

Tł̣chọ K'ę̣ę Ets'eetł'ę̣ę x̣ę Enıhtł'ę̣ę K'e Yats'ehtı



Reading and Writing in Tł̣chọ Yatı



• nıhtł'ę̣ę k'eyats'ehtı wek'ę̣ęhoehsọ ha dehwhọ • ayı nıdı? •

Tłjchq K'èè Ets'eet'èè xè Enjht'è K'e Yats'ehṭıı • Credits

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grateful for their advice and
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Dedication

This book is dedicated to all
those who love Tłjchq Yatıı
and all those who came
before us in teaching us.

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K'akwełòò • Introduction

The Dogrib language (Tłıchq Yatı) has been used for many hundreds of years. It has been passed from generation to generation and has been used to express any idea imaginable.

It has been used to tell stories, to inform, to sing songs, to instruct, to entertain, to amuse, to scold, to win wars, to buy and sell, to persuade, to mourn, to rejoice, to pray, to thank.

This long-time tradition continues. Tłıchq Yatı is spoken in homes, camping, hunting, at fish camp, at health centres, in church, on the playing field, at the rink, in the store, on the radio and television, and all around.

Tłıchq Yatı is also used in written form. This newer tradition has grown in schools, in government, in dictionaries, and in Bible translations. As more people think that they would like to read and write in Tłıchq Yatı there is more need for instruction in literacy. This book is aimed at people who know Tłıchq Yatı and would like to develop their skills in reading and writing in the language.

Organization of this Book

This book begins in Chapter 1 with a listing of the letters of the alphabet and an explanation of how the letters are related to the sounds of Tłıchq Yatı.

The alphabet list is discussed along with some more general facts about spelling. In Tłıchq Yatı, like the English spelling systems, there are some two-letter combinations that are not the same as the two letters when they are used separately. Many other languages have this too. For example, the combination < dz > is just one sound in Tłıchq Yatı, and is used as one letter in spelling. There are also a number of letters and symbols in spelling for Tłıchq Yatı that are not used in English spelling. These are introduced and discussed in Chapter 1. They are discussed more fully in later chapters.

Each of the other chapters of the book are organized around a written paragraph, poem, interview, song or story. They come from different sources. About half of the written selections were written by students in classes for teaching reading and writing, and this book celebrates their contributions.

Besides the story, each chapter also includes a short list of words to be memorized, a lesson on spelling, and discussion of grammar or language use. In most chapters there is at least one section focusing on grammar and one section discussing sounds. There are also some questions suggested for research and discussion in each chapter. There is a workbook in progress with quizzes and exercises that will go along with each chapter. It will be printed as soon as possible.

The spellings in this book follow the spellings used in the dictionary **Tłjchq Yatì Enjht'è**, published by the Dogrib Divisional Board of Education in 1996 and available in PDF format in the Resources section of the Tłjchq web site, www.tlichoc.ca. Sometimes these spellings are not used if the editors and reviewers agreed that another spelling was more accurate or also possible. You can also check out the on-line dictionary that is in progress. You can find its internet link through www.tlichoc.ca too. There is a list of 104 words called **Dzè Taàt'e Dii Yatì T'à Ats'et'ıı** found in the back of this book. This small list of words is helpful because it is a quick reference to some very commonly used words.

Tłjchq Yatì Enjht'è is not a complete dictionary. Therefore there are words from the stories in this book that are not in the dictionary. This reminds us all that a dictionary is never complete – new words are always coming into existence in a language, and the language is constantly changing to make room for new ideas and new ways of thinking.

Because there are many people who have not studied Tłjchq Yatì with a book before, there will be some unfamiliar terms in this book. At the back of the book there is a glossary of important words used when talking about language and grammar. Terms in both English and Tłjchq Yatì are listed.

The editors hope that you enjoy this book and that it inspires you in learning more about the beautiful traditions of the communities where Tłjchq Yatì is used.

Ṭḥcḥọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀ Dek'enèts'eetł'è The Letters of the Dogrib Alphabet



CHAPTER

1

This chapter lists the consonants and vowels of the Ṭḥcḥọ Yatì alphabet, given in alphabetical order. With each letter there are a few words spelled with that letter, given together with some comments on pronunciation.

There are four vowels and 37 consonants. Besides their plain sound, each of the vowels can be pronounced with a nasal sound or marked low tone. Later chapters will discuss the importance of these differences. To show these vowel differences in spelling, two special symbols are used. The term **ẉjghọ̀** (meaning 'its little nose') is used for the symbol [̣], which is placed under vowels like **o** to show nasal properties. The term **wets'aà** (meaning 'its hat') is used for the symbol [`], which is placed on top of the vowel to show the marked tone.

All of these sounds will be discussed again in later chapters.

The Alphabet

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
ʔ	ʔoo, ʔori seʔeh ts'eʔà ḥeʔe nàdeeṛj̣	spruce bough my uncle to eat, chew yes he is hiding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not spelled in English, though it is found in English expressions such as "oh-oh". this letter is called 'glottal', 'click', or wewèèk'è (meaning 'its voicebox').
a	ladà ayii nàts'eeda j̣wḥạ̀	table what? to move early, quickly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a vowel similar to a, as in the English word father. With ẉjghọ̀ < ̣ > the sound is similar to an, as in the English word want.
b	bebia libà k'ehbe tabàa	baby socks I'm swimming lakeshore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to b in English.
ch	cḥọ nechà j̣t'ọ̀chàa dats'eecḥi	rain it is big flower to grab, touch	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one of the consonants that has two pronunciations, as [ch] or [ts].
ch'	ch'oh k'ets'ech'î ehch'ẹ̀ẹ̀ ṭj̣ch'a	quills to crawl around pickerel off the beaten trail	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one of the consonants that has two pronunciations, as [ch'] or [ts']. The tongue is in the same position as for ch. The symbol ' (called 'click' or wewèèk'è) is the sign of the stoppage in the voicebox during this sound.

	Ḍq̣ K'èè	English	Comments
d	ḍi done, ḍq̣ ts'eeda dezhì	island person to live it is hard	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to d in English.
dl	dḷòò nàrets'edḷò seèdḷà, sìdḷà nàjdḷa	squirrel to laugh it has been fixed it was ripped	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English; similar to dl, as in the English word badly, or gl, as in the English word glass.
dz	dẓq̣ dzèh weèhdẓà ha edza	muskrat gum I am going to try it cold weather	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English; similar to ds, as in the English word dads.
e	eḷà ehtf'è j̣ie daele whék'òò j̣xèè nàreehṭi	boat dirt berry it is floating freezer yesterday I am sewing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> this vowel is similar to e, as in English bell. It is influenced by its neighbours more than other sounds. It may sound similar to [o] when it comes after w or wh in a prefix, and often sounds like a, i, or o when it comes after them. With wjghòà < è > the sound is similar to en, as in the English word sent.
g	gah nògèe gotà nàgots'ezhe gits'q̣ ne	rabbit fox our father to play it is theirs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to g, as in English get.
gh	nògha segha/saa nàxots'eeghà j̣ghj̣à weghàts'eeda/ waàts'eeda	wolverine for me to play cards it is rounded to look at it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English. The tongue is roughly in the same position as for g. This consonant sounds similar to y if it comes before e or i. Except in a noun or verb stem it can sometimes be contracted and not be pronounced at all.
gw	ehgwàa whagweè nàjgẉi fèt'ègẉià	dryfish sandy area warm yourself up! breadcrumbs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English; similar to gu, as in the English word language.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
h	hoònọ ḥẹʔẹ ehtsèè ts'eḥtṣ ḥàts'ele hats'edi	ten yes grandfather to make to take things out to say so	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to h in English. In the prefix meaning 'out', and others, the consonant can be pronounced with h, x, or k.
i	ṭi lidi ṇi ts'̣ịị ts'eḥt'ì wḥịḥtṣ	water, lake tea you to be to pull I made it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a vowel similar to i in the English word ski or Terri. With ẉịgḥọ̀ạ < ị > the sound is similar to in, as in the English word sink.
j	j̣ḥ j̣ọ ts'eej̣ hagòj̣à	fish hook here to be afraid it happened that way	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one of the consonants that has two pronunciations, as [j] or [dz].
k	ḳọ̀ ts'ẹ̀kọ wheḳọ̀ ḳọ̀ọ̀ts'eḥsọ̀ạ ḳàts'eecḥi kats'edi	house woman it is hot drawer, dresser to take it out to say so	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to k in English. In the prefix meaning 'out', and others, the consonant can be pronounced with h, x, or k.
k'	k'ale k'àowo ts'ehk'è k'acḥ ek'a	spider boss, leader to shoot again fat (noun)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but like k, with added stoppage in the voicebox.
kw	kwe ekwọ̀ dekwo nats'ehkẉi	rock caribou it is yellow to extinguish	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but similar to qu in quick.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
kw'	kw'à ehkw'ı geèhkw'e nàts'ekw'ı ṭohkw'̣ọ	dish straight, right they are sitting to fall down (one thing) empty bucket	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but like kw, with added stoppage in the voicebox.
l	lamè libalà, nibalà nechà-le nìts'ele Dèḷḷ	Mass canvas it is small to put things down Déḷne	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to l in English.
ł	łwe, łı ł̣ạ ełek'èè nạ̀eehł łeḳ wek'aàłegots'eli	fish together in a group one after another I'm sewing it is delicious to taste it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but similar to a breathy l, like the l in please.
m	ṃọla masi goṃ naèhṃ ṃoḥdaa/ wòḥdaa ṃoḥgẉ/ woḥgẉ	button thank you mother she swam across some, a few owl	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to m in English. In a few words the word is pronounced with either m or w.
mb	ṣọmba ımbè tambàa/tabàa gombaa/gobaa tambeh	money summer lakeshore dawn scissors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English and not common in Behchoḳọ, but used more in T'ẹ̀ehdaà. If mb is not used, b is substituted in spelling.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
n	ṇọgèè ṇaeỵ ṇaèṇọ wheneda/ wḥẹẹda/ wḥọọda ṇànetso/ṇạ̀tso	fox it is melting twenty sit down! you are strong	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to n in English. In prefixes it sometimes contracts with a vowel to make a nasalized vowel.
nd	Ṭindeè/Ṭideè ṣ̣̣̣nde J̣ndààḳọ gonḍ/goḍ	Great Slave Lake my older brother Fort Resolution story, news	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English and not common in Behchoḳọ, but used more in T'ẹ̀ehdaà. If nd is not used, substitute d in spelling.
o	ł̣o ḳọ hoòṇọ nàowo chekoa nàgots'ezhe k'ets'ekò ṣọọ̣̣̣ats'edi	smoke fire ten custom, law child to play to drive around to complain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a vowel pronounced with rounded lips. When it is next to a in the same word it tends to sound like that vowel. With ẉigḥọ < ̣ọ > the sound is similar to on, as in the English word don't.
r	libarì/libaà ʔori/ʔoo deghàrè/deghàà werèhdzà ha/ weèhdzà ha ts'erèhsḥọ/ ts'eèhsḥọ	barrel spruce boughs completely I am going to try it we raised him/ her	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not commonly used by some people. If this consonant is not used it is omitted from the spelling, with some vowel adjustment.
s	ṣ̣̣̣ sah Eyèg̣hsaà hasèts'edi ṣọnàts'edè t'asagoḍ	me, I bear June someone told me to play (plural people) there is a noise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to s in English.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
sh	shìh sḥ shèts'eṭ dehsho òts'eehshì nats'eehshà	hill, mountain song to eat a meal it is shaggy, furry to get rid of it to dry (clothes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one of the consonants that has two pronunciations, as [sh] or [s].
t	tì gotà dètì wek'aàts'eehta wetadà	lake, water father it is expensive to examine it, check across from it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to t in English.
t'	t'òò wet'à whet'e Det'òcho Zaà	paddle (noun) with it it is cooked, baked March	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant like t, with added stoppage in the voicebox.
ṭ	ṭeh deṭòò naeṭe decḥkeṭfia	lard, grease it is soft, tender, raw she is walking overshoes, rubbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English; similar to cl in the English word clean.
t'	t'ih kò nait'j̣ ṇht'ẹ̀, eṇht'ẹ̀ k'et'ò t'ạ̀	rope, string lightning paper, book sloshing around beach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant like ṭ, with added stoppage in the voicebox.
ts	tsà tso ehtsèè ehtṣ tṣj̣wo ts'etse	beaver firewood grandfather granny it got ruined to cry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but similar to t and s pronounced as one sound, as in the English word cats.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
ts'	ts'ı ts'èko ts'eeko ets'aèhmòq̣ ts'ets'ò Gots'qkàti	tree, spruce woman to cough circle to scratch Mesa Lake	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant like ts, with added stoppage in the voicebox.
w	gowaliì hani haawe wetà dediìwò ẉj̣nàà ts'j̣j̣ẉq̣	tongue it is happening this way his or her father moosehide he or she is happy to think, want	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to w in English. When it comes before e in a prefix, the vowel often sounds similar to o.
wh	Whatì whe whetj̣ nets'àwhede whiìhtsj̣ k'egohwho whj̣j̣ ahlà whaèhdq̣ò	[placename] belt he or she is sleeping they came to you I made it they are going around I didn't manage to do it people from long ago	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> breathy w, similar to English wh in where. It can also be pronounced more like the English consonant f in prefixes. When it comes before e in a prefix, the vowel may sound similar to o.
x	xah goxè naehxj̣ ha xèhts'ò wexots'eehdi xàts'ege xat'ò xòo	goose with us I'm going to thaw it evening to watch over it to dig it out autumn, fall snare	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant not found in English, but similar to a raspy h. In the prefix meaning 'out', and others, the consonant can be pronounced with h, x, or k.

	Ḍọ K'ẹ̀ẹ̀	English	Comments
y	yak'e yèhk'è yedaɬʔọ k'eyehsò kw'àyɬə goyì yìiwò Yihda	heaven he shot it he capped it she is dragging it along bowl inside dufflebag for clothes Big Dipper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to y in English, which can also be pronounced as [zh] or [z] in some words. In the prefix ye-, the vowel can sometimes sounds similar to i.
z	lizà deẓọ ts'ezeh whezò hodàts'eezi nàts'ezè gowazeè	ace (in cards) it is black to shout it is crooked, bent to slide down to hunt saliva, spit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a consonant similar to z in English.
zh	zhah zhakak'ekòa goɬzḥọ ɬzhì nàgeèhzḥa nàgots'ezhe ɬ̣zḥaeḷ	snow skidoo she is smart down they are standing to play he or she is ashamed, shy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> one of the consonants that has two pronunciations, as [zh] or [z].

Tł̄chọ K'èè Yats'ehł̄

To Pray in Tł̄chọ Yatì



CHAPTER

2

SeNòhtsɔ́ dɔ́dzèè k'e gok'ènedi

SeNòhtsɔ́ dɔ́dzèè k'e gok'ènedi.
Asii hazòò gha masi nèt's'ɔ́hwhò,
gòetɔ́, gokò, gonèk'e,
eyits'ò asii hazòò wet'à ts'eadaa xɔ́ gha.
Hotiè kòòt'e nɔ́dè.

Tɔ́chɔ́ K'èè Yats'ehti

Yati K'èts'eezòò

masi
dɔ́dzèè
asii
wet'à

Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì is used in many contexts every day. We pray in Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì, we joke with each other and we tell stories. It is often our language at home, and sometimes our language at work. But have you ever noticed that the way we speak Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì can depend on who we are talking to, or who is speaking? Do you speak the same way when you pray as you do when you are talking to a child? This chapter discusses how the language is used every day.

Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì in the Communities

It is easy to notice that Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì is not always spoken the same way. Depending on who is speaking, who else is there, what is being talked about, and other social circumstances, people make different choices about how they are going to express themselves. This is true for every language. Part of being a skilled language user is to recognize what type of language is appropriate at a particular time.

The use of names makes a good example. When I am talking about my friend Mary I might call her by her English name, by her name in Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì, by a nickname, by a term of respect, by a term for a relative, all depending on who is present and the reason I am talking about her. There are many other situations where lots of options are available. Everyone tends to speak differently with friends than with their parents or children. When we are speaking to God, as in the prayer that opens this chapter, the language choices might be different again.

The use of language also differs depending on the occasion. Someone telling a legend or history story will use a different style and probably different vocabulary than someone talking on the telephone to a sister or brother. Most times a joke makes a good addition to the conversation, but it isn't always a good idea to joke.

The use of Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì also differs from one age group to another and from one community to another. This situation has always been true, and will continue to be true as long as Tɔ̃chɔ̃ Yatì is spoken. Often older people will say that their children or grandchildren do not know how to speak the language properly. Over the generations our parents and elders have always said this, and it was also said about our grandparents when they were young people!

Especially now, when Tłchq Yatì is not being used for all of the purposes that it once was, it is important to respect all people who speak the language and to also respect the way they speak it. Tłchq Yatì is a beautiful language and it is a wonderful thing to use the language.

Tłchq Yatì has been used for many generations and for hundreds of years. Speaking this language is an important way to continue Tłchq traditions. The language is the way the Tłchq people pass on knowledge of history, geography, natural science, traditional technology, family life, social organization and politics, laws, customs, culture, literature, and every aspect of life. By using this language we recognize its value and its power, and the power and strength of the culture, and we make them all more valuable and more powerful.

Dialects and Choices in Language Use

What is a dialect?

The term **dialect** means different language patterns used in different places. Dialects can also be defined by different social groupings in one place or by the different ages or different places of origin of groups of people.

No matter what language we are thinking about there are dialects of that language. Tłchq Yatì is not an exception, because every language has dialects.

For example, in Tłchq Yatì dialects, different words are sometimes used for the same object or concept. The three words below all name something we can use to fry eggs.

kw'atsè **kw'at'èe** **fihtso**

Depending on who is speaking, that person will use a different word.

The next three words name something used to cut cloth. Again, the choice of which word will be used depends on a dialect difference.

belexàa **bełexàa** **tambeh**

But why are there dialects?

Why doesn't everyone speak the same way? There are lots of reasons, but probably three are most important.

First, the people who speak one language don't all live in one place. So, different language patterns can begin in one place and continue to be used there. When different patterns develop over 50 or a 100 years or more, the dialects in two places become quite different. Our language today might be influenced by where our families lived and travelled in the old days.

Second, because all children learn language from their surroundings without being told in words what the patterns are, to some extent children or other people invent for themselves new ways of speaking. These patterns sometimes catch on in the community, and a dialect difference comes about.

Third, because our language is a part of us, we use language to define our identity. Therefore, dialects can be used by different groups of people as one way of showing where they come from or who they are related to. When people do this it tends to exaggerate dialect differences.

In what ways do dialects differ from each other?

And what kinds of patterns are involved in the differences? The examples above involve the choice of words. Even if someone knows two words for 'frying pan', they will usually choose one and not the other.

Dialects also differ in the pronunciation of sounds in the language. We all recognize that the "Queen's English" sounds different from ordinary Canadian English because of the use of different sounds. In Tḥchḳ Yatì the letter **o** is pronounced more like [o] or more like [u] depending on different patterns of use. The consonant spelled **j** can be pronounced more like [j] or more like [dz], again depending on dialect.

Sometimes the pronunciation of different words signals a dialect difference. For example, the word for 'owl' can be pronounced in at least two ways in Tḥchḳ Yatì:

wohgwj **mḳhgwj**

Other examples of this kind of difference are:

ɔhk'è	ɪhk'è	sometimes
kw'ɔhʔeh	kw'ɪhʔeh	shirt
goɪlà	golà	our hands
dehshòɔ	dɔhshòɔ	dish towel

Patterns of word structure also vary from one dialect to another. Here are a few examples to illustrate this:

whɪda	whɪhda	I am sitting
shèwìtɪ	shèdìtɪ	we two are eating
nìeht'ò	nìeht'ɔ	I arrived by plane
begoèhxɪ	gobeèhxɪ	we are sleepy
dehko ayɪlà	dehko awɪlà	she has a cold

Although the pairs of expressions both mean the same thing, the way the words are put together is not the same. People may not be aware of which one they usually use, but each time a choice is made.

Dialects can also differ in the meanings given to certain words. For example, the word **deɟi** means 'mosquito' for some people, and it means 'any kind of fly' for others. The word **nàts'ewo** means 'to stand', but some people also say **edɟɪ nànewo?**, meaning 'where do you live?'.

Some combinations of words or phrases are used in one dialect but not in another. For example, in some communities people don't use expressions like **done hɔt'ìi**, meaning 'everyone', but they express this as **done hazòɔ** instead.

Dialects can also differ in the style of speaking that people use. In different communities there can be patterns of speaking faster or slower, with a more closed or a more open mouth, or with a lower or higher pitch to the voice.

Communities and individual people also differ in storytelling, for example in how stories begin or end, how the links between one event or episode and others are conveyed, and such things. Some elders start old stories by saying **T'akwee yɪdaà ts'eètɪa**. What about your family? In prayers too there can be differences from one community to another, or from one family to another.

When anyone begins reading stories written in Tɬɬɔ Yatì, they will come across unfamiliar words, unknown spellings, different expressions, sentence patterns, and patterns of story-making.

These differences exist because of dialect differences and the choices made by individual people in their writing. Sometimes the differences seem to be mistakes that the writer has made, but 99 times out of 100 it isn't a mistake but a different choice by the writer. These differences are a sign of the richness and depth of Tłchq Yatiì.

Usually the choices that we make in using our language are not conscious. We speak without thinking very much about every single word. But, there are times when our choice is very deliberate. For example, the name of the community **Tsòtì** was changed to **Whatì**. This was a conscious decision. There are many other times when we deliberately make a choice in how we use our language, but more often this is not true.

Summary

This chapter began with a children's prayer that young people might learn at school. Spirituality gives people strength, including strength through praying in Tłchq Yatiì. As users of Tłchq Yatiì it is helpful for us to understand the dialects of our language. In this chapter we looked at some words and phrases from dialects, and we thought about why and how dialects exist, and about our choices in language.



Ehtsı, Ehtsèe gıxè Nàhdè

Living with Grandparents



CHAPTER

3

Ehtsj, Ehtsèe gixè Nàhdè

T'akwe whaà t'eekoa ehłj kò, ehtsj eyits'q ehtsèe gixè nàhdè ɟlè. Setà, semq eyits'q sɟnde, seba, sedè goga nõhbàa yìi nàgedè. Sɟ t'aa nàgoehde ts'qʔ ehtsj gixè nàhdè.

Ek'ètai seghoò kò setsɟ elàzhaa t'à sexè jìe gha dèhɾe. Elàt'á whihda gà ehtsj wenazhareè yìi gots'q ts'et'iikàdzèè deɟ ɟlè. Eyit'á sìi ezhawhìhłj, naxàèhko. Ehtsj daseehke kò, dìi hadi, "Ayìi anehɟ?" wech'àehjɟ ts'qʔ t'asaehsj-le wèehsj. Tì ɟq sewà ahɟ hanikò ɟtaà ts'et'iikàdzèè seèhxe. Dì k'e ts'q nèt'sɟɟe t'áxqò tabàa gots'q tì ehts'è eyi t'áxqò ayìi dàhłà hawèehsj. Ehtsj dìi hasèhdi, "T'asìi ts'eeɟ nɟdè nezɟ niile, hoełj deè hq't'e." Eyì ekò hoełj t'aa ts'edi sìi wek'èehshqò ahjà.

