domains.

With household goods (and other domains as well) non-Indian things or functions of things are sometimes expressed by new derivations coined specially, by words borrowed from other languages (especially English, French, and Chinook Jargon), and sometimes by new allosemes of a familiar pre-white word. The former two methods will be discussed in morphosememics, the latter method is a case of allosemic patterns.
For example: sc'lel had allophone 'bench' and now also has 'chair'; sk'wil 'notched cedar pole ladder (to enter pit house, etc.), rope ladder' now also has 'wooden ladder, step ladder', q'slel 'ear' now also has allophone 'handle of a cup', sk'welx' has 'arrow' and 'gun', x'lel has 'sinker (for net)' and 'lead weight, lead, bullet', x'lelom has 'big high-bow canoe (lit. 'drags its behind')' and 'horse-car, streetcar, trolley'.

Among a number of words (of various derivations) for non-Indian man-made things (and their functions) are a number of words with multiple allophones reflecting changing technology (since they were borrowed). These include for example: sk'wel 'mirror, window', (s)x'epi 'shirt, undershirt', sq'mele 'bra, nursing bottle (lit. 'container of breast or milk')', sq'le 'gloves, mittens', sq'wel 'necklace, scarf, neckerchief', pep'tem q'el 'flute, wind instrument' (lit. 'blown musical instrument'), q'wil 'fishing pole, fishing rod', sq'gq'exel 'sled, toboggan, ice skate', sq'qexi - sq'gexi 'likeness, portrait, statue, photo, (can include also 'mask' and 'totem pole (of other tribes)'), x'el 'pencil, pen, anything one writes with', t'alstel 'blinders on horse, blinds, window shades', yeq'il 'lamp, lan-
tern, electric light', sxwθ'exwefl's sink, dishpan', sxwθ'exwelwetem washtub, washing machine', wíte'téwtx 'hotel, bedroom', lemewtx 'bar or pub, liquor store' (< lem 'liquor' < English "rum").

Another pattern is seen in the domain of canoes and boats, where words for positions in a canoe and even numbers for counting canoe paddles all also have allophones referring to paddlers (especially in racing canoes). Thus; q'élál 'bow of canoe or boat, bowman, strokesman (in race)', wélwe'el 'middle of canoe (on inside), middle paddler(s)', wílélq 'stern of canoe or boat, sternman, skipper (in race)', lec'é'wes 'one paddle, one paddler', wíslélwes 'two paddles, two paddlers', etc.

A number of terms of no particular semantic domain all have allophones '(pattern in basketry design)' or '(pattern in weaving design)'. Perhaps this is a sign that they form a separate domain or category in basketry to so mark them. Some that have been attested for basketry patterns are: t'exwel 'arrowhead, arrowhead pattern in basketry design', sk'wiyetel 'ladder, ladder pattern in basketry design'; for weaving goat-wool/dog wool blankets (swóq'wél): q'wis'cel 'swallow (bird), swallow pattern in blanket weaving', smimayθ 'butterfly, butterfly pattern', smelmé'lt...
'mountains, rocks, mountains pattern', χέλεq't te sx'wex'wá's 'lightning (lit. 'thunder(bird) opens his eyes'), lightning pattern in blanket weaving'.

12.2.7. Feelings and Emotions, Attitudes and Mental Processes. Allosemic alternation is fairly extensive in this domain. The allosemes seem to follow a systematic pattern of variation which I can only characterize as "slightly different in degree" or having "slight emotional differences". The following words show this variation: sx'éx'ss 'got one's mind made up, determined', q'élmét 'believe s-o, trust s-o', χέlmé t f izí:wsmét 'tired of s-th, bored with s-th', x'wayíwélstex'w 'make s-o happy, cheer s-o up', wawistéleq'met 'jealous of s-o, envy s-o', secéléc 'eager, enthused' (Tait), (s)cha'ehk'wíwél 'dumbfounded, speechless, overwhelmed, overwhelmed', ék'wíwél - lèwé-l 'surprised, shocked', t'át'eyeq' 'angry, stirred up, roused', q'ézi'lós 'wise, sensible', títeyex'w 'getting carried away doing s-th, keep doing s-th in a hurry to finish', (Chill.) sték'wtek'w - (Tait) stekték 'in a daze, day-dreaming', sqéówíw(mét) 'hate (s-o), hold a grudge (against s-o)', sx'wxex'w 'ambitious, willing', sx'éx'q'et 'hot-headed, violent', (s)x'w(ə)z'eywel 'good-hearted, generous, kind; easy-going, good-natured, q'wx'wlámét 'get offended, get irritated' (q'wx'wlex'w
'offend s-o'), ñeq'alamét 'know oneself, be confident', hîq't 'coax s-o, persuade s-o, invite s-o (to go for a trip)' (not 'invite to gathering'), ñey te sq'lelewel 'glad; grateful, thankful', lêp 'learn a lesson, give up'.

12.2.8. The Senses: Visual Qualities, Tactile Feelings, Sounds, Tastes, Smells. I do not have extensive data yet on visual qualities, tastes, or smells (about 20 terms, 8 terms, and 11 terms respectively), but they show similar allosemic variations and morphosememic patterns to those shown by tactile qualities and sounds. Most of the words in these domains are verbs whose allomorphs are clearly selected by their nominal subject. This selection by nominal is much clearer here than in many domains. The allomorphs of a given sememe here seem to differ usually in onset or duration of action, in quality, or in intensity.

With sounds these differences and their selection by the nominal are shown in the following:
ê'céem 'toll or peal (of bell), ringing (of ear), jingle (of money, bells, etc.), rattle (of dishes, metal, a ceremonial rattle or deer-hoof rattle, etc.'), k'á(-)têwem 'roar (of waterfall for ex.), rumble (of thunder, a quake, a slide), banging noise (of hammering or other banging, of waterfall)', xépk'wem and
 clandestine, [also glossed as 'make a crunching or cracking noise (of s-o chewing apple, of ice breaking, for example)', q'etxem 'rattling (of dishes, metal pots, wagon on ground, for ex.), scraping sound (like food being scraped off dishes)', q'wet'c'em 'sound of water sloshing around inside (bottle, canoe, etc.), gurgling', c'etxem - õ'êtxem 'clinking, tinkling (of glass, ice in glass, glasses together, dishes together, metal together)' (perhaps used of shells before the white man brought glass, dishes and metal), õ'êlaq'w 'a pop, a shot' (õ'êlê'êlaq'w 'continuous shooting or popping sounds (of guns, firecrackers, etc.)' and woè'êlaq'w 'a shot, explosion'), lètém 'a blast or boom (and the earth shakes after)', kwêpêx 'make sudden noise when s-th falls to the ground (and the sound echoes from the ground), to thump, make a bang (when s-o falls)'.

With tactile sensations the following are attested (allophones differ mainly by quality here): smèlmêg'w 'lumpy (of ground, stick, etc.), rough (of wood, opposite of smooth)', pêpê 'woolly, fluffy', òëtk'wem 'tingle (like arm waking up), stinging', ò'ê'êk'wem 'prickly (from s-th one is allergic to like fir bark, wool, etc.), irritated (tactilely)' (cp. så'êk'wem 'tiny slivers of fir bark'), têx'wem 'beating (of heart), throbbing (of pain), throbbing pain',

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ə'fəqwəl 'muddy, soft and rotting (of fish)' (cp. sə'fəqwəl 'wet mud').

With smells: pəpeq'em 'getting mouldy in taste or smell', pəpeθ'əm - pəpeq'əm 'animal smell (of bear, skunk, dog, etc.), human smell'.

With tastes: t'et'əθ'əm (sometimes t'et'əc'əm) 'sour (like berries or fruit), fermenting', c'c'əc'səm 'tasty, good-tasting but not sweet (of meat, nut, etc.)', c'c'əc'yəm 'bitter (of dried fish, anything), rancid (of butter, other things)' (unclear how this contrasts with séseqəm 'bitter (of rancid peanuts, of roots like cascara, medicines)').

12.2.9. Personal Pronouns. A number of allosemic patterns are found in this domain, and most have already been mentioned in Chapter 4. Pronouns of set 4.1 each have four allosemes, as exemplified by the first person singular member {xələs} 'it's me, I do, I'm the one that ____, I'm the one to ____'. The semantic environments distinguishing each of these are not yet completely catalogued (see 4.1, 9.5, 11.1.4.4, and 11.2.9), but the first two allosemes can occur as independent sentences (in answer to interrogative sentences with tewət for example), while the latter two cannot. The fourth allosem is found mainly with semantic 'future' (in preceding VP, following in VP,
or attached inflectionally to 4.1); the third is found more with 'present' and 'past'; both must have a following VP, while a following VP is optional after the first allophone; the second allophone cannot apparently have a following VP attached within its sentence.

Pronouns of set 4.3 have both subject and object allophones (for te?eielae 'I, me'), which can be distinguished by syntactic placement which has semantic significance and by co-occurrence in the VP with either 4.4, 4.5, 4.9, or 4.10 of the same person and number (4.4 and 4.9 members are marked semantically as 'subject pronoun' and 4.5 and 4.10 members as 'object pronoun').

Pronouns of set 4.7 have two allophones as seen in 1 swê 'mine, my own', etc. The first allophone cannot occur before a nominal, but the second can occur either before a nominal or not. (Syntactic categories are semantically marked.)

Each third person personal pronoun, except those in 4.3, have six allophones including the following combinations of features: 'male sg.', 'female sg.', 'gender unspecified sg.', 'male pl.', 'female pl.', and 'gender unspecified pl.'. This is seen in pronoun sets 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10 (4.2 and 4.11 have no third person members of their own); with
4.1 the six allosemes are divided up between θʾá (singular allosemes) and θʾá(·)lom (plural allosemes). These are disambiguated only if there are co-referential words with number and gender features marked (Θε ܣܛܠܐ 'the wife' for example, or 4.3 pronouns like θ unwind(·)lom 'they (female)'). Actually it should be noted that the third person pronouns of sets 4.1 and 4.3 can also be considered (simultaneously) as members of pronominal demonstratives (see 9.6 and even 9.5).

12.2.10. Demonstratives. Demonstrative articles have been compositionally analysed in 9.1. All the "m." articles (τ新京 and κʾ新京) have allosemes with 'masculine sex gender' and 'gender unspecified' and 'inanimate'; all the "p." articles (τ新京 and Θ新京) have allosemes with 'present and visible' and 'proximity unspecified'; all the "r." articles (κʾ新京, κʾ新京, κʾ新京, κʾ新京) have allosemes with 'remote', 'distant (and not visible)', 'abstract (or hypothetical)', 'indefinite', 'generic', and 'past (perhaps also deceased)'. So the "m.p." article τ新京 has allosemes: 'the (present and visible and masculine sex gender), the (proximity unspecified and masculine sex gender), the (present and visible and gender unspecified), the (proximity and gender both unspecified), the (present and visible and inanimate), the (proximity unspecified
and inanimate). 'The' is omitted (leaving the other features) in the environment of proper names or possessive pronouns. The other semantic features are shared with or transferred to the nominal which the article modifies. The semantic environments of these allosemes are given and discussed in 9.1 for each article and will not be repeated here.

Nominal demonstratives in 9.3 show the same allosemy to a certain extent since they contain demonstrative articles. Thus te là has allosemes 'this (person here (masculine or gender unspecified)), this (present and visible)(inanimate)', kʷe là has 'this (abstract thing, manner, or place)', and kʷé has 'that person (masculine or gender unspecified, near, perhaps visible)'.

Two of the adverbial demonstratives in 9.4 also share the "p." vs. "r." distinction (lí te è versus lí kʷe è), but they do not share the allosemy.

The pronominal demonstratives in 9.6 also share the distinctions of m., f., h., pl., absent (as in r.), and deceased (as in 'past' in r.), but the absent and deceased forms are separate forms and therefore not allosemes. However the m. forms (tú·kʷa, tuk'álem, kʷéu·kʷa, kʷú·kʷa·l, tú·kʷalèm, and probably also tuk'¢kʷ·elá·m) all share the allosemy described above.
with 'masculine sex gender' - 'gender unspecified' - 
'inanimate'.

Demonstrative conjunctions with k'Wə and k'Wə 
have numerous allosemes ('that, to (infinitive), for, 
when (simultaneous), while, as'), but these allosemes 
do not pattern with those of other demonstratives, 
though they are predictable from the semantic envir-
onment.

The demonstratives of 9.3 and 9.4 as well as 
Vdem and Vaux ('be here', 'be there', 'go(ing)(to)', 
'come (to), coming (to)') all have semological fea-
tures of 'here' vs. 'there' which may be the verbal 
equivalent of "p." and "n." vs. "r." seen in the dem-
onstratives above. However this is an example of 
morphosememic structre rather than allosemic struc-
ture.

12.2.11. Other Domains. There are allosemes and 
sometimes allosemic patterns in all the other domains 
of Halkomelem. For example, within adverbial words 
(directions and qualifiers) there is the allosemic 
patterning of tá·l - cúcu 'toward the river, away from 
shore (if on a river)' and cá·leqw 'toward the back-
woods, away from the river (if on land'). The domain 
of descriptive qualities and value judgements (Vaj's) 
has many pairs of antonyms which show allosemic pat-
terning as well, but usually just within pairs of word, though larger patterns may turn up. The domain of prepositional verbs has three words with alloemic patterning: sk'epá·lweż 'below, under, underneath; the underside', sceísá·lweż 'above, over (in the air); the upper side', and sleʔá·lweż 'across, on the other side; the other side'. Similar allosemes are conditioned by the same or similar environments here.

There are surely other alloemic patterns in the domains not discussed yet, and as more data is gathered (additions to glosses, refinement of glosses, more words for the lexicon) more patterns will become apparent. Time does not permit any more analysis here.
CHAPTER 13. MORPHOSEMEMICS

13.0. Introduction. As discussed in the last chapter, morphosememics covers the description of meaning changes as a result of derivational or inflectional processes and the description of all other systematic alternations of sememes resulting from combination with other morphemes, other words, or meaningful arrangements of order. This includes the description of processes like assimilation of sememes, merger of two sememes into one (common in derivation), loss of redundant sememes within phrases or sentences, and concord (agreement in gender or number). Morphosememics also covers sememic co-occurrence restrictions, sememic structure of phrase and sentence, and distribution of sememes or classes of sememes within domains.

This chapter begins with a morphosememic analysis of the domain of fauna (including man), including names of fauna, parts (anatomy), and functions and dysfunctions of the body. This is rather lengthy because it is a fairly large domain and all the data is presented to show what is involved. Excluding fauna names, the domain might be called the domain of anatomy. After this comes brief sketches of most of the other domains (without listing all the data).
Then comes a discussion of the morphosememics of NP's (with and without expansions), VP's (with and without expansions), the sentence (with and without expansions), and the speech event.

13.1. Fauna (including Anatomy). Terms for fauna form the first part of this domain; they include human, animals, birds, fish, insects and reptiles, and supernatural creatures. Anatomical terms are numerous and form a distinct part of this domain. There are at least 120 independent words for parts of the body and nearly one quarter of these have lexical suffix equivalents. The independent words are morphologically and semantically analyzable to a surprising degree. The lexical somatic suffixes have already been listed in 5.2.1 and semantically analyzed in 12.2.3. Also part of the domain (besides terms for fauna, independent somatic words, and somatic suffixes) is a set of insult and joking words called pósqwtel, which describe parts of the anatomy. Another part of the same domain is the set of terms for the anatomy of non-human creatures: fish, birds, animals, reptiles and insects; a game was even played with terms for fish anatomy -- to see who could name all the parts of the fish (there are at least 35). A final part of this domain is the set of functions and dysfunctions of
the body (including body functions, body products, illnesses, curing, and death).


**Human:**

məstiyexʷ 'human, person'
(see also the domain Categories of Humans)

**Animals:**

smeəxθ 'animal; meat'
(Chilk. p'ip'anəlɛxəl -(Chenh., Tait) sk'wəlyəxəl
'bat' (p'ip'anəl 'squeezing' or 'squeezed', -əlɛxəl
'on the arm')
sk'wələg'wəlyəxəl 'young bat' (Chenh., Tait)
spəθ 'bear, black bear'
sxəł̓ yəlmət 'black bear with white spot on chest (male)
(part grizzly)' (xəl̓ yəl- 'mark, write')
sxəł̓ yəlmət(·)t 'female black bear with white spot on chest'
ck'wolf spəθ - ck'wolfəxəl spəθ 'brown bear' (ck'wolf
'red, reddish-brown', -əxəl 'on throat')
χəθkə'ɬəθ - k'wolfəl 'grizzly bear' (χəθkə 'cold', possibly k'wolf 'climb' or k'wolfəl 'hungry')
syəq'wilmet 'name for male grizzly' (< yəq 'burn' be-
cause of burnt color of fur)
syəq'wilmetələt 'name for female grizzly'
səq'ələw 'beaver'
sq̓əc'əmes - sq̓əc'əmes 'bobcat, wildcat'
sq̓ələc'əmes 'lynx' (regarded as a larger bobcat)
pə's 'cat' (< English)
χəp'i'cel 'chipmunk' (χəp'- 'scratch, stripe', -i'cel
'on the back')("when they come out in winter and
shake their mats that's when the last snow has wide
flakes")
sxəxp'ı-cal - șəxp'ı-cal 'chipmunk with more than two stripes'
sxʷwəe 'cougar'
musmes 'cow, bull' (< Chinook Jargon)
musmesəll 'calf'
slek'iyəp - skək'iyəp 'coyote'
kləłqtəle 'deer' (kləłqt 'long', -le- 'plural', -əl 'leg' here >-əl)
swəyeqə kləłqtəle 'buck, male deer', sələl kləłqtəle 'doe, female deer', məwəč 'venison' (< Chinook Jargon)
təltəle 'fawn'
qəwəstələt '(another kind of deer, perhaps female)'
    (possibly < qəwəs 'warmed face or side') (-telət 'female name')
sqʷ(ə)mə'y 'dog'
sqʷeməcy 'puppy'
q̓əyəc or q̓əyəc (sometimes c') 'elk'
sxʷəməcel 'fisher, possibly wolverine' (possibly -əcel 'on the back')
sxəwel - sxəwel 'fox'
p'q̓əłqəl 'mountain goat' (p'əq̓ 'white', -əłqəl 'wool')
sqʷfəqʷ - sqʷf̓əq̓ 'groundhog, woodchuck, hoary marmot, whistler'
stiqʷf 'horse'
stiqwáll 'colt'
xəqəl 'marten'
cəcəl q̓əl (also in stories: sqəyəx) 'mink'
spələwəl 'mole' (pəl-t 'bury s-th')
sxʷiyəxəl 'moose; rack of horns' (prob. < Interior language)
kəłtəl 'mouse'
səćətec (or sətsetec) 'jumping mouse'
sq̓əlq̓'əč 'muskrat'
sq'έ'k' 'otter'
kw'ēšš' 'pig' (< Chinook Jargon < French cochon)
sk'έ'l 'pika, rock rabbit' (prob. < Interior Salish)
swetl'ýé - swetl'ýé 'porcupine' (t' possibly error)
sqewł 'rabbit'
sqíqewł 'small rabbit'
sq'έ'q'g'έ'l 'jackrabbit, big older rabbit'
mé(q')és 'raccoon'
hέ(*)wt 'rat, large voie'
q'élqel héwt 'packrat' (q'élqel 'thief!')
lémétu' (some speakers have métu' 'sheep' (< French le mouton)
se'péq (a few say sc'péq) 'skunk, striped skunk'
sq'έ'q'ę'z 'squirrel'
sq'έ'p'q'a'zél - q'élq'zél 'flying squirrel' (q'élp' 'cover an opening', -q'zél 'on the mouth')
ţ(ε)č'έ'm 'weasel' (perhaps < le-c' - 'cut')
steqąye - stęqąye (final e may be e) 'wolf'

Birds:
mái'q'w - (Cheh.) ḥ'w'q'w'laq'w 'big bird, (waterfowl in a few idiolects, especially Cheh.)'
mí'meq'w - (Cheh.) ḥ'w'iaq'w'laq'w or ḥ'w'eyw'laq'w 'small bird'
q'elq'ę 'blackbird (probably Brewer's blackbird)'
k'w'ę'y - ḥ'w'ẹ'w'es 'bluejay, Steller's jay' (ẹ'w'e 'sacred', syw'w 'fortune-teller')
mé'č'el - (Cheh.) sk'ir'sk' 'chickadee' ("when lots come you'll have visitors; if you listen to them they'll tell you how many children you'll have")
č'elqel 'chicken' (< English)
čelq'č'elq's'łł 'baby chicks'
sf'm 'sandhill crane (taller than heron, some were on
Sumas Lake, make odd sound when flying')
spá·l 'crow, big crow (Western crow)'
spelál 'smaller variety of crow (Northwestern crow)'
smólə'wə' - smólə'wə' 'dipper (little gray bird seen along creeks)'
téləqəl 'duck (cover term), mallard' (tá·l 'go out in the river', -əqsəl 'nose')
telíqəsəl 'baby ducks'
lsmólə'wə' 'canvas-back duck'
léqələqəm 'diving duck of some kind' (léqəm 'dive')
sése 'pintail duck'
χə'qʷ 'sawbill duck, merganser'
qʷiwifə 'wood duck (has nest in stump)'
yékə'wə'le 'eagle (any kind)'
spá·qʷ'es 'mature bald eagle' (pá·qʷ' 'white', -es 'face')
skʷə'wə' 'young bald eagle (before head turns white)'
c'əsqəl 'golden eagle'
?əχə 'goose, Canada goose'
χ'xʷomoləl (ε - θ) 'big Canada honker goose' (χ'əχ'w
 'stiff, hard', -ələqəl 'feather, wool')
k'ə'qʷə'qəl 'small goose, brant'
mi·tə 'blue grouse'
skʷə'kə'wə' - sqʷə'qʷə'wə' - (Cheh.) skʷə'wə' 'willow
grouse' (possibly cp. k'əwə'em 'tippy (of canoe)'
referring to its flight, or qʷə'wə'em 'defecating
(of a bird or chicken)')
χəmxəməls - χəmxəməls 'large hawk, chicken hawk (i.e.
red-tailed hawk)' (χəmx-ət 'grab s-o or s-th')
χıχəmxəməls - χıχəmxəməls 'small hawk'
sxʷatix'y 'helldiver, pied-billed grebe'
sməqʷə'wə' 'heron (great blue heron, yellow-crowned night
heron), crane'
pəsk'ə 'hummingbird' (probably < Thompson language)
ə'čə'lə' - c'ə'lə' 'kingfisher'
swak  'loon'
q'simq'ewel'st 'female (name for) loon' (possibly q'a'w 'owl' + R 'plural action' + -el'st 'female name')
q'simq'ewel'se 'male (name for) loon' (-el'se 'male name')
?echo 'magpie'
pimq 'nighthawk, rain crow' (name imitates call, bird is disliked "because it always asks for rain")
ë'exë'ex  'osprey, fishhawk' (probably < ē'ex  'wash')
citmex  - cf'tmex  'horned owl, big horned owl'
spaleq'we'ε (ε - ε) 'screech owl, pygmy owl, saw-whet owl' (spaleq'we'ε 'ghost')
sq'weq'weq 'white owl'
kh'lq'tēləc - kh'eq'tōləc 'pheasant' (kh'eqt 'long', -ləc 'plural', -ōləc 'rump, bottom, tail')
hemā 'pigeon, wild dove'
k'ewyl 'quail' (＜ English)
sq'ewqs - (Tait) sk'ewqs - (in story) sk'ewels 'raven'
sk'ak'wéq - sk'ok'wéq 'robin (varied thrush)'
sx'ewyk  - sx'wik  'bush robin, winter robin, (probably the "snowbird")'
(Chill.) q'sel'ε discredit. - (Chill., Tait) ?ē'we - (Cheh.)
slflowε 'seagull'
wi'tiyε - (Tait, Cheh.) wēθwe  'snipe (Wilson's or common)'
sx'weyε  'sparrow' (Katzie dialect, Lower Stalo)
q'si'wεl 'swallow'
sx'ij'qel 'whistling swan'
si'wεl 'brown thrush'
si'wεlqεl máq  'wild turkey' (si'wεlqεl 'snot hanging from its nose')
siwe  'whiskeyjack, grey jay, Canada jay' (siwe  'lunch, provisions')
tem'psəm and t'at'eq'ilqəlem 'large red-headed woodpecker' (tem'z 'red ochre', -psəm 'on back of head
and neck', t'át'ep'el's 'pecking', -éqsel 'on the nose', -ém 'middle voice, its own')
θ'í'q 'medium-sized woodpecker with red under wing
(probably red-shafted flicker)'
c'í'q (probably same word as the last one) 'small red-headed woodpecker'
t'émìye 'wren'
t'ét'émìye 'baby wren'
(Tait) sx'óx'έε (Cheh. may replace Θ with Η) 'type of larger brown wren'

Fish:
smá(·)tx'w 'small bullhead, stickleback' (said to be a tattletale on fishermen)
mac's and θ'έyd 'ling cod'
spá'lécp 'grayling, gray ling (cod)'
k'átwí 'eel'
swí'we 'eulachon, oolachen'
šeáqwí (ΕΒ and others së'áqwí) 'fish (any kind), salmon (any kind)'
c'ák'w 'minnow', qóqémonla 'lots of minnows'
k'óx'wέ - k'óx'wέ 'coho salmon (silver salmon)' (origin of the English term "coho")
še'ímiye 'small adult coho' (sè'í'm 'berry, fruit')
k'wálexw 'dog salmon, chum salmon'
hóliye (Cheh., Tait) hóliye 'humpback salmon'
húhóliye 'small-sized humpback salmon'
še'éqi 'sockeye salmon' (origin of the English "sockeye")
θééqi or θééqsy - cósqsy - sk'ýx'wyél 'small sockeye salmon'
q'écfiwiye 'Fall sockeye salmon that comes up Chehalis River'
Χ'élýx'ýel 'spring salmon (all kinds), tyee salmon'
(Χ'élý- 'spotted', -xýel 'on foot' > 'on tail')
'elxw'lowele 'jack spring salmon with black nose'
pá'q'w (sometimes pá'k'w) 'big Harrison River or Chehalis River spring salmon'
spé'š's - sp'eq'š's (- spé'š's rarely) 'white Fraser River spring salmon' (p'eq' 'white')
spá'xem - spé'xem 'March spring salmon, early spring salmon'
sq'wé'xem 'silver Harrison and Chehalis River spring salmon'
se'ala 'May spring salmon that goes to Chehalis Lake and back to sea'
sxwoq'só'w or sxwoq'só'wel 'Silver Creek spring salmon that runs in August'
qéwýx 'steelhead trout'
skwá'wec 'sturgeon'
q'a'xel 'big suckerfish, elephant sucker'
skwímeθ 'little roundmouth sucker (many have red stripes)' (c-kwí'm 'red')
q'wé'c 'little suckerfish with big salmon-like mouth'
kwí'si'c 'cutthroat trout (have red gashes by gills), rainbow trout'
(s)ge'xá'c 'dolly varden trout'
spíkeh'c 'speckled trout' (sp'c'c 'berry of red-flowering currant')
slák'wec 'white trout'
q'slí's 'whale'
q'elálem'cél 'killer whale' (-cél 'on back', -lélem 'expelling air' < 'in one's throat')
Fish:
sa'wó'x'wé' 'clam' (some freshwater clams were had)
?é'yék 'crab'
?é'sk'w 'hair seal' (came up even to Harrison Lake, were hunted with special spears, etc.)
Insects and Reptiles:

x'f'ysem 'ant'

Ze'daq'stilwil 'bedbug' (Ze(e)q'et wide', -iwil 'in the rump')

sx'weltemel mox'c'el 'bedbug' (s-x'weltem-ez 'of the white man, in the white man's ways', mox'c'el 'louse')

tsismaye - sismaye 'bee'

mek'mekw 'bumblebee' (mekw 'stout, thick around')

Xexp'icel sismaye 'yellow-jacket' (Xexp'icel 'striped on back, scratched on back')

sè'èk'w 'worm, bug'

smimayè 'butterfly'

smimayè 'caterpillar'

Ze'c'imëls te pítx'el 'centipede' (lit. 'comb of the salamander', Zec'imel 'comb')

tå'lëfwe 'cricket' (tå'l 'go down to the river')

x'eleqt'xel q'ël, also spélwët q'ël 'crane fly (family Tipulidae)', "leatherjacket" (x'eleqt'xel 'long-legged', q'ël 'mosquito', spélwët 'last year')

X'eleqt'xel q'esq'es(e)cel 'daddy long legs, harvest-man (spider)(order Phalangida)' (lit. 'long-legged spider')

Mëldye 'dragonfly'

t'at'ëm 'flea'

Xwëx'weye 'big fly, blowfly'

smëlëc - smëlelec 'deer fly'

X'wi'wyëye - X'we'wyëye 'housefly'

pì'qs or pë'yaqs - (Cheh.) k'wì'yaq's 'no-see-um fly, sandfly'

pibehà'm 'frog'

pib'ë'mô'zë 'bullfrog, big pretty frog'

wëlëk 'little green tree frog'
wēxēs 'a kind of frog), (probably sound of a frog)
pepēŋ'wí·gsel (or pepēŋ'wiyq'gsel) 'gnat'
k'a·mēx'n̓əł 'grasshopper' (< c·k'a·m 'jump', -n̓əł 'leg')
q̍əlq'əlp'ʔw 'inchworm' (q̍əlp-p 'tangle on itself',
R 'plural action', -ʔw 'on the body')
sēši 'ladybug' (< sēši 'woman, lady')
cəyi·yex 'big gray lizard, alligator lizard'
pitx'yəł 'salamander (small, red or brown)'
məx'yəł 'louse' (homophonic with 'chickadee')
ʔəpel - ʔəpel 'maggot'
q̍ʷəł 'mosquito'
ʔəliqʷəlt (Cheh, ṣəlqʷəlt) 'moth'
ʔəst'yəł 'nits'
k̓ək̓'əłə 'pill bug (black and gray, striped, found in
drying fish and in meat)'
c'əxətəł 'rattlesnake' (c'əx- 'sting', -ətəł 'device')
ʔəlqəq'yəł 'slow-worm' ("a slow-moving foot-long snake")
(actually a blind, legless lizard, Anguis fragilis)'
("someone related or close to you will die soon af-
fter you see it unless you throw it over your shoul-
der and tell it to go to someone else and you name
them")
q'ayəq'exə 'snail, slug (rarely)'
ʔəq'əqey or ʔəq'əqə 'snake'
q̍əsq'əes(e)əł 'spider' (cp. sxʷqəsq'əsəł 'netting
shuttle (device for making nets)', q̍əqsət 'tie
s-th', swəltəł-s te q̍əsq'əsəł 'spiderweb' < swəltəł
'net')
piq̍əmamá:lə 'tadpole, baby frog'
t'pí 'woodtick'
məθ'əq̍iəwəł 'woodtick' (məθ'əł 'pus', -q 'container',
-əwəł '(on) insides')
xʷəxʷəyə 'worm in salmonberry' (xʷəxʷ- 'sudden')
The above list has 58 terms for animals, 73 for birds, 42 for fish, and 45 for insects and reptiles; this list is probably not complete but covers a good proportion of the names and all I have found to date. There are fewer words for fish and sea-life among Upper Stalo dialects than among Lower Stalo dialects because the Upper Stalo had little access to the sea (being about 60 miles away at the closest point).