Mary K. Richardson wegodi

Yati K'èts'eezq

ehtsj	ehtsèe
semq	setà
eyits'q	sɟ
hadi	dìi

The little girl in Mary's story was a rambunctious child with a lot to learn. She didn't know what it means to steal! She learned her lesson through the bad taste of her grandma's tobacco and through her grandma's scolding.

Some lessons that we learn are like this. Other lessons are different. When we learn language as children from the people around us, our parents, grandparents, family, and friends, we don't have to think about how words or sentences are put together. When we speak we are not usually thinking about each word. We don't concentrate on the details of language; we think about getting our message across. As adults we use the knowledge that we have about language, but there are many things about our language that we are not aware of.

This chapter gives an introduction to the basic building blocks of Tɿchɔ Yatì words and sentences, including grammar and sounds. It can be strange to concentrate on the details, but it can be a big help with our spelling!

Grammar of Tɿchɔ Yatì

We can communicate with each other because the sounds we make have meaning for other people. The **grammar** of a language is made up of the patterns for relating sounds and meanings in that language. In this chapter we will meet some basic terms that will make it easier to talk about Tɿchɔ Yatì. Learning these terms is a bit like getting to know the names of the parts of a vehicle because it helps with understanding how things go together and run smoothly.

Through studying grammar, we get to be more aware of what we know. You will probably find yourself saying, "Wow, I didn't know I knew that!"

Wet'à Ts'ìzì Yatì eyits'ɔ Wet'à Dàgot'ɿ Yatì/Nouns and Verbs

Basic meanings in any language are carried by words. Words in Tɿchɔ Yatì can be divided into different types, just like the words in English and other languages. 'Noun' and 'verb' are two types of words. A noun is a thing, person, or place, while a **verb** is an action, event, or a state of being. We can use the terms **wet'à ts'ìzì yatì** and **wet'à dàgot'ɿ yatì**.

Wet'à ts'ìizì yati/nouns name things, places, and people.

Wet'à dàgot'ɿ yati/verbs name actions, events, and states of being.

It is much easier to understand patterns of meaning in Tɿchɔ Yati if we are familiar with the differences between nouns and verbs and other types of words. (They are all called **parts of speech**.)

Here are some **wet'à ts'ìizì yati** from the alphabet list in Chapter 1. What about the nouns in Mary's story? Try finding 10 nouns!

bebà	ladà
chɔ	lajih
done	shìh
kwe	ts'ì

Nouns are the only type of word that can be counted. Here are more nouns, combined with numbers for counting:

gah tai
ke hoònɔ
lìzà dɿ
sah nàke

Wet'à dàgot'ɿ yati are words that name actions, events, or states of being. There are lots of verbs in the alphabet listing too. Here are some of them:

ts'eʔà	dats'eechi
ts'ehtsɿ	k'ets'ekò
ts'etse	nàgots'ezhe

All of these verbs name actions which can be done by a person and so they include **ts'e-** as part of them. The verb changes slightly in sound and spelling depending on who is doing the action. If I am the one eating, I would say **ehʔà**. If you are eating, I would say **neʔà**.

The next verbs are not usually used to describe people, so they don't have **ts'e-** in them.

whékò	dehsho
ɿékɔ	naeyɿ

These verbs usually describe animals and things rather than people.

In later chapters there will be more about nouns and verbs and other types of words. Words combine into sentences, and there is a lot to learn about sentences in Tɿchɔ Yati too.

Vowels and Consonants

The basic units of sound in any language are vowels and consonants.

The alphabet in Chapter 1 lists all the vowels and consonants used in Tłjchq Yatì. Sounds do not mean anything by themselves, but they combine together to make words, which do mean something.

There are four vowels in Tłjchq Yatì, **a e i o**. The other 37 sounds are consonants. **Vowels** are made so that air flows freely out through the mouth. With consonants there is always some type of blockage of air as it passes through. That is what makes them more noisy than vowels.

Vowels

Vowels are pronounced with an open mouth. The vowels in Tłjchq Yatì differ from each other in how open the mouth is and whether the lips are rounded. If we pronounce all four of the vowel sounds one at a time we can feel the shape of our mouth move.

a e i o

Which is the most open vowel? It is **a**. Only one vowel is pronounced with rounded lips. It is **o**.

When we make the vowel sound **a**, our jaw drops, and our mouth is open. A sound in English that sounds like the Tłjchq Yatì vowel **a** is the vowel in ‘mama’ and ‘papa’. Here are some words and phrases with the vowel **a**:

ladà
ladà t’á
ladà gà
ladà ka

The vowel **e** is more closed than **a**. It is the most common vowel in Tłjchq Yatì. When we pronounce **e**, our mouths are about half open, and our teeth are half showing. The English word ‘Dene’ is a good example of a word that has the same sound as **e** in Tłjchq Yatì.

łèt’è
łèt’è k’e
łèt’è neht’è
łèt’è whet’e

The vowel **ɪ** is the most closed vowel. When we pronounce this vowel, our jaw bones are close together, and our mouth is shaped like we are smiling. An English word that has the same sound as **ɪ** in Tɿ̀chɔ̀ Yatì is the word ‘ski’. Often the letter **ɪ** in Tɿ̀chɔ̀ Yatì is not dotted like the English **i**. This prevents confusion between a plain **ɪ** and a **ì** with a tone mark (also called **wets’aa**). Here are some words with an **ɪ**:

dɪ
dɪ lɪdì
dɪ kwìts’ì
dɪ kwìk’ì

When you say **a**, **e**, and **ɪ**, notice how your jaw moves higher going from **a** to **e** to **ɪ**.

The only vowel made with rounded lips is **o**. This is not an open vowel – the mouth is pretty well closed. The next words are all nouns naming parts of the body. The first part of the word, **go-**, tells us that we are naming something belonging to ourselves.

gobò
godoò
gok’oh
goghòò

Consonants

Consonants are made differently in our mouths than vowel sounds. They are made by blocking air flowing out of our mouths. By blocking or restricting the air in different places in our mouths, we create different consonant sounds.

There are 37 consonants in Tɿ̀chɔ̀ Yatì, too many to discuss all at once! Quite a few of the consonants are similar to consonants in English. Below we see five of these consonants.

b	d	g	k	t
bebìa	done	gah	ke	tɪ
gobò	godoò	gogà	gokè	gotà
k’ets’ebe	k’ets’edè	k’ets’ege	k’ets’ekò	k’ets’eh̄te
libalàʔeh	hodàdeèwò	nàgewo	dɪkɔ̀deèwò	wetadà

These consonants stop the flow of air by using different muscles in our mouth. The sound **b** is made by closing our lips together. The sounds **d** and **t** are made by lifting the tips of our tongue to the top of our mouth, right behind our teeth. We make the sounds **g** and **k** with the back of our tongue touching the soft top area of our mouth.

Did you know that the tongue is one of the strongest muscles in the human body? That is why it can make so many sounds.

Two consonants that are different from anything in English are **k'** and **t'**. These are pronounced something like **k** and **t**, but are made with a stoppage of air in the voicebox while the consonant is being pronounced. This sound too is made by muscles moving in a certain way. Our voicebox has two muscles in it that can restrict the flow of air, the vocal cords. In a sound like **t'**, the air is stopped both in the mouth and in the voicebox.

The mark of this stoppage is the symbol ' , sometimes called a 'click', or **wewèk'è** in Tɿchɔ Yatiì. Examples of words with these consonants are shown below.

k'	t'
k' ɿ	t' ah
gok'a	got'ih
k' ets'eda	t' eeko
goèk'ɔ	nàts'eeht'ɿ

Now compare the sounds of the words in the first column to those in the second column below.

k	k'	t	t'
deko	dek'o	detɔ	det'ɔ
goka	gok'a	too	t'oò
ke	k'ets'ebe	setà	set'à
kò	dèk'ò	sèetɿ	sèet'ɿ

Can you hear the difference between the ones with **wewèk'è** and the ones without it?

As a symbol in spelling, **k'** is similar to **th** in English. **K'** is a completely different consonant from **k**, the same way that **th** is nothing like a combination of **t** plus **h**.

In Tł̥chq̣ Yatìì it is generally impossible for one consonant to be next to another consonant. The only exception is with the letter **h** – it can come before another consonant, but it is the only one that can do this. Here are some words showing the pattern with **h**, including the very important first two words from Mary’s story about living with her grandparents:

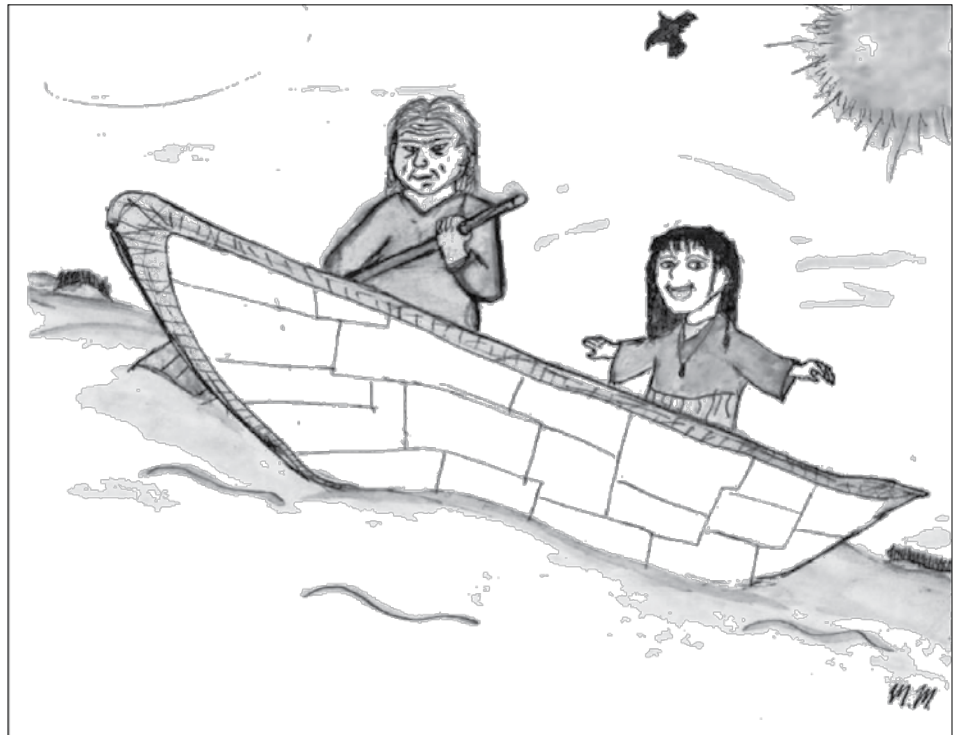
ehtsj	hasèhdi
ehtsèe	k’ehbe

In later chapters we will discuss consonants, vowels and parts of speech more.

Summary

Mary K. Richardson’s funny story gives us a funny but important lesson about being honest and truthful. She learned the meaning of stealing, and the consequences.

As an introduction to spelling, this chapter introduced the concept of **grammar**: how a language is put together through sound and meaning. It also discussed the basic concepts of meaning and sounds in language: **wet’ à ts’ìzìì yatìì/nouns** and **wet’ à dàgot’ ʝ yatìì/verbs, vowels** and **consonants**. These are important concepts that will keep coming up in other chapters.



Gòet'ì Amì Agít'e?

Who Are Our Relatives?



CHAPTER

4

Sèot'ɔ Amii Agɔt'e?

Sèot'ɔ amii agɔt'e?
 Gonè gots'ɔ dɔ agɔt'e
 Gonèk'e nàts'edè
 Xok'e dè tɔ t'à ats'et'ɔ
 ɔmbè k'e dè elà t'à ats'et'ɔ
 Tɔts'aadɔ gha nàgezè, ehdzo k'egele
 Ekwò k'erà
 Tsà edekèè gehtsɔ
 ɔwe tèe k'erò.

Gonèk'e k'àhots'eedè
 Wet'à edakàts'eedè
 Ts'èko ewò gehwhe
 Dɔzhii ekwò nièt'à
 Chekoa sɔnàdè, nàredlò
 Goɔghdaà goxègogedo
 Inèè godii t'à
 Eyɔ wedè nɔdè t'asii ts'ɔɔɔ-le.

Gòet'ɔ gɔt'à ts'eeda
 Chekoa, gèot'ɔ, gotsèe,
 Gotsɔ, eyits'ɔ goɔghdaà
 Gɔts'ihɔ nàts'etso
 Ts'eeda xè xàhots'edi
 Gonèk'e gots'ɔ dɔ ats'ɔt'e.

Gonàowoò gogha wet'aaà
 Goɔghdaà hagedi
 Chekoa nechà-lea hoghàgiahtɔ
 ɔdaà gogha gonàowoò gɔtò ha
 Gonàowoò while ajà nɔdè
 Done edets'ɔɔwɔ ha-le, whachɔò
 ats'ɔt'e ha
 Gonàowoò while nɔdè ts'eeda-le sɔ
 efèht'e.

Gonàowoò wedè nɔdè
 Sɔ aht'e ha-le
 Sèot'ɔ ededɔ agɔt'e ha-le
 Eɔadɔ ats'ede ha
 Sèot'ɔ amii agɔt'e?
 Gonè gots'ɔ dɔ agɔt'e.

Marlyss Richardson

Yatɔ K'èts'eezɔ

amii	dɔ
xok'e	ɔmbè
ekwò	nɔdè
ats'ɔt'e	ts'eeda

This poem reminds us how important the land and culture are to the Tłıchq̓ people, and how much we depend on our families and our relatives, and how much they depend on us. Each person is related to many other people, and to the land, and we see this in how Marlyss uses the words **gonèk'e**, **goʔq̓hdaà**, **gòet'ı**, **gotsèe**, **gotsı**, **gonàowoo**. The prefix **go-** in all of these words reminds us how we are connected to each other.

This chapter introduces prefixes, and other parts of words, and explains how they combine to make bigger words. Even a small change in a sound can make a whole world of difference in the meaning of a word.

Words with Prefixes and Suffixes

Like the words **goʔq̓hdaà**, **gotsèe**, **gotsı**, **gonàowoo** from the poem, many of the words in Tłıchq̓ Yatıı can be divided up into smaller meaningful parts. Let's call the main part **yatikwı**, or the **head of the word**, because it is the most important part of the word. This part is also called the **stem**. The **prefixes** and the **suffixes**, if there are any, come before or after **yatikwı**, the stem. All of the parts carry part of the meaning of the whole word. Prefixes and suffixes can be added to nouns or verbs.

Prefixes/Wekwee Whelaa

A **prefix** is a piece of a word that attaches to the beginning of **wet'à ts'ıizıı yatıı/noun** or **wet'à dàgot'ıı yatıı/verb**, or another type of word. We can use the word **wekwee wheʔq̓q̓** for 'prefix' in Tłıchq̓ Yatıı. A prefix adds some meaning to the word. (The plural of this word is **wekwee whelaa**.)

Wekwee wheʔq̓q̓ or a **prefix** is a part of a word that attaches to the beginning of the word and adds meaning.

In the words that we mentioned earlier, **go-** adds the meaning 'our' to the words for 'elder' and 'grandfather' and other words.

Another example is **sebehchıı**, meaning 'my vehicle'. The word for vehicle by itself is **behchıı**, and **se-** gives the information that it is my vehicle we are talking about. In this word, **behchıı** is **yatikwı** and **se-** is **wekwee wheʔq̓q̓**. Prefixes can't stand alone as words themselves.

The following pairs of words show how wekwee whe?o?o can change the meaning of a noun or a verb, or add to it.

gok'oh	sek'oh
nafaet'ò	xàet'ò
yeehshe	xàehshe
kadi	di

The first word, **gok'oh**, means 'neck', or 'our neck', with the prefix **go-**. When a different prefix is used, the meaning is very different. The word **sek'oh** can be separated into **se-**, which means 'my', and the stem **-k'oh**. Both parts together add up to the meaning 'my neck'. In the other examples, when wekwee whelaa change, the meaning changes slightly too, even though the stems stay the same.

Besides **gok'oh** and **sek'oh**, the other words above are wet'à dàgot'jì yatì (verbs). Here too the meaning changes a little when the prefix is different, but yatikwì stays the same. There are many prefixes that attach to verbs, and sometimes they are hard to separate from each other. Chapter 5 will introduce verbs and some of the prefixes that can attach to them.

Suffixes/Yatìq Whelaa

Suffixes are similar to prefixes except they come after the noun or verb stem. In Tìjchq Yatì we can use the term **yatìq whe?o?o** if we are talking about one of them, and **yatìq whelaa** if we are talking about more than one. Like prefixes, they add a piece of meaning to a word. And like prefixes, they can't stand alone as a word either.

Yatìq whe?o?o or a **suffix** is a part of a word that attaches to the end of a word and adds meaning.

In the word **Dehcho**, meaning 'Mackenzie River', **-cho** is yatìq whe?o?o and **deh** 'river' is yatikwì. Here are some more examples of words with yatìq whelaa. (There is a longer discussion of yatìq whelaa in Chapter 14.)

tia	jìewà
ticho	jìechàa
Tideè	jìa

The following words show how words can be composed of stems alone, or stems with prefixes and suffixes.

jih
jihcho
sejiicho

Noun Paradigms

Go-, that we pointed out at the beginning of the chapter, is called a possessive prefix. **Goꝛɔhdaà** are our elders. In the word **sebehchj̀̀** the **se-** prefix indicates who possesses the vehicle. For many nouns, there is a set of words that we can create by combining **yatikwì** with different **wekwee whelaa** for who the thing belongs to. This set of related words is called a **noun paradigm**.

Some of the possessive prefixes that join to noun stems in Tj̀chɔ Yatì are in the box:

se- my	go- our
ne- your [one person]	naxi- your [two or more people]
we- his, her, its, theirs	gi- their

The paradigm for the noun **behchj̀̀** looks like this:

sebehchj̀̀ my vehicle	gobehchj̀̀ our vehicle
nebehchj̀̀ your vehicle	naxibehchj̀̀ you people's vehicle
webihchj̀̀ his or her vehicle	gibehchj̀̀ their vehicle

The same prefixes used in this paradigm are used in most noun paradigms. Here are some more examples. The possessive prefix is printed in bold.

sedzɛ̀̀ my birthday	godzɛ̀̀ our birthday
nedzɛ̀̀ your birthday	naxidzɛ̀̀ you people's birthday
wedzɛ̀̀ his or her birthday	gidzɛ̀̀ their birthday
semɔ my mother	gomɔ our mother
nemɔ your mother	naximɔ you people's mother
wemɔ his or her mother	gimɔ their mother
sekwì my head	gokwì our heads
nekwì your head	naxikwì you people's heads
wekwì his or her head	gikwì their head

Getting used to paradigms is very helpful for spelling because paradigms remind us of how words are related to each other but different.

Pronouns

The different words in a noun paradigm all include *wekwee wheṛṛṛ* for who owns the object we are talking about. Besides this kind of prefix, we also find whole words in Tḷchṛ Yatì that express the same meanings. We call these words pronouns. Below is the set of **pronouns** in Tḷchṛ Yatì. They are only used for talking about people or animals seen as people.

sḷ	me, I	goxḷ, gaaxḷ	us, we
nḷ	you [one person]	naxḷ	you people
ededḷ, dedḷ	him, her, them		

Some people might use slightly different pronouns. For example, some people use the words **kḷ** or **xḷ** for 'us'. Some people use the word **naxḷ** to mean 'us' and also 'you people'. There is no singular or plural for **ededḷ**. The same word is used no matter how many people are being talked about. It's interesting that all of these words end with the sound **ḷ**. This helps us see that they all form one group of words that are similar in sound and meaning. They are also quite similar to the possessive prefixes. What do you think of that?

Nasal Vowels

Every word is made up of consonants and vowels in combination. Vowels are sounds made with the air flowing freely through the mouth. With some vowels air also passes through the nose. These vowels are termed **nasal vowels**. In spelling they are written this way: [**ḁ, Ḃ, Ḅ, Ḇ**] with a 'little nose' under the vowel symbol. In Tḷchṛ Yatì the 'little nose' is called **wḷghòḁ**; in English it is called the nasal hook.

Air is able to pass through the nose when the **soft palate** is lowered at the back of the roof of the mouth. If we couldn't do this we would always have to breathe with our mouth open! Nasal vowels take advantage of this option.

So do the **nasal consonants m** and **n**. These are pronounced with the air passage through the mouth firmly shut, with air passing just through the nose to make the sound. We can test this by holding our noses while we try to make the sound **m**. No sound can come out!

If we hold our noses while we pronounce the word **dı̀**, meaning 'four', it will sound very funny, but if we hold our nose while we pronounce a word like **tı̀**, meaning 'lake', which does not have a nasal vowel, it sounds just fine! That is why the symbol for the nasal vowel is called **wı̀ghòà**, the little nose.

There is more to say about nasal consonants (see Chapter 7). For now, we'll concentrate on some common words with nasal vowels.

ą	mą nàhgą hı̀whąà tąą	ı̀	tı̀ sı̀ ats'ı̀t'e behchı̀ı̀
ę	dzeę wedę ekèè ı̀kwèè	o	do kò ekwò sòmba

Let's compare the following pairs of words. They are alike except that where the first word has a plain vowel, the second one has a nasal vowel.

a, ą	t'ą	bay, cove	t'ąą	beach
	nàahı̀	hide it! (talking to more than one person)	nàahı̀	hide it! (talking to one person)
	ewò xàahdlà	pull out the hide! (talking to more than one person)	ewò xàąhdla	pull out the hide! (talking to one person)
e, ę	ı̀kwèè	out in the lake	ı̀kwèè	offshore
	godzeè	heart	godzeè	birthday
	k'eebe	he or she swam	k'ębe	swim! (talking to one person)
i, ı̀	gots'ı̀	guts	gots'ı̀ı̀	spirit
	daniı̀hke	I asked you	daniı̀ı̀hke	he or she asked you
	ekwò ihk'è	I shot caribou	ekwò ı̀hk'è	he or she shot caribou
o, o	to	night	tò	pail
	tı̀cho	horse	Tı̀chò	Dogrib
	sedoò	my blood	sedò	my husband

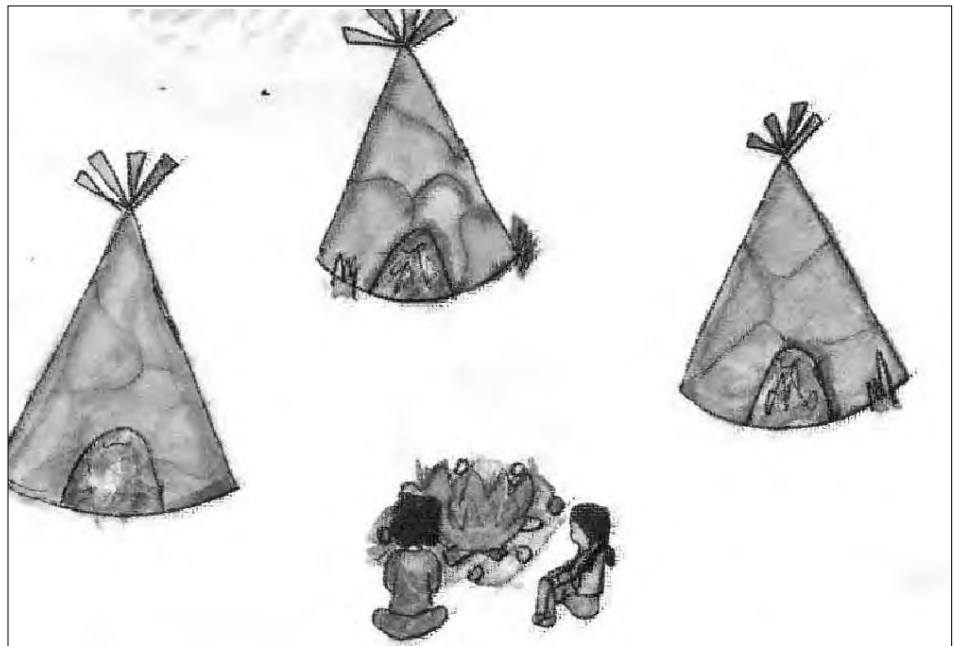
It is usually easy to hear the difference between nasal and plain vowels, and it is easy to read words with **wìghòà**, but it is also easy to forget to include it in writing!

Summary

Marlyss Richardson's poem talks about Tłıchǫ culture, **gonàowoò**, and reminds us how much we depend upon the knowledge of our elders and our families. Tłıchǫ Yatì is one of the basic elements of our culture. Language itself is made up of certain basic parts as well.

This chapter introduced the three basic parts of words: **yatikwì**, **wekwee whelaa**, **yatìł whelaa** or, in English, **stems**, **prefixes** and **suffixes**. Some simple **noun paradigms** show how prefixes can be used to say who owns what. In this chapter we began our exploration in this book of how words are made from smaller parts. By comparing possessive prefixes and **pronouns** we can see the links between parts of words and other words.

In the sound of Tłıchǫ Yatì, **nasal** and **plain vowels** make important meaning differences between words. In this chapter we talked about details of how nasal vowels are pronounced in our mouth and some common words that use nasal vowels. In later chapters we will discuss other important functions for nasal vowels.



Asî Țekq̄

Tasty Things



CHAPTER

5

Łèt'èhtłòa

łè	łtè libò daats'ò taani
sìga	echłłłł nechàa łtè
łèdł	echłłłł nechàa łtè
dewa	taani echłłłł nechà-lea
eyè, aatii	łtè
wet'à asii ts'èht'èe tłèè	echłłłł nechàa nàke
ejiet'òò	łtè libò daats'ò taani

Łè, sìga, łèdł eyits'ò dewa ełeta ʔaahłeh, kw'àyłq nechà-lea yii.

Eyè kw'à nechà-lea yii ahti. Wet'à asii ts'èht'èe tłèè eyits'ò ejiet'òò ełeta ʔaahłeh.

Hazhòò ełeta ahti. Weta hàłtsòa whelaa hò esanile.

Łèt'èhtłòa det'oo dahwhò nłdè, ejiet'òò łq-lea weta ʔaahłeh, hanì-le nłdè det'oo-lea dahwhò nłdè, ejiet'òò łq ʔaahłeh.

Kw'àt'èe whekò ʔaahłeh gà weyii ʔaahłeh. Webàa whegò nłdè ets'aahk'a gà achł aht'è.

Nora Lafferty dàani yeht'èe

Dàani Lìgawhì Ts'èhtsłł

Taèno libò lìgawhìtòò t'à lìgawhì ts'èhtsłł ha nłdè, lìgawhì wewò taani ts'ò welibòa làanii yii ts'èhtł'ì gà dewa netłq-lea weta ʔats'ehʔł. Eył tł'àxòò dè tì lìgawhìtòò yii ts'èhtł'ì t'à, welibòa weyii nats'ehxe gà nezłł wedàets'eechł, eył tł'àxòò dè wetł'ii k'èts'ehge.

Lìgawhìtòò ejł nłdè hòt'a ʔadzà ne.

Joe Eyakfwo, Harriet Erasmus, Sonny Zoe głłtł'è

Yatı K'èts'eezòò

łtè	nàke
taı	dł
hoòno	taani
taèno	esanile

Recipes use a lot of verbs in giving instructions, so they make a great introduction to verbs! This chapter introduces verbs/wet'à dàgot'ɔ̀ yatì and how the spelling and sounds of verbs change depending on who is doing the action.

Wet'à Dàgot'ɔ̀ Yatì/Verbs in Tɔ̀chɔ Yatì

Here are four verbs or verb phrases from the recipe for pancakes. The verbs are underlined.

eleta ʔaahleh

eleta ahtì

ets' aahk'a

aht'è

The verbs all name different actions expressed in the verb stem. They are all directing the people reading the recipe to do these actions and they all include the same prefix **ah-**. This recipe is telling *you* what to do to make pancakes.

In the recipe for making 30 cups of coffee the verbs share a different prefix:

weyì ts'ehť'ì

weyì nats'ehxe

wedàets' eechi

wet'ì k'èts'ehge

This recipe is directed at *anyone* who might be following the recipe, and so the verbs in it include the general verb prefix **ts'e-** mentioned in Chapter 3. This recipe is telling about what someone has to do to make the coffee.

What we need to know about wet'à dàgot'ɔ̀ yatì/verbs:

1. Every verb includes a **verb stem/yatikwì** that carries the meaning of the type of action being done.
2. The verb stem/yatikwì is found at the end of the verb word.
3. Verbs may also contain other prefixes.
4. Each verb includes a prefix/wekwee **wheʔoq** that changes depending on who is doing the action.
5. Most verb stems/yatikwì can't be pronounced alone.

For example, **ht'ì** is yatikwì used in verbs for spilling or pouring liquids or powdery things. This verb stem can't be pronounced alone. The verb stem **ht'è** is used in verbs for the action of cooking, baking, or roasting.

Verb Paradigms

The verbs below include two parts: (1) *wekwee whe?oqo* indicating who is doing the action and (2) *yatikwi*. The term **subject** picks out the doer of the action, so the prefix **ah-** is called the **subject prefix**.

ahti	you people stir it
aht'è	you people cook it

In the two words above, the subject is 'you people', and the prefix is **ah-**.

What is a verb paradigm?

A verb paradigm is the set of words which mean exactly the same thing except for who is doing the action. They are similar to noun paradigms because for both types of paradigms the action or thing is the same, but the person or people involved is changed.

We can make up **verb paradigms** by changing the subject prefix and keeping the verb stem/*yatikwi* the same. Here is an example of a paradigm, with the columns arranged by how many people are acting as **subjects**.

In the first column, called **singular**, there is only one subject, or one person doing the action. In the second column, called **dual**, there are two people doing the action (two subjects), and in the third column, there are plural subjects, two or more people doing the action.

In this column, one person is doing the action.	In this column, two people are doing the action.	In this column, two or more people are doing the action.
Singular	Dual	Plural
ehti I stir it	diihti we two stir it	ts'ehti we stir it
nihti you stir it		ahti you people stir it
yehti he or she stirs it		giehti they stir it

By looking at this verb paradigm we see that the verb stem meaning 'stir' is **hti**. Even though we can see that all of the verbs share this verb stem, the verb stem can't be pronounced by itself.

In the chart for the verb 'to stir', the word **ts'ehti** is labelled with the meaning 'we stir it'. This word has another meaning too: generally 'to stir it'. We can use this word if we are not focussing on who is doing the action. (We saw this in Chapter 3 too.) The same is true for all verbs.

The verb stem meaning ‘cook’ is **ht’è**. The paradigm for ‘cook’ is identical to the paradigm for ‘stir’ except for the change in verb stem. The subject prefixes are basically the same.

	Singular	Dual	Plural
1st Person – including me	eht’è I cook it	diiht’è we two cook it	ts’eht’è we cook it
2nd Person – including you	neht’è you cook it		aht’è you people cook it
3rd Person – excluding me or you	yeht’è he or she cooks it		gieht’è they cook it

This chart introduces the new terms **first person**, **second person**, and **third person**. ‘First person’ means me (whoever is speaking), and the group that includes me – us! ‘Second person’ means you (whoever is being talked to), and the group that includes you. ‘Third person’ means any group that doesn’t include me or you. Taking all of these terms together, first person singular means just me alone, and second person plural means all of you, no matter how many people there are.

Most action verbs have paradigms just like this one. This is because no matter what action is being done, different people and different numbers of people are capable of doing it. The verbs in these charts are sorted into three rows across and three columns down. The charts label the columns down by the number of people involved, and the rows across by which people are involved:

- In the first row across, the verbs mean that the action is being done by whoever is speaking, and possibly other people as well. This row is labelled first (1st) person – it involves *whoever is speaking*.
- In the second row across, labelled second (2nd) person, it is the person or people being *spoken to* who will be doing the action.
- In the third row across, labelled third (3rd) person, the subject is someone else not involved in the conversation, *not including me or you*.

Below we see the paradigm for the verb meaning ‘to turn it over (using something with a handle)’. Here we haven’t included any labels in the chart.

ets’aehk’a	I turn it over	ets’adiihk’a	we two turn it over	ets’ats’eehk’a	we turn it over
ets’ajhk’a	you turn it over			ets’aahk’a	you people turn it over
ets’ayeek’a	s/he turns it over			ets’agiehk’a	they turn it over

In this paradigm the verb has a prefix that comes at the front of the verb before the subject prefix: **ets’a-** is the prefix meaning ‘around’ or ‘over’.

At first it is a little strange to think about an entire verb paradigm because, when we are actually speaking, only one word from the whole set will probably be used in a sentence. When someone asks you a question they use one element of the set, and when you answer, you usually use a different one:

Question: Ayii neht’è?

Answer: Łèt’èhtłòa eht’è.

Questions and answers are a really good way to learn verb paradigms and to practise writing verbs because you have to show a lot of flexibility in understanding and answering.

The next chapters continue to give lots of information about wet’à dàgot’ıı yatii/verbs, verb prefixes, verb stems, and verb paradigms. There is a lot to know about verbs, since they are the heart of the sentence no matter what language we are talking about. Because of the many verb prefixes in Tłıchq Yatii, verb paradigms are really fun and interesting.

More Consonants: The ł and s Families of Consonants

Rechecking the alphabet list in Chapter 1 we see that there are many consonants used in Tłıchq Yatii. One way to get to know them all is by thinking of them in terms of families of consonants.

Here are the ł and s families. How many words from the recipes can you find with these 10 consonants? There should be lots!

The ʃ family:

The ʃ family members all have a sound like ʃ as part of their pronunciation. The consonant printed ʃ is called **barred ʃ** because it is written with a bar across the letter ʃ. Both ʃ and ʃ are pronounced with air passing through the mouth on the sides of the tongue. We can feel this air rushing through very distinctly with ʃ, and the same thing happens with ʃ. These two sounds are the same except for this: with ʃ, our vocal cords are vibrating. Can you feel the vibrations if you put your fingers on your throat? With the other members of the ʃ family we stop the air first before letting it rush out. With **tʃ'**, a stoppage is made in the voicebox as we pronounce the consonant, and that is why we use the symbol **wewèk'è** in its spelling.

ʃ	ʃè	flour
	ʃèdʒ	baking powder
	ʃʃè	one
	ʃaahʃeh	you people do it
ʃ	ʃibò	cup
	echʃʃʃʃʃʃ	spoon
	nechà-lea	small
	ʃigawhitqò	coffee pot
dʃ	nàʃʃdìò	you laugh
	dìòò	squirrel
	satsqò nàʃedlii	sewing machine
	edlàedqò	whatever person
tʃ	tʃeh	lard
	ʃèt'èhtʃòà	pancakes
	netʃqò	there are many
	Tʃʃchqò	Dogrib
tʃ'	wetʃ'ì	its cord
	weyì ts'èhtʃ'ì	to pour it in
	tʃ'àxqò	after
	tʃ'qhbàa	tent

The s family:

The **s** family has five members also. The hissing sound they all have is made from the way the tongue is shaped as the air comes through the mouth. Let's get to know the members of the **s** family! If we compare **s** and **z**, which one has our vocal cords vibrating?

s	sɿ	me
	sìga	sugar
	sɔ̀nàts'edè	to play
	setà	my father
z	zɔ̀	only
	nezɿ	it is good
	nàts'ezè	to hunt
	wɿzì	his, her, their, or its name
dz	dɿdzɛ̀	today
	sedzɛ̀	my birthday
	weèhdzà ha	I'm going to try it
	ehdzo	traps
ts	tsà	beaver
	nàtso	it is strong
	ehtsè	grandfather
	whihtsɿ	I made it
ts'	ts'èko	woman
	ts'ehtsɿ	to make it
	ets'aahk'a	you people turn it over
	dats'etɔ̀	to dance

With **s** and **z**, the air rushes over the top of the tongue as we pronounce the sounds. **Dz**, **ts**, and **ts'** are like **dl**, **tɬ**, and **tɬ'**: they are pronounced with a closure in the mouth before the air is released to make the hissing sound. The last member of the family, **ts'**, is another consonant pronounced with **weweèk'è**. This important consonant is useful in verb paradigms because we can use it to give a name to the verb: we see this with **ts'ehtsɿ** and **dats'etɔ̀** in the listing above, and we saw it earlier in this chapter and in Chapter 3. Try it out with some other verbs, like 'to turn it over', 'to be strong', 'to try it', and more.

Summary

The recipes at the beginning of this chapter are a great introduction to verbs/wet'á dāgot'ŋ yatì in the language. The verbs change depending on who is making the tasty things to eat.

This chapter also introduced 10 consonants in two **families of consonants**, and gives some basic information about verbs. Verbs and nouns are similar because they both can be built up from stems and prefixes. Nouns and verbs also both form paradigms of very closely related words. In the **verb paradigms**, what changes from word to word is who is doing the action. The sounds of the words in the paradigm are different from each other by which **subject prefix** is used.



Louise Dì Ts'ò Ts'eèze

Boat Trip to Louise Island



CHAPTER

6

Louise Dii Ts'ò Ts'eèze

Ti esàgodi-le, ekii eja làani. T'leht'òò zò t'à wets'eèkw'ò. T'leht'òò ts'èwhj t'à nats'at'ò. Niwaà ticho wets'eèkw'ò. Elàt'á k'eeht'j, sezha j'ah gete. "Kwe ka neewò," dözhiì hasèhdi. Hanikò elà kwe k'e ajà, eyi t'à dözhiì sets'ò ìich'è. "Dàanìghò anet'j?" sets'ò ezeh. Nezjì weghàehda, sijnì-le. "Kwe tèewhe?zò wègaat'j-le," wèehsj. "Kwe ka neewò, elàkwì xoneehdi," dözhiì hasèhdi. Dèets'ò ats'ejà, k'achj elà kwe wek'e ajà-le. Sijnàà ajà.

K'omòzòzò esàgodi-le, t'asii wjjzì nàeda-le; t'leht'òò etfe zò t'à dedì. Ti k'e saide ts'jh?ò ti sii eja làani wègaat'j.

K'omòzòzò sadaera t'à sijnì whekò, njhts'í goxèehdi ts'jh?ò gòk'ò. Dè deg hats'eezè ha ts'jh?ò t'leht'òò ts'èwhj etfe ayjà. Nòzde t'à edjì ats'et'j j'le ekòzò nits'jjze, Louise dia.

Sezha j'aa gete sòzòzi gik'aehta ha dehwhò ts'jh?ò elà yì ets'aeht'a. Kw'ih kàj'de xè kw'ih gikwì mòzò k'edè t'à kw'ihwò gik'e nièhza.

Edlàjwhàcho nàke elets'ò gejj. Gizhì nezj kò wet'á ts'òhòjwò. Eyi t'à weghò nànehwhoò dè goxj djts'eèt'e zò dii dii k'e nàts'edè làani.

Terrì Douglas wegodiì

Yati K'èts'eezòzò

wets'eèkw'ò	ts'èwhj
gete	gejj
dàanìghò	sijnàà
wèehsj	hasèhdi
dehwhò	neewò

Nouns and verbs name things and actions, and the terms in Tł̥chq̥ Yatì say this: *wet'à ts'ìzì yatì* and *wet'à dàgot'j̥ yatì*. These are the two most numerous parts of speech, but not the only ones. Using Terri's evocative story that opens this chapter, we introduce descriptive words called adverbs, as well as two very important sounds in Tł̥chq̥ Yatì. Both these sounds are different from any English language sounds.

Another Part of Speech: Adverbs

The words that modify verbs and sentences are called adverbs. One of the ways we have such beautiful, clear images from Terri Douglas's story is through descriptive words like adverbs.

Adverbs tell us about how an action is done or what a situation is like – they give us a fuller picture of what is happening.

An **adverb** is a word that adds to a verb's meaning.

Adverbs are different from nouns and verbs because they don't pattern into paradigms. If they do change, they change just by having one or two types of suffixes added to them.

This chapter's story about the trip to Louise Dì is rich in description and rich in adverbs. Here are some examples, with the adverb underlined in each. Since adverbs describe actions and situations it makes sense to give examples of them in full sentences.

Nezj̥ weghàehda, s̥j̥nì-le.

Dèets'ò ats'ejà, k'achj̥ elà kwe wek'e ajà-le.

Sezha j̥t̥aà gete s̥òni gik'aehta ha dehwhq̥ ts'j̥h?ò elà yì ets'aeht̥a.

Nq̥ode t'à edj̥ ats'et'j̥ j̥lè ekq̥ò nìts'j̥j̥e, Louise dìa.

The first example contains an adverb **nezj̥** modifying the verb **weghàehda**. What the narrator says is that she was watching well. This adverb gives information about how the action was done. **K'achj̥** in the second example means 'again', where we read that the boat didn't hit a rock again. This type of adverb is sometimes called an adverb of time or frequency. **j̥t̥aà** in the third sentence is also an adverb of time, meaning 'still'. **Ekq̥ò** in the last example means 'there'; it is an adverb of place.

Yatìq̥ *whe?q̥q̥* commonly found on adverbs is **-a**, which emphasizes how small or precious something is. The suffix can be used with words of any part of speech, including adverbs. Some examples are shown in the following sentences. (We talk about this suffix more in Chapter 14. The sentences are taken from different stories, including Terri's.) The adverbs are underlined.

...tʰeht'òò ts'èwhjə etʰe ayjìà.

jhjə hajdi.

Wenòòkw'òò yaàzea dezò làani.

Sechi jhk'èa segha bebìa k'èdì.

The suffix on the adverb **ts'èwhjə** in the first example emphasizes how very quietly the kicker was running. In the last example, the suffix on the adverb **jhk'èa**, meaning 'sometimes', gives the impression that my brother babysits for me only now and then.

Adverbs and Meanings

Adverbs can be grouped according to the kind of meaning they have. Four types of adverbs are shown below: **time adverbs**, **place adverbs**, **manner adverbs** (telling how an event takes place), and **subjective adverbs** (expressing the speaker's opinion about the event). This is just a sampling of the many adverbs used in enriching descriptions in Tjichq Yatì.

Time Adverbs (relating to when or how often something happens)

k'achj	again
jhk'è, qhk'è	sometimes
edlàjwhəcho	for how long a time
ehk'èdaa	now and then
hòt'a	already

Place Adverbs (relating to where something happens)

ekòò	there
jò	here
jdèe	back, behind
t'ak'e	crooked
yahdàa	way down river

Manner Adverbs (relating to how something happens)

nezjì	well, nicely
hòt'ò	loud, hard, a lot
deghàa	completely
ʰəə	together as a group
jhjì	quietly, slowly

Subjective Adverbs (relating to the speaker's thoughts on what happens)

dàhsòò	coincidentally, by chance, fortunately
tahkò	maybe
edahxò	maybe, just in case

There are some other types of adverbs that will come up in examples throughout this book. Adverbs really add to the vividness of a story, and Terri's story shows this clearly.

Tone on Vowels

There is a lot to know about the four vowels in Tłjchq Yatì, **a e i o**. Besides plain vowels and nasal vowels like the ones we've seen in Chapters 3 and 4, there are also differences in the **pitch** of the vowels, also called **tone**. The next chapter discusses yet another vowel difference.

The term **pitch** has nothing to do with baseball! Talking about a song, the **pitch** of the voice goes up and down with the melody of a song. When the pitch of a vowel is lower than a regular **a e i o** vowel, it is marked with a **tone mark**, or **wets'aà**, its hat. Here are a few pairs of words that are almost the same, except for the difference in tone:

jih	mitts	sekwi	my grandchild
jìh	fishhook	sekwi	my head
sets'ò	from me	jlè	it was
sets'ò	to me	jìle	no
gotah	among us	eye	drum
gotà	our father	eyè	eggs

This difference is shown in spelling with ` on top of the vowel. The examples show that this contrast is important in Tłjchq Yatì.

To understand and hear the difference between a vowel with **wets'aà** and one without, it might help to understand the muscles we use to make vowels. We have two muscles in our voicebox that vibrate when we make the vowel sounds **a e i o**. (They vibrate for some consonants too.) These muscles are called **vocal cords**.

When we make a vowel in a high pitch, like when we are singing the high notes of a song, our vocal cords are vibrating very fast. When the pitch of the vowel is lower, the vocal cords vibrate more slowly. When the vocal cords are vibrating more slowly, they are more relaxed. That is why your throat feels more relaxed when you are pronouncing a vowel with **wets'aà**.

Now, see if you can feel the difference in your throat and in your voice when you pronounce these pairs of words again.

sekwi	my grandchild	gotah	among us
sekwi	my head	gotà	our father
sets'ò	from me	eye	drum
sets'ò	to me	eyè	eggs

Can you hear the difference in these words too?

hadì	he or she says that	k'oh	cloud
hanì	like that	k'òò	willow

One way we can remember what **wets'aà** stands for is if we think of it as a downward slope, or an arrow pointing downward on the vowels that have lower pitch or tone.

The tone of the vowels is something that we just know about a word. With the pairs of words on this page, there is no pattern for remembering how to spell 'drum' and how to spell 'eggs'. It is just part of how we pronounce the words. In some cases, though, there is a pattern. One of those patterns is talked about in Chapter 9.

So far we've seen three types of vowels in Tłjchq Yatì:

regular vowels	a e i o
nasal vowels with wjghòà	ǎ ɛ ɨ ɔ
low tone vowels with wets'aà	à è ì ò

Chapter 7 will introduce another type of vowel, the **long** or "dragged" vowel.

More Consonants: The x and wh Consonant Families

In this chapter we will continue looking at families of consonants. Check back in Terri's story for more words with these consonants.

The x family:

Three of the consonants introduced in Chapter 3 belong to one family. The whole family is made up of **x gh g k** and **k'**. All of these consonants are pronounced with the back of the tongue bunched up towards the roof of the mouth. For **x** and **gh** the air flows through a narrow opening over the tongue (and with **gh** the vocal cords are vibrating). For the others, the tongue touches the roof of the mouth stopping the air for a second. With **k'** there is another brief stoppage of air at the voicebox.

x	xok'e	winter
	wexè	with him, her, it, or them
	goxɿ	us
	nats'ehxe	to put it back
gh	weghɔ	about it
	segħa	for me
	dàanìghɔ	why?
	wegħàehda	I'm looking at it
g	gòk'ò	it is cold outside
	gɿzhɿ̀	their songs
	gete	they are sleeping
	whegɔ	it is dry
k	nàke	two
	hanikò	but, never mind
	wekèè	its lodge
	naxàèhko	I threw up
k'	k'eeht'ɿ̀	I looked around
	k'omɔ̀dɔ̀dɔ̀	morning
	gɿk'e	on them
	ets'aahk'a	you people turn it over

The consonants in some families show special patterns. For example, with **gh**, it is rare to find a sentence that starts with this consonant. This consonant is almost always pronounced with another consonant or vowel before it, in the same word or in the word before it. In the Dogrib dictionary, there is only one noun that starts with the sound **gh**. What is it? (And lots of people pronounce this word starting with a **w** instead!)