One feature mentioned in the last chapter was the use of sīlī 'female' and swīyeqē 'male' as Vaj's to distinguish the sex of most fauna. The suffix -ā·lē 'young' and several types of reduplication 'diminutive' can be used to indicate young fauna. A few terms have their own forms for male, female, or young, but these are the exceptions. Kinship terms and age categories can also be used with most fauna as with humans. stā·les 'wife', swēqēθ 'husband', qē·mi 'adolescent virgin girl', qē·lēmi 'adolescent virgin girls', mēl·e 'son, daughter', sqē·q 'younger sibling, child of parent's younger sibling', and even sexw'sī·le 'grandparent-in-law' are all attested with animals such as bears and wolves.

Derivational analyses have been given for over a third of the words for fauna. About ten more words
are borrowed from Chinook Jargon, English, French, Thompson, or another Interior Salish language. The derivations discovered to date show the following morphosememic patterns:

1. Similar patterns are shown in all types of fauna.

2. Thirty-six of the terms are derived with somatic suffixes. The following occur in fauna names:

-ələxəl - -əlyəxəl 'on the arm', -əqəl 'on the throat',
-əfəqəl - -əqəl 'on the back', -əfə (irregular) - -xəl 'on the foot or leg', -əs (possibly -əs) 'on the face',
-əlqəl 'wool, feather', -ə'əqəl (probably -əə) 'on the mouth', -əqs(əl) - -əlqəsəl - -fəqs(əl) 'on the nose',
-əqəl 'in the head', -əloc 'on the bottom, rump, or tail', -əpsəm 'on the back of the head and back of the neck', -əfəwel 'on the insides, in the rump', -əfəws (with the s dropped) 'on the body'. Other known affixes used include several for 'proper names', for 'diminutive' and for 'plural': -mət and -ələqə 'male name', -mət and -mətelət and -telət and -ələt 'female name', -((əl)əwəl - -əwəl - -oweəl 'canoe, vessel', -iye - -əye 'diminutive', R 'diminutive', R 'plural', derivational K (consonant ablaut without discernable meaning), all these in multiple examples, and -əl '-like, -ish' and -tel 'device, thing for' in one example each.

All these sememes merge to form new sememes, the names
of the fauna.

3. Ten terms are compounds of two words (phrasal morphosememics): both terms for 'brown bear', both terms for 'crane fly', and terms for 'packrat', 'bluejay', 'wild turkey', 'daddy-long-legs', 'bedbug', and 'centipede'. All feature a Vaj (or N acting as Vaj) preceding and modifying an N; the sememes change and combine into a single sememe (except perhaps for the terms for 'brown bear').

4. All the currently analyzable terms for fauna are named for a.) roles or habits of the fauna, b.) descriptions of appearance of the fauna, or c.) origin of the fauna; four remaining terms are either borrowed by loan translation or fit into category a. uncertainly.

Thus terms named for roles or habits of fauna are the following: 'grizzly' (k'wí·cel may be k'wiy·cel < 'hungry' or 'climbs' + unknown affix; čęk'ëlë may < 'cold' + unknown suffix (cold-blooded?, cold-hearted?)), 'mole' ('buries'), 'packrat' ('thief rat'), 'flying squirrel' ('covers the mouth', so called because of the tradition that it will fly down, land on one's mouth and cover it as one walks in the woods at night), 'bluejay' ('sacred fortune-teller'), 'duck, mallard' ('nose goes down to the river'), 'sawbill' (perhaps 'pole a canoe' if that describes its appearance as it
swims and catches fish), 'large hawk, chicken-hawk' ('grabbing many times'), 'osprey, fishhawk' (probably 'washing repeatedly'), 'large red-headed woodpecker' ('pecking with its own nose'), 'whiskeyjack' ('lunch, provisions' because it steals one's lunch or provisions), 'diving duck' ('diving into water many times'), 'killer whale' ('expelling air on the back'), 'frog' ('little blower', referring to blowing up of cheeks), 'bullfrog' ('blower (on a canoe?)', perhaps its cane is a lily pad), 'no-see-um fly, sandfly' (possibly '(Indian doctor) blows on patient on the nose' since the no-see-um fly bites without being seen), 'grasshopper' ('jumps many times on legs'), 'rattlesnake' ('thing that stings'), 'spider' (perhaps 'net-maker' or 'tying many times'), and 'inchworm' ('repeatedly tangling on its own body').

Terms named for descriptions of appearance of fauna are: 'bat' ('squeezing (on the) arm' or 'squeezed arm'), 'black bear with white spot on chest' (male and female come from 'marked' + 'male name' and 'marked' + 'female name' respectively), 'brown bear' ('red, reddish-brown' + 'bear', second term is 'reddish-brown on the throat bear'), 'grizzly' ('gone burnt' + 'male name' and 'gone burnt' + 'female name', referring to the burnt color of fur), 'chipmunk' ('stripe on back'),
'chipmunk with more than two stripes' ('striped on back'), 'deer' ('long legs'), 'mountain goat' ('white wool'), 'moose' ('rack of horns'), 'canvasback duck' (possibly 'fold in middle of canoe', comparing the duck to a canoe), 'mature bald eagle' ('white face'), 'golden eagle' ('growing in the head' (no longer 'bald')), 'big Canada honker goose' (probably 'stiff feather'), 'screech owl, pygmy owl, saw-whet owl' ('little ghost' since it is tiny, hard to see except eyes, and gives a ghost-like call; this owl also is the bringer of news of impending death of someone close to the hearer), 'pheasant' ('long tail(s)'), 'wild turkey' ('snot-hanging-from-its-nose bird'), 'large red-headed woodpecker' ('red ochre on back of head and back of neck'), 'spring salmon' ('spot or spotted on foot (i.e. tail)'), 'jack spring salmon with black nose' ('spring salmon in canoe'), 'white Fraser River spring salmon' ('white' + 'face?'), 'little roundmouth suckerfish' ('red' + ?, because many have red stripes), 'bumblebee' ('stout, thick around' + 'plural?'), 'woodtick' ('pus container on inside(s)'), 'daddy-long-legs' ('long-legged spider'), 'crane fly, "leatherjacket"' ('long-legged mosquito'), 'bedbug' ('being wide in the rump', due to its flattened-out appearance'), 'slow-worm' ('a kind of snake', derivational consonantal ablaut removes it from being
glossed exactly as 'snake'), 'centipede' ('salamander's comb', from its appearance rather than its role).

Terms named for origins of fauna are: 'small adult coho' ('little berry', so called because of the tradition that this land-locked salmon originates as a berry dropped into the lake or water), 'speckled trout' ('little berry of red-flowering currant', so called because of tradition that it originates from the red-flowering currant dropping into the water), 'crane fly' ('last year's mosquito', because it resembles a giant mosquito), 'bedbug' ('white man's louse', presumably introduced by the white man), and 'yellowjacket' ('striped on back bee', may belong with terms named for appearance).

The term for 'ladybug' is apparently a partial loan-translation ('lady') with consonantal ablaut to shift meaning (səˈɛlɪ > səˈɛːɪ). The words for 'cricket' ('go down to the river' + ?, so called because "it calls you to go down to the river") and 'worm in salmonberry' ('little sudden thing' (?), possibly because it is noticed with sudden reaction when the berry is about to be eaten) may also be seen as expressing roles, as may the term for 'bee' (possibly 'little thing one is scared of behind one' < sǐsẽm 'scared of s-th behind one').
5. The terms for fauna in Halkomelem divide up the world of fauna in different ways than does English. These differences will be briefly considered here. The terms are divided first into 'animal' (smé'yəθ), 'large bird' (má·qʷ - (Cheh.) xʷə·yəleqʷ), 'small bird' (mi·meqʷ - (Cheh.) xʷyə·wəleqʷ), 'fish' (sə'áqʷi, some say sə'áqʷi), and 'worm, bug' (sə'ákʷ). There are remainders whose place in this classification is uncertain at present; ?ə·sxʷ 'hair seal' apparently belongs with fish but ?ə·yyə 'crab' and sə'á(?)xʷ 'clam' may not. With insects and reptiles there appear to be many types that have few members or go their own way. Thus sə'ákʷ includes five or six 'worms' (q'əlq'əlp'ə·w 'inchworm', ?ə·pel 'maggot', ḥəc'əməls te pɨtx̣əl 'centipede', xʷəxʷiye 'worm in salmonberry', sə'ákʷ 'earthworm, any other worm', and perhaps smiməxθ 'caterpillar'. But it is unclear at present which 'bugs' sə'ákʷ includes and whether all insects are 'bugs' in its definition or just non-flying ones are 'bugs'. ?əlq'ey 'snake' apparently includes ?əlq'ę·y 'slow-worm' (though zoologists claim it is a lizard), c'ęxəl 'rattlesnake', and all other kinds of snakes. pɨpəhəm 'frog' apparently includes pəhə·məwək 'bullfrog, big pretty frog', welək 'little green tree frog', pɨpəhəmələ 'tadpole, baby frog', and all other kinds
of frogs. sisəməyə 'bee' seems also to include ɣəxp'icel sisəməyə 'yellowjacket' and məkʷməkʷ 'bumblebee', while qʷé'l 'mosquito' may include both words for the 'crane fly' (ə'leductory qʷé'l and spelwé's qʷé'l), and q'ësq'esecel 'spider' includes 'daddy-long-legs' (ə'leductory q'sesq'esecel). In addition to these classifications, both cəyi'yx 'big gray lizard, alligator lizard' and pɨtx'yel 'salamander' are considered lizards although there is no cover term; also the area of flies is well-elaborated, with terms for 'big fly, blowfly', 'housefly', 'deer fly', 'no-see-um fly, sandfly', and possibly 'gnat', though these lack a cover term as well.

With fish, terms for salmon are especially well developed, including 16 different types (and 18 names) at least. So far I have found two types of coho salmon, one of dog salmon, two of humpback salmon, three of sockeye salmon, and seven types of spring salmon with an eighth term as a cover term for spring salmon; there are likely more terms not yet elicited. Each salmon species (coho, dog (probably), humpback, sockeye, and spring) are divided into large and small (fry, small in size, or kokanee (landlocked)); the spring and sockeye (and perhaps others) have further terms specifying the time of year they run and the river...
they spawn in or run up; color is sometimes mentioned in these glosses but is not consistently or diagnostically present. 'Steelhead trout' are sometimes classified as salmon by the Stalo. Salmon for such a substantial part of this sub-domain and the food cycle that the word séáqwí is often translated 'salmon' by the Stalo people, though it includes all other types of fish as well (even 'eel' and 'hair seal', 'whale' and 'killer whale'). Other classification and specialization within the sub-domain of fish includes five types of trout (with no cover term) and three types of suckerfish (with no cover term); these are differentiated by description and for the suckerfish also by size and type of mouth. The trout found so far include steelhead, cutthroat or rainbow, dolly varden, speckled, and white trout; the suckerfish so far include big suckerfish or elephant sucker, little round-mouth sucker (with red stripes especially), and little suckerfish with big salmon-like mouth.

With terms for birds, the division into big birds or small birds is most noticeable; there is no term for 'bird (of any size)'. Although diminutive -íye can be applied to almost any words for fauna, the following birds have been specifically mentioned with both 'mature large' and 'mature small' varieties:
crow, goose, hawk, owl, robin, woodpecker, wren. From
their diminutive inflections the 'chickadee', 'snipe',
and '(larger) wren' also seem to be considered as
mi·meqʷ or xi·xʷələqʷ 'small birds'. It seems most
likely that baby birds would also be classed as 'small
birds' (for example: cəl̓i̓l̓ə̱k̓ əlsə·lə 'baby chicks',
teləqșəl 'baby ducks', and t'i·t'emíyə 'baby wren').
Also in the area of birds, teləqșəl 'duck' includes
at least six types of ducks (and more whose Halkomelem
names could not be recalled yet): canvasback duck,
diving duck, mallard, pintail, sawbill duck, and wood
duck. yəxʷələ 'eagle (any kind)' includes three types
of eagles: young bald eagle (before head turns white;
this occurs after a year or two), mature bald eagle,
golden eagle (often mis-considered an immature bald
eagle, thus its derivation). Notice the use of the
criterion of maturity or color of head feathers.
There are also three types of geese or two types and
a cover term ?éxə; it is unclear which is the case yet,
but the latter seems most likely. There are also five
varieties of owls found so far, three varieties named
in one case by a single term (spələqʷi̓k̓ ə 'screech
owl, pygmy owl, saw-whet owl'); but there appears to
be no cover term for owls. Loons are given proper
names in two cases (in stories), but these don't seem
to be separate varieties of bird from sówálel 'loon';
the raven is also given a name in stories (sówáwés),
and other birds may also have personal names in stories.

With terms for animals, large and small varieties
are only pointed out (by separate terms) in a few
cases: sqalác'emes 'lynx' is considered a larger
variety of sqac'ámes 'bobcat, wildcat', and there are
three sizes of rabbit: sqiqwáyá'lél 'jackrabbit, big
older rabbit', sqwe'es 'rabbit', and sqiqwe'es 'small
rabbit' (unless sqwe'es is a cover term). Diminutive
R, -iyé, and -á'lél provide the means of labelling the
young of animals (sqiwík'welyéx̂el 'young bat', spečá'lél
'bear cub', pupsá'lél 'kittens', músmesá'lél 'calf',
sqiwíq'we'má'y 'puppy', stiqiwá'lél 'colt', kwik'we'sú 'lit-
tle pig', híhëwt 'little rat, little vole', for exam-
ple). But one suppletive term for young animal exists,
t'ft'ele 'fawn'. Bears are especially elaborated.
spé'es covers black and brown bears and black bears
with a white spot on the chest (part grizzly) but is
said to exclude grizzlies. Black bears with a white
spot on the chest (perhaps a special category because
of a story which makes them ancestors of the Wealick
family) can be named with two proper names (sxé'ylmet
and sxéyłmat) as can grizzlies (syeq'ülmet and
syeq'ülmetelát). But other animals are also given
proper names (q̲ʷəw̲̌əst̲əl̲ət̲ 'kind of female deer'), sq̲ʷəyal̲ə 'Mink', se'iq'ʷ 'an old wolf grandfather in a story') as well as birds (as mentioned above). The wolf is also addressed as siy̲̌ēm 'chief (of the wild tribe)' when the old-time Stalo see it and tell it to go on its way. Returning to bears, the grizzly bear (which eats humans) and the brown bear (which does not) also have two other names apiece, probably just in free variation. At any rate this makes eight or nine terms for bears. Chipmunks can be differentiated as to how many stripes they (x̲ʷəp̲'i̲·c̲əl vs. sx̲ʷəx̲ʷəp̲'i̲·c̲əl - x̲ʷəx̲ʷp̲'i̲·c̲əl).

A number of terms for fauna originated as imitations of the noises made by the creatures. Few have been positively identified yet, but several can be mentioned: piq' 'nighthawk, the cry of a diving nighthawk', wě̳əs ' (kind of frog?), the noise a frog makes', and probably sq̲ʷ̄iq'ʷ 'hoary marmot, whistler, groundhog, woodchuck'.

Not mentioned in this section so far are the terms for sh̲ʷəl̲əq̲əm creatures, which form a separate subdomain perhaps. The terms are:

sh̲ʷəl̲əq̲əm 'supernatural creature (often dwelling in lakes, if you see one you get x̲ʷa̲·l̲i̲·s 'go into shock upon seeing a supernatural creature and vomit
till one dies'
'skh'elqem 'a little supernatural creature'
scif? (Tait: also sc? and cici?) '(slang term for)
supernatural creature, monster'
sesq'c 'Sasquatch (hairy giant)' (possibly < sek'
'split in half' (half-man, or referring to rocks
he splits by throwing))(this term is the origin of
the English term)
θ'owxiye 'Cannibal Woman or Basket Ogress (catches
children, puts them in a cedar slat basket, θ'owwx,
on her back, and eats them in her cave)' (< θ'owwx
'cedar slat basket' + -iyε 'diminutive')
si'âqey 'supernatural two-headed snake (head at each
end, rolls up in the middle, lives in lakes)' (<
?is(εlε) 'two' with metathesis + ?εâqey 'snake')
sxed'as 'thunder, Thunderbird (giant supernatural
bird, when he opens his eyes it produces the light-
ning, when he urinates it rains, when he shakes his
wings it thunders)' (a wind, spatpetelxel precedes
him and is called 'thunderwind', lit. 'thing that
repeatedly blows from the mouth on the arm')
(sxed'as < s- 'nominal' + x'ed'- 'sudden' + -â's
'on the face' or 'in the face' or 'face')
s?áx'maxw 'dark-skinned water pygmies (about two feet
tall, have black hair, lived in a pool just below
the little wooden bridge over the Coquihalla River
with the sign "to Union Bar", near Hope; when Indi-
an people went to spear fish in that pool on the
Coquihalla, the pygmies would grab the spears and
hold on to them; thus the pool and river was called
kwiyk'wiyël 'Coquihalla; stingy container'; such
water babies also live in Chilliwack Lake and have
been seen washed up on the beach and crying by

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Stalo people now living' (-meX 'people', root meaning unknown)
sx̱səxam6'i 'huge pretty frog with supernatural powers'
(no story or further information has been obtained yet on this creature)
(< sx̱sxə - sx̱sxə 'sacred' + pəham6'i or pəhamówezi 'big pretty frog, bullfrog')

The derivations known of the above terms show
'Sasquatch' may < 'split in half' + ?, 'Cannibal Woman, Basket Ogress' < 'cedar slat basket' + 'diminutive', 'supernatural two-headed snake' < 'double snake', 'Thunderbird, thunder' < 'thing that's sudden in the face', 'water pygmies' < unknown root + 'people', and 'supernatural frog' < 'sacred big pretty frog, sacred bullfrog'. These may all fit into the categories of being named for role, habit, or appearance. They also include members related to most of the sub-domains of fauna: man-animal, woman, baby, bird, snake, frog.

13.1.3. Independent Words for Body Parts. In the following list, {s-} nominalizer is not listed in the analysis after the first few examples, and r.m.u. means root meaning unknown. Morphosememic patterns are described in 13.1.7.
whole body s-lexʷ-f'ws (s- nominalizer, r.m.u., -f'ws 'of the body')
half of body ḡeq'-f'ws (ḡeq' 'half', loss of s unexplained, -f'ws 'of the body')
head sxéy'es, sxéy'es (s- nominalizer, r.m.u., -es 'of the face')
crown of head, top of head s-qʷát-ələqʷ (r.m.u., -ələqʷ 'of top of head')
soft spot on a baby's head Tait: s-qeq'-ələqʷ, Chill.: s-qeq'-á'ləs (qe? from qeyqe 'soft', -ələqʷ 'of top of head', -á'ləs 'fruit; round thing'; the Chilliwack word also means 'juicy fruit' from homophonous qeq?-, bound form of qá: 'water')
scalp, top of head s-t'ēm-ələqʷ (t'ēm- 'chopped', -ələqʷ 'of top of head')
hair on head méqəl (possibly mé '(come) off', -qəl 'of the head')
red headed, red hair c-kʷi'm-əqʷ (c- 'color', kʷi'm 'red, reddish-brown', -əqʷ 'of top of head')(rare Indians here were born with reddish-brown hair in pre-contact times)
grey hair s-χá:ləm (compare χá:ləm-ət 'turn grey (of hair)')
curly hair s-q'əlq'èlp'-əqʷ (q'əlq'èlp' 'tangled (of its own accord)', -əqʷ 'of top of head')
sideburns s-χel-p-ələ (χel 'to mark', perhaps -p is
'hair', perhaps -é1é is 'container', related to -é1é
'container')
a braid s-t'semx'-é1c' (t'semex' 'to braid something',
-é1c' 'twisting around')
skull s-Θ'á:m-æq' (s-Θ'á:m 'bone', -æq' 'of top of head')
forehead s-q'wáméls (r.m.u. unless q'wém 'come out at
roots (of hair)' and -éls 'intransitive' are involved)
back of head and back of neck t'épsém (-épsém 'of back
of head and back of neck', r.m.u. or empty morph)
side of head sx'-?í:1e (sx' - nominalizer, possibly x'
'pertaining to head', r.m.u. unless ?í:1e 'right here')
eyebrow Θá:mél (r.m.u.), eyebrows Θëmá:mél (C₁C₂-
reduplication 'plural')
eye qél:1ém (r.m.u.)
eyelashes źp-tél (r.m.u. unless related to Θ'ép in
Θ'éplex' 'blink', -tél 'device' or 'reciprocal')
pupil of eye q'éyy-x-á:1es (q'éyX 'black', -á:1es 'of
the eye')
blue eyes c'-më:1'-á:1es (c' - 'color', më:1 'blue',
-á:1es 'of the eye')(rarely full-blooded Indians were
born with blue eyes)
freckles, spotted face Χ's1-Χ's1x-as (C₁C₂- 'plural',
Χ's1x- 'spot', -á:s 'of the face')
face s-?á:1e-as (r.m.u. unless -?á:1e 'edge, point', -as
'of the face')
ear q'w'é:1
hair in ear s-qʷəlqʷəl-ɛ́.lif.ye (C₁əC₂- 'plural', qʷəl- 'body hair', -ɛ́.lif.ye 'of the ear')
nose m-əqsel (r.m.u. or empty, -əqsel 'of the nose')
bridge of nose s-θ́əm-əqsel (s-θ́əm 'bone', -əqsel 'of the nose')
point of nose s-ʔəlqəsəl (r.m.u. ʔə or ʔəl, -(l)əqsel 'of the nose' (also used figuratively for 'a point')
nostrils (unattested except by Hill-Tout 1902 who has what could be interpreted as səqʷəlqəsəl or səqʷəl-
əqsesəl, probably əqʷ 'wet', -əl- or -lə- infix 'plural', -əqsesəl 'of the nose')
hair in nose s-qʷəlqʷəl-əqsesəl (s-qʷəlqʷəl 'hairs' as above, -əqsesəl 'of the nose')
cheek s-əqʷ-əle, sxʷ-ʔfəle (s-əqʷ 'flesh', -əle 'container', ʔfəle r.m.u.), cheeks sxʷ-ʔəlʔfəle (C₁əC₂-
'plural')
mouth əáʔəsəl (perhaps ə- 'big', -áʔəsəl 'of the mouth')
upper lip s-əsəl-áʔəsəl (əsəl 'above, upper', -áʔəsəl 'of the lip or jaw')
lower lip s-əp-áʔəsəl (əp 'below, lower', -áʔəsəl 'of the lip or jaw')
chin, jaw cəm-x̱-áʔəsəl (cəm - cəm 'bite on, close teeth on, put in mouth', possibly the -x̱ < -ex̱
'transitivizer', -áʔəsəl 'of the lip or jaw')
tooth, teeth yəl-əs (r.m.u. or empty, -əl-əs 'of the tooth')
gums  s-ʃeqʷ-ạl·ẹs, s-ʃeqʷ-íl·ẹs (s-ʃiqʷ 'flesh', -ọl·ẹs, 
-əl·is 'of the teeth', e and i metathesized in 2nd word)
tongue  t-ẹxʷəθeł (r.m.u. or empty, -ẹxʷəθeł 'of the tongue')
uvula  mółqʷ, s-mółqʷ-əqel (mółqʷ also means 'fish heart', 
-əqel 'of the throat')
beard, mustache, hair on face  qʷil-i'yəθeł (qʷel or qʷil 
'hair', -i'yəθeł < -á.yəθel 'on the lip or jaw')
front of neck  s-qʷel-ɪəɛl, possibly s-qʷel-ɪəɛl, some 
say sxʷ-ʔəɛl-ɪəɛl (qʷel 'talk', qʷel and ʔəl r.m.u., 
-ɪəɛl 'of front of neck')
adam's apple  s-xʷəh-áməł-ɪəɛl (xʷəh r.m.u. unless 'big' 
or 'upstream', -áməl 'part or member', -ɪəɛl 'of front 
of neck')
throat, gullet  s-qəḷxʷ-ɛ·ḷe (s-qəḷ·ɛxʷ 'greedy, eats 
too much', -ɛ·ḷe 'container')
windpipe, air passage  s-qʷə-há·məłθeqʷ (s-qʷeq 'hole', 
possibly -ə·məł 'part or member')
shoulder  sxʷ-ʔɪ·ḷe·m-ɛ·ḷe (ʔɪ·ḷe·m 'carry on one's 
shoulder', -ɛ·ḷe 'container')
shoulder-blade  kʷakʷeq⁴-tel or kʷeq⁴-tel (r.m.u.,
citations quite variable, but -tel - -tel 'reciproc- 
cal' or 'device')
arm  t'ɛ·ḷow, t'ɛlt'ɛ·ḷow 'arms'. (C₁C₂⁻ 'plural')
armpit  sxʷ-ʔi-ɛlxəl (r.m.u., -ɛlxəl 'of the arm')
elbow  s-θ̣əm-xʷ-ɛlxəl (s-θ̣əm 'bone', -xʷ meaning 
unknown, -ɛlxəl 'of the arm')
wrist joint  $x^\text{w}\text{θ}'\text{ếq}'\text{w}-\text{ces}$ (also means 'sprained wrist')
  (r.m.u., -ces 'of the hand')
  
  wrist bone, lump of wrist  $q^\text{w}\text{ėmx}'\text{w}-\text{ces}$ ($q^\text{w}\text{ėmx}'\text{w}$ 'lump', -ces 'of the hand')
  
  hand  $cél\text{lx}'$
  
  right hand  $s^\text{؟}\text{ęyw}-\text{ces}$ (less common $s^\text{؟}\text{ęyw}s-\text{ces}) (s^\text{؟}\text{ęyw} 'right (side)', -ces 'of the hand', s-?ęy-ëw itself < s- nominalizer, ?ęy 'good', -ëw 'of the body')
  
  left hand  $s^\text{ث}\text{ǐk}'\text{w}-\text{es}$ (s-?ęk'we 'left (side)', -ces 'of the hand')
  
  knuckles and joints of hand  Chehali: $q^\text{w}\text{'emq}^\text{w}\text{ęmx}^\text{w}-\text{ces}$
  ($C_1^2C_2^2$ 'plural', $q^\text{w}\text{ęmx}^\text{w}$ 'lump', -ces 'of the hand or fingers')
  
  finger  $s-\text{lęx}-\text{ces}$ ($\text{lęx}$ 'widen', -ces 'of the hand'),
  
  slęlxces 'fingers' has -łe- 'plural' infix
  
  fingernail  $q^\text{w}\text{ł}'\text{él}-\text{ces}$ (c-q'w'jy 'gray', -el 'ish', -ces 'of the hand or fingers')
  
  thumb  $mek^\text{w}-\text{ảmél}-\text{ces}$ ($mek^\text{w}$ 'stout (in strength)', -ảmél 'part or member', -ces 'of the hand')
  
  first finger (index finger)  Tait: mét'es-ảmél, Chill.
  