The three consonants **k**, **x** and **h** are related to each other in spelling. In prefixes on verbs and other words, we can choose which one of these consonants to use when we speak or write. Here are some examples, some from the word listing in Chapter 1. The words mean exactly the same no matter what spelling is used.

kàts'ele hàts'ele xàts'ele	to take [things] out	ekàani kani hani	in that way
ekàats'edi kats'edi hats'edi xats'edi	to say so	ekàanikò kanikò hanikò hanihò	but

K and **x** are in the *x* family. Pronounce them in the nouns **ke** and **xah**. Now try saying one long **h**. **H** isn't included in any family of consonants because it is more like heavy breathing through our vocal cords! Can everyone feel the air rushing past **goweèk'è** when we say **h**? **K**, **x** and **h** are not the same, but they are similar to each other, and people can choose which one to use in words like these.

The wh family:

All of the members of this family, **wh w gw kw** and **kw'**, are made with rounded lips. The last three are pronounced with a stoppage of air with the back of the tongue against the roof of the mouth. Which one of **wh** or **w** is made with the vocal cords vibrating?

wh	whaà whachò ezhawhìj whekò	long ago alone I got sick it is hot
w	wek'e gògwàa dewa nàowo	on it [an area] is far away salt tradition, culture, law
gw	ehgwàa tsogwìa whagweè	dryfish sawdust sandy area
kw	kwe gokwì ekwò t'akwee	rock head caribou before
kw'	kw'à wets'eèhkw'ò kw'ih ts'eèhkw'e	dish to hear it mosquito to be sitting (many people)

Another Consonant: weweèk'è

The last consonant for this chapter is written ʔ. The capital letter looks like this: ʔ. It is called 'glottal', or **weweèk'è** in Tłıchq Yatı̀. We can think of it as a full-size '. This consonant is very simple to pronounce: it is made just by a stoppage in the voicebox, with the air flowing freely for the vowel after and before.

We hear it whenever we say 'yes' in Tłıchq Yatı̀, **həʔə**. Here are some other words that have **weweèk'è**:

ʔ	nàʔedlò	he or she is smiling
	weta ʔaahłeh	you people mix it in
	ts'qʔə	because
	ʔeh	jacket, clothes

It doesn't need to bother us that both of these symbols ʔ and ' are called **weweèk'è**. ʔ is a consonant by itself, and ' is always just one element of another consonant. Calling the two by the same name reminds us of just how similar they are.

Summary

This chapter introduced the part of speech called **adverbs**. Terri's story of the boat trip to Louise Dia makes a good introduction to adverbs because it is so descriptive. Reading the story is almost like being there.

Adverbs have meanings that help to fill in information about an action or an event. In this way they are like postpositions, which we will see in the next chapter.

Twelve consonants were discussed in this chapter, including the **x** and **wh** families, **h**, and the consonant called **weweèk'è**. Tone on vowels is introduced in this chapter too, and the mark for tone, called **wets'aà**.



Ełets'ıhtsıı

A Marriage Proposal



CHAPTER

7

Yamoòzha Ts'èko Eekè

Godi K'ayaehitidò: Dèè gogòò ekò Nòhtsi sii cheko ìlè Yamoòzha wiyeh Tìjchò nèk'e ts'ò ayjìlà, tich'aadì wets'àhoejj hazòò e'agohde ha t'à. Jlàà tich'aadì hanjwò t'à Gots'òkàti tenaèhtfa ekò e'èot'j njhbàa dj nàgjjh?a goghaetfa. Eneèkoa eyits'ò ts'òòkoa edeti xè eyi nàgedè nòò.

K'ogwìa: Ena, Ena, chjk'è ts'ònèè hàhtò taetfe!

T'ok'ahwhi: Seti, jwhàà etajtfe, wegga asii neht'è.

K'ogwìa: Hè?è.

T'ok'ahwhi: Netà hàhtò zòetfe wèjdi.

K'ogwìa: Età, età, hàhtò zòetfe!

Bòts'ii: Edjì?

K'ogwìa: Yee.

Bòts'ii: Edjì gots'ò najtfe aat'j?

Yamoòzha: Dèljì gots'ò naehtfe.

Bòts'ii: Nèot'j edjì gots'ò agjìt'e?

Yamoòzha: Hazòò nèk'e.

Sechi Yamoògàa sazì nèk'e ts'ò adzà jìè.

Bòts'ii: Whaà k'ehonehwho nì?

Yamoòzha: Jmbè ghàà sek'ehaowo.

Bòts'ii: Nìneetsò sòni.

Yamoòzha: Hè?è. Whaà-lea ts'ò naxixè aweht'è.

T'ok'ahwhi: Sii bòghajwì sòni.

Yamoòzha: Dzèè ghàà sewà hòdi-le.

Bòts'ii: Gonjhbàa goyajtfa, sighà anedzà.

T'ok'ahwhi: Whaà-lea ts'ò jò nahozi xè shèjtj.

Yamoòzha: Mahsi.

T'ok'ahwhi: Seti sexè bòxàweht'e hòt'e.

Yamoòzha: Mahsi naxèehwhò.

T'ok'ahwhi: Sii nezjì bòxàeht'è hòt'e.

Yamoòzha: Bò fèkòò xàweht'e. Nezjì hoghàwehtò nòò.

T'ok'ahwhi: Jìè dzèè dò ts'èkèè nezjì elj ha.

Godi K'ayaehitidò: Yamoòzha nàke dzèèhta ts'ò goxè nàjdè.

Bòts'ii: Yamoòzha, mahsi goxè aneet'è.

Yamoòzha: Hè?è, t'asii fò hadiilà.

Bòts'ii: Nezjì ełexè nàwizè.
Yamoòzha: Eyits'ò wet'à nàts'ezèe gòò wìtsj.
Bòts'ii: Eyits'ò whaèhdòò godiì t'à ełexègowìdo.
Yamoòzha: Eyits'ò nezjì bò ghò shèts'aze.
T'ok'áhwhii: K'ogwìà nezjì bòxàeht'è.
K'ogwìà: Ena-à.
Yamoòzha: Sìì nezjì bòxàeht'è.
Bòts'ii: Nezjì nàreeli họt'e.
K'ogwìà: Età-a.
T'ok'áhwhii: Eyits'ò ewò wèdaat'jì yehwhe.
Yamoòzha: Sìì edàizeh diì, dlòniwò dè sìì wèdaat'jì.
T'ok'áhwhii: Yamoòzha, asjì ts'èko jhchì ha neewò nì?
Bòts'ii: Toò dè edza agodaade.
T'ok'áhwhii: Wha-à-le t'ii xok'e agode ha.
K'ogwìà: Ena-à ! Età-a!
Bòts'ii: Dò t'aa dè negha gòkò ha ne.
Yamoòzha: Hẹ̣̣̣, K'ogwìà dò ts'èkeè nezjì elj ha họt'e.
K'ogwìà: Sjjkè nì ađdì?
Bòts'ii / T'ok'áhwhii: Hẹ̣̣̣, hẹ̣̣̣.
Yamoòzha: Hẹ̣̣̣, K'ogwìà sets'èkeè elj ha wèehwhò.
Bòts'ii: T'ok'áhwhii sj hj hẹ̣̣̣ nèts'edi.
T'ok'áhwhii: Hanikò nàke xo gots'ò goxè nàadè-a ne.
Yamoòzha: Hẹ̣̣̣, K'ogwìà wegħa t'asani-le dè.
K'ogwìà: Hẹ̣̣̣, Yamoòzha wets'èkeè ehj għa sjnàà.

Mary K. Richardson wegodiì

Yatì K'èts'eezòò

hàhtò	nìnẹ̣̣̣tsò
naxixè	edàizeh
negħa	sjjkè
wets'èkeè	ehj

Yamòòzha is looking for a wife, and K'ogwà's parents recognized him as a good catch for their daughter. They don't hesitate to help get the young couple together! This short play by Mary Richardson uses a lot of humour to explore traditional values of hospitality and family relationships, and to express the importance of skills and talents for hard work. We can also use it in this book for encouraging people's dramatic abilities in acting and script-writing, and for continuing to develop language skills. It's good, and funny too!

For reading and writing, this chapter introduces another part of speech. We have already learned about nouns, verbs, and adverbs, and this chapter introduces **postpositions**.

The other new thing in this chapter is the presentation of long vowels in Dogrib. Just the smallest difference in the sound of a vowel can make a difference in the meaning of a word, changing the word for poles, **wha**, into the word for a long time, **whaà**, or the word for our mother, **gomᑭ**, into the word for our aunt, **gomᑭᑭ**.

Another Part of Speech: Postpositions

In this section we meet a group of words called **postpositions**. Postpositions express concrete and abstract relationships between things and events. (They are similar to prepositions in English.) We will see that some postpositions share meaning and word roots with adverbs, which we talked about in Chapter 6.

A **postposition** is a word that indicates a relationship between things.

Examples from Mary's play and other stories show how postpositions relate people, objects, situations, and events in space or time, or in different kinds of abstract relationships. Here is a sentence from Terri's story in Chapter 6 about the boat trip:

Elà kwe k'e ajà. The boat went on a rock.

The postposition in this sentence is **k'e**, meaning 'on'. The relationship between the boat and the rock is that the boat is on the rock! The postposition forms a phrase with the noun **kwe** that comes before it. Postpositions always show this pattern and they get their name from this pattern. The word **postposition** comes from the Latin language. Since post means 'after' in Latin, we expect that a postposition would be placed or positioned *after* the noun it goes with.

More examples from Yamoòzha's marriage proposal and Terri's story in Chapter 6 are shown below, with the postpositions underlined.

- Imbè ghàà sek'ehaowo.** I have wandered all summer.
Nàke xo gots'ò goxè You will live with us for two
nàadè-a ne. years.
Dèlɿ gots'ò naehtle. I am coming from Déline.
Elà yì ets'aehtla. I turned around in the boat.
Kw'ih gikwì mọ̀ọ̀ k'edè. Mosquitoes were flying around
 their heads.

The postpositions underlined in the first two sentences refer to relationships of time, and the last three refer to relationships in space.

Postpositions sometimes have inflection prefixes attached to them. Therefore, they can pattern into paradigms. Wekwee whelaa used in **postposition paradigms** are the same ones we find in noun paradigms. The prefix takes the place of an object if we don't need to mention the object in a separate phrase. In the paradigm below we see the postposition **xè** meaning 'with'. The prefixes are printed in bold.

	Singular	Plural
1st person	sexè with me	goxè with us
2nd person	nexè with you	naxixè with you people
3rd person	wexè with him, her, it or them	gixè with them

More examples of postpositions with prefixes are shown next. The postposition is underlined – in front of the postposition is the prefix that tells what person or object is involved. In the English translation the phrase that matches the postposition is underlined.

“Dàanìghọ anet'ɿ?” sets'ò ezeh.
 ‘Why are you doing it?’ he yelled at me.

Gonàowò gogha wet'àarà.
 Our traditions are important for us.

Weta hà̀tsòà whelaa hò esanile.
 It is okay if there are lumps in it.

Setsɿ sexè jìe gha dèhʔe.
 My grandmother went out by boat with me for berries.

The last sentence has two postpositions, **sexè** meaning 'with me', and the postposition **gha** in the phrase **jìe gha**, meaning 'for berries'.

There are other prefixes that can be used with postpositions. They can be used with many verbs and nouns too. Here are some examples. The postpositions are underlined.

Elexè geèhkw'e.

They are sitting together (or with each other).

We can translate the prefix **ete-** to mean 'each other'. The title of this chapter has the same prefix in a verb rather than a postposition. And look ahead to the title of Chapter 9! Chapter 14 has more discussion of this prefix.

In the next example, the prefix **ede-** relates to a **reflexive** relationship between people or things and themselves.

Edegha dzèdeè hòts'ehtsj.

We are making a great day for ourselves.

Eyi dọziì edeghọ gode.

That man is talking about himself.

This prefix will usually be translated as *ourselves, myself, yourself, themselves*, and so on.

The third prefix **ye-** relates two or more people or things. One is the subject of the sentence. The other person or thing is not mentioned, but when we use these sentences we know who we are talking about from what was said before.

Waàgịà yetadà nàdè.

His friend lives across from him.

Sammy yegha asì whehtsj.

Sammy made something for him.

Like the other two prefixes this prefix can be used with nouns and verbs too.

Postpositions and Meanings

Like adverbs, postpositions can be divided into different groups according to meaning. Most of the postpositions mentioned so far express **relationships in space**. There are many postpositions, and here are some more:

Relationships in Space

<u>gà</u>	<u>ladà gà</u>	beside the table
<u>gee</u>	<u>dechj gee</u>	between the trees
<u>ts'ò</u>	<u>tabàa gots'ò</u>	from the shore
<u>tadà</u>	<u>setadà</u>	across from me
<u>ts'òò</u>	<u>Behchokò ts'òò</u>	away from Behchokò

Some of these same words can be used to express **relationships in time** too. Here are some examples showing this:

Relationships in Time

<u>k'e</u>	<u>Nàkedzèè k'e</u>	on Tuesday
<u>k'èè</u>	<u>sedzèè k'èè</u>	after my birthday
<u>ts'ò</u>	<u>dj dzè ts'ò</u>	since four days ago
<u>ts'òò</u>	<u>taì dzèahta ts'òò</u>	for three weeks

Other postpositions express **relationships of causing**. They add to the meaning of what caused a situation.

Relationships of Causing

<u>gokwì t'à</u>	using the axe, with the axe
<u>edza ts'jh'ò</u>	because of the cold weather
<u>sòòmba k'èxa</u>	for money
<u>sezha dàà ts'òòniwò</u>	because of my son, she is sad

Others have to do with **giving and receiving**, and objects moving from one person to another.

Giving and Receiving

<u>tò seghàjhxè</u>	hand me the bucket
<u>nìhbàa seghò nìjchì</u>	lend me a tent
<u>gotsè Joe t'aa'yeele</u>	she hands nails to Joe
<u>set'aèhtla</u>	she got away from me

These examples show that a postposition can have a close connection to a verb, and the combination made up of the verb and the postposition together have a certain meaning. When this is true the postposition and verb are often written as one word.

Some postpositions relate to the **presence or absence** of someone or something.

Presence or Absence

semọ xè aahde	you people go with my mother
wets'èkeè daà agòjà	it happened in the presence of his wife
chekoa goamjì dèhtlā	he left with the children
kwe ka nẹwọ	you look for rocks
semọ dẹ aahde	you people went without my mother
seda lidi whehtsì	he made tea for me (I wasn't there)
kw'ahtideè t'àxọọ haylā	she did that in place of the chief
gità k'èè getse	they are crying after their father

Other postpositions express relationships between events and someone's **knowledge or willingness**.

Knowledge or Willingness

sechọ dọ goyìèhtlā	someone came in while I was sleeping
sek'èch'a eghàlajda-le	don't work against me (against my will)
gonaàrjì xọnìjā	she got married without our knowledge
gít'ahk'e agòjà	it happened to their surprise
saàgja naàhtọ	without my friend knowing

There are several postpositions that can be translated as 'in' in English, but they all mean something a little different.

tì nj k'ebe	it is swimming in the lake
lèdì weta ʔats'ehʔì	we put baking powder in with it
dechì njets'ò ezeh	he is shouting in among the trees
kọ goyì geèhk'w'e	they are sitting in the house (hollow area)
yìiwò yìì whela	they are in the sack (confining space)

There are many more postpositions. We will see lots more in the chapters that follow.

Adverbs Related to Postpositions

Postpositions and adverbs have a lot in common in meaning. Adverbs describe events and situations, and in a similar way postposition phrases include information that describes details about situations. Some adverbs share the same *yatikwì* with postpositions. Instead of having a noun or paradigm prefix before the postposition, adverb words based on postpositions include a descriptive type of prefix. An example is **t'akwee**.

T'akwee datle while. In the past there was no soap.

The postposition **kwee** by itself means 'before something'. **T'akwee** means before some time that we are not specifically mentioning. The prefix **t'a-** together with the postposition is what gives this adverb its meaning of 'in the past'.

Other adverbs built on the pattern *prefix + postposition* are given below. In them *yatikwì* or **postposition stem** is underlined.

t'aats'ò	however long in time
t'ats'ò	constantly
ɬ'ò	elsewhere, beside
ɬdaà	forward, in the future
yah'ò	way over there
yahdaà	way up ahead

There are quite a few other adverbs similar to these.

These adverbs remind us that adverbs and postpositions have a similar role in sentences: to fill in details of how the action unfolded or what the event was like.

Introduction to Long or “Dragged” Vowels

We have seen in earlier chapters that there is more to know about vowels in Tłıchǝ Yatì than just **a e i o**. In the earlier chapters we talked about the important differences between regular vowels, nasal vowels (vowels with **wıghòǝ**), and low tone vowels (vowels with **wets'aà**). This section gives an introduction to long, or “dragged” vowels. They will be discussed more in the next two chapters.

Long or dragged vowels are common in Tłıchǝ Yatì, and contrast with regular vowels. Sometimes long vowels come from the addition of a prefix or a suffix, but sometimes they just belong in certain words. These are some common words with long vowels.

taa, tai	three	yjɪtʃ'è	she or he wrote it
too	night	geeɟ	they are scared
xoo	year	wèhdaà	some
xàà	cards	detʃoo	it is soft or tender
tsòòmba	money	goɟzhàà	it gets dry

The next pairs of words below show how a long vowel can make a difference in the meaning of a word.

nàzè	he or she hunts	xoo	year
nàahzè	you people hunt	xoh	root
nezɪ	it is good	xɪ	us
nezjì	well, nicely	xjì	raft
dedɪ	it sounds or makes a sound		
dedì	moose		
nayeeʔà ha	he or she is going to put it back (chunky thing)		
nayerà	he or she takes it (for example, medicine)		

Say these pairs of words out loud. Can you hear the difference in the vowels? Think of some more examples and see if you can make a joke out of a pair of words like these ones.

The different combinations of vowels can get complicated in Tjchq Yatì spelling. If you listen to your own way of saying these words, and how other people say them, the differences in vowels between regular and “dragged” will get easier to recognize.

Vowel length and syllables are talked about more in Chapter 9 and Chapter 14.

A Loner Consonant

The Dogrib alphabet includes a few sounds that don't fit into families. The letter **y** is one of these ‘loners’.

y	elà yì	inside the boat
	ayì	what?
	yats'ehtɪ	we are praying
	yatɪ	language, word
	hayjìlà	she or he did that
	kw'àyjà	bowl
	yehtsɪ	he or she is making it
	hoghàyeèhtq	he taught him

This sound is pronounced with the tongue arched up high in the mouth, but not touching the roof of the mouth. Are the vocal cords vibrating, or not? Some words spelled **y** have other spellings with **z** or **zh**. These options come from differences in dialects. Two examples are:

yìiwò		eyaelj	
zìiwò	dufflebag	ezaelj	he or she is sick
zhìiwò		ezhaelj	

A few other words have spellings with either **y** or **gh**. Both of these sounds are pronounced with the air flowing through a narrow opening between the tongue and the roof of the mouth. Before the closed vowels **e** and **i** these consonants sound almost the same.

eye	drum	eyè	egg
eghe		eghè	
kw'àyjǎ	bowl	naeyj	it is melting
kw'aghjǎ		naeghj	

All of these spellings are good. They are the signs of different dialects.

Summary

At the beginning of this chapter Mary Richardson's play told the story of how Yamoòzha meets and ends up proposing to his wife. It gives a humorous glimpse into some traditional family values, and also gives a model of how plays can be written in Tłjchq Yatì.

On the grammar side of things, this chapter introduced the part of speech called **postpositions**. Postpositions name relationships between things, people, and events. Like nouns and verbs, postpositions can be prefixed and can form paradigms. Postpositions are like adverbs in how they fill in details about events and how they occurred. Some adverbs are formed by combining a descriptive prefix with a postposition.

Tłjchq Yatì has short and long vowels. With long vowels the sound is "dragged". Short vowels are spelled with one letter and long vowels with two letters. Two words will have different meanings if one has a short vowel and the other has a dragged vowel. This chapter also introduced the loner consonant **y**. Sometimes the different pronunciations of **y** come about because of dialect differences. Chapter 2 is where we talked about dialects.

Dè Gołzì Placenames



CHAPTER

8

Dè Gojzi

ʔek'atì	Lac de Gras
ʔek'atideè	Lac de Gras River
ʃhdaak'ètì	Marion Lake
Hàèlʃ	Marion Lake Village
Behsokò • Behchokò	Rae
Hozideè	Emile River
Dehk'è	Frank Channel
Bidoòmòmʃhk'è	
Gamètì	Rae Lakes
Gots'okàtì	Mesa Lake
T'èehdaà	Dettah
ʔehtl'ètì	James Lake
ʔenìʃʃ	Stagg River
Tsòtì	Lac La Martre
Tsòtideè	Lac La Martre River
Kwetʃʃàa	Ray Rock
Tʃkèedeè	Boundary Creek

Tʃchò Whaèhdòò Nàowò

Yatì K'èts'eezò

ti	ʔek'atì
dè	deh
Tsòtì	Tsòtideè
Behchokò	chʃk'èè • tsʃk'èè
wheʔ	k'eda

The placenames in the list on the previous page are some important places in the Tłıchq region. **Dè gojzi** or placenames are one of the most important parts of the culture and heritage of any people, and this is especially true for the Tłıchq people. Tłıchq people and the Tłıchq Government have done significant work on placenames and habitat, and this research provides a lot of information about traditions, legends, history, geography, people, and places.

A large number of dè gojzi/placenames are compound words, and many are very old. This chapter, therefore, relies on placenames to introduce compound words. In Tłıchq Yatı̀ compound word formation is a very ancient pattern, yet the same patterns are used creatively nowadays too to make up new words. Because new words can easily be made up, dictionary editors will always be struggling to catch up with all the new words!

Dè Gojzi/Placenames and Compound Words

Dè gojzi at the beginning of the chapter were collected for an ongoing research project on caribou and the land. A very large number of placenames were collected from elders as researchers asked questions about how the caribou live, what the land is like, how people hunt caribou, and how the people travel and live on the land. You can find reports on this project on the West Kitikmeot-Slave Study (WKSS) web site.

Some of the placenames that the elders mentioned are very ancient and difficult to understand as words. This is usually how it is with names. They don't mean anything except as the names for people or places. Other names may be just as old, but because they are **compound words**, words made up of smaller words, we can say that they have a meaning.

Most of the placenames in Tłıchq Yatı̀ are not matched with an English placename, but the Tłıchq Government has maps showing where all of the places are located. Most of the places don't have English names because people who only speak English don't know them.

What are compound words?

Compound words are words made up of two or more stems, plus the needed wekwee whelaa and yatı̀ whelaa.

The combined stems can be of any type – noun, verb, or postposition stems. Different types of stems can be combined, for example, two verbs stems, two noun stem, but it is also possible to combine a noun and a verb stem, a noun and a postposition stem, and others.

In the placenames on the first page of this chapter most of the words involve *noun* stems. But this is not always what we find. Some compound words can be very long. The patterns will be described in this chapter and the next one.

The simplest compound words involve two stems. Here are three examples from the list of dè gojzi.

ʔek'atì	fat + lake
Tsòtì	poop + lake
Hozìideè	barrenland + river

In compound words the second element will tell us what kind of object is being named. Therefore, the first two words are names for lakes, and the last word is the name of a river. We can call this defining part of a word **yatikwì**, meaning ‘head of the word’. Underline **yatikwì** in these words!