  and Cheh.: mét'es-tel (mát'es 'point, aim', -ảmél 'part or member', -tel 'device, thing to, instrument')
  
  second finger  $sx^\text{w}'\text{ęy}-\text{ces}$ ($sx^\text{w}'\text{ęy}$ '(in) the middle', -ces 'of the hand or fingers')
  
  third finger  mélyf'-ces (post-contact coinage)(mélyf 'marry, married', -ces 'of the hand or fingers')
little finger  Tait: saseqʷt-ále-ces, Chill. + Cheh.: sásaqʷ-ces (sásaqʷ 'youngest child', -ále possibly related to weʔálewe 'most', -ces 'of the hand, fingers')

palm of hand  sxʷ-ʔáʔes-ces (sxʷ- nominalizer replacing s-, sʔáʔes 'face', -ces 'of the hand')

hollow of hand  xʷ-t'áxʷ-ès-ces (xʷ- meaning uncertain here, t'áxʷ 'going downriver', -ès 'on the face', -ces 'of the hand')

collarbone  s-t'i-ilés-tel, t'i-ilés-tel (t'el - t'él 'go across', -i·les 'of the chest', -tel 'device, thing to')(t' = h' in both citations)

chest  sʔ-i·les (s- nominalizer, probably empty root to allow suffix to be attached and to erase locative meaning in suffix, -i·les 'of the chest')

breastbone  θ'χ-ěmél (r.m.u. but related to that in θ'χ-i·les 'inside brisket of meat' where -i·les is 'of the chest', -ěmél possibly related to -á·mél 'part or member')

woman's breast, nipple, milk  s-qəmá: (qəmá: 'suckle' < qá: or qə(?)- 'water, liquid', possibly relevant is the slang term máʔs 'milk' (· < * before consonants)

woman's breast  s-qʷəmëʔ-i·les (qʷəməʔ 'lump', -i·les 'of the chest')

stomach, belly  kʷél·é (r.m.u., -él·é probably related to -ē·lē 'container')
navel, belly button  mōxwoye, mōxwoye (r.m.u.)
side of body  Cheh.: s-ʔeq'-á·lweʔ, Tait.: s-ʔi·lweʔ
(ʔeq'- as in ʔeq'et 'wide' or as in ʔeq'i·ws 'half the
body', -á·lweʔ - ʔi·lweʔ 'side')
right side of body'  sʔeyi·ws ʔi·lweʔ
left side of body  sʔi·kwe ʔi·lweʔ
back  ʔa·q'-elac, qʔa·q'-elac (ʔa·q' probably 'comes out
above or after', -elac 'of the rump')
lower back  s-ʔeq'-oweʔ (ʔeq' as in ʔeq'et 'wide',
possibly -oweʔ 'of a canoe')
good figure, good shape ʔe·y-э·mec' (ʔe·y 'good', -э·mec'
- э·mec' 'standing up')
brain  s-mēθ'-qel (mēθ' 'blue', -qel 'of the head')
heart  θ'ě·lē (r.m.u. or empty, -ě·lē 'container')
lungs  s-p'ělx’em (r.m.u., probably -em 'passive')
liver  s-cēl’em
insides  s-c’elx’-iweł (c’elx' 'go into a quieter
slough or backwater', -iweł 'of the inside of the
body')
gall bladder, bile  1elac' (lēc' 'full', possibly -el-
'plural')
kidney  smēlt-člqēl (s-mēlt 'stone', -člqēl 'in the
head', 'head' is used in a figurative sense too, like
'head of a river')
intestines, guts  q’eq’ey (r.m.u.)
stomach (inside organ)  k’lēl’ę (as above in 'belly')
bladder sóxʷ'e-tel, sóxʷ'e-tel (Jimmy Harris 1966 has kʷ'e·sél)(sóxʷ'e 'urine', -tél 'device, thing for', sóxʷ'e-tel also means 'urinal'; -é·lé 'container'; Harris's word is unclear unless root is kʷ'ēs 'burned (of a person)')
flesh s-éíqʷ
blood s-é'éi-yel (r.m.u.)
fat s-lás (also means 'grease, lard, oil') lás 'be fat'
bone s-é'á·m
marrow s-lás-x'yel (s-lás 'fat', -x'yel 'of the leg')
backbone čakʷ-á·les, čakʷ-á·les-øwic (čakʷ 'narrow, wedged in', -á·les meaning uncertain unless 'eyes', -øwic 'of the back')
rib lówéx (r.m.u. or empty, -ówéx 'of ribs or slats')
cord, nerve cord, tendon, muscle k'ë'emól, k'ë'emol (r.m.u.)
vein tótsë (r.m.u.)
pulse ḥkʷ-é·m-øws (ḥákʷ 'to fly', -é·m 'strength', -øws 'of the body')

skin, hide kʷél·éw, kʷél·éw

hair on body qwil-øws, q'ewyl-øws (qwil - q'ewyl 'hair', -øws 'of the body'), s-qwelq'ewyl-øws 'hairs all over body' (C₃C₂- 'plural')

hip čeq'-lél (čeq' 'wide', -lél 'of rump or bottom')
rump s-á-éléc (r.m.u. or empty, -éléc 'of the rump or bottom')
penis  s-x\textsuperscript{y}êle (possibly related to -x\textsuperscript{y}el 'of the leg or foot', possibly root x\textsuperscript{y} - refers to 'genitals' as in 'head of penis', 'have an erection' and 'vulva, vagina', see below)

head of penis  (Jimmy Harris 1966 gives s-x\textsuperscript{y}á-k\textsuperscript{h} iw 'head of penis' and x\textsuperscript{y}á-k\textsuperscript{h} 'have an erection'; the latter is obviously the root of s-x\textsuperscript{y}á-k\textsuperscript{h} iw, while -eq\textsuperscript{w} 'of the top of the head' is probably the suffix)

foreskin  (Jimmy Harris 1966 gives sx\textsuperscript{w} ?éq\textsuperscript{e}l 'foreskin', root is related to ?éq\textsuperscript{e}l 'choke on bone or something solid')

testicles  mécel (may be singular), s-mémcéel (may be plural)(r.m.u.)

vulva, vagina  x\textsuperscript{y}ê-weél (x\textsuperscript{y}ê- or x\textsuperscript{y}ê- probably 'genital', -weél or -éweél 'canoe or vessel')

pubic hair  q\textsuperscript{w}êyl-eq (q\textsuperscript{w}êyl 'hair', -eq 'of the genitals')

womb, uterus  s-méél-téél (méél - méél 'child', -tél 'device, thing for')

afterbirth  s-?á\textsuperscript{w} (á\textsuperscript{w} probably 'comes out above or after')

thigh  s-peté-lép (r.m.u.)

leg and foot  s-xêl-e (r.m.u.), sxêxéyle 'legs and feet' (irregular reduplication 'plural')

lower leg  ém-f-éwec-x\textsuperscript{y}el (r.m.u. unless < s-?á\'ám 'bone', -f-éwec meaning unknown unless related to -éwic 'on the back', -x\textsuperscript{y}el 'of the leg and foot')
knee  s-q'ep'á¹l-θe-tel (q'ep' 'cover over', -á¹l unknown, -θet 'itself' or 'verbalizer', -tel 'thing for, device', compare q'ep'έ·tcl 'a cover or lid')

kneecap  s-q'ep'á¹l-θeqʷ-tel-xʔel (q'ep' 'cover over', -á¹l unknown, -θeqʷ 'on top of head', -tel 'thing for', -xʔel 'of the leg')

shin  s-θέ·m-xʔel (s-θá·m 'bone', -xʔel 'of the leg')

calf of leg  q'έ·k'el-xʔel (r.m.u. but probably related to q'έq'εk' 'convulsions' via 'being wrung tight' or some such root meaning, -xʔel 'of the leg')

ankle joint  xʷθέ·qʷ-xʔel (also means 'sprained ankle')

Tait:  xʷθ'el-θeqʷ-xʔel (r.m.u. in both cases, -θeqʷ 'on the bottom', -xʔel 'of the foot or leg')

lump of ankle  q'wê·mxʷ-xʔel (q'wē·mxʷ 'lump', -xʔel 'of leg or foot')

joints in foot  Chēh.:  q'wē·q'wê·mxʷ-xʔel (q'wē·mxʷ 'lump', C₁C₂ 'plural', -xʔel 'of the foot')

top of foot  cθ-θeqʷ-xʔel (ceθ 'top, above, upper', -θeqʷ 'on the back, of the back', -xʔel 'of the foot')

toe  s-lé·x-xʔel (lé·x 'widen!', -xʔel 'of the foot')

slé·lε·x-xʔel 'toes' (-lε- 'plural')

big toe  mέkʷ-á·mε·l-xʔel (mέkʷ 'stout', -á·mε·l 'member or part', -xʔel 'of the foot')

little toes  k'wε·mέkʷ-á·mε·l-xʔel (r.m.u., possibly mέkʷ 'stout', unusual reduplication C₂ε- 'plural' or 'diminutive', -á·mε·l 'part, member', -xʔel 'of the foot')
toenail  q'w*e1-xe1  (q'w*e1 'grayish', -xe1)
sole of foot  sxW*?e6e-xe1  (sxW- nominalizer replacing s-, s-?es 'face', -xe1 'of the foot')
arch of foot  xW-t'axe-xe1  (xW- meaning uncertain here, t'axW 'going downriver', -xe 'on the face',
-xe1 'of the foot')
heel  θ'-e6c-xe1  (r.m.u., -e6c 'on the bottom', -xe1 'of the foot'), θ'e6e6c-xe1 'heels' (r.m.u., 'plural'
by irregular reduplication, -e6c and -xe1 as above)
No words yet obtained for: lines on the hand, waist,
spleen, appendix, or clitoris.

13.1.4. PêsqWte1 'anatomical insult'.

This category contains descriptions of the anatomy of people which are used as insults or jokes. PêsqWt means 'to insult someone by referring to his body'. The list below is not complete since new examples are still turning up:

xW'êa.qW 'big head' (xW- prefix used only with the head and its parts, meaning unclear, θ 'big', -â.qW -eqW 'in top of head')
xW'êa's 'big face' (xW- m.u., θ 'big', -â's 'in the face')
xWeâ.e6l - ëeâ.y6e1 'big mouth' (xW- m.u., θ and ëe 'big',
-h epenthetic intervocalic, -â.e6l 'in the mouth',
-á.y6e1 'in the jaws or lips')
sxWef.qe1 'loud voice' (s- or sxW- nominalizer, perhaps
xW- as above, ëf. 'big', -eqe1 'in the throat')

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'big heads' (ei 'big', reduplicative infix -C₁e- 'plural', -eq 'on top of the head')
ei'eces 'big hands' (ei 'big', -C₁e- 'plural', -cæs 'in the hand')
ei'exv'el 'big feet' (ei 'big', -C₁e- 'plural', -x'el 'in the foot')
ei'ahæ'es 'big eyes' (ei, -C₁e, -h as above, -æ'es 'in the eye')
ei'ahfi'ws 'big bodied people' (ei, -C₁e, -h as above, -i'ws 'in the body')
ei'hwel 'big rump, big asshole' (eo 'big', -h epenthetic, -iwel 'in the inside, in the anus')
ei'hælec 'big rump' (eo, -h as above, -ælec 'in the rump')
ei'q 'big penis' (e 'big', -i'q 'in the genitals' or 'in the male' or 'in the penis')
smæqsel 'big nose' (s- usually nominalizer but here 'big', mæqsel 'nose')
sk'wel 'big belly' (s- here 'big', k'wel 'belly')
q'mæf'les 'big breast(s)' (q'á'mæ 'large lump', -f'les 'in the chest')
Hik' te smæqwel. 'Your uvula is big. = You talk too much.'
qelá'mex - qelæhá'mex'ugly, bad-looking, sloppy in looks, walk or dress' (qel 'bad', -æ m.u., -á'mex 'in looks, -looking')
ye'leq 'pointed head' (y-á'θ 'point', -leq 'in the
top of the head')
sp'íp'e eq\textsuperscript{W} 'flat head, flattened head (as with cranial
deformation done to babies by some Northwest Coast
tribes)' (sp'íp'e a 'flat, flattened' < p'íl 'flatten'
+ s- and -eq\textsuperscript{W} - participial adjective, -eq\textsuperscript{W} 'in the
top of the head')
ci\textsuperscript{ eq\textsuperscript{W}} 'bushy and uncombed hair' (ci\textsuperscript{a} 'high, upper,
above', -eq\textsuperscript{W} 'in the top of the head')
xw'k'a q\textsuperscript{es} 'long face, morose' (xw\textsuperscript{a} - m.u., k'\textsuperscript{e}qt 'long',
ablaut to a- derivational, -es 'in the face')
xw'pap\textsuperscript{a}s 'hair all over the face' (xw\textsuperscript{a} - m.u., p'\textsuperscript{e}ps 'wool-
ly', -\textsuperscript{a}s 'on the face', Aa of e vowels before -\textsuperscript{a}s)
q\textsuperscript{e}s 'bad face, cross face, bad expression on face'
(q\textsuperscript{a}l 'bad', -es 'in the face')
c\textsuperscript{é}px\textsuperscript{es} 'dirty face' (c\textsuperscript{é}px 'dirty', -es 'in the face')
skw\textsuperscript{awc}c\textsuperscript{a}l\textsuperscript{e}s 'sturgeon eyes = blue eyes' (sk\textsuperscript{awc}c 'stur-
geon', -\textsuperscript{a}l\textsuperscript{es} 'in the eyes')
map\textsuperscript{e}l\textsuperscript{a}l\textsuperscript{es} 'marble eyes = blue eyes' (m\textsuperscript{a}p\textsuperscript{e}l 'marble
(glass-type)', -\textsuperscript{a}l\textsuperscript{es} 'in the eyes')
s\textsuperscript{e}l\textsuperscript{e}lp'\textsuperscript{e}li\textsuperscript{ye} 'sloppy ears' (s-\textsuperscript{e}lp' 'sloppy, flabby',
C\textsubscript{1}eC\textsubscript{2} - 'plural', -l\textsuperscript{e}li\textsuperscript{ye} 'in the ear')
s\textsuperscript{e}lp'\textsuperscript{á}y\textsubscript{e}l\textsuperscript{a}l 'sloppy lips, flabby lips' (s-\textsuperscript{e}lp' as above, 
-\textsuperscript{a}y\textsubscript{e}l\textsuperscript{a}l 'in the lip')(applies mainly to lower lip)
c\textsuperscript{é}px\textsuperscript{élq}\textsuperscript{a}sal 'dirty nose' (c\textsuperscript{é}px 'dirty', -\textsuperscript{élq}\textsuperscript{a}sal 'in the
nose')
\textsuperscript{á}l\textsuperscript{e}k\textsuperscript{w}w\textsuperscript{e}l\textsuperscript{e}g\textsuperscript{s} 'hook nose' (\textsuperscript{á}l\textsuperscript{e}k\textsuperscript{w} 'to hook', -C\textsubscript{1}e- 'contin-
uative', -els 'in the nose')

sp'elsel 'flat nose' (s-p'el 'flat', -qsel 'in the nose')

s'elqsel 'snot hanging from nose' (s'el 'to spit',
- -C-le- participial adjective (thus s'elqsel (with
metathesis) could be translated 'spat'), -elqsel 'in
the nose')

smetmetsqsel - smetmetsqsel 'snotty nose' (s-metáqsel
'snot', C-leC- 'plural')(s-metáqsel < r.m.u., -qsel
'in the nose')

Cheh.: k'wemá'yqel, Tait: k'wamá'yqel 'round mouth' (k'wem
- k'wam must mean 'round', -á'yqel 'in the lips')

wemqel 'eats too fast' (wêm 'hurry, be fast', -qel
'in the mouth')

s'eyqel 'ugly grin, ugly expression in mouth,

disappointed and angry look in mouth' (s'eyqel 'dis-
appointed and angry looking', -á'yqel 'in the lips')

silmeqel 'tooth or teeth missing, toothless' (s-íem
'spray or moisture', -eqel 'in the throat')

h'sqtespsem 'long neck' (h'teq 'long', e ablaut, -espsem
'in the neck')

qwéqíwespsem 'small neck, scrawny neck' (qwéqíw 'scrawny,
thin', -espsem 'in the neck')

sp'yces 'crooked hand' (s-p'ey 'bent, crooked' (< p'ey
'make a bend or crook'), -ces 'in the hand')

qeléces 'dirty hand' (qel 'bad, dirty', -é m.u., -ces
'in the hand')

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sθ'émłeč 'skinny rump' (sθ'á'm 'bone', derivational ablaut to e, -łeč 'in the rump')

sk'wfyłeč 'lame (esp. hip from birth)' (s- nominalizer, k'wfy 'climb', -łeč 'in the rump')

sθ'ēp'ēłeč 'tail' (q.v.) and spu? are both used in a slang sense for 'rump'

c'epi·wel - sc'epxí·wel 'dirty asshole' (c'epx 'dirty', -f·wel 'in the anus or insides')

sq'éyxy·wel 'black asshole' (s- nominalizer, q'eyx 'black', -f·wel 'in the anus or insides')

ṭeq'tiwśl 'wide rump' (ṭeq' ét 'be wide', -f·wel 'in the anus')

spiypịxe·wel 'crooked leg' (spiy 'bent, crooked', C₁sC₂- 'plural'?, -xe·wel 'in the leg' and foot')

c'elēlēc·xē·wel 'short-legged runt' (c'elec-äm 'sit down', possibly derivational glottalization of c, -el- 'plural', -xē·wel 'in the leg, on the leg')

c'epx·wel, c'epx·wel 'dirty foot' (c'epx 'dirty', -xe·wel 'in the foot')


In the following lists H stands for "also in human anatomy", A for "also in animal anatomy", B "also in bird anatomy", F "also in fish anatomy", R "also in reptile anatomy", and I "also in insect anatomy".
Fish anatomy:

sx̱y̱.es, sx̱y̱.es 'head' (HABRI)
sx̱pəqʷ 'gristle and everything else in head of fish'
t̓əwleqʷ 'skin of fish head without gristle'
q̓ól̓em 'eye' (HABR)
q̓ip̓e̱le 'fish cheek'
sɬəq̓.wéle, sxʷq̓.lə 'cheek' (HABR)
ʔə̱.q̓̓ə̱l 'mouth' (HABR)
sc̓əhə̱.yə̱l 'upper lip or jaw' (HAR)
sə̱ epə̱.yə̱l 'lower lip or jaw' (HAR)
yə̱l.ə̱s 'teeth' (HAR)
c̓ə̱mə̱x̱.yə̱l 'jaw' (HAR)
kʷə̱l.ə̱w 'skin' (HABR)
sə̱fə̱q 'flesh' (HABR)
x̱y̱ə̱.y 'gills and boot shaped organ attached to gills'
sc̓ə̱lə̱c 'scales'
stíx̱ə̱m 'slime'
q̓ə̱tə̱mel 'fin, neck fin, possibly back fin'
ʔə̱tə̱mel 'belly fin'
sx̱lə̱x̱ə̱l 'tiny fin above tail'
sə̱.q̓̓ə̱m 'bone' (HABR)
sə̱.eə̱lə̱.m 'small bones' (HABR)
χə̱kʷə̱wəle̱s 'backbone' (HAB(R?))
sx̱ə̱we 'dried fish backbone'
sx̱pə̱x̱ə̱l 'fish tail'
sə̱q̓ə̱iyə̱l 'blood' (HABR)
sc̓ə̱lə̱x̱ə̱wəle̱l 'insides' (HABR)
x̱ə̱x̱ə̱wəle̱we 'air bladder'
q̓ə̱wayə̱qʷ 'stomach, organ with filaments next to air bladder'
mə̱sol 'fish gall bladder'
mə̱lə̱qʷ 'fish heart'
kʷə̱l.ə̱ 'belly' (HABR)
Fish anatomy cont.)

q̱l̓-č̱x̱, q̱w̱x̱ 'salmon eggs';
sce̱m̱ex̱ 'dried herring eggs (obtained in trade)';
q̱'w̱l̓-l̓é 'buried fish eggs, "stink eggs"';
k̓'ín̓e 'eulachon oil';
k̓'eq̱'w̱-y 'fish milk';
no word for 'brain', just s̱x̱p̱əq̱w above.

Animal anatomy:
c̱f̱sṯl̓ 'antlers, horn(s)';
sé̱y 'fur, animal hair, wool, yarn'.
(Hill-Tout 1902 has c̱q̱e̱y̱cs or c̱q̱'e̱y̱cs 'paw'.)
words for 'foreleg' and 'hind leg' are said to exist but
have not been elicited yet.
q̱'w̱x̱w̱hé̱cs 'claw, fingernail' (HB);
reportedly 'hind leg' is used instead of a word for 'rump';
reportedly 'ribs' (l̓ów̱x̱) (HB) is used instead of 'chest';
k̓'w̱l̓-l̓éw̱ 'hide, skin' (HFBR);
sq̱w̱l̓q̱w̱é̱lx̱y̱l̓ 'tufts of hair on horse's legs (like on
the Clydesdale)';
sẖ'əp̱'lé̱c 'tail' (BR);
sq̱x̱w̱ 'animal tripe' (used in some dialects).
The remaining words confirmed in usage for animal anatomy
are the same as the following words used for human
anatomy (q.v.): head, eye, ear, nose, cheek, mouth,
upper lip/jaw, lower lip/jaw, tooth/teeth, tongue,
jaw, front of neck, back of head and neck, throat,
breast, rib, belly/stomach, back, flesh, blood, bone,
marrow, backbone, insides, guts, heart, liver, cord/
tendon/muscle, penis, testicles, vulva/vagina; possibly also (but unconfirmed): brain, gums, lungs,
bladder, vein.
Bird anatomy:

$t'áp'ëls 'beak, bill; to peck'$
$t'át'ep'ëls 'beak, bill; pecking'$
$sq'áyəs 'real fine feathers, down'$
$sx'yłèc 'small feather'$
$sx'p'éłqel 'long feather (from wing or tail)'$
$sx'eq'êl, sx'q'êl 'wing' (I)$
$mémlèhà'lì 'egg'$
$sx'ep'éłèc 'tail' (AR)$

'claw' not yet confirmed for birds

Also confirmed for birds are the following terms from human anatomy: head, eye, back of head and neck, chest, back, leg, skin, flesh, blood, bone, little bones, heart, stomach, guts; possibly also (but unconfirmed): brain, front of neck, throat, lungs, and backbone.

Reptile anatomy:

$sx'ep'éłèc 'tail' (BA)$

Also confirmed for reptiles are the following terms from human anatomy: head, eye, jaw, tongue, back, leg/foot, flesh, skin, bone, blood, insides, stomach; possibly also (but unconfirmed): upper lip/jaw, lower lip/jaw, cheek (esp. for frog), chest, and backbone.

Insect anatomy:

$sx'yəs 'head' (HAFBR)$
$sx'eq'êl 'wing' (B)$
$sx'èl 'leg and foot' (HABR)$
$q'êl 'eye' (HAFBR)$

13.1.6. Functions and Dysfunctions of the Body.

This semantic area can be subdivided into: human body functions, human body products, human body dysfunc-
tions (living or healthy/dead or sick, symptom/state/
illness/disability, accident/injury, and possibly medicine/
curing), and non-human body functions and dysfunctions.
The following lists and analyses are not exhaustive. For example, emotions are omitted though many harmful ones are treated by Indian doctoring. Smells, sounds, looks, tastes and feelings are omitted because it is unclear that they belong in this domain. A number of grammatical affixes recur often and can be mentioned here to avoid repetition: -ət - -t - -ēt - -ät 'action on purpose on third person object(s), him, her, it, them', -1 'happen to, manage to, accidentally', -st 'cause to' (the /t/ in this suffix and the first one listed becomes /θ/ when the object is first or second person singular), -əxʷ (after -l or -st) 'third person object', -lā:met 'by oneself', -əet 'oneself', -təl 'each other, reciprocal', -em 'middle-passive voice', reduplication and ablaut of several types (see Chapter 2) 'continuative', 'plural', 'diminutive', s- + -C₁ə- reduplication (infixed after first vowel of root) 'participial verb', and -əls - -əľs 'intransitive'.


xʷə səmełə 'bear a child', əə cəmełə 'someone having a baby' (məle - mêle - mêle 'child')
xʷə swiyeqə 'become a man'
xʷə səʃəli 'become a woman'
qʷəc'ət 'belch'
q’elmet 'believe s-o, s-th', q’el 'believing'
qep’ásem 'bend or stoop down, bow from waist'
qephyk’wet 'bite into it'
c’emet - c’emet 'bite on it, put it in one's mouth or
between the teeth'
θeplex' 'blink', θeθeplex' 'close one's eyes' (-l-ox'),
θεθе
θemk’imélèsem 'blushing', k’im’mel té.s?á’ees 'his face
got red' (k’i’m 'be red', s-get, go, come', s-es
[in] the face', C1eC2- 'plural')
k’ál 'be born'
spexwálelélm 'breathe' = pexwálelélm 'breathe once' and
pexwálelélm 'breathing'
q’el’élém 'make breathy noise, grumble under the breath'
(q’él ‘talk’, -iél - iel 'in front of throat!'
?á’t 'call s-o' (s-o = someone, s-th = something)
s?ákwestex’ 'carry s-o or s-th on the arm'(purse, person,
etc.)'
c’emet 'carry it on one's back, pack it'
?i’el’ém 'carry it on one's shoulder'
θé’ém 'chew, chewing', θé’t 'chew it', θé’eth 'chewing it'
χéyk’wet 'chew it (s-th hard, apple, candy, pill, etc.);
χéyk’wet 'gnaw it, chew s-th hard', χéxéyk’wet 'chew it up'
(χéyk’wem 'make a crunching or cracking noise, crunching,
cracking (like chewing apple or ice breaking)
is related; θé’émwl's is synonymous with χéyk’wem)
θ’eθeplex’ 'close one's eyes' (compare 'blink')
(texqyéylt 'comb s-o's hair', texqyélém 'comb one's
hair', texylqéylt 'comb s-th, card it (of wool')
q’wem 'come out (of hair)(as in comb, etc.)'
xéyéx’wet 'cool off (of a person)
t’ét’eset 'creeping along', t’ét’eséxéelém 'creeping (of
more than one')
χé’m ‘cry, weep'
"defecate"
"dream, have a vision, have a trance", s’élīye
"dream, vision, spirit dream"
gā’qe 'drink', gā’qet 'drink it' (< gā’ 'water')
lēp’ex’ ‘eat s-th’ (-ex’ 'transitivizer', 3rd person obj)
?ēṭē’el ‘eat a meal’ (perhaps -tel 'with each other')
hā’yē’el ‘finished eating’ (blend word of hā’y ‘finished’
and -ā’yē’el ‘(in) lips or jaws’ or -ē’eel ‘(in) mouth’)
lā’et ‘get fat’ (-et may be the verb forming suffix
here instead of the reflexive)
tēq’ ‘to fart’
gē’tēxt ‘feel s-o or s-th’, gē’tēxts ‘feeling around’
mē’lq ‘forget’, mē’qle’w ‘forget s-th or s-o’, mē’qle’s
‘forget, forget s-o or s-th’
x’wē’lē’x’ ‘get up with quick motion’ (x’wē’ probably
‘sudden’, -i’l ‘go, come, get’, -ex’ ‘upright’)
c’i’sem ‘grow’
k’wē’y’x’ ‘growling (of the stomach)’
k’wē’mē’lē’w ‘he’s grown up’ (-1-ex’w, -es ‘he (subj.)’)
(see also ‘raise s-o or s-th’)
stē’wēl, Chill.: stē’wēl ‘guess’, stē’wēlmē’t ‘guess or
thinking about s-th’ (stē’ē, stē’ ‘like, similar to’,
-ēwēl ‘(in) the mind’)
c’i’c’hē’m (some dialects c’oc’hē’m) ‘hear, hearing’,
c’i’c’hē’mē’t ‘hear it’
hōk’ē’ ‘to hiccough’ (imitative)
k’wē’lē’t ‘hold s-th (in the hand)’
x’ē’st ‘hold a baby in arms’
sx’w’x’wē’lē’s’x’w ‘holding s-th up’ (x’w’x’wē ‘be lightweight’,
- st ‘cause to’, -ex’ ‘3rd person object’)
qēl’wils ‘hug’, qēl’wils ‘hug s-o’
k’wē’y ‘hungry’, k’w’ā’k’wiy ‘(being) hungry’
x’wē’x’ ‘tēx’(t) ‘imitating (s-o)’ (-ē’x also in stē’ē ‘similar’)
ōfēct ‘have intercourse with s-o’ (ōfēc’em ‘have intercourse’)
k’wē’x’ ‘have intercourse’
c'Am 'jump'
lAm't 'kick (s-o)', lAmAm't 'kick it around',
lAm'Ayêt 'kick in the rump'
mAmAwë(t), xAmAmAmAwë(t) 'kiss (s-o)', (x')mAkWeëel 'kiss on the lips' (mAkW 'stout, thick', -ëel 'in') the mouth with final -ël lost before -t; x'Am 'pertaining to head or its parts')

qAm'sAm 'kneel down'
qAm'sAm 'know' (A meaning unknown, qAm 'believe', -A 'happen to, manage to', -exW 's-th, s-o')
lAm 'laugh', lAmAm 'laughing', lAmAmAm 'lots of laughing' (root -yAm 'good')
c'AAm 'lick s-th' (related to c'Am 'put it in mouth or between teeth')
kAmAmAyêt 'lie on one's back'
qAmAm 'lie down' (qAmAm 'lying down')
qAmAmAmAyAmAm 'lie on one's stomach' (qAmAm as in 'bend over, bow from waist')
xAmAmAmAm 'listen hard', xAmAmAmAm 'listen', xAmAmAmAm 'listening', xAmAmAmAm 'listen to s-o'
kAmAm 'look at s-o or s-th' (cp. 'see it' and 'stare')
lAmAmAmAm 'make a noise' (lAmAmAm 'noise')
xAmAmAmAm 'making a face' (cp. 'imitate')
wecAmAmAmAm 'masturbate, bring oneself to a summit (of a mountain)' (wecAmAm 'get to top or summit of a mt. < c'Am 'top, on top')
xAmAmAmAm 'mouth hanging open' (xAmAmAyAmAm 'hang s-th up' (-AmAm 'verbalizer'), -Am or -AmAm 'middle-passive', CAmAm 'diminutive')
qAmAmAmAm 'move' (cp. sÍAmAm 'move s-th') (-AmAm may < -AÁ 'come, go!', -AmAm 'middle-passive')
lAmAmAmAm 'nod one's head, bow once from neck', lAmAmAmAm 'nodding (in agreement)' (-AmAm 'face', -AmAm')
xAmAmAm 'open one's eyes' (qAmAm, xAmAmAmAmAmAmAmAm 'lightning, thunder(bird) opening his eyes' (note that 'thunder(bird)' is 'sudden' + (in) face')

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(xʷ'micəsem 'pass s-th by hand')
(pələqʷ 'peek over, rise (of sun)' (-əqʷ 'top of head'))
ə'leʃkʷ 'pinch'
syəmyəm 'pregnant'
ə'ə̱ləxʷ 'girl at puberty'
kʷə'məmt 'raise s-o or s-th'
cə'cəces 'reach with hand' (cə'cət 'send it', -cəes 'hand')
təl'əxʷ 'realize it, learn it, understand it' (təl
'learn', -l (> * after l), -əxʷ)
hək'wəles 'remember, remember it'
qə'w 'to rest, relax'
yə'kə't 'rub it, rub s-th or s-o'
xʷəmxˈələm 'run' (xʷəm 'hur-,* be fast', derivational
ablaut to /a/, -xəl 'feet', -əm 'middle-passive'),
(xʷəmxˈələm 'running, racing (of people, animals, etc.)'
shows 'continuative' ablaut even in suffix)
xəyq'ət 'scratch s-th (to itch)' (cp. xəyəp'ət 'scrape
s-th, scratch s-th (leaving marks)')
kʷəcem 'scream', skʷəcem 'a scream'
kʷəcləxʷ 'see s-th or s-o'
siwəlmət 'sense s-th (that will happen)' (-əwəl 'inside'
or -əwəl 'mind, thought', -mət 's-th (object)')
(kʷəlcə'səls 'shaking hands' (kʷəl 'hold in the hand',
-cəes 'hand', -ə'ls 'intransitive'), kʷəlcə'est 'shake
s-o's hand')
(qʷəyəxəlecem 'shake or swivel one's hips' (qʷəyəx 'shake',
-əlec 'rump, hips', -əm)
skʷəc 'sight'
əmət 'sit, sit down (if standing), sit up (if lying),
squat'
c'əlecem 'sit down, take a seat' (c'ə 'on top', -əlec
'rump', -əm)
ə'ltət 'sleep; go to sleep', ə'ltət 'sleeping, asleep',
ə'ltətem 'sleepy', ə'ltətem 'fall asleep'
há'qʷət 'smell it on purpose', há'qʷlexʷ 'smell it accidentally, há'qʷəm 'to give off a smell'
xʷliyəmsə 'to smile' (xʷ- 'pertaining to the head', liyəm 'laugh', -es 'face')
həsem 'to sneeze' (imitative)
xʷiːqʷəm 'to snore' (imitative)
xəɣəxəm 'to sob' (/xəɡəxəm/, ə-í- 'diminutive', xəm 'cry,weep')
ɪxʷáːt 'spit it out', ɪxʷəcəc 'spitting' (ə-cəc 'unclear liquid')
p'iʔət 'squeeze it'
ɪxəɣləxʷ 'stand up' (ə- meaning unknown, xəɣl- 'feet', -xʷ 'upright!')
kʷəkʷəcələs 'staring', kʷəcəst 'stare or look at s-o-s face')
ʔəmət 'step on it' (cp. ʔəmexʷ 'walk'(cp. 'take a step') (st'əqəl 'stick out, protrude' (st'ə 'like, similar to', -qəl 'nose')(included as it shows one Stalo conception of the function of the nose)
ʔət'əçət 'stretch oneself' (?ət 'stretched')
p'í'qʷt 'stroke it, pet it'
ʔə'qʷət 'suck it'
qəməx 'suckle' (< qəx 'water' or its bound allomorph qə-)
məq'ət 'swallow it' (məq 'full with food (in belly)')
yə'qʷəm 'to sweat'
t'íxʷəm 'swim', t'ít'əcəm = x̂iyəxʷəkʷəm 'swimming (of human)' (ə-í- 'diminutive', x̂iyəkʷəm 'bathe')
tɪq'yələm 'take a step' (-x̂iyəl is stressed version of -x̂iyəl)
qʷə'l 'talk, speak' (qʷəqʷəl 'talking, speaking')
t'ət 'taste, taste it, try, try it'
tət'ilt 'thinking on it, pondering, studying, training'
(tət'ilt 'learn it', -ə-í- 'continuative', -Íl 'go, come, get', -t '3rd person object purposive')
sf't't 'tickle s-o', s ét'x Yt 'tickle s-o's feet' (-x Yel loses the el before -t 'purposive, 3rd person obj.')
tôsélëxW 'touch or bump s-o accidentally', tásët 'touch s-o on purpose'
tàc'lëxW 'turn or snap the eyes away (from s-o?) in disgust'
tel'ämët 'understand' (tel- 'learn', -lámët 'by oneself')
(cp. 'thinking', 'realize')
sôxWë 'urinate; urine'
q'wégwélémqël '(a boy's) voice is changing' (q'wágwél 'tame', derivational ablaut to /i/, -ëm 'middle-passive'
or possibly 'strength', -eqël 'throat')
xWîy 'wake', xWîyet 'wake up', sxWôxWîy 'awake' (the root is //xWôy//), xWîylâmët 'wake oneself', xWîyxët 'wake s-o up'
ôimëxY 'walk' (?ôm 'step', -ôxY 'upright')
ôqët 'whisper'
xYápem 'whistle', xYîxYìxpàm 'whistling'
ô'ik'wá'et 'wink at s-o', ô'ik'wá'stel 'wink at each other', ô'ô'ik'wá'sém 'winking', ô'ik'wá'ôsém 'to wink' (-ô's 'face', -ô'sëm 'eye', -tel 'reciprocal')
(ô'ôxW 'wash', takes many somatic suffixes)
wiqes 'yawn' (wiqët 'spread or widen it (of a canoe for example)', -ôs 'face')
tôm(ôt) 'yell, shout, holler' (-ôt is apparently not the purposive suffix here), tôm 'a shout or yell'
q'ëyxWôlëm 'to yell' (meaning may be too general)

13.1.6.2. Body Products.
lelëc' 'bile; gall-bladder' (lëc', 'full')
sékgëyel 'blood' (s- + reduplication)
sôqWëm 'breath' (s-)
sôqë? 'excrement' (s-)
stôq' 'a fart'
séyle tel 'footprints, tracks' (s-, séyl 'mark, write', -tel 'device, thing for')
sláš 'grease, fat, oil, lard' (s-)
sqa'má: 'milk; breast' (s-, qema: 'suckle')
má's 'milk (slang term)'
sqíqw 'menstrual blood' (s-, qíqw 'menstruating')
mé'at 'pus'
qéyqéjyjálæ: 'shadow' (qéyy 'be black', derivational
deglottalization, reduplication, -ælæ: unknown unless
related to -æl, -æle 'container')
smóteqsel 'snot' (s-, r.m.u., -qsél 'in the nose')
sæ'æjæ'læqsæl 'dried-up snot' (s-, r.m.u., -qsæl 'in
the nose')
séxwækcs(s) 'spit' (-s optional, s-)
syá:qéwæ 'sweat' (s-)
qæqæ'æles 'tear' (qæ(?)- ~ qæ: 'water', -æ'æles 'in the eye')
séqé'ælewæl 'thoughts, feelings' (s-, qéwæl 'talk', sqéwæl
'words', -ælewæl 'in the mind')
sæxwæ 'urine; to urinate' (s- disappears before s)
sy'æt 'vomit' (s-)
(not yet elicited: 'sleep in the eye', 'ear-wax', 'sperm')


13.1.6.3.1. Living or healthy, dead or sick:
qæ'æylexlæ 'alive, in good health' (qæ'y 'keep on going')
me qæ'æylexlæ 'come alive, come back to life (lit. and
figuratively), get better, get well' (me 'come')
me qæ'æylexlæsæxlæ 'keep s-o alive' (-st, -æx)
me qæ'æylexlælæxlæ 'bring s-o back to life, save s-o's life'
(-l, -æx)
spalelwæ'æ 'corpse; ghost' (s-, r.m.u., -æ'æ 'clothing',
perhaps spalelwæ represents a word for 'soul' or 'spirit')
quà: 'die, dead'
xæ: 'died in a group (in epidemic, fire, etc.)'
xʷɛ·lqel 'I almost died' (xʷɛ·lq 'almost, nearly', -ɛl 'I (subject)')
hf·qsel 'drop dead' (possibly root related to that in hf₁·em: 'to fall from a height', suffix probably -qsel 'on the nose')
wōqʷ 'drown'
lícxʷ weʔəy (?)a(l) 'how are you feeling?, are you doing good?', lícxʷ wetuʔəya 'are you feeling a little better?', cel tuʔəya 'I'm fine'
q'ɪəh·qet 'it healed up' (q'ɪəh 'heal', -qet 'itself')
q'á·yt 'kill s-th or s-o'
s?i·kwʷ 'lost (and presumed dead)' (s-, ?i·kwʷ 'get lost')
le q'ęp 'he passed on a disease, he got addicted (to anything)' (le '3rd person subject, past tense')
q'ęp·lexʷ 'pass on a disease to s-o, get s-o addicted'
kʷeml·met 'pull through (an illness), pull through or raise oneself (from childhood through puberty to maturity)' (kʷem·met 'raise s-o', -l·met 'oneself')
(me) q'ɪəyeł 'recover, get better' (me 'come' optional, reduplication prefix function unclear, ?ɪə 'good')
q'áq'əy 'sick; dying' (q'á·y 'die', -C₁ə 'continuative')
sq'áq'əy 'sickness; dead for awhile' (s- nominalizer or participializer) 
me q'áq'systexʷ 'make s-o sick' (-st, -exeʷ)
q'áq'syxeł 'sick foot or leg' (-xeł 'in foot or leg', just one example of many)
xʷɛ 'starve (and die)'

13.1.6.3.2. Symptom/state/illness/disability:
(A common suffix is -(ə)tem which seems to mean 'state of (verb)' though it derives ultimately from the -et transitivizer plus -em 'middle-passive'.)
sé·yem 'to ache, be sore, to pain'
xʷ·p'qʷtem tel seʔá·m 'my bones are aching'
χέłe tel ὑπὲρ ἐμ 'my heart is aching'
sφ'ςi 'afraid, nervous'
sθ'άq'wελq'w 'bald' (s-, r.m.μ.ε., -ελq'w 'on top of head')
cσθ'ελεχε 'strawberry birthmark on arm' (σθ'ε 'strawberry', -ελεχε 'on arm')
cαλέχε 'bleed', κάλεχε 'bleeding'
cάφε 'blind' (κάφε 'be black', derivational deglottalization, -ες 'in the face')
cάλε 'a blister', κάλε 'be blistered'
sκ'ελε 'a boil'
ρεισκέκε 'sǐk'wem (κ'w - q'w) 'breathless, no breath'
st'ά'γε 'brooding' (symptom of spirit sickness)
t'φεqel 'be bruised', t'φεqel te q'όl'ες 'his eye is bruised',
st'ίt'φεqel 'a bruise', st'ίt'φεqε 'black eye, bruised eye'
q'σψεm 'walk with a cane', sq'ψε 'person with a cane'
(q'ψε 'cane', s-, -ε unclear, -(ε)m or -εm 'middle-passive')
sκ'ε 'can't, unable, impossible'
k'ελεx'wes te sθ'άqem 'he caught a cold', k'ελεx'wes te
stάq'wem 'he caught a cough' (k'εl 'get', -l 'happen to, accidentally', -ex 'it', te 'a, the', see below for 'cold' and 'cough')
sπ'όl'εx 'chickenpox'
θ'άqem 'chilled', θ'άθε 'being chilled'
(s)θ'άqem sq'άqε 'a cold' (lit: "chill sickness")
q'σψεm 'come out (of hair')
χέθεκ'wελ 'constipated' (χέθε 'wedged in tight',
-ελ 'in the anus or insides')
c'ίψεk'wεl 'constipated' (c'ίψε 'dry', -εl)
t'έk'wεl 'constipated' (t'έk 'mired', -εl)
c'έq'έk 'convulsions, fits'
tάq'wem 'to cough', stάq'wem 'a cough' (s-)
q'έλπεm 'to cramp, have cramps', q'έλπεm 'cramped',

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q'εq'εlptem 'cramping' (p - p' in each case) (compare q'εlp't 'shrink it', q'εlp'εt 'shrink', and q'εlq'εlp' 'tangled on its own (of net, hair, etc.))
sx'ξ'lc'iyeœel 'to have a crooked jaw (from birth, injury, or from getting bumped by a ghost)' (s-, x'ξ'lc' 'turned the wrong way, twisted', -iyeœel < -ξ'yœel 'in the jaw')
κ'εk'wœl'c (k' - q' - k'w) 'deaf' (r.m.u.)
κ'εx'ytem 'diarrhea' (possibly < κ'εx'y 'ripped apart'), κ'εx'ytem 'continuing diarrhea'
sx'ele'tem or sx'lc'tem 'dizzy'
sxæles 'dizzy; drunk' (sxæl 'spin around', -æs 'in face')
c'fxwxœqel 'dry in the throat', c'fxwœqel'œlœm 'my throat is dry'
sælæk'wœwel 'dumbfounded, speechless, stupified, surprised' (s- + -ælœ-participial verb, ḫ'a'k'w 'to fly', -œwel 'inside, in the anus; in the rump')
sc'œlœm te skwxœ 'eyesight is fading'
mezæ'wœsem 'to faint' (mezæ 'forget', -œw 'in the body', -œm 'middle-passive')
q'εq'εmtem 'forgetful, absent-minded' (q'εq'εm 'short (of memory, of reach, of food, etc.)')
lex'wxœlewæ 'forgetful; passed out if drunk' (lex'w 'always', œlewæ (œlwæ) 'forget', -œwel 'in the mind')
plæw'œtem 'he got ghosted' ('ghost' minus s- > plæw'œtem 'to ghost', -œt 'someone, he, etc.', -œm 'passive')
sæc'œ 'goiter, lump on person or tree (burl)'
χéɛlc'œlœsem 'grinding one's teeth' (χélc' 'twist, turn around', -œlœs 'teeth' or 'in the teeth', -œm)
?áœœt 'to groan', ?i?áœœt 'groaning' (compare ?áœœt 'call s-o', -œœt 'oneself')
ξœq'œq'œq'œy 'half dead, half paralyzed'
χεx'œqel 'headache' (' ~ ') (χεx 'ache, hurt', -œqel 'in the head')
tsá's 'heartbroken, poor, destitute'
yeq'iles 'heartburn' (yeq 'burn', -í'les 'in the chest')
θ'k'íwél 'hemorrhoids, open sores in rump or genitals'
(compare s-θ'eθ'ík'w 'open sore', -í'wél 'in the rump,
anus, inside, genitals') (loss of vowel length seems
to be due to speed of pronunciation and dialect; Tait
dialect speakers seldom omit length even in rapid
speech while Chehalis dialect speakers do much more
readily, sometimes even in slow speech)
t'emiyę, t'emiyę 'hermaphrodite baby'
k'wák'wes 'hot' (k'wes 'get burned (of a person)')
sq'amècel 'hunchback, lump on the back' (s-q'á'm 'lump',
-ècel < -í'ceł 'on the back')
χé 'to hurt, ache (of head, ear, stomach, etc.)'
sx'á'x'ë 'to be insane, crazy', sx'ix'á'x'ë 'a little
crazy, stupid'
sk'wëy k's'ítet 'have insomnia, can't sleep'
χëyyëc'em 'to itch', χëyyëc'eméet "real itching"
lelôc 'jaundice, bile trouble; bile; gall-bladder' (lòc'
'full')
sk'wîylec 'lame (of hip, esp. from birth)' (s-, k'wiy
'climbs', -lec 'on the rump (or hip)')
słk'walec 'lame hip or leg; to limp; cripple(d)' (s-,
lôk 'broken (bone)', -alôc 'in the rump (or hip)')
q'á'mè 'lump', sq'ämq'á'mè 'lots of lumps (any size);
anthills')
qf'w 'menstruate', qf'sw 'menstruating', sk'w'x'á's sq'ág'ey
'menstruation' (sk'w'x'á's 'moon', sq'ág'ey 'sickness')
sk'wëy k's'q'ëls 'mute, he can't talk'
héystél'mél 'nauseated' (héyst or héyst 'vomiting', -él'mél
'in the mind')
sf'si 'nervous, afraid'
χ'ák'weltem 'numb' (χ'ák'wel 'get numb' (-el < -í'el 'get, 
go, come'), χ'ák'welx'el 'numb in the foot, one's
foot is asleep

pq'atwes 'out of breath, overtired and overhungry (simultaneously)' (peq'w 'split in half by hand' (like of an apple'), -t-wes 'in the chest')
t'eq'w te st'eq'wem (k't'w - q'w) 'run out of breath, break one's breath' (t'eq'w 'break (of a rope)')

k'wes 'overheated' (k'wes 'burned (of a person)')
t'eq'w'ët 'pass out, faint' (t'eq'w 'break or split (of a rope)', -ët 'in the throat') (see also 'faint' and 'forgetful')

q'ët 'paralyzed; dead, die'
sy'tëtem 'poisoned' (-s, y'tëtem 'to poison', -t-ëm)

x'ëp'q'tem 'rheumatism, aching (of bones)'

q't'eq'wem 'to rot'

i'x'ëlq'ëm 'runny nose!' (i'ëx'w 'to spit', -ëlq'ëm 'nose'
or 'in the nose')
sq'ëy'w 'a scar' (s- nominalizer, q'ëy'w 'heal')
i'ëtetem 'to shiver, shivering, trembling' (see 'tremble'),
i'ëtëtem 'I'm shivering'
x'ël'ëf's 'fatal shock (with vomiting)' (upon seeing a supernatural sël'ëf'em creature)
sx'yiyf'wes 'smallpox' (s-, root possibly x'yëy 'fish scales', -f'wes 'on the body')
p'då, me p'då 'to sober up', sp'ëp'ëf 'sober, sobered up'
(s- + -ëf- participial verb)

sé'ëf'ëk'w 'open sore', sé'ëk'ëf'ëk'w 'open sores'
x'tëls 'put/cast/throw a spell', x'tët 'put or cast a spell on s-o'

yewf'ëlt 'cast an evil spell on s-o', syewf'ël 'an evil spell, power to do witchcraft and predict future',
syëd'we 'witch, seer' (s-, yëw - yëf'w 'supernatural power', -f'l 'get, go, come')
syëwël sq'ëq'ëy 'spirit sickness' (s-yëwël 'guardian spirit, spirit power, possession by spirit') (symptoms
of spirit sickness are: depression, insomnia, hearing songs and drumming not physically present, pain in the chest, and some others)

χεσελ 'get spooked, fear something behind one'
sp'f'q 'white spotted skin' (s- p'q 'white', + ablaut for derivation), sp'eqsp'f'q 'many white spots on skin'
t'α 'to sprain', t'αt'stel s'?f'lwe 'sprain my side'
c'?d'w?xv'l 'sprain one's ankle' (r.m.u.)
χw?e?d?w?xv'l 'ankle joint; sprained ankle', χw?e?d?w?cas 'wrist, hand joint; sprained wrist' (r.m.u.)
telstem 'get staggered', (yi)telstem and χw?eláystem 'staggering' (r.m.u., -t-em)
χw'l 'to starve, starving'
χewlwe 'have a stomach-ache' (χel 'hurt', -elwe 'in the stomach')
q'a'y te ?qf'ws 'a stroke, half the body paralyzed'
s?c'cc 'stuttering', ?c'cc 'to stutter' (compare
?c'c-1-oxw 'hear about it') (imitative reduplication)
cxwstem 'swelling (of infected sore, of balloon, etc.)',
cecfx 'swollen'
Cheh.: ιqalle, Chil.: cqalle 'thirsty' (ι- c- verb-forming, qá 'water', -elle unknown)
kweméet 'throw a tantrum, throw oneself on ground in a tantrum, drop oneself into a seat angrily' (kwem 'to club', -et 'oneself')
texwem tel θelle 'my heart is thumping'
șiws, χέm 'tired' (-iws 'in the body', χέ 'hurt',
-емся 'strength'), q'ayiws 'tired' (q'ay 'dead or paralyzed', -iws 'in the body')
mem ('or me mÉ) te yél's 'the tooth came out' (mé 'come out, come off', me- reduplication or mé 'come!')
yélyelesem 'a steady toothache' (reduplication is 'plural'
or 'continuative', yél's 'tooth', -em verb-forming)
símeqel 'tooth/teeth missing, toothless' (s-, 1em 'rain
or spray' as in i'mex' 'to rain', i'me'mex' 'rain-showering off and on', and si'mex'vel 'dew'. ("rain on the feet"), -eqel 'in the throat'; "rain in the throat" would refer to the juicier sound of speech by people with missing teeth)
i'txtem 'to tremble', i'txtem 'trembling, shivering'
('shiver-ing' is to tremble more than once)
q'welqel 'trenchmouth' (q'wel 'cooked; ripe', -qel 'in the throat')
tateq'wemestem 'tuberculosis' (tateq'we 'coughing', ablaut or -âmes (meaning unknown) or -es 'in the face', -t-em)
y't 'to vomit', héyet or héyet 'vomiting'
sc'épxwel 'wax' (s-, c'épx 'dirty', ë > x' derivational?, -el unknown)
qelé'm 'weak' (qel 'bad', -ël 'strength', ëyém 'strong' < "good strength")
p'eq'syl to 's?á'es 'the face got white' (p'eq 'white', -sy < -î1 'go, come, get')
sp'iq 'white spotted skin' as above

13.1.6.3.3. Accident/injury:

Most of the verb roots below can be used with most of the somatic suffixes. What follows is merely a cross-section. Analysis is evident from suffixes already listed previously.

sq'ëyk'w 'a bite' (s-)
lekw'át 'break a bone', slí k'w 'broken (of a bone)',
lekw'lek'w 'all broken up (of all or many bones, also of sticks)', lekw'elékel 'break an arm', lek'wíyé'l 'broke a leg', lekw'épsam 'break one's neck', lekw'éwik 'break one's spine or back; have a hunchback'
ke'wës 'get burned, got burned', k'wíwís 'singh hairs off
skin', k'w'esá'yel 'burned on lips', k'w'es(e)qel 'burned in the mouth' (it appears from this that -eqel 'in the throat' includes the inside of the mouth too), k'w'éscas 'burned on the hand', etc.

?áq'et 'choke on bone or s-th solid'
t'k'w'f'lés - t'ék'w'fles 'choke on food', tsék'w'cles 'choking on food' (t'sék'w' 'mired', -f'les 'in the chest')
lex'séem 'choke on water or liquid' (lex's- 'always', sém < sém 'to rain or spray')
p'ió'tel 'choke s-o' (p'iët 'squeeze', -lél - -lèl 'in the front of the neck', -t 's-o')
t'sémral 'chop one's foot' (as with an ax), similarly t'sémces, t'sémqesel, etc.
k'w'elóxel 'club on the arm', many others (see exx. of somatic suffixes)
íc'et 'cut s-th or s-o', lóc'lex'w 'cut s-o accidentally', lóc'ces 'cut a hand or finger', sx'fic'ces 'a cut on the hand or finger', líc'elóxel 'cut one's arm'
c'ëq'w 'hit (with bullet, arrow, s-th shot), wounded, poked', c'ëq'w lex'w 'hit (with arrow, etc.) accidentally'
x'mólkes 'get hit in the face by s-th falling'
téc'ces 'hit on the hand with a hammer, hammered on hand'
lá'met 'hit s-th with s-th thrown', lá'm li te têpsem 'hit in the neck with s-th thrown'
mè'k'wè 'to get hurt, be hurt'
Θq'et 'poke, prick, or stab s-o, spear s-th (for ex. fish), pierce s-th'
Θ'íg'west 'punch s-o in the face'
Θ'íg' 'run over (by car, train, etc.), get wedged (by falling tree), stuck in a trap'
χëyp'et 'scrape s-o or s-th, scratch it (and leave mark)'
?íy te mëqsel 'scratched on the nose, the nose is scratched'
k'wélëx'yt 'shoot s-o or s-th, sting s-o'
c'á·l tel čélax̂ 'skin my hand, peel the skin on my hand'
sx̂ yəc, x̂ yel 'splinter or sliver in the foot', sx̂ yəc, cəs
'splinter or sliver in the hand or finger'
t'á 'to sprain'
sx̂ əx̂ 'a wound' (s-)

13.1.6.3.4: Medicine/curing:

q'èp'et 'bandage it up, tie it up' (the latter meaning
is the basic one—there is no specific word just mean-
ing 'to bandage')

q'èwe 'a cane'

ləc 'cured, healed', ləc, wet 'cure s-o by Indian doctor-
ing; chase s-th away from s-o', ləc, wetem 'cured by
Indian doctoring', ləc, wəwəl 'curing by Indian doctor-
ing, a medicine man "working"'

sx̂ əm 'Indian doctor, medicine man, shaman'

kəwək, wəfələt 'training oneself to be an Indian doctor
or spirit dancer' (kəwək, wəf 'climbing', -ələt 'one-
self')

tąkə 'non-Indian doctor'

q'əyək, ətet 'it healed up' (q'əyək 'heal', -ətet 'itself')

c'əlx̂ ətel 'looking for lice in s-o's head' (perhaps
'looking for lice in each other's head') (məx c'əl
'louse' + metathesis (derivative) > c'əlx̂ , -əl
'reciprocal')

cəl xəxəs 'I made it (if laxative finally works)' (r.m.u.)

st'əlmezə 'medicine' (r.m.u., unless st'ələm 'song')

st'əlmezə 'eye medicine'

st'əlmezəfəwəl 'love medicine' (fəwəl 'in genitals or
insides')

xwəq'ələ, ətel 'hangover medicine' (possibly xwəq'əle
'scouring rush, horsetail', ətel 'medicine' (incl;
-əl 'device, thing for'))

əsələ, ətel 'heart medicine, juniper' (əsəle 'heart','
-?é:1tel 'medicine') syé:ttel 'throw-up medicine' (s-ýé:t 'vomit', -tel 'device or thing to') xýaxýemét te cmél 'looking after s-o having a baby, midwifing' (also without the reduplication) nérts 'nurse' (< English) sqíqemel 'puberty hut' (sqamél 'pit house', C₁- 'diminutive') mè?él.6sém 'pulled out (of a tooth or teeth)' (mē 'take out, come out', -?é:ls 'tooth', -em 'passive') méxýés te yél.6s 'he took out or pulled the tooth' (mē 'take out', -exý '3rd person object', -es '3rd person subject') Tait: mī ck'wc, Chill.: mī sk'wc 'recover sight, sight came' (mī 'come') sák'wem 'outer cedar bark splint! (the word may also mean 'outer bark') qstí:wsem 'take a sweatbath' (qē 'water', -t unknown here, -1ws '(on) the body', -em 'middle-passive') xýéxt'áles 'trillium' (cataract medicine, possibly < xýéxt'em 'swim (of a fish)', C₁- 'continuative', -á:les 'in the eyes'; this may also be the word for 'cataracts')


Fish:
c'k'ém 'jump' (HABRI) t'iléqel 'a spawning salmon with eggs loose and dangling' k'wámex 'salmon after spawning (no eggs left)' xéqye 'old salmon ready to die' cem'élem 'spawning' xýlétem 'swimming (of fish)' probably plus some verbs also used for humans like k'wécléx 'see it', lép'axý 'eat it', etc.
Animals:

-šlec 'animal or bird droppings' (< -šlec 'in the rump')
k’ášet 'to gallop'
χéyléem 'to growl (of an animal)' (cp. χéytem 'to growl (of humans, under the breath)')
q’éw 'howl'
q’lé 'talk' (HB and perhaps of frog also)
qu’áq’él 'tame'
χ’ap’šlecem (χ may ~ ḷ) 'wagging its tail' (sk’ap’šlec 'tail', possible ablaut may be 'continuative', -em is verb forming suffix or 'middle voice')
sk’ík’cwexɨ 'wild'
plus many verbs also used for humans such as q’ék’wet 'bite into it', c’émet 'bite on it, put in mouth',
lép’exɨ 'eat s-th', k’ík’clow 'see it', tel’ámeth 'understand', q’á’y 'die', etc.