The next pair of placenames involve three stems each. The first two stems form one compound word, and the last stem, **yatikwì**, forms a new word from that.

ʔek'atìrehdaà	[fat + lake] + point
Tsòtìideè	[poop + lake] + river

The first is the name of a point and the second is the name of a river. All of the stems here are noun stems. We have shown **yatikwì** with an underline.

To see more of what is possible with compound words in Tłjchq Yatì we can look at the two placenames below. Both are names of lakes (**yatikwì** is underlined), and in both cases the first part of the compound is a complete sentence for describing the lake.

Gokwìkw'ò̀wewk'ewheʔò̀tì	[head + bone + it + on + there is] + lake
Tł'ok'edaatì	[grass + walking] + lake

The first placename can be translated as ‘Lake on Which There is a Skull’. The elders told the researchers that the lake is named after a large rock beside the lake that looks like a human skull. The phrase that describes the lake and gives it its name is a complete sentence. If it was a sentence and not part of a compound word, we would write it this way, showing its three component words, the noun **gokwikw’oq** ‘skull’, the postposition **wek’e** ‘on it’, and the verb **whe’o** ‘there is’:

Gokwikw’oq wek’e whe’o. There is a skull on it.

In the compound word related to this sentence there is a suffix on the verb that we will discuss in Chapter 14. Can you spot the suffix in the placename?

The other example is basically the same. Here is the sentence that gives the lake its name, ‘Lake of Walking Grass’:

T’o k’eda. The grass is walking.

This lake is named for how the grass there looks in the wind, so the elders said.

All of these examples show that a compound word can be as small as two simple stems combined, or as big as a stem described by a whole sentence.

These compound words are placenames. There are plenty of ordinary compound words that are not placenames, and here are a few. The patterns seen with the compounds given here are the same as the patterns we have already described. In all of these examples too the last stem is *yatikwì*. Underline it in the example words for practice. (These words are used by some people, and other people use different words for these meanings. What words do you use?)

Dò k’èè	English	Meaning Parts
<u>t’eht’oò</u>	kicker, outboard motor	gas + paddle
<u>kw’ihwò</u>	mosquito net	mosquito + skin
<u>ligawhìtoq</u>	coffee pot	coffee + container
<u>nazhaʔeh</u>	sweater	wool + clothing
<u>dechìtèwò</u>	rug	[wood + mat] + skin
<u>Edàidzèk’eè</u>	Monday	[holy + day] + after
<u>ejiet’òòt’èè</u>	butter	[cow + milk] + lard
<u>satsò behchjì kè</u>	vehicle tire	[metal + sled] + shoe

The next compound words have a whole sentence describing yatikwì. Underline yatikwì for practice!

cheko ghàehtɔɔ dɔɔ	teacher 'person who teaches children'
sɔɔmba whelaa kɔ	bank 'building where there is money'
wet'à detłaa tł'ì	starter cord 'rope with which it starts'
behchjì k'èdìi dɔɔ	driver 'person who drives vehicles'

Should compound words be spelled as one word, or should the separate stems or words be written separately? All of the examples on this page have been copied from *Tłjchɔ Yatì Enjhtł'è*, and from them we can see that there isn't one pattern that is used all the time. In the dictionary the compound words that include sentences are not usually written as one long word. But, the research group working on caribou and land decided that all placenames would be written as one word no matter how long they are.

In English spelling there is no consistent rule for compounds. Some are spelled as one word (for example, **blackbird**), some as spelled with a hyphen (for example, **sky-light**), and some are spelled as two words (for example, **living room**).

The important thing to understand about compound words is that they have the meaning of a single word even though they are made up of different parts. The meaning of the whole compound word isn't the same as the meaning of the parts. For example, the word **kw'àchè** means 'frying pan', even though the two stems mean 'dish + tail'.

Yatìɔ Wheɔɔɔ for Places: -k'è

There is a suffix in Tłjchɔ Yatì used for naming places. It is spelled **-k'è** and we can translate it into English as 'site or place for [something]'. It is used to describe a place for a specific purpose, and it is used in some placenames too, including three on the list at the beginning of this chapter.

Dɔ k'èè	English	Meaningful Parts of Words
ɔjhdak'ètì	Marion Lake	jackfish + site + lake
Bidoòmɔmìhk'è	Bidoò's Mom's Net Site	Bidoò + mother + net + site
Dehk'è	Frank Channel	river + site

Here are some ordinary words with this suffix. The suffix goes onto a noun.

Dɔ k'èè	English	Meaningful Parts of Words
jik'è	berry-picking spot	berry + site
elàk'è	dock	boat + site
tik'è	water hole	water + site
gahk'è	spot for finding rabbits	rabbit + site
sòombak'è	mine site	money/mineral + site

With the suffix, all of these words are the names for different kinds of places. Here are a couple more words that look like they have this suffix. These are the names of different types of sites, but we can't really say what the first part of the word means.

Dɔ k'èè	English
tak'è	middle of the lake
òhk'è	site for harvesting caribou

In some words, the suffix is added to more than just a noun. Here are some examples. When the word is longer, like these ones, the suffix and the individual words are usually written separately.

k'ets'edzoo k'è	arena, skating rink 'site where we skate'
tì ts'ìhtsì k'è	well for water 'site where we take water'
dedì edaa k'è	place where moose live 'site where moose live'
kw'ih xàgojhdoo k'è	mosquito bite 'site where a mosquito bit us'
elà gehłaa k'è	canoe storage site 'site where they store canoes'

In these examples the words before **-k'è** make a sentence. Here are the sentences that are part of the words that we just saw.

K'ets'edzo.	We are skating.
Tì ts'ìhtsì.	We are taking water.
Dedì eda.	The moose is living.
Kw'ih xàgojhdò.	A mosquito bit us.
Elà gehłaa.	They are keeping or storing canoes.

An arena is a place especially for skating, a well is a place especially for taking water, and the same is true with the other places. So, the suffix is useful for defining a place according to the activity that happens there. (There is another suffix added on at the end of the sentences before **-k'è**, the same as with compound words. This suffix turns a verb into a noun and we talk about it in Chapter 14.)

How many more places can you think of with **-k'è**? What are some of your favourite places?

More Consonants: Nasal Consonants and Related Sounds

The village at the end of Latham Island in Yellowknife is named **N'dilo** on English-language maps, and in Tłıchǫ Yatıı its name could be spelled **Ndılǫ**. This placename (another compound word!) begins with the consonant **nd**. In this section we introduce this consonant and other ones pronounced in similar ways.

nd	d	n
mb	b	m

The consonant **nd** and a similar one, **mb**, are used more commonly in Ndılǫ and T'èrehdaà than in Behchokǫ or the other communities. Only in those two communities are these sounds used at the beginnings of words. In the other Tłıchǫ communities these sounds are only heard inside a word. This is a dialect difference.

Nd, when it is used, combines the sound of **n** and **d**. **N** is a **nasal consonant**, which means that the sound is made when air passes through the nose while the passage through the mouth is closed off by the position of the tongue. (Compare Chapter 4 where nasal vowels are introduced.) If the nasal passage is closed off by the soft palate before the passage in the mouth is opened up, what we hear is **nd**. If the nasal passage is closed off at the same time as the passage in the mouth is opened up, what we hear is **n**. The sound **d** is what we hear when we do not have air passing through the nose.

Of course, we don't need to think about all of these things while we are pronouncing these sounds, but what is important is to know that **nd**, **n** and **d** are very closely related sounds.

Exactly the same relationships exist between **mb**, **m** and **b**, except that these sounds are pronounced by using the lips to close off the mouth.

The Tḷchḳ Yatì dialects differ from each other in how these sounds are used. Where **nd** and **mb** are used in Ndilḳ and T'è'ehdaà, **d** and **b** are more commonly used in the other communities.

Below are some words with these consonants in them. Either of the spellings can be used, depending on how the speaker or the writer pronounces these words. For dè gojzi, the name should be spelled to match the way the name is pronounced in that place.

Spelling with <i>nd</i>	Spelling with <i>d</i>	Meaning
ndi	di	island
ndi	di	he/she says
ndè	dè	land
ndègonḷht'è	dègonḷht'è	map
dendi	dedi	moose
yahtindeè	yahtideè	bishop
gondaà	godaà	our eyes
wets'àts'endi	wets'àts'edi	to help
eghàlats'eenda	eghàlats'eeda	to work
nendè	nedè	it is long
ḷendi	ḷedi	it tastes/smells like...
wexègots'endo	wexègots'edo	to tell a story to

Listening carefully to people from different communities, it is possible to hear the two ways of pronouncing these words. It is easy to ignore or miss these differences when listening casually because the difference can be subtle.

Spelling with <i>mb</i>	Spelling with <i>b</i>	Meaning
mbeh	beh	knife
mbehcho	behcho	big knife; American
mbò	bò	meat
tambàa	tabàa	shore
k'àmba	k'àba	ptarmigan
gomba	goba	our older sister
whembe	whebe	it has boiled
dehmbaa	dehbaa	it is grey
k'ets'embeh	k'ets'ebeh	to swim
ewò ts'ehmbo	ewò ts'ehbo	to stretch a hide
jìe ts'embe	jìe ts'ebe	to pick berries

One thing we can notice about all of these words is that **nd** and **mb** are not found with a nasal vowel (**ḳ ḷ ḳ**) following them.

There are a few words that are consistently spelled with **nd** and **mb**, include the following:

ᵎndààkò	Fort Resolution
ᵎndàà	far across, northward
ᵎmbè	summer
sòᵎmba	money

Contractions with Nasal Consonants

There are sometimes contractions in compound words that we only hear in compounds. **Mb** can be contracted to **b** or **m**, and the same for **nd** and **d** or **n**. This fact emphasizes the idea that the two pairs of three sounds are very close in pronunciation.

Some people avoid contractions in spelling but, just to show these spellings, the contracted pronunciations are shown in brackets beside the regular spelling.

Behchokò • Behtsokò	[Besekò] [Mesekò]
Sòᵎmbak'è	[Sòᵎmak'è]
nàᵎredìik'è	[nàᵎniik'è]

The noun stem that means 'eye', in **gondaà** or **godaà**, has a contracted pronunciation as the first part of some compound words. In this case the stem is pronounced and spelled **na**.

gonatì	tears
gonawò	eyelid
gonagoò	eyelashes
gonakòò	pupils of the eye

The word **Nòhtsᵎ** for 'God' is probably an ancient compound word from the combination **dè** + **gòhtsᵎ** 'the one who made the earth'. Here too in contraction it looks as if the **nd/d** from **ndè/dè** meaning 'land, earth' changed to **n**.

Once we understand the relationship of **nd**, **n** and **d** and **mb**, **m** and **b** these contractions are easier to understand.

Tᵎjchò Yatì Dictionaries

Discussing spelling and the understanding of words, dictionaries become important. These books are useful for many things, but their two most important uses are to give the spellings for words and to provide people interested in Tᵎjchò Yatì with information about words, their meanings, and their relationships to other words, and to Tᵎjchò culture and traditions.

There are two dictionaries currently being used in Tłıchq communities. One has been mentioned already, *Tłıchq Yatı̄ Enjhtł'è*, published by the Dogrib Divisional Board of Education in 1996. The second is a dictionary intended for children in elementary schools. It is a smaller book called *Tłıchq Yatı̄ Enjhtł'è Chekoa gha* and was published by the Board in 1995. Both of these dictionaries can be found on the Tłıchq web site, www.tlıcho.ca. Can you find them? If you have Adobe Acrobat or Adobe Reader for reading PDF files on your computer, you can read them and print them from the internet.

Both of these books contain a substantial number of words, but even the larger one, which contains roughly 5,000 to 6,000 words, is very far from a complete dictionary of Tłıchq Yatı̄. It would be easily possible to fill a dictionary several times larger, given time enough to make it.

These are bilingual dictionaries, where the definitions of words are given in Tłıchq Yatı̄ and English. They list complete words and meaningful phrases. The larger dictionary includes sentences illustrating the uses and meanings of many words, and it also includes an introduction to grammar in Tłıchq Yatı̄ and something about dialects and the history of the language.

Dictionaries are made by collecting words heard in stories, used in speeches, and known in everyday life. Dictionary researchers gather the words, check them with elders and other knowledgeable people to be sure of their pronunciation, spelling, meaning, and use, and organize them so that they can be listed in the dictionary. The dictionary is not the record of the language of one person but of the communities where people speak in Tłıchq Yatı̄. Therefore, anyone who reads the dictionary will find words that they do not know, words with different spellings or meanings than they are familiar with, and other unexpected things.

There is a project under way to create an on-line dictionary of the Tłıchq language, and you will be able to locate it through one of the resources pages on the Tłıchq web site, www.tlıcho.ca. Try it out! This dictionary is the same as other dictionaries in how it is made. It is different because you can search for words in different ways, organize the listing of words, and find some more information about parts of speech, dialect information, and information about meaning. A big difference is that people can suggest words that need to be added to the dictionary. Gradually, over time, more and more words will be added, and pictures and audio will be incorporated into the web site as well.

Any kind of dictionary organizes a large amount of information about a language. Because a language is part of a culture and part of a society of people, a dictionary gives information not only about a language but about a way of life. Each person contributes to culture through what he or she knows or does. Through using Tłjchq Yatì and being knowledgeable about it, each person contributes in a major way to maintaining and sustaining the Tłjchq way of life.

Spellings

It has been mentioned a few times in earlier chapters that there can be more than one correct spelling for words. Different choices are available depending on dialect or style of speaking. A writer can choose to spell words according to his or her own personal style, or if another person's words are being expressed, in a spelling closer to that person's style of speech.

English is often thought of as having only one correct spelling for words. This is mostly true, but there are many exceptions. First, some words are spelled differently according to dialect, even though they are pronounced the same way. **Kerb** and **curb**, and **neighbor** and **neighbour** are examples of this. Second, some words have contractions, for example **do not** and **don't**. Third, some words have "casual" spellings that are usually only used in letters, e-mail messages, and informal writing. Examples of this would be **gonna** or **wanna**. Other words have short spellings that are closer to their pronunciation than the standard spelling, like **lite** or **thru** instead of **light** or **through**.

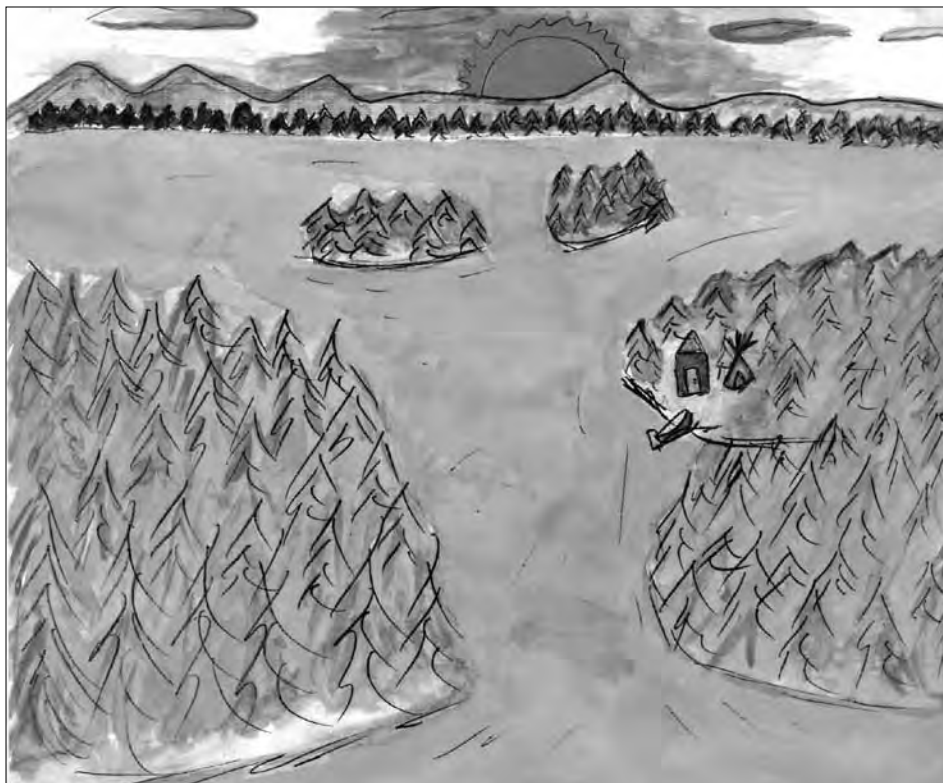
There is no reason that Tłjchq Yatì spelling has to be very rigid. The dictionary *Tłjchq Yatì Enjht'è* encourages flexibility by listing more than one spelling for many words. Just as there are reasons for English words to have more than one correct spelling, the same is true for *Tłjchq Yatì Enjht'è*, though the reasons might not be the same for the two languages.

Summary

Many dè gojzi are important landmarks for Tłjchq people. Most of the names are examples of compound words. Compound words are made up of two or more stems, including **yatikwi**, or the head word. Placenames are just some examples of the compound words found in Tłjchq Yatì. Compound words are interesting because this is an important way that new words are created. Can you think of some new words in Tłjchq Yatì that are compound words?

Some placenames are built around the suffix **-k'è**. This suffix is used in dè gojzi and in words for locations special for different activities. The word for 'store', a place for buying things, uses this suffix. Can you hear the suffix when you pronounce this word?

This chapter also highlighted the nasal consonants **mb** and **nd**. These are used more in some dialects than in others, and two spellings for possible for most words with these consonants. And, because many words can be spelled or pronounced in different ways, this chapter also offered a discussion on spelling and the role of dictionaries. The existing dictionaries of Tłjchq Yatì can be found on the internet through the web site at www.tlichoc.ca. The on-line dictionary linked from that web site is fun to search through, and anybody can suggest new words for the dictionary. What new words or placenames have **you** come across lately?



Ełexè Kìelà Ts'ehtsıı
Working Together
to Make a Birch Bark Canoe



CHAPTER

9

K'ielà Ts'ehstj

Rosa: K'akwe whaà done elà gehtsj njdè, done t̥q nàdè njdè done hazqò ełets'adi, hanì-le njdè done wòhdaa delaà eghàlageeda dàget'j jìlè?

Joe Suzie: Eyi hq̃, done t̥q nàdèe, elà t̥q hohłè ne. Hòt'a d̥q j̥tè elà ehtsj dè hòt'a yegh̃ enat'e, nàgeeli-a k'ì t'á. "Hòt'a elà k'èniihła, hòt'a elà ehdlì ha," gedi. E-e-e ts'èko nàregedlò xè hazh̃q̃ echì nigiiwa t'aa ekq̃ò t̥jm̃q̃eedè. Ts'èko amèe elà nàeli xa dii-lee s̃i hazh̃q̃ò g̃igà nigohwho. Nàke sadzeè-le-t'ii nàgeeli, "Eyi j̥t̥aet'e niagedì nq̃ò," gedi t'aa nageedè, gedià. Done gik'èezq̃ dii ne, s̃i ehts'agedì ne, k'q̃q̃nì. Donezhì s̃i ehts'agedì ne, eyit'á hq̃ s̃i nezj̃ eghàlagj̃dà t'á g̃igh̃q̃ nàtì niile.

Julie: Dèk'e ełegà geèhk'ee hanì t'aa elàechj̃ geexà ełets'agedì ne, t'as̃i k'èxa-le d̥q ts'agedì, ts'èko s̃i haget'j̃ hanì eghàlageeda. Nezj̃ aget'j̃-ā? Etegeèt'j̃ aget'j̃, ts'èko s̃i m̃ohdaa, dii lañ d̥q wezha t̥q s̃i elà ehtsj gedi ne. Ek'èd̥j̃, s̃j̃l̃à lañ ehtsj̃à. Hazh̃q̃ò ełets'agedì t'á aget'j̃, ełèàg̃j̃ g̃j̃j̃j̃ hq̃t'ii ełets'agedì. Hòt'a nagee?è ha g̃j̃wq̃ t'á j̃whā-le g̃j̃wq̃, eyits'q̃ wòhdaa g̃igha elà while dè k'ì hañ weghàhoèwoo whela dè hazq̃ò nàgehtsj̃ ełegh̃g̃ize. Niilà, amèe wegħa elà while..., nj̃ holà ni?è ha neq̃wq̃ dè negħa elà while dè ne?eh, netà, g̃izha hañ, netà axo, nj̃nde axo, negħa elà ehtsj̃à, haget'j̃ ne gedià.

*Rosa Mantla, Joe Suzi Mackenzie njj,
Julie Mackenzie njj s̃i gidàj̃di*

Yatì K'èts'eezq̃

ełets'agedì	gik'èezq̃
whela	while
egħàlageeda	egħàlagj̃dà
ne?eh	netà

The conversation between Rosa Mantla and the late Joe Suzie and Julie Mackenzie about how to build a birch bark canoe reminds us what great skills Tłjchq elders have, and how important it is to work together. At one time the knowledge and skills needed for making birch bark canoes were essential for survival. Since different people were especially skilled at doing different parts of the job it was vital for everyone to work together. And, since time for doing the work was short, it was important to coordinate efforts. Birch bark canoes are no longer used, but the values of respecting elders and developing skills, cooperation and working relationships continue as strong elements of Tłjchq culture.

Parts of a language all work together too, to produce the words we use every day. The first part of this chapter talks about how sounds group together to make syllables. This chapter also introduces a suffix that has its own hat!

Syllables in Tłjchq Yatì

There is more to know about the sounds of Tłjchq Yatì than just the consonants and vowels. In every language around the world, consonants and vowels are grouped together into larger units called **syllables**.

What is a syllable?

A **syllable** is a unit of sound in a language that is made up of a vowel and any consonants that come before or after it.

In poems and songs, the beats of the rhythm fall on syllables of the words, and in story-telling syllables can be stretched out for special effects in the story. So, syllables are important elements of language. Understanding about syllables helps our spelling.

A syllable can be a vowel alone. Besides the vowel, syllables in Tłjchq Yatì can have one consonant coming before, one consonant coming after, or both. When we look into syllables more carefully we find that there are interesting patterns between the consonants and vowels in a syllable. There are also interesting patterns about where each type of syllable can come in a word. And, in Chapter 3 it was mentioned that only the consonant **h** can appear at the end of a syllable. (In Chapter 3 the wording is slightly different, but it is the same idea.)

If we check all Dogrib syllables we find the following patterns:

- vowel
- consonant + vowel
- vowel + **h**
- consonant + vowel + **h**

The most common pattern is **consonant + vowel**. Looking at some of the sight words from the interview with the late Joe Suzie and Julie Mackenzie, we see that most syllables show this pattern.

ełets'agedi	e	łe	ts'à	ge	dı
whela	whe	la			
while	whì	le			
eghàlageeda	e	ghà	la	gee	da
eghàlagı̀dà	e	ghà	la	gı̀	dà
neʔeh	ne	ʔeh			
netà	ne	tà			

Find the syllables that don't have the most common pattern. There aren't many.

This listing shows that some syllables are built around a "dragged" vowel (written with two letters), while others are built on a regular vowel (written with one letter). They make just one syllable – in the same way a house can have one or two floors!