Birds:

-šlec 'animal or bird droppings'
lákw 'to fly'
χ’ex’wé-yižem 'hatch eggs, brood, incubate or sit on eggs' (χ’exw 'cover over', -yž unknown unless related to -á:lž 'young', -em 'middle-passive')
qu’elayáf’él 'make music' (q’él 'talk', ál’yél 'in lips', ál ‘go, come, get', -em 'middle-passive')
smíéléhá.lžé.lé 'little bird's nest' (s-, Cí- 'diminutive', mæmæhelá.lé 'egg' (< mæmæ 'children', -há:lž 'young'), -lé 'container (of)'
táp’él 'to peck'
t’f’él 'sing'
q’élé 'talk', q’lq’él 'warning (a different cry)'
plus many verbs also used for humans such as lép’exɨ, k’ík’clow, etc.
Insects:
q'eyk'et 'bite s-o' (HAFBR)
£k'w 'to fly' (B)
c'äm 'to jump' (HAFBR)
t'lem 'to sing (used in place of a word 'to buzz')
kw'elox'y 'sting s-o, shoot s-o or s-th' (kw'elox'y 'shoot
(with arrow, gun, etc.)' < kw'el- 'hold in hand',
-ex'y 'upright')
probably plus other verbs also used for humans like
kw'aclex', lêpex'y, etc.

Reptiles:
sq'eló-w 'coiled (of snake)' (s-, q'el as in q'elq'é1-p',
'tangled (on itself)' or q'elq'é1-ç' 'tangled on s-th,
snagged', -ç'w unknown), sq'elc'elé-w 'coiling (of a
snake), ready to strike' (reduplication 'plural/continuative')
qw'el 'talk, croak (of frog)' (HAB)
c'äm 'jump' (HAFBR) ɕq'em 'hiss, whisper' (H)
probably plus other verbs also used for humans like
kw'aclex', lêpex'y, etc.

13.1.7. Morphosememic Patterns of Anatomy.

In 5.2.1 the somatic suffixes were presented,
showing that about a third of them have a suppletive
relationship to their equivalent independent words; the
remainder are etymologically related to the independent
word equivalents. The somatic suffix system is extensive
in that about a quarter of all the independent words for
body parts have somatic suffix equivalents. The system-
atic morphosememic feature shared by these somatic suf-
fixes is that they are morphosememically locative ('on
or in the ('body part') except when used in independent body part words; in the latter case the meaning shifts to become partitive ('of the (body part)').

In section 3 the independent words for body parts were presented and morphosemantically analyzed. There are several systematic features that can be seen in the analysis. 1. As with somatic suffixes (for ex. -ces 'on the hand or finger', -x'el 'on the foot or leg'), the division of the body by the Halkomelem words is sometimes different from English divisions (tōpsem 'back of the head and back of the neck', sy̱l̓ e 'leg and foot', etc.).

2. The independent words are extremely analyzable compared to the English equivalents.

3. There is marked morphosememic parallelism in the treatment of the parts of the hands and feet, of the knuckles, ankles and wrists, of the elbow and shin, of the hair (other than on top of the head), and of the genitals. Thus in both hands and feet: the fingers and toes 'widen' the limb, the thumb and big toe are the 'stout member' or 'stout part' of the limb, the palm and the sole are the 'face' of the limb, the hollow of the hand and arch of the foot are 'going downriver on the face' of the limb, and the nails of both hands and feet are the 'grayish' parts. The knuckles, ankles and wrists are 'lumps' and the joints of the ankle and wrist can both
be named by a root that also means they are sprained. The elbow and shin are both called the 'bone' of their limbs (arm and leg), while the penis, head of the penis, and vagina/vulva all begin with the same root, $x^V$, and prefix $s$-. The hair other than on the top of the head is differentiated by the somatic suffixes and pluralized by reduplication.

4. All the independent body part words can be fit within ten derivational types: a. unanalyzable at present (no suffixes detectable, about 22 cases), b. root meaning unknown (suffixes segmentable, about 22 cases), c. root semantically empty (with somatic suffixes whose locative meaning is cancelled out; examples include the nose, mouth, tooth, tongue, back of head and neck, chest, belly, rib, rump, and possibly heart and heel—with roots $m$-, $o$-, $y$-, $t$-, $z$-, $k^W$-, $l$-, $i$-, and possibly $o'$- and $o''$-, respectively), d. verb roots describing an action or function of the body part (about 21 examples including: 'chop, mark, braid, come out (of hair), bite on, talk, greedy/eat too much, carry on shoulders, club, widen (2 cases), point/aim, marry, suckle, come out above (2 cases), go into quieter backwater, wedged in, fly strength, have an erection, and cover over'), e. adjectival verb roots of descriptive nature (about 15 examples including including: 'soft, red, tangled, black, blue (2 cases), spotted, wet, stout (3 cases), wide (3 cases),

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good, full), f. adverbial verb roots (nine examples:
'above (2 examples), below, right, left, middle, down-
river (2 cases), across'), g. body part roots (15 exam-
pies including only multiple examples of 'bone', 'hair',
flesh', and 'face'), h. descriptive noun roots (about
nine examples including five of 'lump', and one each of
'hole', 'half', 'stone' and 'fat'), i. noun kinterm root
(one or two examples include 'youngest child' in 'little
finger' and 'child' in 'womb'; if s-mél is 'have a child'
then this latter example ('womb') belongs in group d.),
and j. noun root to describe function (one example
'bladder' < 'urine container' < 'urine' root).

5: The suffixes used in the independent body part words
are mostly somatic; the few that are not include: -á·ls
'round thing; fruit', -élz - -é·lé 'container', -é·lo'
'twisting around', -tel 'device, thing to' or 'recipro-
cal', -ámél 'part, member', -ówél - -éwél 'canoe', -é·mec'
'standing upright', -ém 'strength', possibly -ét 'itself'.

In section 4 we examined the pósqₐtel, the anatomi-
cal insult, and discovered 50 examples. These consist of
an adjectival verb, a verb of another type or a noun,
followed by a somatic suffix, with three exceptions ('big
nose' and 'big belly' have prefixes on the independent
body part word instead, and 'ugly' uses the suffix -á·mexₙ
'-looking, in looks, in appearance' which is not somatic
but is close). The verb and noun roots have a morpho-
sememic pattern: they describe size and shape (32 examples including: 'big, sloppy, pointed, high, flat, long, hooking, round, scrawny, crooked, boney, wide, and short'), looks (nine examples including 'bad', 'cross' (< 'bad'), 'ugly' (< 'disappointed and angry looking'), 'dirty', and 'black'), anatomy (two examples, 'hairy' and 'snotty'); four examples use analogies (sturgeon eyes, marble eyes, climbing rump, and tail (> 'rump')), and three examples describe miscellaneous actions (fast mouth, spray or moisture in the mouth (> 'toothless, teeth missing'), and something spit out of the nose. The largest number of examples found with one root have the bound root $\Theta\cdot \ 'big'$, modified in several ways. $\Theta \ - \ \Theta\Theta\ 'big'$ sometimes appears (reduced ablaut grades), sometimes prefixed with $\chi^w$- 'pertaining to the head or part of the head', sometimes reduplicated for 'plural', $\Theta\Theta\Theta \ - \ \Theta\Theta\Theta\Theta$. $\Theta\cdot$ only appears once (in 'loud voice') and is prefixed by $\chi^w$- 'pertaining to the head or part of the head' and then by $s\cdot$ 'nominalizer'. Still another variant exists for 'big' within the $\mu\Theta\mu\Theta\mu$, shifting the meaning of $s\cdot$ nominalizer to 'big' and prefixing it to two independent body part words ($\mu\Theta\mu\Theta\mu$ and $\chi^w\Theta\cdot\Theta$); this could be like calling someone 'The Nose' or 'The Belly' with the implication of huge dimensions. A final variant uses the normal word for 'big', $\hbar\kappa^w$, and applies it in a sentence to someone's uvula; the implication is that the person's
mouth is open so much that his uvula appears huge.

Section 5 listed terms of non-human anatomy, along with some words that apply to human as well as non-human. For the fish there are 21 terms that apply only to fish plus 17 which can also refer to other living creatures; the 17 words have already been analyzed under human anatomy; the 21 words of exclusively fish anatomy contain two parallels: s-χέp-ωqʷ 'soft gristle and insides of fish head' and s-χέp-x̱ʷə1 'fish tail (including soft gristle)' both have the root s-χέp- which apparently means 'soft edible gristle of fish'; qʷṯməl 'fin, neck fin, possibly back fin' and ṯməl 'belly fin' both have a rare lexical suffix which may mean 'fin'. The other thing to note about the set of 38 words is that they include the following somatic suffixes, all semantically extended to apply to the fish: -ωqʷ 'of the top of the head', -yə1 'of the jaw or lip', -x̱endency of the foot or leg', and possibly -es 'of the face' (in 'head').

Of animal body terms 32 apply to humans as well, while only eight or so do not: 'tuft of hair on horse's leg', 'fur, animal hair', 'horn, antler', 'animal tripe', 'tail', 'paw', 'hind leg', 'foreleg'. The total 40 words include the following somatic suffixes: -x̱endency of the foot or leg', -es 'of the hand or fingers', -wəl 'of the insides', -əl 'of the rump', -əwic 'of the back', -yə1 'of the jaw or lip', -əs 'of the tooth or teeth', -əl 'of
the tongue', -ฆ� 'of the front of the neck', and -េ្ក 'of the ribs'—all extended semantically to apply to animals.

There are about 24 words found so far for bird anatomy, eight of which do not also apply to human anatomy: 'egg', 'down, real fine feathers', 'small feather', 'long feather (of wing or tail)', 'wing', 'tail', and two words for 'beak, bill': The sizing of feathers is a morphosememic feature of interest, as is the analysis of 'egg' as 'children' + 'young'. The somatic suffixes used in the set of 24 words are: -េល័ 'of the rump', -េគ៉ោ 'of the insides', -េរៅ 'of the back of head and neck', -េលំ 'of the chest', and possibly -េៃសោ which could mean 'of the wing' or just 'feather'.

Terms for reptiles found so far include 12 terms also applicable to humans and just one that is not, ឈៀៃេ េល័ 'tail' (applicable to humans however as a slang term). Somatic suffixes used are: -េល័ 'of the rump', -េយ៉ោ 'of the jaw', -េេ័ 'of the tongue', and -េគ៉ោ 'of the insides'. Confirmed parts of insects include only three words, of which only ឈៀៃេ េល័ 'wing' cannot also apply to humans. Neither the reptile nor the insect sets show anything systematic in semantic design.

In non-human anatomy there are a few interesting omissions: no word for brain of fish (just ឈៀៃេ ក 'gristle and insides of head' is used), no word for rump
of an animal (just the word for 'hind leg' is used), and there is probably no word for chest of an animal (just the word for 'ribs' is used).

Section 6 covers functions and dysfunctions of the body. Most of these words are verbs; the main exceptions are body products, some illnesses and some medicines—these and a few other body dysfunctions are nominals. Body products include those resulting from both functions and dysfunctions. Body dysfunctions include the following subdivisions: living or healthy/dead or sick, symptom/state/illness/disability, accident/injury, and medicine/curing. One interesting semantic feature of these subdivisions is that words relating to living and healthy are semantically linked (ʔě·yələxʷ 'alive, in good health', me ʔě·yələxʷ 'get better, get well, come alive, come back to life'), as are words relating to dying and sick (q'áq'əy 'dying, sick', sq'áq'əy 'sickness; dead for awhile'). Another interesting feature is that what non-Indian doctors might regard as symptoms, dysfunctional body states and even psychological states are usually regarded as illnesses by the Upper Stalo and are treated by Indian doctors and by Indian medicines. Some of the psychological states are also treated by initiation into spirit dancing. The subdivisions of accident/injury and medicine/curing have been only sketched in outline here by very incomplete lists of words.
With the extensive use of somatic suffixes elsewhere one would expect much heavier use of them in the body function words than one finds. It seems there are a goodly number of body function roots which do not need (and do not allow) somatic suffixation. Those body function words which do use somatic suffixes show a clear morphosememic shift in the meanings of the somatic suffixes. The suffixes lose their locative meaning and become very nearly subjects of the verb root (for example, c'êlesem 'sit down, take a seat' < c'ê- 'be on top' + -le < 'rump' + -ôm 'middle-passive'). In some cases it is difficult to tell whether the somatic suffix has a subject or an object function (for example, m'êkôô 'kiss' -- is it < 'the mouth gets thick' or 'get the mouth thick'?).

With body dysfunctions this same shifting occurs except when the somatic suffixes are attached to roots that can also be used without somatic suffixes; this latter set needs the locativeness to specify the location of the dysfunction (for ex., q'âq'eyxôel 'sick in the foot', q'âq'ey 'sick'; lekôôpsôm 'break one's neck', s-lîkôô 'broken (of a bone)'). Somatic suffixes are used with almost all the accident/injury words and are there distinctly locative.

Morphosememic analysis of analyzable body function words shows several types of morphosememic derivation:
1. imitative, as in 'hiccough', 'sneeze', 'snore' and
possibly in 'blow', 'call s-o', 'cry, weep', 'defecate',
'growl (of stomach)', 'spit', 'whisper' and 'yawn'.
2. descriptive of appearance, as in 'stand up' < 'legs
upright', 'walk' < 'step upright', 'yawn' < 'widen or
spread face', 'kiss' < 'mouth thickens' or 'thicken the
mouth', 'shake hands' < 'hold a hand (in one's hand)',
'smile' < 'laugh on face', 'stick out, protrude' < 'like
a nose', 'make breathy noise' < 'talk in breath or throat',
'finished eating' < 'finish in lips or jaws', 'get up
with quick motion' < 'suddenly go or come upright', and
'blushing' < 'getting red in face'.
3. description of function, as in 'swallow' < 'fill it
with food', 'run' < 'feet hurry' or 'hurry the feet',
'thinking or pondering s-th' < 'go learning it on purpose',
'understand' < 'learn (by) oneself', 'realize it' < 'hap-
pen to learn it', 'know it' < 'happen or manage to believe
it', 'sit down, take a seat' < '(put) rump on top, rump
is on top', 'masturbate' < 'bring oneself to a summit',
'guess' < 'similar in the mind', 'one's voice is changing'
< 'the throat is tamed' or 'tame the throat'.
4. diminutive, as in 'swimming' < 'little bathing', 'sob'
< 'little cry(ing) or weep(ing)'.
5. pluralizing, as in 'expect' < 'look a number of times'.

Body products are mostly body function words nomi-
nalized with s- (at least eight and possibly 14 of the 19
words fit this description). The rest are mostly descrip-
tive of the product's function: 'thoughts, feelings' < 'talk in the mind' (incidentally a nice confirmation of the Whorf hypothesis), 'footprint' < 'thing that marks', 'milk; breast' < 'suckled thing'; three are descriptive: 'tear' < 'water of the eye', 'bile; gall-bladder' < 'full (+ unknown affix)', 'shadow' < 'black (+ unknown affix)'.

In the area of body dysfunctions, little other than anecdotal can be said about words relating to life/death/sickness/health: 'corpse, ghost' < 'clothing of (the soul?)', 'almost died' < 'almost' (verbal taboo?), 'drop dead' < '(fall?) on one's nose'.

Words relating to symptom/state/illness/disability, however, do contain some systematic morphosememic organization:

1. Fifteen of these words are formed with -tem 'state of (verb)', which derives morphosemically from the -t 'third person object, on purpose' + -em 'middle-passive voice'; all are descriptive of physical appearance or feeling and can be inflected for first or second person subject by changing the passive ending (1 sg. -èlem, 2 sg. -eëm, 1 pl. -tálxes, 2 pl. -tâllem, 3 -tem).

Thus ἰτηθετεμ is '(third person) is/are trembling or shivering' and ἰτηθεελεμ is 'I'm shivering or trembling'.

2. Related to this is the large number of words ending in -em 'middle-passive' without the -t; there are 14 or 15 of these words (which seem to be conjugated with active
subjects).

3. Words descriptive of feelings: 'weak' < 'bad strength', 'rheumatism' < 'aching', 'dizzy, drunk' < 'face spins around', 'dumbfounded, speechless' < 'rump or insides flying up', 'tired' < 'hurt strength' and also < 'dead in the body', 'nauseated' < 'vomiting in the mind', 'blind' < 'black in the face', 'headache' < 'hurt in the head', 'stomach ache' < 'hurt in the stomach', 'to cramp' < either 'tangled on its own accord' or 'shrunk', 'constipated' (three words) < 'wedged or tight in the anus', < 'dry in the anus' and < 'mired in the anus', 'heartburn' < 'burn (of a fire) in the chest', 'trenchmouth' < 'cooked in the throat', 'faint' < 'the body is forgotten', 'passed out drunk; forgetful' < 'always forgetful in the mind', 'pass out, faint (probably due to lack of air)' < 'break or split rope in throat', 'run out of breath' < 'break or split rope of breath', and 'simultaneously out of breath, overtired and overhungry' < 'split (in) the chest' (as to split apple by hand). The last five show two subsystems at work: 'faint' and 'pass out (if drunk)' are derived from the root 'to forget', and three 'out of breath' words are derived from 'break or split rope' or 'split (by hand)'.

4. Words descriptive of appearance: 'black eye' < 'bruised on eye', 'tuberculosis' < 'coughing face', 'jaundice' < 'bile' < 'gall-bladder' < 'full', 'lame'
< 'climbing rump', 'hunchback' < 'lump on the back', 'hemmorhoids' < 'open sores in rump', 'strawberry birthmark on arm' < 'strawberry on arm', 'wart' < 'dirty (+ unknown affix)', 'diarrhea' < 'ripped up', 'have a crooked jaw' < 'jaw twisted or turned wrong way', 'smallpox' < 'gills on the body'.

5. Words descriptive of actions: 'grinding one's teeth' < 'twisting or turning the teeth the wrong way', 'throw a tantrum' < 'club oneself', 'scar' < 'something healed', 'toothless, teeth missing' < 'moisture or spray in throat' (referring to the sound of spittle during talking), and 'runny nose' < 'to spit from nose'.

6. Words descriptive of functions: 'paralyzed' < 'dead', 'stroke' < 'half of body dead or paralyzed', 'cripple, to limp' < 'broken rump or hip'.

7. Plural-continuative derivation: 'shiver' < 'trembling' because a shiver is multiple trembles, 'steady toothache' < 'have a plural or continous tooth', and 'stutter' has 'plural' reduplication because a stutter is a repetition.

8. Words requiring the word 'sickness': 'menstruation' < 'moon sickness', 'a cold' < 'chill sickness', and 'spirit sickness' < 'spirit power or possession sickness'.

9. Words requiring 'can't, impossible to': 'mute' < 'can't talk' and 'insomnia' < 'can't sleep'.

Words relating to accident/injury show no morphosememic systems except that the roots are nearly all...
verbs which can each be inflected with most of the somatic suffixes (the latter retaining their locative meaning as a set). A few anecdotal things are all that can be noted otherwise: 'choke on food' < 'mired in the chest' and 'hit (with arrow, bullet, etc.), wounded' < 'poked'.

Words relating to medicine/curing show several ways of expressing the sememe 'medicine': st'ɛlmaxʷ, -ʔɛ·l tel, and -tel; the first is used with somatic suffixes to specify where the medicine is to work, the second is used with roots for body parts or roots showing functions of the medicine, the third is only attested with a root showing the medicine's function ('vomit medicine'). Another way of specifying medicines is by naming a plant for the disease it cures: 'swamp gooseberry' < 'hemmorhoid plant', 'trillium' < 'cataracts (?)' < 'swimming like a fish in the eyes'. The word for curing is also interesting since it refers only to an Indian doctor's curing and is related to or derived from the word 'chase something away'. I have not yet had access to much of the vocabulary of Indian doctoring, but another interesting word from that area is kʷwɛ́k'-wiyəset 'training oneself to be an Indian doctor or spirit dancer' < 'climbing oneself'. The training involves fasting, purification, and long hikes into the wilderness and so involves both physical and spiritual climbing of oneself.
Finally there is the area of non-human body functions and dysfunctions. This area shows a number of words specialized and generalized in different ways than in English. Greater specialization: three stages of spawning have distinct terms; 'swim (of a fish)' is a different word from 'swim (of a human)'; -ôlec with animals and birds means 'droppings' as distinct from human feces, s?ê·ʔ, and from the human suffix -ôlec, -(ə)lec 'on the rump'; an animal 'growls' with a different word than a human (though the roots appear related). Greater generalization: animals and birds can qʷê·l̓ ('talk') like humans; the word t̓f̓ləm 'sing' can be used of birds and insects as well as of people and with insects refers to buzzing; an insect 'stings' and a snake 'hisses' with words a person uses to 'shoot' and 'whisper'; the vocabulary of bird eggs ('eggs', 'nest', 'sit on eggs') treats all three words by referring to the eggs as 'young children'. The corpus of words referring to non-human body functions and dysfunctions still is rather incomplete, but it shows some generalization of terms in the direction of considering fauna to have more human attributes than we do in English. This anthropomorphic trend is born out in legends, stories, and folk beliefs as well (for example in the legend of the Wealick brothers, the elder of whom became a bear, and in the refusal of some Stalo people to kill bears because they believe them to be people who
can take off their coats and become human, and in stories of wolves understanding and responding to human language).

have not been gathered together yet in list form to be surveyed. The features and functions named and elaborated in each domain show how the Upper Stalo perceive their environment.

13.2.1. Land Features and Place Names. As mentioned in the semantics, 'mountain (any size)' and 'rock (any size larger than pebble)' are named with the same term, smέ·lt. There is no word for rolling hill, but there are sqatéméylep and tewélénilép (tewélé 'tilted'), both terms meaning 'sloping ground' and leq'géylep 'level ground' (< lóq 'level'). Terms for canyons and steep cliffs are elaborated (χéylep 'very steep slope, steep shore, steep dropoff' (< 'marked in face'), sxéxék'w 'canyon (narrow, walled-in with rock)' (< 'wedged'), (s)q'wélóq'el 'vertical rock face, cliff', χóq'êt 'bluff', 6óq 'steep', etc.). The suffix -ílep - -éylep 'ground, land' of course is common. A number of mountain features are elaborated (swéc'sé 'summit, top of mountain', wec'ké 'get to summit', sxWf'tel 'basin; morain lake; chamberpot', yél 'to rockslide', yél to mé·qe 'have a snowslide, to avalanche', kíwágqy 'glacier, Mt. Cheam' (kíwágqy was originally the name of the woman (wife of Mt. Baker) who ran away and settled on the Fraser with her children and dog, all becoming mountains), k'wélgéylem 'cave',

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etc.). There are fewer terms for things in the flats (spōx̱el 'prairie, treeless area', máq'wem 'swamp, bog, marsh; swamp tea, Labrador tea'). A 'point of land' is sʔélq̓ ʔel and the 'tail of an island' is sʔ̓ ʔəm̓ əx̱wəlec with somatic suffixes for 'nose, point' and 'bottom, rump'. Placenames also use many somatic suffixes, anthropomorphizing the geography if you will (-əlec, -əθəl, -əs, -ə(1)gs(əl), -eqʷ - -iqʷ, and -qəl each appear in four or more placenames). sq̓ ʔəw- 'a bend or turn (in river or road)' and sʔ̓ w̱áʔ- (< xʷtc̓ ʔəy 'many people died at the same time') are common roots in placenames (found in at least four each). Areas named in placenames include: settlements, mountains and rocks, points on the river, turns in the river, mouths of creeks, many rock formations (often said to be people turned to stone by X̱ex̱els 'the Transformer(s)'), channels, rivers and creeks (usually two words: place name + stáʔ lo(ʔ)w 'river'), locations where plants or resources or animals are found (pápqwem 'Popkum, puffballs', ciy̕ ʔm 'Cheam village, wild strawberry place', x̱w̱ax̱wəlek ̓ ip 'Yale, Stalo village below Yale Creek' (< 'willow tree' because a single willow stood there for years), ʔəlq̓ ʔəm 'place on rock wall of Fraser where lots of snakes sun themselves (above x̱eq ̱steləc which is above American Bar)', etc.), lakes,
springs ('qʷá·ls 'Harrison Hot Springs, boiling'), and
waterfalls ('Elk Creek falls, spawning ground').
Places where things were done were also named (as in
kʷeqʷélíθ'ε 'Coqualeetza, place to club clothes or
blankets', c'i'yéq'tel 'Tzeachten, fish weir', t'emiyshá'y
'Tamihi Mountain, hermaphrodite babies finish (such
defomed babies were left to die on that mountain)',
etc.). Some places are named for stories too long to
explain here (c'sʔí·ló's 'Chehalis, on top of the chest',
θ'əwε·li 'Soowahlie, melted or wasted away',
yeq'yeqw'i·ws 'Yakweakwicose, repeatedly burnt out
(village or grass covering)', sxʷáxwiymә 'settlement
near Katz Reserve, many people died in the past (an
epidemic wiped out 36 pit houses)', etc.). Other
features named include the following minerals:
t'əmq'eθel 'jade, any agate' (< t'əm- 'chop' because
jade was used as a whetstone), syi·c'əm 'sand',
(spá·lk'əm 'dust', əθ'exət 'gravel'), st'əwok'w
'white clay (used for whitening powder, with wool)',
seʔi·qel 'wet mud', əθ'ěθ'əʔ 'crystal', cikməl 'iron,
silver (in silver money)' (< Chinook Jargon), x'𝘠t
'lead, weight, sinker, shot, bullet', q'ir'w'i 'copper',
kʷuí·l 'gold' (< English), sqʷél 'hard metal found in
mines (used for arrowheads)'.

13.2.2. Weather Features. 100 terms for weather
(including 16 idiomatic phrases) have been found to date. Almost half of these are verbs, showing equal emphasis upon weather actions or functions and weather products. At least 20 of the nominal terms have corresponding verbal forms (sq\textsuperscript{W}tx\textsuperscript{Y}em 'fog' + q\textsuperscript{W}tx\textsuperscript{Y}em 'get fog(ey)'), sp\textsuperscript{e}h\textsuperscript{e}ls 'wind' + p\textsuperscript{e}h\textsuperscript{e}ls 'to blow (of wind)', even sw\textsuperscript{e}y\textsuperscript{e}l 'sky, day, weather' + w\textsuperscript{e}y\textsuperscript{e}l 'become day' and w\textsuperscript{a}w\textsuperscript{e}y\textsuperscript{e}l 'getting day, dawn').

The domain as a whole includes terms for: the sun and lighting effects (19 or 20 terms, including t'\textsuperscript{t}âl\textsuperscript{t}el 'an eclipse' and t'\textsuperscript{t}âl\textsuperscript{t}tes 'to eclipse s-th' (< t'\textsuperscript{t}âl 'go out of sight')), the moon and its periods (9 terms or phrases), stars and constellations (5 terms), clouds and fog (5 terms), wind (16 terms), warm or cold weather (7 or 8 terms), actions of Thunderbird (6 weather-causing actions), rain (9 terms), hail (4 terms), snow (7 terms), ice and sleet (6 terms), frost and dew (5 terms), and bad vs. good weather (4 terms).