All of the words in the next list have one or more syllables that end with **h**. They are taken from the interview too.

gehts̚	geh	ts̚		
wòhdaa	wòh	daa		
nìgohwho	nì	goh	who	
ehst'agedi	eh	ts'à	ge	dı
nàgehts̚	nà	geh	ts̚	

The concept of a syllable relates to the building blocks of *sounds* in a language. The concepts of prefix, suffix, and stem relate to the building blocks of *meaning*. These concepts are naturally related to each other. Most often, a prefix, suffix, or stem is equal to one syllable. But some prefixes and suffixes are not as big as a syllable, and some prefixes and stems are bigger.

Later in this chapter we will meet a suffix that is smaller than a syllable. Prefixes bigger than a syllable are not so common in Dogrib, but there are some. The four prefixes shown next have two syllables each. The first one was talked about in Chapter 7, and we will talk about it again in Chapter 14.

ełe-	ełets'àgedi ełets'àts'eeʔj ełetadà ełets 'ò	the prefix means 'each other'
naxi-	naxighàgeeda naxik'èts'eezɔ naxinàowò naxilaà	the prefix means 'you people'
dikɔ-	dikɔdeèwò dikɔetɿa dikɔèhk'w'o dikɔyeèhk'a	the prefix relates to 'being lost'
hodà-	hodàet'a hodàet'ì hodàts'eeli hodàgoèʔà	the prefix means 'down a slope'

Many or most nouns are one syllable long, but there are a number of nouns bigger than one syllable, for example:

done, dɔne	person, people
łwe	fish
xoye	year
diwe, dowe	tamarack
màne	visitor, trader

With almost all of these words there is another common pronunciation where the word has only one syllable. This is a trend in Tłjchɔ Yatì. There is a trend for basic two-syllable nouns to be changed to one syllable.

dɔ	person, people
łi	fish
xoo	year
doo	tamarack
màɳ	visitor, trader

Both spellings are good.

Some longer words also show a similar pattern of shortening the number of syllables. Here are some examples of this from *Tłjchɔ Yatì Enjht'è*:

libari, libaà	barrel
limeri, limeɳ	rickrack

The pattern in these words is that a consonant between two vowels is not pronounced, and the left-over vowels end up forming one syllable. (The dropping consonants are usually **n**, **y**, **w**, **r**.) When this happens, usually a long vowel is made, with one of the vowels changing to be like the other one.

There are some other patterns in Tɿchɔ Yatì for shrinking the number of syllables in words through contractions. Some of these will be talked about in later chapters about verbs.

Yatìɔ Wheʔɔɔ on Nouns: The Possessed Noun Suffix

In quite a few chapters we have talked about the vowels **a e i o**. We talked about the plain and nasal vowels (Chapter 4), the regular and “dragged” vowels (Chapter 7), and where vowels contrast in the musical **pitch of the voice**, or **tone** (Chapter 6), spelled with **wets'aà**.

In this section we are introduced to a suffix that attaches to nouns. What we want to show in this section is that there is a pattern with this suffix for where **wets'aà** is written.

Here are two nouns with the same wekwèe wheʔɔɔ **gi-**, meaning ‘their’:

gìnàowò	their culture
gìlà	their work

Both nouns can be called **possessed nouns** because of the possessor prefix **gi-** found at the beginning of each word. We are not just talking about culture or work, but about the culture or work of particular people. To compare, here are the simple nouns without any prefix:

nàowo	culture
la	work

Comparing the words, we see that the longer words have a prefix *and* a suffix. Yatìɔ wheʔɔɔ is a copy of the last vowel of the word, with **wets'aà** to show that the pitch of the vowel is low at the end. This is a very regular pattern. Here are some more examples:

yatì	language	goyatì	our language
sòɔmba	money	nesòɔmbaà	your money
nɿhts'ì	wind, air	wenɿhts'ì	its wind, air
dechɿ	stick	wedechɿ	its stick
libà	socks	selibàà	my socks
mɿ	fishnet	gomɿ	our fishnet
dɔ	person, man	wedɔ	her husband

dze	day	nedzeè	your birthday
kwe	rock	wekweè	his, her, its rock

No matter what vowel ends a word, the possessed noun shows the same suffix: a repeated vowel with **wets'aà**. This is called the **possessed noun suffix**.

Not all nouns in Dogrib end with a vowel: some end with the consonant **h**. In these words the **h** is dropped and the last vowel is repeated with **wets'aà**. It is basically the same pattern.

ʔeh	jacket	neʔeè	your jacket
beh	knife	sebeè	my knife
dzèh	gum	wedzeè	its gum
tʔeh	grease, oil	wetʔeè	its grease, oil
t'ih	rope	git'iè	their rope

Another variation on the same pattern is found with a few nouns.

ke	shoe	seke	my shoe, my foot
kwigha	hair	wekwighà	his or her hair
dè	land	gone	our land

With these nouns there is no lengthening of the last vowel, just the low tone, shown by **wets'aà**. With 'land' something else is changed: the first consonant of the noun stem. This is an unpredictable exception to the usual rule (but it shows the close relationship between **d** and **n** that was mentioned in Chapter 8!).

Bound or “Linked” Stems and the Possessed Noun Suffix

What we have seen so far is the pattern for the usual nouns that can stand alone as words. Funnily enough, with nouns stems that *must* be possessed, often the possessed noun suffix is not used. Noun stems that must be possessed are called **bound stems** or **linked stems** because they have to be bound or linked to other prefixes or stems. (The opposite of bound stem is **free stem**.) The bound stems in the words below do not end with a low tone, so the possessed noun suffix is not present.

neghoh	your thigh
sedzah	my esophagus
gojnu	waist
ek'a	fat
neʔeh	your uncle
semòò	my aunt
eʔòò	hole for animals, den
welò	its tip

With the next set of words, the noun stem always ends in a lowered tone, no matter how the stem is used in a word. These words have bound stems.

echè	tail
wet'`à	its rump, bottom
newà	your mouth
sedè	my younger sister
gotà	our father

The next words shows a lengthened final vowel with a lowered tone, so with them it is possible that the possessed noun suffix is present. (These are nouns that are always possessed, so they have bound stems too.)

godaà	eye
gogòò	arm
ekèè	animal's lodge
wet'`ì	bark (of a tree)

With these special nouns that are always possessed, it seems we can't predict when the suffix will be used. We just know the word's patterning as part of knowing the language.

Compound Words and the Possessed Noun Suffix

In Chapter 8 we talked about *dè gojzì* and their importance for knowing about the land. We also saw that many placenames are compound words made from two or more words joined together. Below are four placenames and the English name of the place, if there is one. We also see the meanings of the words in the placename. In each placename **yatikwì** is underlined.

ʔek'adiì		[fat + island]
Hozìideè	Emile River	[barrenlands + river]
T'èehdaà	Dettah	[charcoal + point]
Gots'òkàtì	Mesa Lake	[cloudberry + lake]

All of these placenames are compound words formed from two nouns combined. When we compare these compound words with the words for 'island', 'river', and 'lake' said alone, there is no doubt that **yatikwì** in the compound words has the possessed noun suffix. All of them show the sign of this suffix in the vowel with **wets'`à**.

ʔek'adiì	di	island
Hozideè	deh	river
Gots'okàtì	tì	lake

What we are seeing here is an important pattern in compound words generally. We can see the pattern in many of the compound words in Chapter 8 and in the words below when we compare yatikwì with the noun said alone. Yatikwì is underlined.

Word Alone	Compound Word	Compound Word Meaning
tɔ	tɪtɔ̀	water bucket
kò	eezhikò̀	lightning
sò̀mba	chekoa sò̀mbaà	family allowance
ʔeh	chòhʔeè	raincoat
k'oh	njhts'ik'oò	wind clouds

In the underlined parts of these words we can see that all of them have a spelling that includes the possessed noun suffix with the extra vowel + wets'aà.

There are one or two different patterns for compound nouns. The compound words in the next set follow a different pattern because in them the possessed noun suffix is not used. Here again yatikwì is underlined.

Word Alone	Compound Word	Compound Word Meaning
tɔ	dechɪtɔ	wooden trunk
ke	satsòke	skates
ts'ah	nazha ts'ah	toque, wool hat
libò	ejalibò	drinking glass
ʔeh	libalàʔeh	parka

There is no suffix on yatikwì in these words. Compare the meanings making up the two words below. Can you see a difference in how the meanings are put together to give the meanings of the compound words?

ʔeh	chòhʔeè	raincoat	[rain + coat + suffix]
ʔeh	libalàʔeh	parka	[canvas + coat]

Once we understand the patterns in how words are put together from their different parts, the spelling gets easier!

Summary

This chapter began with a conversation about an important tradition of the Tłıchǫ people: making birch bark canoes. Have you seen a birch bark canoe being made or have you seen the video about it? Have you seen a birch bark canoe in the museum or at the schools in our region? It is amazing how people worked together using their different skills and talents to build a light and strong boat made entirely out of materials from the natural world. It is wonderful too how people today are able to do the same work.

The word for a birch bark canoe is a compound word, **k'ielà**. In this chapter we expanded the discussion of **compound words** from Chapter 8 so that the role of the **possessed noun suffix** can be clear. This suffix is found in nouns where the noun is described by saying who owns it, or in one pattern of compound words. Because the suffix involves a low tone and often a long or “dragged” vowel, this chapter also reviewed the concept of tone and the written symbol called **wets'aà**.

Tone and long vowels are easier to understand if we understand the concept of a **syllable**. This chapter is important for giving an introduction to syllables in Tłıchǫ Yatì.

Birch bark canoes are patched and stitched together, gummed and tested. There are some similarities between building a canoe and building words – there are patterns in how things fit together. By helping each other with word-building we can develop our skills in reading and writing in Tłıchǫ Yatì.



Ehtsı Gḣonèhṫ

Lessons from My Grandmother



CHAPTER

10

Ehtsɿ Wexɛ Chekoa Gɪgɔhɿɿ

Dakwe whaà Ehtsɿ Tɿɿchɔ nè gogha cheko witɿ'aà gɪgɔhɿɿ ɿlè. Ts'èko ɿɔ ts'àɿdì hɔt'e, gibebia gɔhɿɿ ha nɪdè gots'àtɿa. ɿhk'è gɔwàa nàgedè kò gɪxàgeehɿà. ɿhk'è k'omoòdɔ et'ìi gɪxàehɿà hani-le dè to whaà gɪxàehɿà.

Nɿhbàa goyaetɿa ts'ɔet'ìi ts'èko k'aèhta. Ts'èko ɿɔ goyìèhkw'e, ts'èko eyaelɿɿ gha yagehti eyits'ɔ webebìa ɿɿaà wegɔhɿɿ-lee sɿ gha yagehti. Ehtsɿ hagòhdi, "Nòhtsɿ ts'ɔ segha yaahti, wet'à sinì nàtso ha eyits'ɔ sedzèè sɿ nàtso ha," goèhdi tɿ'axɔ bebìa gɔhɿɿ gha sinɿda.

ɿhk'è ts'èko ɿɔ gibebìa gɔhɿɿ ha gɪxè hoila agot'ɿ. ɿhk'è chekoa nàwo nɪdè gɪkè dakwetɔɔ t'à gɪgɔhɿɿ. Hani nɪdè Ehtsɿ edilà k'e tɿeh yehchi, hani t'a edilà t'à ts'èko wechɔ yìi k'eedi, bebìa wegɔhɿɿ ha bebìa ts'àdi.

Ekiyèè k'e nàèdik'èezhɔ while ɿlè. Ts'èko sɿi bebìa k'è eyaelɿ nɪdè wegħa dechɿ nàɿɿaa gehtsɿ, ts'èko yek'e ɿdoo nàdɿtò t'à hani webebìa gòhè. Bebìa gɔhɿɿ tɿ'axɔ Ehtsɿ ɿɿè dzɛahtaa ts'ɔ ts'èko gà wheda, bebìa k'ègedì għa gots'àdi. Ehtsɿ ts'èko nàtso hɔt'e ɿlè. Wetsàa aht'e t'à mahsì wèehwhɔ.

Therese Chinkon wegodi, nɿhtɿ'è Rosa Hogħaseèhtɔ Eyits'ɔ Behchokò-Edzò Gots'ɔ Godɿ gots'ɔ hɔt'e.

Yatɿ K'èts'eezɔɔ

gɪgɔhɿɿ	wetsàa
gots'àɿdì	gots'àdi
yaahti	yagehti
hagòhdi	goèhdi

The verb stem here, yatikwì, is **li**, meaning ‘sew’. When there is an **h** before the stem in the words meaning ‘I am sewing’ and ‘you people are sewing’, the stem changes to **hi**. The sound of the **h** affects the sound of the consonant in the stem. Looking at the prefixes, **nà-** doesn’t change at all, but the other prefixes do, and they also show influences on one another in their pronunciation. (We will often spell wekwee wheʔɔɔ with a hyphen after it to show it has to join with a stem that comes after it.)

Nà- belongs to one set of prefixes, called **adverbial prefixes**, and the others belong to the second set, called **inflection prefixes**.

Adverbial prefixes add to the meaning of the stem and give the meaning more details.

Inflection prefixes tell who did what and when in an event.

The **subject prefix** is one type of inflection prefix. Inflection prefixes often combine with each other, while adverbial prefixes usually stay separate. Inside verb words, the adverbial prefixes are further away from the verb stem than the inflection prefixes are. We can see that this is true in the word **nàrets’eeli** meaning ‘we are sewing’.

nà-	ʔets’ee-	li
adverbial prefix	inflection prefixes	yatikwì/stem

In the verbs from Therese’s story with the meaning ‘pray’, the adverbial prefixes are in bold type, the verb stem **hti** is underlined, and the inflection prefixes are left plain.

yagehtti they are praying

yaahti you people are praying

Here are two more verbs from Therese’s story with adverbial and inflection prefixes. Yatikwì in each one is the last syllable of the word.

nàgede they live

hagòhdi she tells them this

A verb stem isn’t used by itself but always carries at least one prefix. Wekwee wheʔɔɔ can be either an adverbial prefix or an inflection prefix. The next verbs have one prefix and it is an **adverbial** prefix.

nàtsoo she is strong

sinìda she got ready

The next verbs (find them in Therese's story!) have just one **inflection** prefix with the stem.

yeh <u>ch</u> i	she puts it on
wheda <u>a</u>	she is there

On the next pages you will find more information about these two types of prefixes.

Some Adverbial Prefixes

In the list below are some common **adverbial prefixes** found in verbs. This is just a small sample of the adverbial prefixes used in Tɿchɔ Yatì. For most wekwee whelaa, it is strange to see them listed without being part of a larger word, because they are always found as parts of verbs. A lot of the prefixes are found in words in different stories in this book. How many can you find?

Adverbial Prefix	Prefix Meaning Combines with Verb Stem
da-, dah-	up or in a raised position
dà-	how or in what way? (asking a question)
eta-	going home
ets'a-	in a circle
ghà-	giving
ha-, ekàa-	in that way
hà-, xà-, kà-	out
hodà-	moving down
k'e-	moving around or carrying around
la-, làa-	in a similar way
na-	again or going back
ni-, ne-	getting up, or picking up
nì-, nè-	to the ground, arrival, or placing
tà-	into pieces
te-	in water
tehà-, texà-, tekà-	out of water
tèe-	underwater
ts'à-	visiting or helping
xɔnì-, xɔnè-	marriage

One way to explore the dictionary, and verbs especially, is by searching for words beginning with these prefixes. Some of them, like **ghà-** and **ts'à-**, are like postpositions because they always have a noun or pronoun prefix coming before them. These are found in the dictionary with the pronoun prefix **ye-** or **we-** in front of them.

Some Inflection Prefixes and Combinations

The **inflection prefixes** do not have the same kinds of meanings that the adverbial prefixes have. They are very important because they express who did what and when. These prefixes can be divided into subgroups, for example, the subject prefixes from Chapter 5.

Subject Prefixes

h-	I
dii- wi-	we (two people)
ts'e-	we (more than two people) someone or some people
ne-	you (one person)
ah-	you (more than one person)
ge-	they (as a group of people)
---	he, she, it, they

The different verbs in a paradigm are the same except for the subject prefixes. Look at the paradigm for the verb 'to sew' at the beginning of this chapter and see if it is true. We know who is doing the action from the subject prefix.

There is usually no subject prefix used when the subject of the sentence is 'he, she, or it'. Here are some examples from Therese's story.

nàtso	it, he, or she is strong
nàwo	she or he is standing

We know who is being talked about because there is no other subject prefix in the verb.

If the subject of a sentence is a group of people translated as 'they' in English, the subject prefix **ge-** can be used, but it doesn't have to be. (This prefix is only used for talking about people or creatures that are thought of as having human qualities.) To see this we can look at sentences from Therese's story at the beginning of this chapter, and Rosa's interview with the late Joe Suzi and Julia Mackenzie.

Ts'èko t̥q goyiehkwe.	Lots of woman are sitting inside.
Ts'èko eyael̥l̥l̥ gha yagehti.	They pray for the woman who is ill.
Done hazo̥ e̥fets'adi.	The people all help one another.
Ts'èko nàregedlò.	The women laugh.

The prefix sometimes implies that the people did the action as a group, but we don't always find this implication.

There are two subject prefixes that means 'two of us, we (two people)'. The sentences **sèdiitɿ** or **sèwìtɿ** both mean 'the two of us are eating'. It's the same with any verb we can think of. People can choose to use one prefix (**diì-**) or the other one (**wì-**).

The prefix **ts'e-** has two meanings. For example, the verb **yats'eh̄tɿ** (the subject prefix is underlined) can mean either 'we are praying' or 'someone is praying'. The sentence **lidi weghàts'j̄j̄di** can mean either 'we gave her tea' or 'someone gave her tea'. This sentence also shows how **ts'e-** is pronounced as **ts'j̄j̄-** when it is combined with an inflection prefix in some verbs showing that the action has been done.

Let's look at a couple of paradigms for the verb **k'edzoh** 'skate' on this page and the next one.

The first paradigm is used when the skating is going on. We are going to use the terms 'present tense' or 'imperfective' for this paradigm. (**Present tense** means that the action is going on now. The word **imperfective** means that an action is not completed.)

Present Tense or Imperfective Paradigm

k'eh̄dzoh I am skating	k'ed̄īdzoh we two are skating k'ew̄īdzoh	k'ets'edzoh we/someone is skating
k'enedzoh you are skating k'ēdzoh		k'eahdzoh you people are skating
k'edzoh he, she, they are skating		k'egedzoh they are skating

The subject prefix is underlined in each verb. This is the only prefix found in the verbs besides the adverbial prefix **k'e-** meaning 'moving around'.

The verb meaning 'you are skating' is shown with two spellings, **k'enedzoh** and **k'ēdzoh**. The subject prefix **ne-** can be shortened in some words (see Chapter 11 for more details) and, if we like, we can use different spellings to show the two different ways to pronounce the word. The verbs **k'edīdzoh** and **k'ew̄īdzoh** both mean 'we two are skating'. Both spellings are good.

The verbs in the next paradigm are used when the skating has been done already. The prefix **e-** or **a-** is what tells us that the action is done and it is sometimes called a 'past tense' or 'perfective' prefix. **Past tense** describes an action that happened before now, and **perfective** means that an action is complete.

Look in Chapter 13 for more on these prefixes. In the paradigm the **subject prefix + perfective prefix** combination is underlined.

Past Tense or Perfective Paradigm

k'eehdzoh I skated	k'edi <u>dzoh</u> k'eìdzoh we two skated	k'ets'adzoh we/someone skated
k'eneedzoh you skated		k'eaahdzoh you people skated
k'eedzoh he, she, they skated		k'egeadzoh they skated

Compare the two paradigms, say them, and read them. You will notice that they are really close in sound and spelling. In all of the verbs in these two paradigms the adverbial prefix **k'e-** stays the same but the inflection prefixes change. The small differences make a difference in meaning. It's pretty amazing!

There are many verbs that show exactly the same patterning in their present/imperfective and past/perfective paradigms. Chapters 11, 12, and 13 give more information on verbs and paradigms.

Wekwee Whelaa and Yatikwi/Stem Combinations

Compare the following sentences from Therese's story:

Bebia ts'àdi.	She helps the baby.
Ts'èko łq ts'àdì.	She helped lots of women.

The first sentence is imperfective, the second is perfective. If we break these sentences and verbs into their parts we find that the adverbial prefixes are the same, but the inflection prefixes are not, and neither are the stems/yatikwi.

Noun Phrase Object		Adverbial Prefixes	Inflection Prefixes	Verb Stem
Bebia	imperfective	ts'à		di
Ts'èko łq	perfective	ts'à	ł	dì

The verb stem changes. This is because the stem **di** is used for imperfective verbs and **dì** is used for perfective verbs. We choose one or the other depending on the timing of the action. This kind of pattern is quite common, though there are also many verbs like **k'edzoh** where the stem does not change. Here are more verbs where the verb stem changes depending on the timing. The verb stem/yatikwi is underlined in all of these verbs.

imperfective	gɪts'ədɪ-le	they are not helping her
perfective	gɪts'ə̀dɪ-le	they didn't help her
imperfective	edeghàlaeda	they are working for themselves
perfective	edeghàlaɪdà	they worked for themselves
imperfective	wek'ena <u>ehtse</u>	I am washing it
perfective	wek'ena <u>htso</u>	I washed it
imperfective	nezɹ̀j ane <u>le</u>	(you) do it well
perfective	nezɹ̀j ane <u>là</u>	you did it well

In these verb pairs the first verb is imperfective and the second is perfective. The verb stem tone or vowel can change, or both. Or, like the pattern with **k'ets'edzoh**, there might not be a change in the stems. There are patterns that we can learn, but often the change in *yatikwì*/verb stem has to be remembered for that particular verb.

The changes in the verbs that we just looked at are linked to changes in the inflection prefixes, relating to the timing of the event being described.

We also see changes in *yatikwì* related to the type of action involved, linked to adverbial prefixes. A good example is the verb stem **tɬa**, meaning one or two people travel. In the first word below, the verb stem is **tɬa**, and in the second word, which is related, the verb stem is **tɬo**. These verb stems are underlined.

goyiettɬa ha he or she is going to go inside
k'ettɬo he or she is walking around

The action of going inside has the goal of *being inside*. It is a different kind of action from walking around, where we have no particular goal and the action involves repetition. In many verbs in Tɬɨchɔ Yatì this kind of difference makes a difference to the verb stem (choose **tɬa** or **tɬo**), as well as the choice of adverbial prefixes. Here is another pair of verbs with the same contrasting verb stems:

daittɬa he or she joined in the dance
dattɬo he or she is dancing

More examples are given below. In each pair related verb stems are used. The verb stems are different because of the different types of actions involved.

gode he or she is talking
goxègodo he or she is telling stories

bus naekè ha the bus is going to head back
bus k'ekò the bus is driving around

The pair below shows that there can be a change in the first consonant of the verb stem in this type of case.

hodàèzoh he or she slid down
k'eedzoh he or she slid or skated around

The next pair of words are verbs that describe situations: no action is involved. But the situations are quite different. With the first verb we are saying that something is big, but with the second we are comparing the size of one thing to another.

nechà it is big
hanìjhcho it is that big

The important point with these examples is that the meaning of a verb stem has to go with the meanings of the adverbial and inflection prefixes in the same verb word. If the meanings don't match, the word will sound wrong and people will have a hard time understanding the word. Later in the book, Chapters 11, 12, and 13 will discuss some of the changes in yatikwì and prefix connections that have just been touched on in this chapter.

Summary

Therese Chinkon's story is rich in language and in life lessons. It teaches about the importance of prayer and serving and helping one another. It teaches how skillfully midwives worked for the people in the time before children were born in hospitals.