Quite a few of these terms use somatic metaphors and somatic suffixes: sx\textsuperscript{e}lx\textsuperscript{e}l\textsuperscript{e}ls te sy\textsuperscript{e}q\textsuperscript{W}em 'rays of light' (< 'legs of the sun'), sq\textsuperscript{e}q\textsuperscript{e}lx\textsuperscript{Y}l\textsuperscript{e}m ~ (Cheh. or Tait) sw\textsuperscript{e}t\textsuperscript{e}x\textsuperscript{Y}el 'rainbow' and (Chill.) l\textsuperscript{e}lx\textsuperscript{Y}l\textsuperscript{e}m 'getting a rainbow' (\textsuperscript{Y}el 'leg, foot', \textsuperscript{e}q 'steep', -\textsuperscript{e}l 'become, go, get', -l- 'plural' in the latter word).
qeyqeyqelá:sem 'rays of sun from between clouds' (< qeyqeyqelá 'shadow' + á:á 'on the face', -ém 'middle voice'); sk'wex'yá:sem moon' (< k'wex'y- 'count', -á:á 'face'); xeylxelemás 'fleecy wave clouds (resembling sheep)' (< 'repeatedly marked on the face'); sk'welk'wélxel and q'eyqlc'iyá:sem spéh:ls (both) 'whirlwind' (-xel 'leg', q'eyqlc'- 'twisting', -ás 'in the face', -ém 'middle voice'), spát:telxel 'thunder wind' (< 'repeated blowing with mouth' + '(on) the arm'); actions of sx'wex'yá:sem 'Thunderbird, thunder' (and sx'wex'-á:á itself as noted earlier): xléq't te sx'wex'yá: 'to lightning' and xléq't te sx'wex'yá: 'lighting' (< xléq't 'open on eyes', xléq't 'opening one's eyes repeatedly'), q'ýy'xes te héptels te sx'wex'yá: 'lightning' and q'ýy'xes te k'qé:ls te sx'wex'yá: 'thunder' (q'ýy'xes 'he shakes them', héptels 'his eyelashes', (s)k'qé:ls 'his wings')(cp. also q'ýy'xet te téméxw 'have an earthquake' < 'the earth shakes itself'), me sóx:w te sx'wex'yá: 'start to rain' (sóx:w 'urinate'); x'méxel 'pouring (of rain)' (x'wém 'hurry, fast', -xel '(in) legs or feet'), x'gë:xel - x'gëc'xel 'stop raining' (r.m.u. + -xel '(in) legs or feet'), himéxel 'to rain and snow together (when the snow melts fast)' or 'raining and snowing together' (probably he- 'continuative', më:që 'snow', -xel as
in $x^w\varepsilon mx^w\varepsilon l$, etc.), sk$^w$eq$^w$ $x^w\varepsilon l$ (k$^w$ - q$^w$) 'the hail' and k$^w$eq$^w$ $x^w\varepsilon l$ (k$^w$ - q$^w$) 'to hail' (k$^w$eq$^w$ 'to club with sticklike object', q$^w$eq$^w$ 'to beat', $-\varepsilon l's$ 'in the face')(the other words for 'hail' and 'hailing' appear to have $\varepsilon'\varepsilon m$- as root < c$^w\varepsilon'\varepsilon m$ 'jump', cp. 'grasshopper'), s$^w$eqel$\varepsilon s$ 'icicles' < y$^w$el$\varepsilon s$ 'tooth' + R 'many, plural'); one of the variants for 'dew' s$^w$eq$^w$m$^w$ x$^w$ y$^w$ el < s$^w$ 'nominal' + $\varepsilon^w$ 'moisture, rain' + $-x^w$ el 'on the foot' (actually underfoot).

Other morphosememic patterns to note are: the elaboration of words for rain and snow (s$^w$eq$^w$ 'the rain', $\varepsilon^w\varepsilon m^w$ 'to rain', $\varepsilon^w$mat 'rainshower', $\varepsilon^w$el$\varepsilon t^w$ 'to sprinkle' (< 'one gets splashed'), $\varepsilon^w$m$^w$s$^w$ 'rain on and off', $x^w\varepsilon mx^w$ el 'pouring (of rain), raining hard', $x^w$eq$^w$ $x^w$ el 'stop raining', him$^w$q$^w$ x$^w$ el 'raining and snowing together', $x^w$fi$^w$ q$^w$ x$^w$ el 'to sleet, rain freezing rain, silver thaw', sy$^w$q $^w$ 'falling snow', m$^w$f$^w$eq 'snow on the ground' (< 'to snow' in a few idiolects), y$^w$q $^w$ 'to snow', q$^w$elsiy$^w$eq$^w$ 'snowdrift' or 'to snowdrift' (?), and sk$^w$el x$^w$ y$^w$me 'fine snow that drifts in through cracks'); the compatibility of both $x^w$ek$^w$ 'turbulent' and liq$^w$ el 'calm' with both wind and water, the words for cessation of wind and of rain (Cheh. c$^w$mq 'to stop blowing (of the wind)', x$^w$eq$^w$ $x^w$ el (c$^w$ - c$^w$) 'to stop raining', is there a word for 'to stop snowing'?), references
to the moon burning out and being new (χέws te skwɛxχά's 'first quarter of the moon' < χέws 'new'
(the month begins on the first visible sliver after the blacked-out moon), ϊέθέχεχ te skwɛxχά's 'the last quarter of the moon' < Ίέθέχε 'burning out', Ίέχε te skwɛxχά's 'the new moon (blacked-out)' < Ίέχε 'burned out'), and the existence of constellations (in a few cases corresponding to ours, as in q'ayìyoc' 'the Elk (corresponding to the Big Dipper or Ursa Major)'; Hill-Tout (1902) and Wells (1965) report others which I have not yet elicited but which seem transliterable as te lëwëmet 'Milky Way' (possibly < lëwëmet 'costume of any kind of dancer'), sʔéle 'Pleiades' (possibly sǐ·le 'grandparent'), and wåwëyl kwåsel 'morning star (usually Venus, but also can be Mars, Jupiter, or Saturn when rising before the sun)' (< wåwëyl 'getting day, dawn', kwåsel 'star')).

13.2.3. Water Features. This domain contains river features (about 85, a few of which may be used with other bodies of water), functions of water, and

bodies of water other than rivers (about nine, largely unanalyzable, including k'wák'
'k'wé 'ocean, sea', sk'wél 'waterfall', sk'wák'mel 'small waterfall', ẹ'īx 'spring',
máq'wem 'marsh, swamp, bog; swamp tea', ɤ'a'ce 'lake',
ɤ'a'ce 'small lake, pond', sq'qáq'el 'pond (with clear
water)', ɬ'eq'wéce 'dirty pond, dirty puddle'). The
Stalo people are named for the river, i.e. stá'lo(w)
'(any) river, Fraser River, Halkomelem-speaking people
of the Fraser River', and live too far from the ocean
to make use of it. Thus it is not surprising that
river terms are elaborated in Chilliwack and other
Upper Stalo dialects. The only specializations (and
analyzable terms) in non-river features are those of
lakes and ponds; the only distinctions there are in
size and clarity.

Functions of water have not been fully catalogued
yet but include: q'wés 'fall into water', k'wé 'spill
(of liquid or solid, of river into dry area)', qá.
'water', p'a'łq'wem 'to steam', p'iwels 'to freeze',
sq'w 'ice', q'wés - hátq'wem 'to boil', ɬ'q'ém 'a drop
of water, to drip', p'q'wem 'to bubble, to foam',
t'éyíc'em 'fizzing (of s-th dropped in water, of soda
pop, etc.)', q'wét'c'em 'sloshing sound, gurgling',
k'wák'melem 'pouring a liquid', ɬ'éxet 'scald s-th',
and the like, to give a sample. Some of these terms
also appear in other domains too (weather, sounds, preparing food, etc.).

River terms so far include: types of river (8 terms), parts of rivers (19 terms), midstream obstructions (5 terms), turbulence (15 terms), seasonal fluctuations (11 terms), directions (on and with respect to rivers) (21 terms), depth (5 terms), and clarity (2 terms). Types of rivers found so far include státelo(w) 'river', státelo(w) 'creek', ʔeltelecəm 'lots of little streams (as come down a mountain after a rain)', ʔəléxʷ 'slough, backwater stream', ʔeltelec 'channel (that makes an island)', and corresponding to each root in this set are verbs to travel on these, i.e., tál 'go toward or out in the middle of the river, go away from shore (in a canoe or boat)', cəléxʷ 'go into a slough or quiet backwater', and ʔeltelecəm 'go through a channel'.

Parts of rivers include shore features such as semilel 'riverbank', pəqəleləs 'riverbank caving off' (< pəqʷ 'split off' + 'tooth (?)'), stalose lē 'riverbed' (-əé 'container'), ŋəleləc 'bottom (of river, lake, waterfall, basket, anything)', čəceʷ 'beach, shore', syif əmílel 'sand bar', and probably features such as syif əcem 'sand', ʔəxəst 'gravel', qəmílel 'cottonwood bark driftwood (used to carve toy canoes)',

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qewl'y 'driftwood; snag', qewl'y 'driftwood bits of small bits of wood and bark', etc. Parts of rivers also include features of shape: skwetexwqel 'inlet' (<'inside' +'in head'), smeyes 'bay', sqewwqel 'a bend or curve (in river, lakeshore or road)', qewwqeyl'm 'go around a bend or curve (river, lakeshore, road)', and st'ewx 'fork (in river, road, tree)'; these last three share compatibility with 'river' and 'road', and the last nine words mentioned before st'ewx all probably share compatibility with 'lake' as well as 'river'. Midstream obstructions include items like xesces 'island', xixaces 'small island', smel't 'rock', steqtq 'jampile, logjam' (<teq- 'closed'), qewl'y 'snag; driftwood' and probably 'sandbar' as above. These are also compatible with 'lake' as well as with 'river' (except possibly steqtq and syicem-flep).

Turbulence (and calmness) is an elaborated area like parts of rivers, and directions; it even includes a lexical suffix -eleq -eleq 'waves' and a cover term(?) xe'k' 'turbulence (of wind or water)'. It also includes features like: 'wave' (Chill., Tait: syalce, Seabird Is. syalec'ep, Cheh. smeyeleq), 'waves are getting bigger' (Gicohleq), 'eddy' (xewlkm and xtiyti'm <xw(e)- 'go' + tiyt 'upriver' + -im 'repeatedly')
and 'to eddy' \((x'w'\ellk'w)\), q'eyx\_xem 'whirlpool' (possibly < q'eyx- 'black'), le\_xem te qa\_- 'rapids, fast water', xa\_lt\_x\_x 'spray', sp\_x\_q'\_xem 'foam', sq\_xem 'died down a bit (of water), quieter (of water)', sq\_x\_xem 'calm water' and liq'\_xel 'calm or smooth'.

Seasonal fluctuations are expressed by verbs such as sp\_ip\_xew 'frozen', c'iyx'w 'dry', x'p'\_x\_x 'go down', (Tait) \_thi\_ - (Chill.) hix\_x\_xet 'get big', or k'w\_ek'\_x\_x 'climbing, ascending' followed by te st\_a\_-lo 'the river' or te qa\_- 'the water'; but there are five specialized terms also used (less often): le qa\_-xem 'subsiding, (water) going down, tide going out, be low tide', me q\_x\_xem 'tide coming in', sq\_x\_xem 'tide' (cp. qa\_-m 'fetch water'. me lec'\_l\_x'c 'be high tide', temqaq\_x 'high water time'. There is little tidal fluctuation on the rivers, so snow runoff and summer heat produce most of these 'tidal' effects.

Directions show a great deal of morphosememic structure. These terms are of several types: directions toward and away from the river, upriver and downriver, both previous types used at once (regarding sides of a house), and for up and down movement in the river one pair of words (p'\_x'k\_w 'float, come to surface' and míq' 'sink'). The river system is so central to the Stalo people that these terms are the
main set of general directional terms besides demonstratives and the phrase lí te sméłt 'to the mountain'. Reference to the mountains is less useful than to the river because there are mountains on three sides (north, south, and east below Hope, B.C., north, east, and west above). Terms for toward and away from the river have been analyzed in the last chapter (cúcu and tál (both) 'toward the river (on land), away from shore (on the river)' and cáleq'w 'toward the backwoods, away from the river'). Upriver and downriver terms: wóq'w 'drift downstream, drown', tás 'drift downriver', ñam 'upstream' and tít 'upriver (perhaps more upriver than ñam)' are the basic roots; they are suffixed with -úl (-él -el) 'go' and -em 'middle voice' or -exel 'way, -wards' and prefixed with xwe- 'go' or he- -R- 'continuative' or tel- 'from'. This produces: hé-wq'w and wí-weq'w-áét and hó-wq'w-él-em 'drifting downstream' (all three), hó-tás 'drifting downriver', woq'w-él-em 'drift downstream', xwe-wq'w-él-em 'go downstream', xwe-híw-él 'go upstream', xwe-híw-él-em 'go(ing) upstream', tás-exel 'downriver (-way), down that way', tít-exel 'upriver way, up that way, way upriver', tel-tás 'from downriver', tel-tít 'from upriver, people from upriver, dialect from upriver (i.e. Tait dialect)'. s-ñéq'-qél 'way
'upriver' is not completely clear yet but may be related to ƛeq’ewił 'opposite side of house (on inside)'. For the sides or ends of a house -ʕəl (related to -əl) is added to both systems mentioned, as is s-nominalizer: ƛcucuwəł 'front end of house (inside or out)(side toward the river)', sčelqʷʕəł (qʷ - kʷ) 'back end of house (inside or out)(side away from the river)', stiytəł 'upper end of house (inside or out) (upriver side)', səeqʷʕəł 'lower end of house (inside or out)(downriver side)'.

The number of somatic suffixes used (with semological extensions of meaning) has not been mentioned. -(ə)lec 'bottom', -əəł 'mouth', -qəl 'head', and even -eles 'teeth' (in pəeqʷ-eles 'riverbank breaking off') are used in the domain of river (or water) features. xʷe- 'go' is found as well in areas besides directions (xʷe-ʔéyem 'clear (of moving water)' < ʔéyem 'strong', xʷtiyf'm - xʷełkʷf'm 'an eddy'). The domain of water features (especially river features) is of course closely related to that of canoes and canoeing.

13.2.4. Fire. This domain is not very completely compiled or analyzed, but some 40 words at least belong, not including words for types of cooking or curing. These 40 seem to fall in several categories: qualities and parts of a fire, technology of fire, lighting and...
extinguishing of fire, and uses of fire. Qualities and parts of a fire include terms like p'c'em 'to spark', x'at'wem 'a flame, have a flame', wáweqem 'red blaze (of a fire)', yeqw 'to burn', h'yeqw 'burning; fire', p'áx'em 'to smoke, to make smoke; to smoke (tobacco)', sp'áx'em 'smoke', p'ap's'k'leqem 'smoky smell' (even p'elk'ameh 'choked with smoke'), k'élxem 'crackle or pop (of a log on fire, firecrackers, etc.)', sx'wiys'tel 'heavy dirty cinders, embers, charcoal', x'w(h)iyeqw'el 'soot', sc'ê's 'fine white ashes', etc. Note the specialization of words with smoke (others will be seen) and the three kinds of charcoal.

The technology of fire includes terms dealing with firewood, ingredients for starting a fire, and equipment for making and using fire. For example: siyâ'iz or syâ'iz 'firewood', syâ'iz 'little sticks of firewood', q'pet te siyâ'iz 'gather firewood', siyâ'iz wtxw 'woodshed', k'wix'weip 'pitchwood', θ'iqw'alcep 'chop wood' (θ'iqw- 'punch', -alcep 'firewood'), syeqw'alpetel 'tinder (dried cedar bark pieces)', sisq' 'kindling' (séq' 'split', R- diminutive), sx'wheqw'el 'firepit in house', si'alceptel 'firedrill' (si'- 'spin', -alcep 'firewood', -tel 'device'), sx'wá'yelcep 'fire poker', sp'ak'emé'létel
'smoke-hole (built with covered cupola to keep out rain)', 'k'es'eq 'torchlighting firebox, platform and shield for fire in canoe for torchlighting', stúp 'stove', méces 'match, matches', etc. Note the special lexical suffix -elcep 'firewood' and the items which are not found in the white man's technology (firedrill, firebox, etc.) as well as items borrowed from white technology (stove, match, etc.).

Uses of fire also include terms not found in white technology (as well as some that are): p'k'amt 'to smudge (burn greens (esp. bracken fern) for smoke to get rid of mosquitoes)', lek'ýwe 'spear fish by torchlight, to torchlight', peláqel 'torch (made of dried sockeye head or pitchwood)', p'en'et 'smoke s-th (hides, salmon, meat)', yeq'í's 'burn the belongings of one deceased in a funeral ceremony, burn food for the dead in burning ritual, "feed the dead", have a burning', syeq'í's 'food offered the dead at a burning ceremony', p's'xem 'smoke a pipe', etc. In this domain it may turn out that Halkomelem has a more highly developed vocabulary than English does.

13.2.5. Time and Tense. Tense has already been considered in the chapters on verbs, nominals, and demonstratives. With independent words for time, the following periods are found: syilálem 'year',
sk'wex'yás 'moon, month' (s- nominalizer, k'wex'y- 'to count', -á's 'face')(used with quarters of the moon), 侵略 'moon, month' (use uncertain), tém- 'season, time for', no word for 'week', swéyel 'day, weather, sky', sk'wíl's 'what hour?', no words for 'minutes' or 'seconds'.

It is unclear how specific years were referred to but probably by description of some event; in giving someone's age, the number can precede either syilálem or mé:qe 'fallen snow(s)'. Each year began at about the first quarter of the moon in October. The moon beginning in October was the first of each year. There is no cover term for seasons but four are named:

témq'wíles 'Spring' (the root is said to mean 'plants coming up' but has not been attested otherwise),
témk'wák'wés 'Summer, hot time', témhilélxʷ 'Fall' (possibly < hil-əm 'fall, tumble'), témq'fyák' 'Winter, cold time'.

The quarters of the moon have been mentioned in weather features. There are names also for each month; each month was a lunar month (29.5 days) beginning on the first quarter of the moon visible after the dark moon. Each name refers to a time for some activity or happening: the moon beginning in October was called témqá-š'w (témqá-k'w) 'time for Chehalis spring salmon (time to catch and smoke-dry them)' or témqá-š'w.
'time to dry fish'; the moon that began in November was x̂ya'c'ewestel 'time to store away canoe paddles (for the winter)' (x̂ya'c'- 'store away', -ew 'canoe paddles', -estel 'device (i.e. month)' or 'reciprocal') (paddles are stored with canoes because ice and rain or snow prevent most canoe travel) or telx̂ic 'leaves are falling'; the moon beginning in December was meq̱s 'fallen snow season' (meq̱s 'fallen snow'); the moon of January was pelaq̱es 'torch season' (< pelaq̱el 'torch (used for torch-lighting in January)'); the moon of February was tem̱ḻe's 'time to get jammed in or stuck' (< ḻe's 'jammed or stuck (as in a trap or under s-th fallen on top)', -es 'season' or possibly 'face'; so called because people lived in pit houses at this time in winter and with a heavy snow the entry hole at the top of the pit house might be jammed); the moon beginning in February could also be called tenteḻóm̱es 'time one's hand sticks to things (from cold)'; the moon beginning in March had two names, weḻkes 'little frog season (when they begin talking)' or qweḻay̱eḻen '(birds) making music'; the moon in April was temḵwex̂eḻ 'time for baby sockeye salmon' or temṯaḻes 'time of spring showers in the eyes'; the moon beginning in May was tem̱ḻiḻe 'salmonberry time'; that in June was temg̱aq̱̱ 'high water time' or
temt'émxʷ 'time for gooseberries' (less common name); the moon beginning in July was ʔepáléstel 'tenth moon' or temq'ēl 'time for mosquitoes' or at Yale temcétel 'time to dry fish' (fish was wind-dried there as early as July); the moon in August was temq'éqi 'time for sockeye salmon'; and the moon beginning in September was temk'álexʷ 'time for dog salmon'.

Some years there were thirteen moons (the extra name probably taken from and during a multiply-named month), and some years, more frequently, there were twelve. The events described in the month names were probably taken as more important than the exact 29.5 day periods. And it seems people frequently disagreed over which moon it was. Only a few people took the exact count (one man tied knots long ago, and another at Yale used sticks stuck in the ground). At any rate, the morphosememic patterns are pretty clear: eight of the terms relate to gathering and processing food, four relate to activities of fauna, seven relate to weather or are caused by weather directly, and one is numbered (allowing the calculation of when the year begins).

The days of the week and hours are given in the chapter on numerals. Days of the week were given names after the white man brought Christianity, as is obvious
from Sunday < 'sacred day'. The morphosememics of Saturday 'broken (of rope or string)' and Monday 'day after (Sunday)' is interesting but not systematic. The other days are named from numerals implying that Monday is the first day of the week and showing a preference for less-used allomorphs of numerals (Gem-in 'Tuesday' and mós as a rare variant in 'Thursday'). The system of hours and lesser periods was discussed and shows no morphosememic pattern except the use of numerals.

Other time periods include past, present, or future days, relative time periods (largely Vadv's), and divisions of the day other than hours. The first of these includes words and phrases like celé.qeí(eí) 'yesterday', yew él mels k'we celé.qeí(eí) 'day before yesterday', tlàw él 'today', tlà x'elé·lt 'tonight', wèyeles 'tomorrow', and yelé w'we wèyeles 'day after tomorrow'. The present is denoted using tlà- - tlà 'this', the past using -eí 'past tense', and the future using -es (perhaps with 'cyclic period' alloseme to imply 'future'). For two days removed from present in either direction Vprep A N is used instead of swèyeļ Vprep A N (i.e., 'day before yesterday' < 'before yesterday' and 'day after tomorrow' < 'after tomorrow').

Relative time periods include words like qè·ys
'lately, recently', hiθ - wɛɛθ(ə) 'long ago', metxwɛm 'early', ʔəyəm 'late', and other words listed as Vadv's. tlà- and tense suffixes sometimes play a role with these words as well.

Finally divisions of day other than hours includes terms like: wàwəyəl 'dawn' (< 'being day'), lɛ'təl 'morning' (< lɛ't 'be night' + -əl 'past tense'), tɛxwswəyəl 'noon, mid-day', yəlɛw tɛxwswəyəl 'afternoon' (< 'after mid-day'), le ʔɛ'ɛx ə syəqwəm 'sunset' (< 'the sun has burned out'), ʔətɪl 'get dark', ʔɛ't 'darkness', xwəlɛlt 'evening' (< 'go being night' xwə + lɛ't + -R₁ 'continuative'), slɛ't 'night', lɛ't 'be night', tɛxwslɛ't 'midnight'. These show some interesting morphosememic patterns: 'morning' is the 'past tense' of 'night', 'dawn' is 'being day' and 'evening' is 'being night', 'noon' and 'midnight' are both formed in the same way, mid- + day/night. All these terms (and ʔətɪl which is in the process of becoming ʔɛ't) can be seen to develop into each other much more as processes (becoming something > be something) than the terms in English. They are less like divisions of day and more like blenders. Another pattern is with 'sunset' which uses the same 'burned out' metaphor that 'new moon (i.e. dark moon)' does. ʔɛ'ɛx thus is compatible with 'fire', 'sun' and 'moon'.
13.2.6. Flora. This domain includes names of flora, classes and parts of flora, actions or processes of flora, and medicines. Harvesting and processing the harvest and food preparation could be considered under this domain or as related but separate domains; they are here considered separate domains.

So far 136 names have been found for flora, and an additional 26 derivationally related terms are attested for specific fruit, bark, flowers, or pitch of some of the 136 flora. The derivation has been discovered for half of the 162 terms, so there is much fruit for study.

The 26 terms mentioned all show the same pattern: when {-eip} 'plant, tree' is attached to them, they form the word for the whole plant, but when -eip is absent they refer to the edible fruit (in four cases to the bark or wood, in two to the flower, and in one to the pitch) of the plant or tree. For example, qweap 'crabapple, applc', qweap 'crabapple tree, apple tree' and skw6.1mex 'blackberry', skw6.1mex 'blackberry plant'. To refer to the bark or wood, either an s- nominalizer is added (as with stelém 'wild cherry bark' and slé·y 'Douglas fir bark') or the suffix -é·y 'bark, wood' is present (as with xpé·y 'red cedar bark and wood' and osé·y 'fir bark and
wood'), or both are done (slē'y). With 'wild rose' q̕əlq refers to the fruit ('rose hips') or the flower ('wild rose'); with 'dogwood' there is no fruit so q̕ʷltə refers to 'dogwood flower'. The fruit of a 'pitch tree' kʷixʷe̱p can only be kʷixw 'pitch, sap'. It is certain that there are more than 26 such sets of fruit minus -e̱p and plant plus -e̱p; all of the (edible) fruit-bearing flora probably work this way. The 26 words attested in such pairs include: apple, blackberry, wild trailing blackberry, blackcap, black-haw (berry), shiny black mountain huckleberry, blue elderberry, red elderberry, gooseberry, red-flowering currant (flower has separate name), June plum, kinnick-kinnick berry/pea/bean, short Oregon grape, raspberry, salalberry, salmonberry, saskatoon berry, wild strawberry, thimbleberry, and the seven words above referring to bark, flowers, or pitch. The other edible-fruit-bearing flora (five more kinds of blueberries/huckleberries, red huckleberry, two kinds of cherry, cranberry, soapberry, wineberries, hazelnut, and orange) probably follow the same morphosememic pattern because their fruits are all attested without -e̱p; it is merely that -e̱p forms for the whole plant have not been elicited yet.

Further morphosememic patterns can be seen in the
terms for flora which can be derived: 20 are named for their appearance, nine for uses as medicines, six for uses for devices, five for what the plant does, five for how it is harvested, three for its taste and two for how it is eaten, three for fauna that use it, and two for where the plant grows. These are named for their appearance: ḥेयθ-εऩ 'unripe tree' (because of its white bark) > 'alder', ḥ(े)प-ेऩ 'striped or scratched bark tree' > 'red cedar tree', s-ḥेम-ेऩ 'tear(s) in the mouth' > 'cottonwood sap' (the sweet sap is eaten), ḫेम-ऩ 'moss berry' > 'wild bog cranberry' (resembles moss), कऩ 'being distant/far in the eyes' > 'goatsbeard plant' (flowers can be seen from way far off), sऩ 'tears on tongues' > 'wild tiger lily' (descriptive of spotted petals), sऩ 'hair in the dirt' > 'beard moss, black moss bread' (this moss, especially the black variety growing on spruce trees, does indeed resemble hair and is baked underground to make a sweet licorice-flavored loaf), ḫऩ 'yellowish' > 'orange color, orange fruit', ḫऩ 'tree that dances' > 'white pine', धेसऩ 'metal nail tree' > 'poplar' (because it resembles a nail sticking out of the ground), पऩ 'many-flashing leaves, many-sparkling leaves' or 'flashing or sparkling many leaves'
(unclear whether R is 'plural action' or 'plural object') > 'poplar', s?á·yθeq\textsuperscript{w} possibly 's-th sharp on top of the head' (s- + ?ɛy-θ + -eq\textsuperscript{w}) > 'raspberry' (some varieties of this berry are more pointed than any other berry), c'eslēc 'grows at the bottom' > 'saskatoon berry' (berries can be picked down to the base of the bush), pəpq'ɛyā·s 'being white (+ ?) in the face' > 'snowberry' (has white berries)(degloctalized p like in 'red cedar tree'), (Cheh.) qelēmes 'eye in the face' > unidentified plant (good for asthma) with roots resembling eyes, qéyqem\textsuperscript{Y}el 'soft (+ ?) in the foot' > 'plant with round bulbs like potatoes (which taste like potatoes)', xéxek\textsuperscript{W} 'wedged' > "wild artichokes" (identity uncertain, a plant with edible bulb or root, could be eaten raw, cooked, or dried, grew on Seabird Island and by Chehalis), c'elfc'eplex\textsuperscript{W} (c' - θ') 'lots of eyes closed' > "wineberries, Japanese wineberries" (possibly 'red blackcaps')(leaves are twisted closed till just before the berries are ripe, then they open like eyes), (Tait) xéyeslātel 'facing one another' > 'wild ginger (asarum caudatum)' (large paired leaves face each other), and x\textsuperscript{Y}sweq\textsuperscript{A}l 'carrot-like' > 'yarrow' (the leaf is very fine and carrot-like).

Named for uses as medicines: θ'ex\textsuperscript{W}iyək\textsuperscript{p} (x\textsuperscript{W} may
be $x^W$ 'washing or cleansing (bark) plant' > 'red-osier dogwood' (the bark and berries are used to induce vomiting as a purgative), $\theta'q^W$ $wiyəp$ 'sores-in-rump-or-on-genitals plant, hemorrhoids plant' > 'swamp gooseberry' (used as medicine for such sores), $\theta'ołqəłleting$ 'heart medicine' > (Tait) 'juniper' and (Cheh.) 'wild ginger', $χeqəłəp$ 'scratching (to itch)(medicine) plant' ($χeq$q'-əls 'scratching without leaving cuts, as in itching') > 'False Solomon's Seal' (used as medicine for dandruff), $x^Yex^Ytəɬəs$ 'swimming (fish-like) in the eye' > 'trillium' (used as medicine for cataracts), $pəpətem$ 'getting blown on by mouth' > 'rattlesnake plantain' (the top and bottom surfaces of each leaf separate and can be blown into and inflated; the inside surfaces are then applied as a poultice especially to open cuts and abrasions to promote healing), $x^Wəkəłtləl$ 'numbing medicine' > 'big-leaved avens', $\theta'iθ^Wiməɬəɬəws$ 'allergic reaction leaves' > 'big-leaved avens', $x^Wəqəłəpəłletəl$ 'hangover medicine' > 'alumroot'.

Named for uses in making devices: $\theta'qəłəgəłəp$ 'scalded bark' > 'blue-joint reed-grass (bleachable grass)' (this grass is scalded and left in sun to bleach white, then it is split and used for white patterns on the outside of cedar-root baskets), $q'swəwələp$ probably
'staff tree/plant' > 'hardhack' (used for staff or walking stick among other things), q'emó·wełp 'canoe paddle tree' > 'broadleaf maple' (used to make canoe paddles), qé·gełp 'fish spear prong plant' (qé·gełxʷ 'prong of fish spear') > 'Oceanspray' (the prong is still made from Oceanspray wood), t'č·c'ełp 'fish-drying stretcher plant' > 'pink spirea' (this wood is still used to make t'č·c' 'crosspiece or stretcher to hold open drying fish'), and tóxʷ·sełp 'bow tree' > 'yew tree' (used to make bows).