By looking at wet'à dàgot'ɿɿ yatì/verbs in the story, this chapter introduced two sets of wekwee whelaa, **adverbial prefixes** and **inflection prefixes**. The two types of prefixes add different kinds of meanings to verbs and relate to each other in different ways. Inflection prefixes often combine with each other in sound, but adverbial prefixes usually do not.

Both types of prefixes relate to differences in **verb stems/yatikwì**. Verbs with similar meanings can have slightly different stems. When this happens, the differences between stems are usually related to the meanings of adverbial and inflection prefixes. Understanding the relationships between the meaningful parts of verbs is a great help in understanding the rules behind spelling.

Satsòòk'òò Hòèlù

New Technology



CHAPTER

11

Satsòòk'òò Hòèlɿ

ɿnòò dɿ k'e, Bay Island ts'edɿ dɿ, eyɿ dɿ k'e nàts'edè, kò goch'ia gots'èhʔòò goyɿ nàts'edè. ɿlà, ɿnòò yeè gots'ò t'asɿ xèekw'òò hɔt'e. Done ehɿ gots'ò hanɿ dèhkw'ò gòhɿ-le. "Baɿ, baɿ, baɿ," godɿ. Ayɿ adɿ nehwhò. Sekò goyatɿmòehzhah t'aa semò wets'ò kàehsɿ, "Ayɿ adɿ, 'baɿ, baɿ, baɿ,' godɿ, ayɿ adɿ?" dehsɿ. "Daawɿ gɿhɿdɿ, satsòòk'òò ehtsɿ adɿ," dɿ. "Ayɿ awɿɿdɿ satsòòk'òò?" dehsɿ. Dò ehɿ ts'ò satsòòk'òò ehɿɿ while. "Wek'arɿta, ekòò nàfèwɿtɿa," dehsɿ. "Sachò Edàidzèè ɿt'e, ɿnòò yawɿtɿ nɿdè ekòò nàwɿt'à nòò," sèhdɿ. T'à-ɿ sachò Edàidzèè k'e eèhtso t'à hazhòò dò yahtikò ts'ò ts'eède. Dɿ yahtikò gòʔòò eyɿ wekwee yahtikò goɿchà-lea, done ɿò dɿ t'à done hazhòò mòht'a kò gomòò geèhkw'e, hanɿ yahtɿ lamè ehtsɿ. Yatɿ enaòt'e t'aa semò selà daachɿ, t'a-ɿ ɿnòò naseèhdɿ k'achɿ. "ɿlee," dehsɿ dèehch'ɿ, "Yeè satsòòk'òò k'arɿta," dehsɿ. "Hèʔè," sèhdɿ, seamɿ ekòò nàhtɿa. T'à Jim Darwin satsò wehtsɿɿ sɿ, kò sɿ gòhtsɿɿ, satsòòk'òò gozhɿ wheʔò-à. Goyaehtɿa satsòòk'òò libarɿcho t'à wezhɿ kò dèk'ò, satsòk'òweè kàɿʔa, ɿdoe. Mòht'a kòòtòmòehja t'aa ɿdoe k'èeht'ɿ satsòk'òweè ɿò kàdeekw'e, kachɿ goyaehtɿa satsò ghàehda, wezhɿ kò dèk'ò, e-e-e gozhɿ gòkò hoɿzɿ. K'òòt'a dò ehɿ satsòòk'òò ts'edɿ eehɿ. Eyɿ wekwee sɿ kò nɿdè eht'è weyiek'ò hanɿ zò, eht'è weyiek'ò gedɿ hanɿ, hanɿ t'aa yɿ kò dèk'ò, wet'à gozhɿ gòkò.

Alphonse Eronchɿ wegodɿ

Yatɿ K'èts'eezòò

ɿnòò	yeè
kò goch'ia	goɿchà-lea
satsòòk'òò	satsòk'òweè
goyatɿmòehzhah	dehsɿ
libarɿ	eht'è

The story for this chapter tells of a time in the history of Behchokò when Alphonse Eronchi first sees what a stove looks like. His story is enlivened by the sounds he includes in it, and the wonderment he describes as he runs in and out of the house where the new stove was being built. Technology changes over time, but technology is not the only thing that changes: so does language! Certain words Alphonse uses in the story have an **r** in them, like **wek'arìta**. Such words are not as common in today's speech. When people are telling stories we sometimes hear unusual pronunciations and unusual words! This chapter talks about the consonant **r**. It also continues discussion from the last chapter on how the timing of actions is expressed in Tłjchq Yatì.

The Consonant r

The consonant **r** is unusual in Tłjchq Yatì for a few reasons. First, it is a consonant that some people never use, or use only in a handful of words, like **ʔori**. Other people use it regularly, but also have the option of leaving it out. The other thing that is unusual about **r** is that it is never found at the beginnings of words. It is the only consonant that follows this pattern.

Actually, **r** is an unusual consonant in many languages of the world. South Slavey and Dene Sųłné are like Tłjchq Yatì because they don't have words starting with **r** either. In English, several dialects leave **r** out at the ends of syllables, but put it in between words, as in **The pizza - r - is delicious**.

This section will show some patterns in how **r** is used in Tłjchq Yatì. First we show some nouns, postpositions, and adverbs that some people pronounce with this consonant. In the first column we see the spelling without **r**, followed by the spelling with **r** in the second column.

r wedę	r wexè	English
ʔoo	ʔori	spruce boughs
lìbaà	lìbarì	barrel
k'ìlaa	k'ìlare	birch bud
dehdoo	dehdori	sucker (fish)
lìmęę	lìmerì	old-fashioned rickrack
Aà	Arì	Harry
Degaimaà	Degaimarì	Holy Mary
dee	dere	crane
ejii	ejire	cow, ox
dọxaa	dọxare	nun, nurse
eezhii	erezhii	thunder
shii	shire	top powder snow

wek'eè	wek'erè	after it
weghàà	weghàrè	according to it
sii	sirè	very
xàà	xàrè	by oneself

Both spellings are good. Almost always the spelling without **r** has a lengthened vowel. In the spelling with **r** there are often two different vowels. This pattern is part of a common pattern in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì where pronunciations with two different vowels next to each other are unusual in ordinary talk and conversation. See Chapter 9 for a discussion of syllables like these.

A Relationship between **d** and **r** and Long Vowels

With verbs in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì, we find that **d** and **r** are in an interesting relationship. Compare the two verbs below:

dekoh	he or she is coughing
geekoh	they are coughing
gerekoh	

There is an inflection prefix **de-** that is very common in verbs in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì. When another prefix comes before this one, the prefix takes the shape **e-** (or **re-**) instead. The **d** can be dropped out completely. This pattern is very common. What we saw with nouns like **ɔ̀ori** is true with verbs too: the spelling without **r** has a doubled vowel. The pronunciation with **r** is less common.

In the lists below we see a number of words with the **de-** inflection prefix. Below each one is a related word with an extra prefix at the beginning of the word. There is more than one spelling for all of these words. Have you heard other ways of saying these words?

dezo	he or she is black
geezo	they are black
gerezo	
dère	he or she left (by paddling)
geère	they left (by paddling)
gerère	
deji	he or she is afraid
ts'eeji	we are afraid
ts'ereji	

dèhyeh	he or she is in panic, terrified
ts'èèhyeh	we are in panic, terrified
ts'erèhyeh	
dèk'ò	it is burning
goèk'ò	an area is burning
gorèk'ò	
goòk'ò	
degoo	it is white, clean
goegoo	an area is white, clean
goregoo	
googoo	

The pronunciation without **r** is more common. Lots of people never use the **r** when speaking in Tḷchọ Yatì. Some more examples are shown below:

r wedẹ	r wexè	English
geèhkw'e	gerèhkw'e	they are sitting down
wek'èts'eèzhọ	wek'èts'erèzhọ	we know it
tso tàgeet'à	tso tàgeret'à	they are cutting firewood
yeèhshọ	yerèhshọ	he or she raised him or her

In listening to other people talking, it is very easy to miss words pronounced with **r**, because using **r** does not change the meaning of what is being said.

The spelling rule is that **r** can be used, or not, depending on the choices of the speaker or the writer. When the goal is to write down exactly what someone has said, it is necessary to listen carefully to catch the consonant **r**.

A Related Pattern in Compound Nouns

In compound nouns we find a pattern where **d** is dropped, reminding us of the pattern with verbs. In the compound words **d** is between vowels too. Here are some examples. (The underlined part of each compound word ends with a suffix: that is why there is an extra vowel at the end.)

dekwo	it is yellow	tḷeekwo	butter
		satsòekwoa	penny
dezọ	it is black	mòlaezọ	Black person
		kòezọ kò	jail
dechj	wood, stick	jchjechj	rose bush
		eyeechj	drum frame

The **d** in the middle of a compound word can be dropped. This helps to melt the components of the compound together to show that it is just one single word. It is possible that the word for 'stove' that Alphonse uses in his story is a compound word with this pattern. It is possible that **satsòk'òò** is a short way of saying **satsò dèk'òò**. If this is true, then the **d** has dropped out of the middle of this compound word too!

Imperfective Paradigms for Wet'a Dagot'jì Yatì

One thing that can make spelling in Tìchò Yatì challenging is that the verbs change depending on the timing and doers of the action. This is the role of the inflection prefixes in paradigms. Luckily there are patterns to the paradigms, and there are very few irregular verbs in Tìchò Yatì.

Look back at Alphonse's story at the beginning of the chapter. Can you find some verbs that change depending on who is doing the action and when it is being done?

Imperfective Paradigms with only Subject Prefixes

Below are some examples that show patterns in imperfective paradigms. The first pattern comes up in verbs with no prefixes before the subject prefix.

(To save space in the charts below the subject and the verb meanings are just given once.)

Imperfective Paradigms with only Subject Prefixes

Subject	<i>cry</i>	<i>make tea</i>	<i>scream, shout</i>	<i>scrape hide</i>
I	ehtse	lìdì ehtsɿ	ehseh	ewò ehxo
we two	dìitse wìtse	lìdì dìihtsɿ lìdì wìtsɿ	dìizeh wìdzeh wìzeh	ewò dìgho ewò wìgo
we or someone	ts'etse	lìdì ts'ehtsɿ	ts'ezeh	ewò ts'egho
you	netse	lìdì nehtsɿ	nezeh	ewò negho
you people	ahtse	lìdì ahtsɿ	ahseh	ewò ahxo
they (people)	getse	lìdì gehtsɿ	gezeh	ewò gegho
he, she, it, they	etse	lìdì ehtsɿ	ezeh	ewò egho
Yatikwì	tse	htsɿ	zeh	gho

We saw paradigms like these in talking about *wet'à dàgot'jì yatì* in Chapters 5 and 10. The verbs for 'we two' have extra spellings because there are two different subject prefixes with the same meaning.

Other than that, the main thing to notice is this: if **h** comes before the consonant **z**, **gh**, **l**, **zh**, or **w** in *yatikwì*/the verb stem, the pronunciation of the consonant is usually affected by the **h** and we hear a different consonant from the same family: **s**, **x**, **ʃ**, **sh**, or **wh**, without vocal cords vibrating. If we look at the paradigm for 'scream or shout', *yatikwì* is **seh** or **zeh**: **seh** is used in **ehseh** 'I scream' and **ahseh** 'you people scream', and **zeh** is used for the rest of the paradigm. Look at the verb beside it 'to scrape hides', and notice the same kind of pattern with *yatikwì xo* or **gho**.

Imperfective Paradigms with Adverbial and Subject Prefixes

The imperfective paradigms for verbs with only adverbial prefixes before the subject prefix are very similar to the pattern shown in the last section. The main difference is that the verbs with the subject 'you (one person)' have two spellings.

Imperfective Paradigms with Adverbial and Subject Prefixes

Subject	<i>pray, preach</i>	<i>take out teeth</i>	<i>wear out shoes</i>	<i>ruin the hide</i>
I	yahtì	goghòò kàhʔe	ke nàhsà	ewò tsj̄hwhì
we two	yadiihtì yawìtì	goghòò kàdiile goghòò kàwizhe	ke nàdiìhsà ke nàwizà	ewò tsj̄diìhwhì ewò tsj̄wìwì
we or someone	yats'ehtì	goghòò kàts'ele	ke nàts'ehsà	ewò tsj̄ts'ehwhì
you	yanehtì yaḡhtì	goghòò kànele goghòò kàḡle	ke nànehsà ke nàḡhsà	ewò tsj̄nehwhì ewò tsj̄hwhì
you people	yaahhtì	goghòò kàahʔe	ke nàahsà	ewò tsj̄ahwhì
they (people)	yagehtì	goghòò kàgele	ke nàgehsà	ewò tsj̄gehwhì
he, she, it, they	yahtì	goghòò kàle	ke nàhsà	ewò tsj̄hwhì
Adverbial Prefix	ya-	kà-	nà-	tsj̄-
Yatikwì	htì	le	hsà	hwhì

In the 'you' verbs, the subject prefix is either **ne-** or else a copy of the vowel from the adverbial prefix nasalized (with *wjghòà*). There are always these two ways of pronouncing these verbs. The second pattern shows a type of **contraction**. Instead of a syllable with a nasal consonant + a vowel, in the contracted pattern the syllable has just a nasal vowel instead.

Here are some more examples. We could think of all of these sentences as commands to another person.

ne-	contraction	English
danet'ò	daàt'ò	you dance
sènetj	sèëtj	you eat
wek'ènedì	wek'èëdì	you look after him or her
mj danet'j	mj daàt'j	you set the net
kànehdlà	kààhdlà	you pull it out
gots'ànet'fa	gots'ààt'fa	you visit us

The choice between these spellings is up to the person writing. The difference between the two is easy to miss when listening to someone else, because the contrast doesn't matter for the basic meaning. But there can be a social meaning that is expressed by choosing one or the other way of saying the word.

Imperfective Paradigms with Inflection and Subject Prefixes

The third type of imperfective paradigms is for verbs with an inflection prefix. This type of paradigm is not so different from the patterns we just looked at. We see one difference in the verbs meaning 'you (one person) do it': in this pattern the prefix for 'you' is usually **j-** or **nj-**.

Imperfective Paradigms with Inflection and Subject Prefixes

Subject	<i>spit</i>	<i>go to sleep</i>	<i>live</i>	<i>move</i>	<i>teach children</i>
I	dehsè	dehtè	ehda	nàehdah	chekaa hoghàehtò
we two	dìzè dewizè	diitè dewitè	ediida ida	nàediidah nàwidah	chekaa hoghadiihtò chekaa hoghàitò
we or someone	ts'eezè	ts'eetè	ts'eeda	nàts'eedah	chekaa hoghàts'eehtò
you	n̩zè	n̩tè	ɟda	naɟdah	chekaa hoghàɟhtò
you people	dahsè	dahtè	aahda	nàahdah	chekaa hoghàahtò
they (people)	geezè	geetè	geeda	nàgeedah	chekaa hoghàgeehtò
he, she, it, they	dezè	detè	eda	nàedah	chekaa hoghàehtò
Adverbial Prefix				nà-	hoghà-
Inflection Prefix	de-	de-	e-	e-	e-
Yatikwì	zè	tè	da	dah	htò

In the examples in the chart the inflection prefix is **de-** or **e-**. With these prefixes we find long vowels in the prefixes meaning 'we or someone' and 'they'. We saw vowel lengthening examples earlier in this chapter too, examples like **dezò** 'it is black' and **ts'eezò** 'we are black'.

The prefix **de-** gives us something more to notice with the 'you' verbs. Influenced by the subject prefix for 'you', which always has a nasal consonant or vowel in it, the consonant of the inflection prefix becomes **n**. This is the usual pattern in some people's speech, though not everyone. Below we see more examples:

n̩ɟɟ, d̩ɟɟ	you are afraid
n̩ze	you are growing up
n̩koh	you are coughing
n̩hnè ha	you are going to win

When there is another prefix before the **de-** or **e-** prefix, often there is the option of pronouncing an **n** or not in the 'you' verbs. Here are some examples showing the options in this case. Both spellings are good. Again, we can think of these sentences as commands to another person.

<i>n wede</i>	<i>n wexe</i>	<i>English</i>
najtè	nanjtè	you go back to sleep
nàjht'í-le	nànjht'í-le	don't you punch it
tso tàjkwì	tso tànjkwì	you chop firewood
wek'ajta	wek'anjta	you check it

This pattern reminds us of how some people say **ts'enjwò** when they are saying 'we think or we want'. A lot of people say **ts'ujwò**. These patterns emphasize the relatedness between **d** and **n** and between nasal vowels and nasal consonants.

A Recap for Comparison

The chart below compares the three main patterns for imperfective paradigms side by side. The subject prefixes are in bold so that they stand out apart from the adverbial and inflection prefixes and yatikwì.

Three Related Patterns in Imperfective Paradigms

		<i>adverbial prefix</i>	<i>inflection prefix</i>
Subject	<i>cry</i>	<i>pray, preach</i>	<i>go to sleep</i>
I	ehtse	yahtì	dehtè
we two	diitse witse	yadiihtì yawitì	diitè dewitè
we or someone	ts'etse	yats'ehtì	ts'eetè
you	netse	yanehtì yaḡhtì	njtè
you people	ahtse	yaahtì	dahtè
they (people)	getse	yagehtì	geetè
he, she, it, they	etse	yahtì	detè
Adverbial Prefix		ya-	
Inflection Prefix			de-
Yatikwì	tse	htì	tè

Yatikwì is the most important part of the verb, and it is usually the last syllable. Once we get used to thinking of verbs as combinations of prefixes and yatikwì, and once we begin to recognize the patterns in verb paradigms, the spelling of verbs/wet'à dàgot'uj yatì begins to come more naturally as we write.

Summary

Alphonse Eronchi's story is a funny reminder of how much we take technology for granted today. Not long ago we didn't have modern conveniences like stoves, washing machines, or electricity!

The consonant **r** and its unusual patterning are introduced in this chapter, as well as its relationship with **d** in verbs and compound words. This chapter also introduced **imperfective verb paradigms**, showing verb stems combining with inflection and adverbial prefixes. The spelling of verbs comes easier when we understand the meanings of *yatikwì* and prefixes and the patterns they follow.



Asì Nezu Hagodì

Keeping Our Faith



Asii Nezzj Hagodi

Asii nezzj hagodi
Wet'à deghawhiza.
Ts'iròò deza, senagòèt'ò
Sedaà gòh'j adzà.

Asii nezzj eyi wet'à
Dehj'j while adzà.
Asii nezzj wègaàt'j
Wek'èè dehwhò adzà.

Asii t'ò kèhoedi-le
Hanihò dzò nìiza.
Asii nezzj sets'àjdi t'à
Wet'à sekò n'ehdza.

Hoòng lemì xoo s'òni kò
Sadeè làani nàtso.
Dzè taèt'e, Nòhtsj, ts'ejj
T'akwee hagot'e-le.

John B. Zoe etajhti

Yati K'èts'eezò

Nòhtsj	sadeè
sedaà	wègaàt'j
hanihò	s'òni
dehj'j	n'ehdza

A wonderful thing about songs in Tłjchq Yatì is how rich the sound is. The song that begins this chapter is a translation of *Amazing Grace* by John B. Zoe, one of four gospel songs that he translated and recorded. As we hear from the recording of John singing this song, the rhythms and the sounds of the words are beautiful and really typical of Tłjchq Yatì music-making.

As we can tell from the song translation, sentences in Tłjchq Yatì are put together a bit differently than they are in English. This chapter has a focus on sentence patterns in Tłjchq Yatì. But before getting to sentences, we are going to start off with a presentation on the **sh** family of sounds.

More Consonants: The sh Family

There is one last family of consonant sounds to study in Tłjchq Yatì. It is the **sh** family, which includes **sh**, **zh**, **j**, **ch**, and **ch'**. There are several words in John's translation of *Amazing Grace* that include sounds from this family and so it's a good opportunity to talk about them. Between **sh** and **zh**, which one has the vocal cords vibrating?

sh	shj	song
	shìh	hill, mountain
	xàehshe	it is growing out
	shèts'etj	to eat a meal
zh	zhah	snow
	gojzhq	he or she is smart
	dezhi	it is hard
	wek'èts'eezhq	to know it
	dezha	I left (walking)
nìzha	I arrived (walking)	
j	jq	here
	jìe	berry
	tsejj	to sing
	hagòjà	it happened that way
ch	cheko	young man
	dats'eechi	to take
	behcho	big knife, American
	k'achj	again
ch'	goht'qch'ìi	old clothes
	tich'aàdìi	animal
	ch'oh	quills
	tso tàts'eehch'ì	to split wood

Depending on who is speaking, all of the words containing members of this family of consonants can be pronounced in two ways, and so they all have two possible spellings. You will find both spellings in the dictionary. An example from John’s translation is the word that means ‘here’. It is spelled **dzò** in the song and **jò** in the listing that we just looked at. Both spellings are good. Another example is in the phrase **wet’à deghawhiza**, which translates as meaning ‘because of it I got through’. The verb at the end of the phrase can also be spelled **deghawhizha**.

The patterns of pronunciations and spellings is really regular and the pattern goes like this:

The sh Family Rule

If a word can have **sh** it can have **s** instead.

If a word can have **zh** it can have **z** instead.

If a word can have **j** it can have **dz** instead.

If a word can have **ch** it can have **ts** instead.

If a word can have **ch’** it can have **ts’** instead.

This rule shows a very close connection between the **sh** family and the **s** family. (Remember it from Chapter 5?) These families of consonants are pronounced almost the same way, and some people don’t make very much difference between them at all.

If we spell all of the words from above with their other spelling we can see the pattern very clearly. Check them out.

sh family	s family	English
shìh	sìh	hill, mountain
shj	sj	song
xàehshe	xàehse	it is growing out
shèts’etj	sèts’etj	to eat a meal
zhah	zah	snow
gojzhò	gojzò	he or she is smart
dezhi	dezi	it is hard
wek’èts’eezhò	wek’èts’eezò	to know it
dezha	deza	I left (walking)
nìzha	nìza	I arrived (walking)
jò	dzò	here
jìe	dzìe	berry
ts’ejj	ts’edzj	to sing
hagòjà	hagòdza	it happened that way

cheko	tseko	young man
dats'eechi	dats'eetsi	to take
behcho	behtso	big knife
k'achj	k'atsj	again
goh't'och'ii	goh't'ots'ii	old clothes
tich'aadii	tits'aadii	animal
ch'oh	ts'oh	quills
tso t'ats'eehch'i	tso t'ats'eehts'i	to split wood

When we find patterns of pronunciations like these, it tells us that the people speaking the language are making the choices available to them.

For some people, which sounds they choose depends on what they are talking about, who they are with, how big a group they are talking to, or what kind of message, joke, story, or prayer they are speaking. Everyone who speaks Tłjchq Yatì is conscious of this choice open to them. It is something to celebrate, because it is a sign of choices and unity in differences.

The song at the beginning of this chapter, **Asìì Nezzj Hagodi**, contains several words with two pronunciations from **sh** and **s** family members, like **dzq**, meaning 'here'. Which words are they? How do **you** usually pronounce these words?

Some people might think that having words with two pronunciations like this would be confusing, but it isn't. People are not confused by it; instead they use the differences to make jokes! This shows in one small way that people who speak in Tłjchq Yatì are skilful and flexible in adapting to different people's ways of speaking. When it comes to spelling this same flexibility is available to us.