Named for what the plant does: c'ałqá·mé 'berry that falls or drops' > 'blackcap berry', x'éxwáméls 'grabbing' > 'burdock', c'c'c'c'c'c'h (c'c'c'c'c'h) 'stinging many times' > 'stinging nettle' (cp. c'c'tól 'rattlesnake'), c'c'wq'c'c'q'w 'poking many times; thorn' > '(Scotch) thistle', and c'c'q'w łp 'tree that pokes' > 'spruce tree'.

Named for how it is harvested: k'w·x'áméls 'knock or rap the berry' > 'shiny black mountain huckleberry or blueberry', sk'wq'wəces 'something clubbed on the hand' > 'red huckleberry', t'el'oméłp 'stick to tree' > 'wild cherry' (the outer bark is peeled off for designs on cedar root baskets, some left natural (reddish brown) and some dyed black with alder or iron; the green inner bark is peeled for medicine; both are
tricky to peel without ruining the outer bark which
seems to stick to the tree), q̕'emét'w 'pull up by the
roots' (q̕'emét 'pull up by the roots') > 'water lily'
(use unknown), and possibly c̕'esléc 'grow at the bot-
tom' > 'saskatoon berry' (to describe harvesting).

Named for use by fauna: pip̕ehám'lews 'frog leaf'
and s̕̕'wels te pip̕ehâːm 'frog's mat, frog's mattress'
both > 'plantain', and s̕̕'wels te sp̕̕'θ 'bear's mat-
tress' > 'sword fern' (because the female bear lies on
this (and eats it) when she is going to give birth).

Named for taste: q̕'ët'ëm̕'yəp 'sweet-tasting
bark tree' > 'balsam' (the cambium was scraped and
eaten), q̕'ëyt'a 'sweet-tasting (+ ?) > 'orange honey-
suckle', and q̕'ëq'ët'ëm sq̕̕'wθ 'sweet potato' >
'arrowleaf, wapato' (other names for this plant whose
tubers were harvested in marshes and in Sumas Lake
and eaten like sweet potatoes are (Chill.) x̕̕wog̕̕'ë's and
(Tait) sq̕̕̕q̕̕̕wísəq̕̕̕ə).

Named for how eaten: ḱ̕x̀̕x̕ˈx́̕x́̕x̕̕̕ 'spit out many
times' > 'choke cherry' (actually rather tasty once
one get used to it, but the huge stones must be spit
out often) and c̕'ic̕'em̕'wež 'licking a canoe' > 'cot-
tonwood sap' (c' in both cases seems an error for θ',
θ'θ'em 'licking', -s'wež 'canoe'; because the bark
could be peeled off and the sap eaten out of it).
Named for where it grows: cəwó'ip or cəwówe'ip
'beach tree, shore tree' > 'cottonwood' (which grows
along the cécw 'beach, shore') and máq'wem 'swamp' >
'swamp tea, Labrador tea' (máq'wem actually means both).

Other morphosememic patterns include elaborations
of alders (2 kinds named), blackberries (2 kinds named),
blackcaps (3 named), blueberries/huckleberries (7 kinds
named [note: the terms 'huckleberry' and 'blueberry'
are interchangeable in botany; I have used huckleberry
when the actual color is specified other than blue]),
cherries (3 named), elderberries (2 named), ferns (5
kinds, 8 names), firs (2 kinds + cover term), fungus
(3 kinds), gooseberries (2 kinds named) + one currant,
grasses (2 named + cover term), plantains (2 kinds,
3 names), reeds (4 kinds named), mosses (2 kinds named
+ cover term), Oregon grapes (2 kinds named). Diag-
nostic features (perhaps componential and allosemic)
which speakers refer to to differentiate the above
elaborations are as follows:
tall/short: alder, blackberry, blueberry, Oregon grape
mt./anywhere/swamp: alder, blueberry, fern
color (black/blue/gray/red/white): blackcap, blueberry,
elderberry, moss, fungus
fruit bunched/not bunched: blueberry, cherry
taste good/bad/poison: fern, (blueberry, elderberry,
cherry, etc.)
leaf shape: fern, wineberry
stickers many/normal/none: gooseberry and currant
where growing, ground/under spruce/on trunk/on limbs:
plantain, moss, fern, fungus
sharp/scaldable: grass
(unclear, possibly round (+ smooth) stem/serrated stem):
reeds

Thus: χέγ'έκp 'alder', wésew'y 'small mountain alder'; sk'wólimex' 'blackberry', sx'wilmex'eq sk'wólimex' 'wild trailing blackberry'; celqá'mé 'blackcap', p'eq celqá'mé 'whitecap (white blackcap)', c'elic'aplex'w (both c' may be θ') 'wineberry (probably red blackcap)'; málsem 'tall marsh blueberry', Ḗewqί'm 'short gray marsh blueberry (with berry in bunches)', lēθ'ilec 'large gray mountain huckleberry', sx'w(?)ex'iyex'eq 'small low-bush gray mountain huckleberry (grows on summits)(probably 'dwarf blueberry (vaccinium caespitosum)'), x'iyex'skw' 'mountain blueberry resembling sx'wex'iyex'eq but sweeter (oval-leaved blueberry, vaccinium ovalifolium)', k'w'x'ámóls 'shiny black mountain huckleberry (vaccinium membranaceum)', sqē'le and sk'wéq'ces 'red huckleberry (vaccinium parvifolium)'; k'w'k'wéls '(bitter) cherry (prunus emarginata)(grows in bunches)', (Tait) Ḗex'shxw' 'choke cherry (prunus
virginiana) (cherries in a line along branch) (grows at Yale and above)', t'elémsélp 'wild cherry tree (probably prunus emarginata)', t'ík'wélk'w 'blue elderberry', sél'iwéq' 'red elderberry'; t'sók'w 'mountain fern with wide top (now used by florists)', welók'wes 'poison fern that grows in swampy places', pt'ék'wem 'bracken fern', s'éq 'bracken fern root (can be roasted and eaten)', (s)gévélem 'sword fern (root can also be baked in ashes, peeled and eaten)', sélwels to spé·θ 'sword fern', st'uslýás - (Cheh.) šésíp 'licorice fern (grows on trunk and limbs of maple trees, perhaps on other trees, sweet licorice tasting roots chewed for colds, coughs and asthma)'; l'é·yélp 'Douglas fir', t'ág'wélp 'white fir', c'sél'iyélp 'fir tree'; q'éméq·es - q'émós 'big white mushroom that come out from under moss (edible)', sámáq'wes 'bracket fungus (Fomes sp.) (grows perpendicular to trunk, edible from rotten alder logs, washed and cooked it tastes meaty like mushroom)', tóméž 'Indian paint fungus (probably a lichen)(red on rocks), red ochre, red paint', spápéqw 'mould (on food, clothes, etc.); t'é·mxw 'gooseberry (Ribes divaricatum, ribes lobbii)(found in marshes or swamps, has large spaced thorns)', t'é·mx·w·ýélp 'swamp gooseberry (ribes lacustre)(has many thorns all over which can infect like devil's club thorns)', sp'é·θ 'red-flowering
currant (ribes sanguineum) (has no thorns) (its flower is called q'el'ye's); pæx'y·y 'sharp grass (which cuts a person)', ə'ə·xəy or ə'ə·xəy 'white straw grass (reedgrass, especially bluejoint reedgrass)', sá·x'el 'grass (all kinds)'; pipeham·lews - sićwels te pipehà·m 'plantain (common type) (grows most anywhere)', pepepá·tem 'rattlesnake plantain (grows under spruce trees)'; sə'ə·qel 'bullrush (used to weave mats)', xәməm 'horsetail reed', xəq'we·l·e 'scouring rush' (perhaps < 'drag' + '(in) container' for its use in cleaning bowls and dishes; this last-minute etymology was not entered with the others), wə·l 'round reed, tule'; məxt'ələs 'gray moss hanging on tree limbs', sq'əl'əp 'beard moss (gray, black when on spruce trees, grows on trunk and limbs), black moss bread', q'wám 'moss (any kind, on rocks or trees)'; sel'ye'p 'short Oregon grape' (has term for fruit sel'yi), ə'ə·le'yiye'p 'tall Oregon grape' (lacks term for fru'.

Other areas of the domain of flora are classes of flora, parts, actions or processes, and medicines. Medicines will not be treated further here because many of them and recipes for them are family possessions not divulged outside a given family. They are still used today and many are quite effective, but only the most common are talked about generally.
Classes of flora include about 16 terms so far, characterized by frequent use of ṭ 'diminutive' and -eŋp 'plant, tree' and with words for weeds by use of -eŋp 'dirt, earth, ground'. Terms found include:

- ṭeqq't - ṭeqq't 'tree', ṭeqqet (Cheh.) ṭeqqet
  'little tree', ṭeqeq'ŋyəŋp 'small tree', ṭeqeqet 'many trees, thicket, forest, timber', ṭeqeq'ŋeqc 'the woods' (cp. xŋeqeq'eqm 'go through the woods'),

- c'eqeq'eqp 'fern', c'eqeq'eqp 'thorn bush',

- ṭeqeq'eqp 'berry bush, berry plant', ṭeqeq'eqlwp 'vegetable food (any kind, including bulbs, roots, stalks, etc.)', xeqeq'eqwel (both xeq may be qeq) 'small bush, shrub, underbrush', sq'eqplwc 'dense underbrush' ('something gathered together at bottom'), sc'eqc'eqsem 'small plants' ('something growing'), c'eqeq'eqel 'weeds in garden', sq'ilwp 'weeds; a lot of dirt; garbage', sqeq'eqwel 'grass', and qwá'm 'moss'.

Parts of plants are perhaps more extensively developed (32 terms so far) and are characterized by:
special terms for particular plants (14), frequent use of lexical suffix -eŋ - ey - iy 'bark, wood' (9 terms) and somatic suffixes (8 or 9 terms)(especially with -eŋs 'hand' > 'bough'), contrast between inner and outer barks, and sememic joining of ['fruit'] and ['berry'](seqeq'eqm), ['bark'] and ['wood'] (eqeq'eq)
['nut'] and ['seed'] and ['heart of root'] and ['core (of anything)'] (sθ'e'mf-wel). Also notable are several interesting but unsystematic sememic and morphosememic developments ('sewing needle, bullrush mat needle, fir or pine needle', 'lump on tree (burl), lump on person (goiter, etc.)'; 'knothole' < 'container of branch', 'pussywillow' < 'puppies in the hand', etc.). Some of these terms for parts of plants are: s-θ'i'm 'berry, fruit', s-θ'em-θ-wel 'nut, seed, heart of root (removed in root-splitting), core (of anything)', s-θ'eθq-iy 'green inner shoots (of blackcap, salmonberry, thimbleberry, cow parsnip, wild rhubarb, fireweed, possibly others)(peeled and eaten raw in spring)', sáq'w 'outer part of stem or sprout (of cow parsnip, and perhaps other plants)', ḡ'óp-ey-θq 'inner part of berry (hull) left on bush when certain berries are picked (raspberry, blackcap, wineberry, thimbleberry, salmonberry, etc. not blackberry, etc.)' (< 'closed (of eye)' + 'bark, wood' + 'on top of head'), k'w'emlex 'root', sc'axv't 'branch', sc'axv't-ces 'limb (of tree, bush)', sc'axv't-ɛ·1e 'knothole', xp'ë-y-ces 'cedar limb, cedar bough', s-1ew-iy 'inner cedar bark', sák'wem (q'w?) 'outer cedar bark, cedar bark splint', s-l-ɛ·y 'Douglas fir bark or wood', c's-ɛ·y 'fir bark or wood', sc'á·xe 'leaf', s-p'ɛ·q'em 'bloom, flower',

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p'εθ'-tel or p'εθ'-tel 'needle (fir, pine, sewing, mat)', (Tait) sc'ěk' 'cone (of fir, pine, etc.)', p'el-y-i·ws 'bark', x'wylem 'vegetable fibres or strings, string, thread, rope', smec 'lump (on tree or person), burl, goiter', k'wix 'pitch, sap, gum', k'wix-eıp 'pitchwood (usually fir)', sθ'ík'em 'tiny slivers of fir bark', sʔe-lác 'bottom or trunk of tree', st'ěx 'fork (in tree, river, road)', s-t'it'eq-eų 'fork in root or tree', c'seq 'thorn', (Cheh.) sx'w-t'ěm-eel - (Tait) súšekiW (< Thompson [šišekW]) 'cedar sapling', sq'wemęy-cees 'pussy willow' (sq'wemęy 'dog' + R- 'diminutive' > sq'wemęy 'puppy' + Aε of i 'plural (of diminutive)' > sq'wemęy 'puppies' + -ces 'in the hand' > 'puppies in the hand' > 'pussy willow'), s-qew-ε·mę 'side of tree first warmed by sun' (cp. qew-εget 'warm oneself by fire'), sq'xeıp 'stump'.

Actions and processes of florae include 19 terms at present (some derivations) and features -em 'middle voice' and -ẹt 'reflexive' and s- (plus or minus R) 'participle'. -f(·)wεl 'insides', -emę 'pole, standing (tree)' and -ε·lews 'leaf, leaves' are featured with living florae, while -ių - -ę·y 'bark, wood' is featured with dying florae. Terms include: c'f·s-ém 'grow (of flora or fauna)', x'w(W) 'uncurl, open shoots,
wake up (of flora or fauna)', p'q'em 'to bloom',
χelc'-fw6l-öm 'twisted of a tree', s-χelc'-ömeθ 'grown twisted (of a tree)', s'ewc'-öm 'rustling (of leaves, papers, etc., a sharp sound only)', q'ewk'-öm '(make) squeaking sound (of tree, chair, shoe, etc.), sme'm6iq'w 'lumpy (of bark, ground, etc.)', x'wis 'fall off (of leaves, berries) (cp. x'wis-et 'shake off leaves or berries'), x'wes-č-lews 'leaves falling',
p'ýx'w and p'ýx'-öm (possibly x'w) 'fall of or blow (of petals or seed fluff)', t'ýpi-y-öet 'die (of tree or plant) (t'ýpi-y-öet 'dying (of tree or plant)'), st't'épiyi 'dead (of tree or plant, i.e. of flora)', y'éq' 'fall (of tree) (cp. y'éq'-öet 'to fall a tree'), syéq' 'fallen tree, log', pq'w-č-y 'rotten wood, decayed and broken wood' (< pq'w 'break off, split off'), pq'w-č-y-öet 'wood decays'. Note the allomeric metaphor of the plant 'waking up'.

Terms for harvesting and processing the harvest are related closely to this domain and include terms like 2q'wät 'to bark a tree', x'wiset 'shake off berries or leaves', hί'm 'pick(ing) fruit (especially berries), picking leaves', etc. They have been omitted here because they are not fully compiled and because they all involve action of humans or other fauna and are not functions of flora themselves.
13.2.7. Categories of Humans. Seven kinterms express relationships to a child whose parent or guardian (the connecting link) has died or left. This emphasizes the Stalo concern for orphaned children and the cultural fact that Stalo children are frequently raised by relatives other than parent. Several other terms also emphasize relationship even though a connecting link dies; perhaps connected is the fact that public response is much greater in attending funerals and helping a bereaved family that it is in the surrounding white society. A number of kinterms have allophones linking more distant relatives to nuclear family members, and this may reflect extended family lodging in longhouses and pithouses. Social status terms show four classes: chief, other upper class person, average person, and slave; terms for tribes and nationalities are usually borrowed from the outside group as are terms for non-Indian occupations. Most native occupation terms tell what the person does, often using lexWs- or s- + R added to the verb root. Much interesting detail could be added to this summary.

13.2.8. Religion and the Spirit. This domain (100 terms attested so far) covers the categories mentioned in the last chapter. Many of the terms
have root *yuw-* or *yew-* 'possess power of a spirit'
(syஸwe 'seer, fortune-teller', syุwแปลก 'spirit power,
guardian spirit; spirit song', syʉwิ•l 'power to do
witchcraft; witch; ritualist; an evil spell', yewิ•lt
'cast an evil spell on s-o', syʉwมีqæs 'large rattle
used by some dancers at spirit dance', hʉywิlake 'a
burning song; a sx์ayףyx-wife song', yuwi•leq 'medicine
song'). Several different spirits are recognized with
separate terms (sx์welige 'life spirit', smetiyex 'soul,
spirit which can be lost and returned while remaining
alive', syʉwแปลก 'guardian spirit, spirit power', slে•m
'spirit power of an Indian doctor', and spaleq 'ghost; corpse'). The words for 'Indian doctor'
(sx์welige) and his power (slে•m) seem to have root lé•m
'go, going', while -ɪ•l - -el 'go' occurs in several
of the words quoted with root *yuw-* *yuw-'; perhaps
this is because all these words involve spirit-travel-
ling to learn things, perform acts in other places,
find other spirits, etc.

Other interesting metaphors involve 'climbing
oneself' > 'training oneself to be an Indian doctor
or spirit dancer' (k์wlek'wiyæet), c'sléx 'go into
quieter water' > sc'e léx 's(ex)perienced spirit dan-
cer', ḥwףay (or ḥwףey) 'many people die' > sx์ayףyx
'sx์ayףyx-wife mask or dance' (many people die in the
story of how the mask originated), 'rain shelter device' > 'square dressing-room of blankets where the sxwāywy dancers dress' (q'alēc'tel), 's-o is put away' > 'funeral' (qē·yləntəm), 'marking device' > 'carved grave pole' (yx·ē-s'ac-tel), and 'breaking one's canoe(s)' (ye·k'á·l-em, ye-l-k'á·l-em) as well as ḫx'weqet 'sweep up oneself' both > 'have the last spirit dance of the season, have "the sweep-up"'.

13.2.9. Buildings and Household Goods. This domain includes more non-Indian items now than Stalo items. It includes types of buildings (at least 27), parts of buildings (at least 25), kitchen utensils (at least 24), furniture (at least 17), other household items (at least 30 to 40), and how to make or use any of the foregoing (at least 33). Most of the types of buildings are listed in Chapter 5 under -ē·wtxw 'building'; some of the few that are not so suffixed are sqemel 'pit house', sqiqemel 'puberty hut, menstrual hut' (< 'little pit house'), qetǐ·wstål 'sweat house', sxwiym'łe 'store', and t'm-ĩ·ws-è·ls 'log cabin' ('chop(ped)' + 'on outside covering, skin' + ?). Most of the -ē·wtxw terms describe with verb root the activity done within. Parts of buildings include things like 'main rafters' (< 'climbing up'), 'wall', 'housepost, carved inside post', 'roof plank, wall
plank, shake, covering of hole in pit house', etc.
Kitchen utensils elaborate spoons (5 terms) and bowls
or troughs (7 terms).

13.2.10. Clothing (including ornaments and glasses).
Some 52 terms have been found so far (all but nine
completely analyzable). -tel 'device, thing for' is
common (on 15 terms). 24 of the terms use 13 somatic
suffixes to specify where the item is worn. Other lex-
ical affixes include those natural with clothing:
-šios 'covering, skin', -šlwt 'garment', -šyiws 'pants',
(< 'bark covering'), -iy 'bark', -š Ley 'container', etc.
-š ileq is used to describes 'waves' in an 'underskirt'.
Few borrowings are found (only three, possibly five),
in spite of the fact that most of the items were brought
by the white man. Some cases of diminutive R occur.
Roots describe the appearance (22 cases), function (11
cases), or material (5 cases). The same root is often
used in pairs or larger sets of words, with a somatic
suffix telling where the item is worn: 'gathered' >
'armband' and 'garter', 'strap' > 'belt' and 'shoelace',
'poke' > 'ear-ring' and 'brooch', 'hook' > 'nose-ring'
and 'necklace, neckerchief, scarf', 'clothes' > 'dress'
and 'shawl', 'deep, under' > 'shirt, undershirt' and
'modern skirt' and 'underclothes' and 'underskirt,
slip' and 'underpants' (all these items are worn under
or are tucked under), 'dirt' > 'moccasin' and 'diaper' and 'menstrual pad', 'denim' (itself named from 'soft rustling of material, shuffling') > 'denim clothes' and 'denim pants, jeans', 'inner cedar bark' > 'dress', 'outer cedar bark' > 'cedar bark skirt', 'animal' > 'buckskin clothes'. 'Eyeglasses' has two terms (synonymous): s-t'ale-7a.les-tel 'lose sight of in eyes device' (cp. 'eclipse') and sk'ec-às-tel-à.les 'window or mirror on the eyes' or 'device on the eyes for seeing faces'.

13.2.11. Hunting and Processing the Catch. This domain has not been compiled yet but includes terms for devices, methods, and verbs of hunting (at least four traps are named and paired with distinct verbs to set each, for example; also two slingshots, bow, arrow, quiver, parts of the arrow (feather for arrow, shaft, arrowhead) — all are separately named); terms for butchering, preserving, and storing meat; for tanning hides and sewing; processing wool (carding, spinning, dyeing, weaving; verbs and devices or items). There are as many verbs as nominals in this domain, and they are often paired (verb and nominal). Weaving nets (from plant fibre), weaving mats (from bullrushes or cedar bark), and weaving baskets (from cedar roots and slats, cherry bark, reedgrass) all belong with Gather-
ing and Processing the Harvest.

13.2.12. Fishing and Processing the Catch. This domain is even more highly developed than the last. 75 terms have been gathered so far and cover methods of catching and processing fish (butchering, smoking, wind-drying, storing, etc.), equipment used, and parts of the equipment. At least 15 different methods (each named) of catching fish have been found (dip-netting, still-dipping (resting dip-net on river bottom), set-netting or gill-netting, setting a line from shore for sturgeon (gang-line or cross-line), spearing, spearing sq'wetem, gaffing, torchlighting, pole-fishing, jerk-lining, scooping eulachon, drift-netting between two canoes, drift-netting between two canoes but for sturgeon, setting a net and drifting with it, and trapping fish by weir); these are distinct names too, not inflectional variations of one another. Each method has a number of verbs and associated nominals (bait a hook, mend a net, sliding bone rings for dip-net, etc.). There are nearly 40 terms for equipment and parts of equipment (attested so far)(8 nets including separate ones for spring salmon, sockeye, ocho, etc.; a fish spear has: tê'ê 'detachable harpoon points', qwexw 'prong of fish spear', aʔêlém 'shaft of spear', taléptel 'string or line attached to points of fish spear', and c'síčim 'spear pole knot (clove hitch)';
there is even p'ɛp'wɛh 'sturgeon spear' and shɛlqs 'seal spear' beside tɛ·l 'fish spear'). There are different methods of cutting and drying fish as well, each named. Much of the equipment is named with -tel 'device' (suffixed to each name for a type of salmon it yields 'coho net', 'sockeye net', etc.). Verb roots of this domain are more actions than descriptions.

13.2.13. Tools for Making Things. 29 terms have been found so far (18 pre-contact, 11 post-contact tools). Most have -tel - -els 'device' (q.v. in Chapter 5), s- - sxʷ- 'nominalizer' and/or R 'continuative' (thus 'device or thing for doing an activity'). Roots are verbs describing what the item does in all cases but the few borrowings (ləp'yus 'hoe' < French la pioche 'pickaxe, mattock', lapəl 'shovel' < French la pelle 'shovel', həmo 'metal hammer (for nails)' < English, métəkes 'mattock' < English).

13.2.14. Baskets and Basketry (especially cedar root). This domain includes types of baskets (cover term si·tel 'basket' plus 14 types attested to date), parts (11 terms), and techniques (12 terms to date). Four tools used may also belong (mattock and adze for digging roots, awl and borer for making holes in weaving). Baskets are named for what they contain (nominal root + -ɛ·lə 'container' as in: 'berry basket', 'bait
basket', 'clothes (belongings) basket', 'Indian ice cream basket', 'stink salmon egg basket') or what they do ('squeeze face' > 'basketry cradle, baby basket' (p'áθ'ēes), 'thing to fetch water' > 'water basket' (sx'wágá'm), 'salmonberries in the hand' (Tait) and 'something poured' (Cheh.) both > 'little berry basket (tied around waist, berries from hand go into it, when it's full it is poured into the large berry basket (sé'imélè) on one's back)' (lí·le-ces (Tait), sk'wéi-am (Cheh.) respectively). θ'ówex - k'pét 'cedar slat basket' (k'ép 'deep, under') and sk'wēm 'storage basket' are probably descriptive in origin. Parts of baskets include: sk'wélec 'coiled bottom of basket before the sides are on', yem-éws-tel 'wide cedar root strips for baskets (wrapped around bundles of fine strips)', sx'wéc'éltel 'fine cedar root strips for baskets (bundled and wrapped with yeméws'tel when the basket is constructed)', xp'-á'y-s 'wide cedar slats from saplings (for θ'ówex baskets)', sx'èles 'basket design', st'élm 'cherry bark for basketry imbrication', (Tait) pótel - (Cheh.) c'q'éyx st'élm 'blackened cherry bark for basketry imbrication', θ'èyx 'reedgrass bleached white (for basketry imbrication)', q'p'élctel 'lid, cover', yémqtel 'buckskin strips zig-zagged over top of harvest as lid for
berry basket'. Techniques include: sc'6q'w 'fine cedar root weaving', c'eq'w6wek 'to weave a cedar root basket', xp'ays 'cedar slat work', síq'wem 'peel off outer cedar bark' (< soq'wem 'outer cedar bark'), seq'et te kwémlaxw 'split the root', x'j'pet te kwémlaxw 'peel the root, scrape the root, taper the root (with a knife), straighten (unevenly split) root', s6xw 'to split a root from the wrong end (the small end)', t'6c'exelím 'to split roots an uneven thickness', q'elq'et 'split it open (with fingernail) (of white grass for basket designs or of thin inside bullrush for string)', q'elq'et 'wind it around s-th'. Terms used in techniques include four not specific to cedar root basketry.

13.2.15. Canoes. This domain includes types of canoes or boats (10 terms), parts of canoes or boats (8 terms), equipment for canoe or boat (7 terms), how to make a canoe (16 words or phrases, possibly plus 9 relevant tools), accidents and repairing a canoe (14 terms), and how to canoe (67 terms!). River conditions and counting canoes and canoe paddles are also related to this domain but not part of it.

Types of canoes and boats include sléxwet 'any canoe', q'axw6wek 'war canoe, largest canoe made', x'wáq'welecem 'large river canoe with high bow' (< 'drags
its behind'), ρ'αλέ'y 'shovel nose river canoe' (possibly < root in ρ'έλ-1-εξ' 'stop' + -έ'y '(in) bark, wood' referring to its ability to shovel onto shore so travellers could step ashore), sq'έθεμ 'canoe with shovel nose at each end', tέγωζ 'racing canoe', t'q'έλεκ 'canoe or boat cut off short in back (stern couldn't be repaired)', ʔ'έθεμ 'raft', potόωζ 'row boat', and stim'ότ or stim'ότ 'steamboat'. Roots, except for borrowings, refer to appearance ('drag', 'broken (like string or rope)') and function ('stop', 'to canoe race'); two or three terms (if slέx'έθε is counted) use -όωζ 'canoe'; two refer to the "behind" ('stern') of the canoe with -έλεκ.

Parts of canoes include q'έθάλ 'bow of canoe', ρ'έλωζ 'middle (on inside) of canoe', ʔ'έθ(•)q 'stern of canoe' (these three with allophony already traced), ρέξ-έλωζ-τέλ 'thwart or crosspiece in canoe' (< 'lay in middle of canoe device'), ρέξ-όως-τέλ 'boards on bottom of canoe to set things on' (< 'lay paddle on device'), (s)pάτελ 'sail' (< 'blow device'), (s)pάτελ-έ'λέ 'mast', (Tait) sx'έθελακ - (Cheh.) ʔέθελετελ 'rudder' (< 'fixing in rear device').

Equipment includes: slέx'έθέ&wtx' 'canoe shed', sq'όμόλ 'canoe paddle', -όως 'canoe paddle', ʔόλελ 'canoe bailer', sx'όq'έτελ 'canoe pole', potόως 'car
(for rowboat)', q'él-x'el-tel 'canoe mat (to kneel on)', s'hwél '(bulrush) mat (used for sail, canoe mat, house mat, etc.)'. -tel and -owes are the common suffixes here, and roots (except for borrowed pot < English 'boat') express the activities done by the equipment ('bail device', 'pole (a canoe) device', 'protect leg device').

How to make a canoe (hë'y 'make a canoe') includes (in order of construction): yeq'et 'fall a tree', x'w'ylemt 'measure it (by hanging strings to check levelness)', peq'w'-iwé-t 'split it in half', t'ëm-eqs-t 'chop the point or end of it, shape it (of a log by chopping its end)', g'iyq'w'-iwé-t 'dig it out inside' or t'ëm-ewí-l-t 'chop the inside of it out' or t'ëmt'émt qesu peq'wát 'chop notches in it and remove them', x'wix'yepówesel 'planing a canoe', x'wip-ewí-l-t 'plane it inside', q'w'el-yet 'burn on pitch on it (of a canoe)(to keep it from cracking in the sun, burn off splinters, and apply pitch for better glide)', t'ët 'try it out' (to see if it is tippy, etc.), w'iyet 'spread it wide (of canoe, by filling it with water and dropping red hot rocks in to boil the water; this spreads the canoe)', g'iyet te i'xelwéñtel 'fix the thwarts or crosspieces', and x'zált te i'xelwéñtel li te q'él 'bore a hole in the thwart in the bow (so mast can be inserted at need).
In the subdomain just above, how to make a canoe, the roots are all activities of course; note the frequent use of -iwe'l -iwe'l 'insides' in terms that would rarely be used outside of canoe-building. Some of the above terms are not limited to canoe construction, i.e. yeq'et, t'emt'emet, ezq'at, t'et, q'yt, x'á'it and probably x'øy'at. Tools used here may fit in, for example, string, hatchet, broadaxe, wedge (used while chopping out the inside), hand-hammer (of stone), mattock (used now), elbow adze for canoe-making (h'ól'ytel 'making canoes device', -le- 'plural object'), x'ó'x'epels 'plane', especially sq'wemóx' x'ó'x'epels 'horseshoe-shaped plane (bend blade with handles added) for canoe-making', and x'á-x'ó'ls 'a borer, auger'.

Canoes can be x'áx'wa 'light', x'ó'et'es 'heavy', or k'w'étem 'tippy' and can k'w'é 'tip over, spill (of canoe, cup, anything)', k'wé'op 'capsize', p'fx'w 'leak (of a canoe)', míg' 'sink (of anything)', qep'ás '(be) turned over (of canoe in water and other things)', and everyone can qwés 'fall overboard, fall in water'. Repairs (qé'yt te sláx'wél 'fixing or repairing a canoe') seem to involve -owe'l in all terms: qep'ásowe'l 'canoe turned upside down on land', qep'esowe'l 'turning over a canoe (on land)', t'sk'owel or t'sq'owel 'caulking a canoe', ezq'owel 'patching a canoe' (< ezq'et 'patch it').
I will not quote all the terms for how to canoe, but here is a representative selection: ʔɛ·yixʷi·lem 'canoe-riding, out canoe-riding' (< ʔɛ·y 'keep on going'), iłxʷi·lem 'go for a canoe ride', iščetiyel 'group of canoes travelling upstream (in moving to camp for fish-drying)', t'éχʷel 'going across the river', tɛ·y 'to race a canoe', ḋeq'áθel 'two canoes side by side drift-netting for sturgeon' (cp. ḋeq'át 'wide'), x̣ elsewhere 'two canoes side by side drift-netting' (< x̣am- - x̣em- 'shallow?'), yéχʷet 'untie it, loosen it (of tied-up canoe or anything)', ḋeláž 'get aboard' (< ḋel 'middle (?)' as in ḋelwé), ḋa·ž 'be aboard', ʔá·istexʷ 'put s-th aboard' (last three words can refer also to car, wagon, etc.), qʷsét 'launch it, push it (or s-o) into the water, put it into the water' (< qʷées 'fall into water'), ẓeqáθsem 'push out from shore (man in bow does this with paddle when crew is aboard)' (< ẓeq'át 'shove s-th (i.e. sudden action)'), ẓeqáθsem 'push out from shore (in canoe)' (< ẓeq'át 'push s-th (more steady action)'), hiqet tè sléχʷet 'push out your canoe into the water', tá·l 'go out into the middle of the river, go away from shore (in canoe)', woq'Wellem 'drift downstream' (and the set of directional words for upstream and downstream), ḋwxʷeq'Wet xʷehfweł 'poling upstream (in a riffle)', ḋwxʷet 'pole
a canoe', lexēyəc 'to torchlight (spear fish at night from canoe by torchlight or firelight or lantern)',
lágwexə te pátel 'put up a sail', páteləm 'to sail',
əxəl 'paddle a canoe', yəʔəl 'paddling along, travelling by paddling', xʷələ-xəwes 'lift one's paddle while paddling', q'á:ləs - q'á:ləsem 'pry at bow to turn sharply (return paddle to edge of canoe and pry against it)', q'ələc - q'ələcəm - q'ələcəl 'pry in stern to turn canoe sharply', xímes - xímesəm 'pull in once (at bow) to turn wide or slowly (reach out with paddle and pull it toward canoe)', ələlec 'steering at stern to keep canoe straight (with paddle or rudder)(may involve switching sides)', c'ələces 'switch sides in paddling', c'ələc'əl-əs - c'ələc'əl-əwəsəm 'repeatedly switching sides in paddling', ʔi-yə'et 'go backwards (of anything), back up, paddle backward, step backward, etc.', ələ-tes-t 'splash/spray s-o with water, flip water into s-o's face (with paddle or anything)', ələ-leet 'bail (a canoe)', q'əwəq'əlem 'turn around a bend, turn around to go back', ələ-wəxə 'pass by s-th', təwəsəm - təwəsəl 'tow a canoe, pulling a canoe by rope on bow through rough water (while a man with paddle stays in to push away from bank)', ələk 'get stuck in mud, get mired (of anything)', xəwələ 'drag a canoe', xələwələ 'dragging a canoe', əleməwələ
'carry a canoe on shoulders' (cp. ?ilém-t 'carry s-th on shoulders'), c'blóxw 'go into a quiet backwater', \( \pm 'l \) or \( \pm 'l \) 'land a canoe', q'wím 'get out of a canoe', q'wímél 'unloading a canoe, taking things out of a canoe', táz'ët te slóxw 'pull up a canoe (on the beach)', q'ëyset 'tie it up (canoe, horse, laces, nets, etc.)', and x'ec'ëwes 'store or put away canoe paddles (for winter)'. (See chapter on numerals for forms like k'wilówëk 'how many canoes?', k'wilówës 'how many paddles (or paddlers)?', ëq'eesówëk 'five canoes', ëq'eesówës 'five canoe paddles, five paddlers', and ?islé·wës 'two paddles (or paddlers)').

I have given many forms here because this specialization seems quite remarkable and interesting. Most of the terms apply only to canoeing (and boating in recent times). This specialization is understandable because the Stalo are a river people (as their name implies); perhaps it has been aided by the fact that canoe-racing has survived strongly and is very popular with all ages. The area of canoeing could be divided up into types of canoe travel, launching and landing, directions, strokes, portages, sailing and bailing and poling. Several morphosememic patterns can be seen in roots and in affixes. The distinction between ëëësëm and ëëësëm apparently derives from that between 'shove'
and 'push' where the former implies ['single sudden action'] and the latter ['steadier, more prolonged action']. q'á'lés(əm) and q'ê'lëc(əm) both derive from q'al- 'twist' as in q'el-q' and q'el-p' (see lexical suffixes chapter under -q' and -p'). ñim-əs may < lì'm 'pick(ing)(fruit or leaves)' since both involve reaching out and pulling s'-th back towards one.

Gë·y·e·lec < root Gë·y ['fixing'] allophone rather than from ['making'], i.e. 'fixing (the direction of travel) in the stern'. ñí·l-əet 'bail' has the same root, 'spray, splash', as in zëltəs, zá·ltəs 'spray' and zëltəstem 'sprinkling' (t is lost before -əet). The root in c'ál·əes may be the same as in c'âlëxʷ 'go into quieter water' if the root means 'switch' and c'álëxʷ is 'switch to quieter water'. As mentioned in the alloemony, -ás - -əs has allophone ['bow of canoe'] and -(e)leć has allophone ['stern of canoe'] in this domain (except with zëlt·əs·t). -əweł 'canoe' seems to be used in all the words for portages; -í·l - -əl 'go' is common throughout the area of canoeing. And when 'repeatedly switching sides in paddling' ones can either switch hands (-əes) or switch one's body (-əws) to do it.

13.2.16. Emotions and Feelings, Attitudes and Mental Processes. A partial list of words elicited con-
tains about 86 terms. The allosemic variations of a number of these were considered in the last chapter. The domain expectedly contains many words with somatic suffixes referring to the mind (-íwel - i·wel - èwel 'in the insides (the mind and feelings)', -wèl 'minded', -élwel 'in the mind'), with lex\(^W\) 'always' and lex\(^W\)s- 'one who always (verbs)' (reflecting attitudes), s- (s-) + R 'participle' (reflecting a state of mind usually), with reflexive inflections (-èet and -lámot) (showing the internal nature of emotions, etc.), and -met 'transitivizer (which implies indirect effect upon the object)'.

As mentioned in 12.0, nine verbs can appear in the structure V A-4.6 sq\(^W\)èlewèl-4.6 and morphosemantically combine to yield attitude terms: ?èy tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'I'm glad/grateful/thankful., I have good feelings.' (?èy 'be good'), x\(^W\)ayíwel tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'I'm happy' (x\(^W\)ayíwel 'be happy'), ùè tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'I'm sorry' (ùè 'to hurt'), òèhit-cex\(^W\) tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'keep your mind on what you're doing!, concentrate!' (òèhit 'be careful of s-th'), ñèpste\(^W\)x tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'be patient!' (ñèpste\(^W\)x 'cause s-th to be deep/under/low'), òèyámtex\(^W\) tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'have courage!' (òèyámtex\(^W\) 'make s-th strong'), hík\(^W\) tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'I'm conceited/proud' (hík\(^W\) 'be big'), me qelqéy tel sq\(^W\)èlewèl 'I've lost
heart, I'm discouraged' (qelqeyl 'be destroyed, get destroyed'), cēcē ṣe sqwēlewels '(s)he's emotional (cries easily, happy or sad)' (cēcē 'be tender'), and yēq tel sqwēlewel 'I change my mind' (yēq 'to change').

Sqwēlewel itself, a cover term for this domain, means 'thoughts, feelings, emotions' and derives from sqwē 'talk, speech' + -ewel 'on the insides (in the mind)'; this is a nice confirmation of the Whorf hypothesis. In all nine cases then, the sememic structure is 'My (your, his, etc.) thoughts/feelings (Verb).'</s> or 'My thoughts/feelings are (verb)', which then converts to the glosses above morphosememically.

Other systematic morphosememic patterns include ?iy-ēq-lwes 'brave' < 'good in the stomach' and qel-ēq-lwes 'cowardly, afraid to try' < 'bad in the stomach' (or -ēq-lwes - -ēq-lwes has alloseme ['in courage'] if one allows that much semantic distance between allosemes); (s-)xwē-?ēy-weī - lexw-?ēy-weī 'generous, kind, good-hearted; easy-going, good-natured' < 'good-minded' and 'always good-minded', (xw-)?qel-weī 'stingy' < 'bad-minded', s-qel-wiī(-met) 'hate (s-o), hold a grudge (against s-o)' < 'bad-minded' + ?, and lexw-?qel-weī 'cranky, crabby, dirty-minded' < 'always' + 'bad, dirty' + 'minded'; t'sēk-wēl'mol 'homesick' < 'go home in the mind'; s?á-met 'lazy (by nature)' < ?á-met 'sitting';
słašek' 'dumbfounded, speechless, surprised, overwhelmed, overpowered' and ʃk' 'excited me' < ʃá-k' 'fly' or s-]|á-ʃek' 'flown up' + -ʃwel 'on the insides (in the mind)'; and k'elx'-ʃws-em 'quiet down (of a person) ' < 'stop one's body'.

13.2.17. Senses. This domain divides into sights (visual effects), touches (tactile feelings), sounds, tastes, and smells; each is compatible with certain body function verbs (see 13.1). Allosemantic patterns have been outlined in 12.2.8 and a number of terms are listed there. As mentioned there, smells (11 terms so far), tastes (8 terms), and visual effects (20 terms) are not yet well-attested compared to sounds (76 terms) and touch (30 terms). Each area has cover terms (ʃháq' 'a smell', t'ęs 'a taste', sk'wč 'a sight', lápš 'a sound, a noise', and qét'xæls 'a feeling'), but most members are verbs, often with -em 'middle voice' or 'intransitivizer', often participles or reduplications.

Smells also have a lexical suffix -ʃlæqep (- -aqep - -læqem once) 'smell, in smell' in four examples; most roots are also attested in other words (?eqy-ʃlæqep 'good smell', qél-aqep 'bad smell', qélæqyl-ʃlæqep 'turn bad in smell' < qélæqyl 'destroy(ed)', ʃelcìmølæqep 'how does it smell?').
Tastes so far all have -R₁- plus -əm, probably participles; a few have roots attested elsewhere (as ḥʕ'eq'eq'eq əm 'salty' < ḥʕ'eq'eq 'salt' and pāpəq'eq'eq əm 'getting mouldy in taste or smell' < pāp'eq- as in pāp'eq-əet 'get mouldy'); no lexical suffix for taste has been found yet.

Sights or visual effects have a lexical suffix (as seen in selcim-əməx'eq 'what color is it?, what does it look like?', ḥʕ'y-ā'eq'eq'eq '=?eʕ-ā'eq'eq'eq 'good-looking', etc.) and a lexical prefix for most colors, c- (q.v.); other terms are participial (s- + R, as in šeqeqeqeq 'spotted', sxyxyeq'eq 'striped', šeqeqeqesel 'dark-colored', ləc'eqeqeqtel 'many-colored'); some have -əm but are otherwise unanalyzable (p'eq'eq'eq 'sparkle, flash, reflect, glitter, sparkle', ḥʕ'eq'eq'eq'eq 'bright', c'eq'eq'eq'eq 'dazzling', ḥeqeqeq 'transparent').

No lexical suffix for touch has been found yet; many of the words of touch are participles (with R, s- + R, R + -əm) and many merely have -əm 'middle voice' or 'intransitivizer'; a number of the terms derive from nominals or verbs of similar meanings (qeqeqeqeq 'slippery' < qeqeqeq 'slip, slide', tixeqeq'eq 'slimy' < s-tixeqeqeq 'slime, (esp.) fish slime', ḥeqeqeq 'qeqeqeqeq 'gummy, sticky' < ḥeq'eq- as in ḥeqeqeqeqeseq 'stick to the hand', eqeqeqeqeqeqeqeq 'muddy' < eqeqeqeqeq (wet)
mud', smelmälxʷ 'oily' < mélxʷ-t 'oil it, grease it', etc.).

Sounds include many terms with unanalyzable roots; many of these seem sound symbolic (kʷ'em 'to thud (dull, on ground)', ḡ'elmáqʷ 'els 'make a crunching or cracking noise (like ice breaking or chewing apples)', wet'eləq 'to splatter', wet'elməqʷ 'splash (once)', še'wəc'əm 'make a sharp rustling sound (leaves, paper, etc.)', c'təs 'ringing sound when s-th drops (spoon, heavy ashtray, etc.)', ḡ'əłxəm 'a murmur', kʷpəxʷ 'make a sudden thump when s-th falls to ground', t̓əxʷqəm 'suction sound of s-th pulling out of mud', etc.). Over 20 of these words have -əm 'middle' or -əm 'intransitive', and some also have -əls - -əls 'intransitive' (q'etxəs to leləqel '(s)he's rattling the dishes', q'etxəls 'to rattle (cans, etc. to shivaree or wake newlyweds)', q'etxəm 'rattling (of dishes, metal pots, wagon on gravel), scraping sound (like food off dishes); some of the same sounds can be made with wood, rocks, shells, etc. instead of post-contact metal and pottery). Many of these words can have continuative or plural R kʷənkw'em 'thudding (of footsteps, horse on ground, etc.)', ḡ'əlk'əleqʷ 'continuous shooting or popping sounds' < ḡ'əleqʷ '(make) a pop, a shot'); some have a we- prefix of unclear meaning (wek'əleqʷ 'a shot, explosion').
Two subgroups of sounds exist, one referring to the voice with -(ə)qel somatic suffix: selqel 'loud (of a voice), a loud voice' (Gî±- 'big'), st'seqel -
steqîl 'sounds like (a person)' (ste̓ 'similar, like'), x'iyāeqel 'sharp (in) voice, high pitch in voice or melody' (?iy-áe 'sharp' < 'good edge'), ?ayemqel 'slow (in) voice' (perhaps -qel 'language' instead here) (?áyem 'slow'), x'iyeqel 'clear voice' (x'we- 'become, go', ?ėy̌ 'good'), ?iyeqel 'pleasant voice' (?iy̌s 'pleasant, fun'), t'f'weqel 'high-pitched (and/or) slow words or talking' (t'f'we 'slow beat'). A few words lack the suffix but fit in sememically: sx'ifeqe 'soft voice' (< x'wefair 'talk quietly'), ḥeqole̓steq 'te sqelx'eqe 'lower one's voice in pitch', etc. The roots with these -(ə)qel words are descriptive Vaj's in all cases. selci'imeleqel 'what does it sound like?' may belong in this subgroup or the next.

The second subgroup has terms with -èléqel 'sound' (which is homophonous with -èléqel 'smell, in smell'): stéléqep 'a distant sound', səsetéléqep 'keep on hearing a distant sound', ?əheléqep 'a faint sound carried by the air, sound within earshot or hearing distance' (< ?eh- as in ?eh-á't 'wrap s-th up'), ?xwéléqep 'a steady sound that's been stopped for a while' (< ?əxw 'disappear'), cq'éléqep 'a loud sound' (wełay ?xwéléqep
'sound getting softer', mf $\times$ $\omega$ $\zeta$ $\epsilon$ $\zeta$ $\lambda$ $\sigma$ $\gamma$ $\nu$ $\pi$ $\rho$ $\circ$ 'sound getting louder'), $\eta$ $\nu$ $\gamma$ $\alpha$ $\zeta$ $\lambda$ $\xi$ $\rho$ $\eta$ $\pi$ $\sigma$ $\rho$ $\sigma$ $\eta$ 'sharp sound', $\chi$ $\nu$ $\omega$ $\alpha$ $\mu$ $\nu$ $\epsilon$ $\zeta$ $\lambda$ $\gamma$ $\sigma$ $\rho$ $\nu$ 'talks fast (probably sic for 'fast sounds')'; the roots here too seem to be descriptive adjectivals.

13.2.18. Other Domains. The remaining domains mentioned at the beginning of this chapter are somewhat grammatical and somewhat syntactic, but grammatical and syntactic categories are morphosememic categories too. As such they are stored with the other semological information on each term in the speaker's brain. After all, the fact that a word is an adverbial (can modify a verb for example) or a personal pronoun (can be subject or object of a verb for example) or a reciprocal has semantic (and morphosememic) effects as well as grammatical ones, especially in sememic co-occurrence restrictions and in the morphosememics of phrase expansion (see 13.3).

Most of the data has already been given in other parts of the grammar, and some morphosememic information will also be found in those sections. Some of these domains and references include: 1. Adverbials (directions and qualifiers); 6.2.4, 7.3, 7.4, 9.4; 2. Demonstratives and auxiliaries; 9.1, 9.2, 9.3, 9.4, 6.2.7, 6.2.8; 3. Personal Pronouns: Chapter 4, 9.5, 9.6; 4. Transitiveizers, intransitiveizers and benefactive:
6.1.2, 6.1.3; 5. Mood (interrogative, subjunctive, imperative, declarative) and interjections: 6.1.7, 6.2.5, 7.1; 6. Voice (active; passive; middle, reflexive; reciprocal): 6.1.2.2, 6.1.3, 6.1.6 (also Chapter 4, especially 4.4, 4.5, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10); 7. Continuative and plural: 2.3, 2.5, 6.1.9; 8. Numerals: 5.2.2, Chapter 10; 9. Prepositionals: 6.2.3; 10. Conjunctive particles (and disjunctives, etc.): 7.2.

Besides having inflectional, grammatical, and syntactic features unifying them, these domains also have (other) morphosememic features of unity as well. Adverbials include Vadv, Padv, Pmod, and Dadv's; the terms cover the morphosememic areas of intensity of action or state (Vadv's #1, 2, 3, 37, 52 in 6.2.4), sequence (#4, 5), degree of action or state (#17, 18, 37, 39, 41, 51), direction and location (#6 through 16, 19, 50; all Dadv's), iteration (#20, 21), time (#22 through 36, 38, 42, 48, 49), accompaniment (#44, 45), quality of action or state (#46, 47), probability (#40, 43, several Pmod's), obligation to perform action or be in state (remaining Pmod's), and perhaps negatives (#53 through 56).

Demonstratives and auxiliaries are united into a domain because they work together to express nearness of state and destination of action towards or away from
subject; they also provide the carriers for a number of suffixes for verb or nominal.

Personal pronouns express the person, usually the number and often the gender of each subject and/or object of each verb phrase; they clarify these features when nominals are also present as subject and/or object; they also express person and usually number of the possessor of a nominal, and are capable of expressing emphasis of person, number, and gender of possessor, subject, or object.

Transitivizers, intransitivizers and the benefactive may be categories of a single domain because they specify the functions and intents of subjects and objects of each verb phrase. Thus these affixes spell out whether the subject caused the object to do something, did something to the object on purpose, did something for the object, did something accidentally to the object, did something purposely but just for the activity and not for an object in particular, etc. In other words, these affixes spell out the functions and intents of the pronouns required for every verb phrase.

Mood seems to be a domain indicating immediate purposes or attitudes of the speaker in making an utterance: asking a question (interrogative), admitting
uncertainty or dependence on time of action or state (subjunctive and some interjections), giving a command (imperative), making a statement (declarative), or expressing surprise or affirmation (interjections). In these morphosememic functions all varieties of interrogative for example (Vq, -e inflection, ?st- tag-question, etc.) perform the function with similar effect; the only differences for interrogative would be whether the speaker expects a yes or no answer, an explanation, etc. Mood effects the entire sentence. An interesting morphosememic pattern is that interrogative verbs can be put into the subjunctive mood, but this annihilates both moods and produces verbs translated as relative clauses (as mentioned in earlier chapters).

The domain of voice is broader morphosemically than inflectionally. It specifies the direction of action between subject and object of a verb: the subject directs the action or experiences the state (active), the object is directed (acted upon) by a subject which may be unspecified (passive), the subject directs the action towards himself (middle, and reflexive), the subject and the object direct action at each other (reciprocal). The distinction between 'middle voice' and 'reflexive' is very delicate and is explored in 6.1.6 especially.
Continuative and plural are joined together in a morphosememic relationship for several reasons: ablaut and reduplication are both used to form plural for nominals and continuative for verbs; reduplication is also used to form plural subject, plural object, and plural action inflections of some verbs; continuative and plural are sememically similar in that they both enlarge the quantity of what they apply to; both A and R are complex processes with many phonological variations -- these are easier to treat and keep in mind with a linking of continuative and plural.

Numerals of course form a semantic domain because they alone count things exactly, and because certain affixes and allosemes occur only with numerals.

Prepositionals also form a domain with some morphosememic coherence: they include words of direction and location in relation to nominals (ywef·lmels 'be- fore' and stën 'similar to, like' are the only exceptions to this morphosememic categorization); prepositionals are also Vi's which require nominal objects (as discussed in the syntax) and which require special forms of independent pronoun (as discussed in 4.11).

Finally, conjunctive particles and the other members of Fconj (some are disjunctive ('or'), etc.) form a semantic domain, not only because of how they conjoin
syntactically, but also because they are the only terms which morphosemically join nominals, independent pronouns, numerals, verbs, phrases or sentences as 'co-ordinate' elements (other conjunctions subordinate what they conjoin).

13.3. Morphosememics of Phrases, Sentences, and Speech Events. This last section in Chapter 13 is more of a tentative nature than what has preceded. All the labels for morphosememic classes within domains would seem to be relevant in putting words into phrases and phrases into sentences. They can for example be used in determining semantic compatibility, as can parenthetical elements within glosses (ʔémgʷels 'make a crunching or cracking sound (of ice breaking or eating apples)'). An example of using morphosememic classes in this way would be the observation that terms for basketry techniques would compatibly appear within the same phrase, sentence, or speech event with types of baskets, basket parts, or tools used for basketry. It follows in many domains (perhaps most) that one morphosememic class is compatible with the others in its domain, and that classes of functions or techniques (mostly verbs) are generally compatible within a verb phrase with classes of types or parts (mostly nominals) from the same domain.
13.3.1. Nominal Phrases (NP's) and Their Expansions. With unexpanded NP's of the shape A V (using abbreviations from syntax chapter throughout 13.3), A if marked for human or sex gender becomes 'someone (male/female) that'; if A is not marked for human or sex gender it becomes 'something that'; with the other unexpanded NP's containing an article (A N, A D, A Num), the semantic elements of the A set act as covert modifiers of the N, D, or Num; ['indefinite'] and ['generic'] components are overtly translated as 'a' and 'some' or by omitting the article with ['generic'] and putting the English noun in generic plural. Alternatively, the gender component may be transferred directly to the N, D, or Num if these are regarded as having no intrinsic gender rather than having allophones of each gender. It should be kept in mind that the N, D, or Num is the item semologically modified in unexpanded NP's, and that the A is the semological modifier.

Only A N and A V are attested with modifiers, and A V expansion is to be treated as VP expansion which is then nominalized. A N expansion with modifiers merely adds more modifiers modifying the N in most cases. But with A VadV Vaj N, the VadV modifies the Vaj which in turn modifies the N. With A N-4.63 A N the second A modifies the N following and both in turn
modify the first A N (as already discussed in the syntax). With A N-4.6, A-4.6 N-4.6 similarly, the second A and its 4.6 modify the second N, and the combination in turn modifies the first A N.

When NP's are expanded by apposition, the second nominal is usually more specific semantically than the first, and the more specific term seems to semologically replace the less specific one as the thing modified. When 4.3 is involved in the apposition and is first or second person (thus identified with speaker or hearer) it becomes the more specific and seems to be the element modified.

When NP's are expanded by conjoining they are conjoined as equals and function jointly.

13.3.2. Verb Phrases (VP's) and Their Expansions.

The morphosememic function of subject and object are determined from syntactic placement of NP's, the transitivity (or lack of it) of the verb, the type of verb (for example, Vprep's require objects), and correlation of person and number of personal pronouns with person and number of NP's. When an NP is determined to be the subject (S) or object (O) of a verb it is marked as such semantically (semologically). When an NP is present and is matched up with a personal pronoun suffix as S or O, the NP morphosememically re-
places the pronoun.

When the VP is expanded with internal modifiers, some morphosememically modify the main verb directly, and some modify it indirectly by modifying a modifier of the main verb. The main verb can be identified by syntactic placement in most cases; when it is not so identifiable and is not identifiable from inflection the VP is ambiguous.

The following modify the verb directly: Vaux's ls and mo - mf, Pmod, and the Vadv physically closest to the main verb. When there are two Vadv's preceding the main verb, the first or outer one modifies the second or inner one; where three Vadv's precede the main verb there are too few examples to be certain, but it appears that the first modifies the second which modifies the third which modifies the main verb. It may be that such chains of modification account for how words or inflections can modify whole phrases; such words modify directly the word which follows and indirectly all the remaining modifiers and the main verb. It seems that tense, interrogative, and negative elements which precede other internal modifiers work this way too; the first element modifies the next modifier which modifies the next, etc., till the main verb is reached. Thus it is difficult to look at a sentence
containing Vneg-4.4-Tense (if, if)-4.9b Vadv Vadv M.V.
and tell whether the negative modifies (negates) the
first Vadv, the second Vadv, the main verb only, or
everything. Morphosememically it is a chain of modi-
fication.

13.3.3. Sentences and Their Expansions. VP's can
be sentences by themselves. As such they can be ex-
panded with appositives and non-conjoined VP's (pre-
positional phrases and subjunctive phrases). N's
added in apposition are vocative and are so marked
morphosemically because they merely direct the con-
versation. VP's added in apposition are parenthetical
in flavor and probably modify the main verb, but there
are too few examples to be sure. Prepositional phrases
and subjunctive phrases appear to modify the main verb
in the same way as do Vadv's (of location and of time).

Sentences can also be expanded by subordinate
conjunction of VP's (relative clauses and regular sub-
ordinate clauses). Relative clauses are VP's preceded
by an A and morphosemically organized like the NP <
A V. Thus the A marked for 'human' or sex gender
becomes 'someone (male/female) that' and if not so mar-
ked it becomes 'something that'; as mentioned in the
syntax, relative clauses can serve as S or O in the
main VP; either the S or the O of the VP in the rela-
tive clause so serves actually, and the remainder of its VP modifies it. In other words, either the S or the O (or -S or -O) can be relativized with the rest of its VP modifying it adjectivally ("someone that I saw" or "someone who saw me"); then the item relativized can serve as S or O of the main VP in the sentence ("I liked someone that I saw." or "I liked someone who saw me."). A regular subordinate clause modifies the main verb but undergoes many translational shifts before a smooth English translation is obtained. There may be some morphosememic subtleties going on which there has not been time to study yet.

Sentences can also be expanded by co-ordinate conjunction of independent VP's. The VP so added does not combine morphosemically with the preceding sentence or VP except to the extent that it is almost always indicated as an action subsequent to that in the preceding VP. This indication is done through the co-ordinating conjunction in most cases.

13.3.4. The Speech Event. Except for formal speeches, the morphosememic structure of each speech event is highly individualistic. It depends much on the style of the speaker, what the speaker and hearer know together about the topic (or know each other knows), how informative the speaker wishes to be, how open the
speaker is to questions from the hearer, etc. As men-
tioned in the last chapter ambiguities are often not
resolved even at the end of the speech event. The sto-
ries and narratives obtained so far feature many sen-
tences begun with co-ordinating conjunctions, sometimes
continuing for a page or more. These indicate subse-
quent events and serve to carry on the narrative. They
also serve as hesitation forms, especially the longer
conjunctions like qešas'esu. In the future as more
stories and some conversations are obtained, transcri-
bbed, and studied, the morphosememic structure of speech
events can be illuminated.
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