Sentences: Subjects and Predicates

When it comes to speaking, sentences are important because our thoughts can be expressed in sentences. In Tłjchq Yatì, sentences have basically two parts, the **subject** and the **predicate**. (The same is true for English and just about every language.) The term **subject** usually means the one doing the action, and the term **predicate** usually means the action. (Some sentences don't describe actions, so that is why we say usually.)

The **Subject** is the person/thing doing the action.

The **Predicate** is the action.

In the sentences below, from the kids' book *Jiewà Eyits'ò Sahcho Degoo*, the subject is in **bold** and the predicate is underlined.

Jiewà hadì, "Amà jò j̄t̄e, daèhte t̄'a nàhga wheda," dì.

Hanikò **wetà eyits'ò wemò** j̄faà gete.

Jiewà tì xèekw'ò yeèhk'ò.

Sahcho Jiewà wemò wets'òò ehxà.

All of these sentences involve actions, and in them the subject is the one saying something, sleeping, hearing, or chewing.

Usually the subject is a noun or noun phrase, while the predicate is a verb or verb phrase. In the four sentences given as examples this is true.

Understood Subjects

Because the verb in T̄j̄chò Yatì is very rich and includes information about who is doing the action, often the subject noun phrase is understood from the verb without being mentioned separately. In that case the whole sentence can be the predicate. The next sentences show this. They also come from *Jiewà Eyits'ò Sahcho Degoo*. The whole sentence is underlined because this part expresses the predicate. T̄j̄chò Yatì isn't the only language with sentences like these; many languages are similar.

Ayì dàh'fà weli?

Wet'à k'ets'ebeekè yieta.

Ejak'è enìjchi.

Dominoes t'à nàgodizhe ha?

In the first sentence 'What am I going to do?', the understood subject is 'I'; in the second 'she put on flippers', the understood subject is 'she'. In the third 'open the window', it is 'you'. (In English sentences giving commands like this one, the subject 'you' is understood too.) And in the fourth sentence, 'let's play dominoes', 'we two' is the understood subject. Put a box around the subject prefixes in these verbs. The subject prefixes are the part of the verb that tells us who is doing the action. (Look again at Chapter 5 for a reminder. Chapters 10 and 11 also talk about subject prefixes.)

What is the understood subject in the next sentences? They come from John B.'s translation of *Amazing Grace*.

Hanihò dzò nìza.

Wet'à sekò ngehda.

Verbs and Objects

All of the predicates we have looked at contain a verb, and the predicate expresses the action that is taking place. Some actions involve just the person or people doing the action, and other actions involve two or more sets of people or things. Compare the following verbs:

ts'ejj

k'ats'eeʔà

The action of singing involves just the singer(s) and nothing else. But chewing involves two things: the person chewing and the thing being chewed. The gum or whatever is being chewed is called the **object** of the verb. The term **object** is used for something that is affected or worked on by the action of the verb.

The object of the verb is the thing affected or worked on by the verb.

In the next sentences the verb is in **bold** type and the object is underlined.

Ejak'è **eni**chi.

Banana hazhòò **k'agee**ʔà.

Whek'òò **ts'odàaxà**achi.

Ayìì **dàh**fà welì?

Ekìì ejiet'òò zò **ehts'**è ha.

In the first example, the window is going to be closed – it is the object affected by the action. In the last example, the girl is going to drink only milk. The milk is the object of the verb. It is the same with the other sentences.

Understood Objects

Just like the subject of a sentence, the **object** can be **understood** without being repeated as a noun phrase. In the next sentences, taken from the story *Jiewà Eyits'ò Sahcho Degoo* again, the object is understood from the verb.

K'achì ts'isìjhwhì-le.

In this sentence, the mother tells Jiewà, ‘Don’t wake me up again’. The verb includes a prefix indicating that the object is ‘me’. In the next sentence the understood object of the verb is ‘him’.

Mahsì wèjdi.

In both of these sentences, which are commands, the **subject** is understood as the person being spoken to, ‘you’.

Here is an example from John’s translation of *Amazing Grace*:

Asiì nezzì sets’ajdi.

In this sentence the subject is **asiì nezzì**, meaning ‘something good’. What is the understood object?

The verbs below all indicate the same action of telling someone something, but in each case the object is different. This collection of verbs can be called an object paradigm if we want to give it a name. An **object paradigm** is a set of related verbs where everything is the same except for the object prefix.

hasèhdi	hagòhdi
hanèhdi	haxèhdi
hayèhdi	hagiìhdi

These verbs can stand as complete sentences in themselves – and both the subject and the object are understood. In any Tłjchq Yatì story, many of the sentences are like this. In English we can’t do this because the subjects and objects will be pronounced as pronouns: *She told us, he told them*. English verbs don’t show the rich prefix patterns of verbs in Tłjchq Yatì.

Word Order in Sentences

The typical word order in sentences is for the subject to come first, the verb to come last, and the object to come right before the verb. The following sentence shows this pattern:

Sahcho Jiewà wemq wets’òò ehxà.

The polar bear ate Jiewà’s mother’s blanket.

Sahcho is the subject, **Jiewà wemq wets’òò** is the object, and **ehxà** is the verb. We find this basic order when the subject or object is understood too. Check this from the examples earlier in the chapter.

Below are some more sentences showing this pattern taken from stories in this book. Can you remember which stories the sentences come from? In each sentence the subject and predicate are divided from each other. In the predicate, the object is underlined and the verb is in **bold**. In the second sentence the subject is understood as ‘she’ from the subject prefix in the verb meaning ‘she cooked’. In the third sentence the subject phrase is very long!

Subject	Predicate
Semq	<u>selà</u> daachi .
	<u>Bò tekqo</u> xàwheht’e .
Nezeh, netà, gızha hanıı, netà axo, nınde axo,	negha <u>elà</u> ehtsjà .
Daawì giıhdıı	<u>satsòòk’òq</u> ehtsj .

What Else Belongs in a Sentence?

So far, we have been introduced to various parts of a sentence, like the **subject**, **object**, and **verb**. There are other types of phrases or words that can be found in sentences in Tıjchq Yatı besides these basic parts. Let’s look at a sentence from Mary Koyina Richardson’s story about herself:

Elàt’à whıhda gà ehtsj wenazhazèè yıı gots’q ts’et’ııkàdzèè de?j ıle.

adverbial phrase: **Elàt’à whıhda gà**
subject:
postposition phrase: **ehtsj wenazhazèè yıı gots’q**
object: **ts’et’ııkàdzèè**
verb: **de?j**
auxiliary verb: **ıle**

The subject of this sentence is understood from the verb and it is ‘I’, the person telling the story. The action is stealing, expressed in the verb **de?j**. The object noun is **ts’et’ııkàdzèè**, chewing tobacco, and it is what she stole. The last word of the sentence, **ıle**, can be called an **auxiliary** or “verb helper”, and it tells us that the stealing took place in the past. (We will say more about auxiliaries later in this section.)

The other two phrases tell us more about the action. The **postposition phrase** tells us that she stole the tobacco from inside her grandmother’s sweater. The **adverbial clause** at the beginning of the sentence tells us where Mary was when she stole the tobacco, sitting in the back of the boat. This smaller sentence (we can call it a **subordinate clause**) gives more information about the event being described and so it has the job of an adverb. That is why the phrase can be called an **adverbial clause**.

Like an **adverb**, an **adverbial clause** describes the action or event.

What about the next sentence, from *Amazing Grace*. What are its parts?

Hanihò dzọ nìiza.

conjunction: **hanihò**

subject:

adverb: **dzọ**

verb: **nìiza**

The verb is a perfective verb meaning ‘I arrived’, and the adverb before it tells where, ‘here’. **Hanihò** means ‘but’ and is a type of word called a **conjunction**. The role of this word is to make a link to the sentence before. Usually a conjunction comes at the beginning or the end of a sentence or phrase; in this sentence the conjunction comes at the beginning.

A **conjunction** is a word that links sentences, paragraphs, words, or phrases together.

Can you think of some more examples of conjunctions in Dogrib?

Here is a sentence from Terri’s story with a different conjunction. This sentence shows a different pattern than the one above because the conjunction comes at the end of its clause.

Dè deghats’eezè ha ts’jhrò tleht’òò ts’èwhjạ etle ayjà.

The word **ts’jhrò** meaning ‘because’ is a conjunction. Like other conjunctions, its job is to let the reader understand how the underlined smaller sentence connects with the bigger one. This smaller sentence gives more information about the situation being described: it gives the reason for slowing down the kicker. It is an **adverbial clause**.

Earlier in this section we saw the **auxiliary** or “verb helper” **ɟlè**. Auxiliaries follow the verb in sentences in Tɟɟchɟ Yatì. Since these words are “verb helpers”, they only show up when there is a main verb to help along.

An **auxiliary** is a word that “helps” the main verb, usually with information about time or possibilities.

The following sentences are from the story by Celine Wanazhah called *Rosa Hoghàseèhtɟ*. They show examples of auxiliaries in Tɟɟchɟ Yatì. The auxiliaries are underlined and the verbs that they are helping come right before.

Honìehdza tʃàxɟɟ dechɟnì nàts'edè t'asìì wìzìì k'èehzhɟ-le ɟlè.

Ayìì dàhɟe ha wek'èehzhɟ-le, dàanì hoghàdeehɟ ha wek'èehzhɟ-le.

These examples illustrate the three most common “verb helpers”: **ɟlè**, for the past tense, **ha**, for the future tense, and **-le**, for the negative. They are really common in sentences. The auxiliaries can be pronounced in slightly different ways – the usual spellings are given here. The past tense auxiliary is sometimes pronounced more like **-lè** or **-tè**, as a suffix more than a separate word, and the future tense can be pronounced more like **a** or **gha**, similar to a suffix also.

Two or more of the auxiliaries can be used together. We see two together in the next sentences.

Wek'èehzhɟ ha ɟlè.

This can be translated as ‘I would have known it’. And the next sentence,

T'asìì wìzìì k'èehzhɟ-le ɟlè.

can be translated as ‘I didn’t know anything at all!’.

Summary

The song at the beginning of the chapter is a beautiful translation by John B. Zoe of an English hymn. Songs like this let people practise both their faith and their language and give a lot of pleasure to everyone in the singing and in the listening.

This chapter also introduced the **sh family of consonants** and discussed how this family is very similar to the s family. This leads to showing how flexible Tɟɟchɟ people are when they use their language.

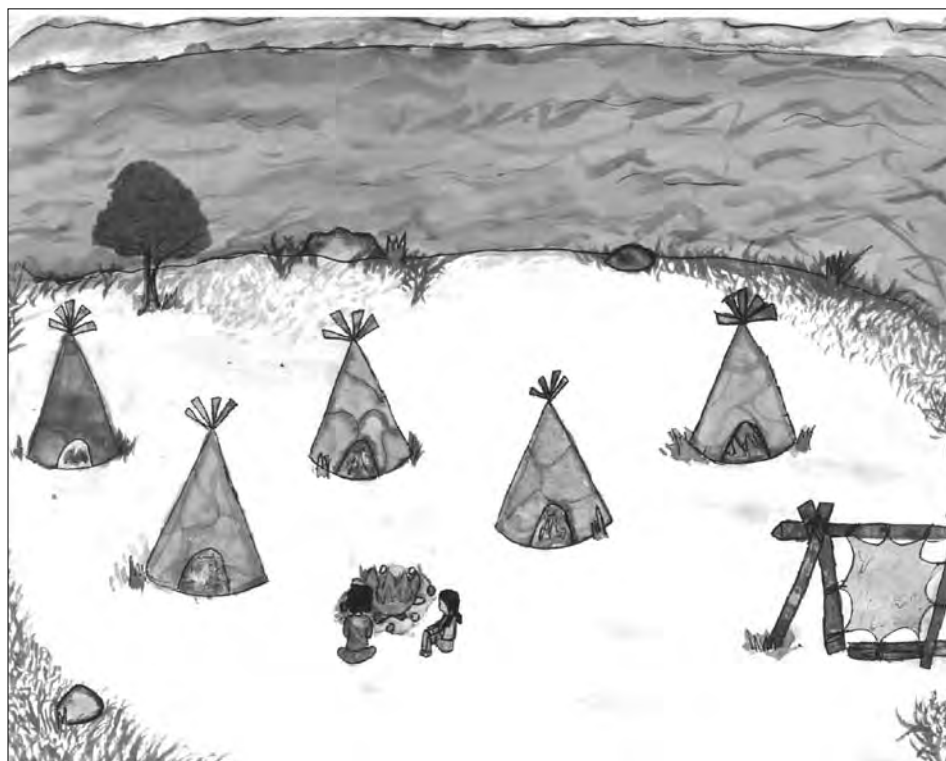
The rest of the chapter answered the question of what **sentences** are like in Tłjchq Yatì.

Using examples from stories, we see that sentences are made up of a **subject** and a **predicate**. The subject is the person or thing doing the action. In the predicate the verb expresses the action that is at the centre of the event described by the whole sentence. The affected participant in the event is called the **object**. In sentences the subject and the object can be **understood** from prefixes in the verb, so a verb can be a whole sentence in itself in Tłjchq Yatì.

The components of sentences in Tłjchq Yatì usually come in the following order: the subject first, the verb at the end, and the object just before the verb.

Besides the subject, object, and verb, different sentences contain **adverbial phrases** and **adverbial clauses**, **postposition phrases**, and **auxiliary** or “**verb helpers**”. **Conjunctions** express relationships between sentences or phrases and usually come right at the beginning or right at the end of the sentence as a link to the rest of what is being said.

This chapter is important because people often comment on how English sentences are backwards from sentences in Tłjchq Yatì. Here we put sentences in Tłjchq Yatì up front and encourage understanding of the language patterns in Tłjchq Yatì.



Behchij̄ K'èdì Hoghàseèhtq̄

Learning to Drive



CHAPTER

13

Setsèe Behchjì K'èdii Hoghàseèhtq̃

T'akwee setsèe eyits'q̃ setsj gixè nàihdè jìlè. Ekiiyèè kò setsèe behchjì standard wets'q̃ jìlè.

Setsèe Edzo Enjht'èkò eghàlaeda jìlè. K'omq̃dòq̃ t̃àht'e behchjì t'à Edzo Enjht'èkò ts'ò wexè aht'jì jìlè.

Jìlè dzèq̃ k'omq̃dòq̃ neèht̃a kò setsj hawèehsj, "Ehtsèe segha kawìdi, behchjì dàani wek'èts'edii hoghàseèhtq̃, wìdi," wèehsj. Setsj setsèe ts'ò hadi, "Hariyè dàani behchjì k'èdii hoghàseèhtq̃ nèhdi," setsèe ts'ò hadi.

Setsèe hadi, "J̃fàà nechà-le, dàani behchjì k'èdii hoghàweehtq̃ xa dii. J̃fàà wekw'òq̃ nek'òq̃. Dàani t̃eh k'è whe?è ha?," setsj ts'ò hadi.

Eyits'q̃ dzè t̃àht'e setsèe wek'adaehwho, behchjì k'èdii hoghàseèhtq̃ wèehsj. ?edlaàt̃q̃ sa ts'ò setsèe wek'adaiwho t'àxq̃q̃ h̃q̃q̃ hadi.

Eyit'à setsèe segha dechjkàa kàjht'a, wek'e whe nìjla. Eyi dechjkàa sekè t'à whelaa wet'à behchjì t̃fèè k'è whih?è ha.

Edàidzèq̃t'ò t̃àht'e setsèe behchjì k'èdii hoghàseèhtq̃ eyits'q̃ behchjì standard k'èdii wek'èehzhq̃. Hoòq̃ daà ek'ètai seghoò ajà ekò nà?edii k'è wemq̃ò ets'awhikhke t'à behchjì enjht'è sòq̃chì.

Eyi t'à setsèe Jimmy Erasmus hoghàseèhtq̃ t'à masi dehwhq̃.

Hariyè Erasmus wegodii

Yatì K'èts'eezq̃q̃

nàihdè	wek'adaiwho
ets'awhikhke	hoghàseèhtq̃
behchjì	dechjkàa
seghoò	?edlaàt̃q̃

Harriet's story is about how her grandfather taught her to drive. It is such a vivid story that we can picture her clearly in our minds, bugging her grandmother and grandfather. Is the story told as though it happened in the past, or as if it were happening now? How much information is given just by which prefixes are used in the verbs?

The grammar and spelling part of this chapter tell more about the information that gets packed into a Tìjchò Yatì verb. Not only do we learn more about imperfective and perfective verbs, we also look at something called aspect, which gives more information about how an event takes place in time. Verbs are just bursting with inflection!

More on the Meanings of Verbs

Chapter 10 introduces the contrast between **imperfective** and **perfective** verb words. Imperfective verbs name actions that are not finished, while perfective verbs name actions that are done and complete. This section will discuss more details of the meanings of imperfective and perfective verbs.

Uses of Imperfective Inflection

Imperfective verbs are used when describing **actions that are in the middle of being done**. For example, if you see someone cooking, you can ask them this:

Ayì neht'è?

(The imperfective verb is underlined.) Since the person is in the middle of doing the action, the imperfective is the correct inflection to use.

The imperfective is also used to describe **events going on in the past**. An example from Harriet's story about learning to drive shows this. (The imperfective verb is underlined.)

Setsèe Edzo Enjht'èkò eghàlaeda jìè.

In this sentence Harriet tells how her grandfather was working at the school. As she describes what things were like then, these actions were going on. The auxiliary **jìè** is used in this sentence to emphasize the past tense, but it doesn't always have to be used. In many stories, such as Terri Douglas' story in Chapter 6, imperfective verbs are used for events in the past as they are going on in the past, and the past auxiliary is not used. Both patterns are great.

The imperfective is also the inflection used for the future tense. If you see me getting ready to cook you can ask me:

Ayì neht'è ha?

If an action is in the future, it is definitely not yet done, so again the imperfective is used – this time with the future auxiliary **ha** (see Chapter 12 for the idea of **auxiliaries**).

The imperfective inflection is also used with the auxiliaries **xa dùi** and **xa dùi-le**. These words are translated as ‘can’t’ and ‘can’. Harriet uses this auxiliary when she repeats her grandfather’s words, saying that he can’t teach her how to drive because she is still small. (The imperfective verb is underlined.)

Setsee hadi, “ǀʔaà nechà-le, dàani behchjì k'èdii hoghàweehtq xa dùi.

The late Joe Suzie Mackenzie, when he was talking about how people helped each other making birch bark canoes (Chapter 9), described how the women who can sew a boat all rushed to it.

Ts'èko amèe elà nàeli xa dùi-lee sù hazhòq gígà nìgohwho.

When we are talking about how some event can or can’t happen, the action is being discussed but hasn’t been tried, so it certainly isn’t completed yet. Because of this the imperfective inflection is used.

The imperfective inflection can also be used in asking someone to do something, since a request or command is for an action to be done in the future:

ǀèt'è neht'è.

Behchjì dàani wek'èts'edii hoghàseèhtq.

This section has introduced five ways **imperfective** verb inflection is used:

1. To describe **actions that are in the middle of being done**.
2. To talk about **events going on over time in the past**.
3. To show the **future tense** with the auxiliary **ha**.
4. To talk about **events that can or can’t happen**.
5. To show **commands** or **invitations to do something**.

Uses of Perfective Inflection

Different from imperfective verbs, perfective verbs are used when talking **about actions that have already been done**. An excellent example comes in Harriet's story when she expresses her thanks to her grandfather for having taught her to drive a vehicle. The verb 'teach' shows perfective inflection. (The perfective verb is underlined.)

Eyi t'à setsèe Jimmy Erasmus hoghàseèhtǫ̀ t'à masì dehwhǫ̀.

Here are some other examples from Harriet's story. In the first example, she mentions that she had been living with her grandparents (and we understand that she no longer is living with them). In the second example she says, "After I pestered my grandfather for how many months he said yes". The verbs 'lived' and 'pestered' are underlined in the sentences below. They are perfective verbs.

T'akwe setsèe eyits'ǫ̀ setsǫ̀ gixè nàihdè ǫ̀lè.

ǫ̀edlaàtǫ̀ sa ts'ǫ̀ setsèe wek'adaihwho tǫ̀'axǫ̀ǫ̀ hǫ̀ǫ̀ hadì.

Perfective inflection is also used in telling about **actions that have never been done**. For someone to talk about what has never been done, it is necessary to look back over the past and think about what has or hasn't happened. To give the meaning we want, the perfective verb is used together with the auxiliary **while**, meaning 'there is none'. The sentence below comes from the interview with the late Joe Suzie Mackenzie and Julie Mackenzie in Chapter 9, about birch bark canoes. Here Julie said that she herself had never made that kind of thing in the past. The verb 'made' is a perfective verb in her expression.

Sǫ̀ hò ǫ̀nèe gots'ǫ̀ hanu whihtsǫ̀ while ne.

The next two sentences are from the story of Yamoòzha and his beaver wife. In the first sentence, we hear how he had never seen a beaver so large. In the second one, we are told about how Yamoòzha never once led his beaver wife over wet ground but always found a way around.

Tsà hajhchoo eǫ̀ǫ̀ while.

ǫ̀àà wiiǫ̀ Yamoòzha yeamǫ̀ dè gǫ̀ǫ̀kw'aa k'e dèhtǫ̀ while, dats'ǫ̀ǫ̀ wemǫ̀ǫ̀ goè?aa ǫ̀ǫ̀ k'eda.

With all of these examples the emphasis is on the fact that the action has never taken place.

Perfective verbs can also be used when talking about **how one event follows another**. Sometimes the conjunction **t'àxq̃**, meaning 'after', is used in this pattern, and when it is, the verb that sits before the word **t'àxq̃** has perfective inflection. In the following sentences the perfective verb is underlined as part of the subordinate clause. The first two examples are taken from the story of Raven and the Blackduck, and the third and fourth are from the stories of Yamoòzha.

Ìàà chq̃ agòjà t'àxq̃ Nq̃gè eyts'q̃ det'q̃m̃q̃ ełets'q̃ gìts'è.

Łq̃ xoo k'èh̃q̃wo t'àxq̃ det'q̃ weti k'èèdaà degoo xè denahk'e wèdaat'ìì ajà.

Gahkwò gìì?à t'àxq̃ Yamoòzha deècha yì ʔoo k'e dètì.

Yamoòzha det'q̃chozaa ghà yatìì?q̃ t'àxq̃ et'oh t'a nàdeet'ìì gà naèh'ìì.

We can translate these sentences this way:

Once, after it had rained, Fox and the mother duck got angry at each other.

After many years had passed the duck's daughter got overwhelmingly white and most beautiful.

After they had eaten the rabbit Yamoòzha went to sleep on spruce boughs in the shelter.

After Yamoòzha had given advice to the young eagle he hid under the nest and waited.

The perfective inflection is used in the stories to show how one event took place before another.

When **discussing the good (or bad) effects of events happening**, the perfective inflection is used to emphasize how things would be if some action has taken place. A good example comes from the story of Raven and the Blackduck.

"Eyì dq̃ gits'àwhìhtłà ìdè nezì ha tahkò," hadì.

Raven says, "Maybe it would be good if I visited those people." The verb meaning 'visited' shows perfective inflection. This form of the verb emphasizes the fact that good effects will come **if** the event is done.

The perfective verb 'caught' in the next sentence (from the story of Yamoòzha's Beaver Wife) emphasizes the effect of being caught: she will be changed back into a woman again.

"Daneehchì ñìdè k'achì ts'èko nanedìì ha ne," yèhdì.

Often the conjunction **nǫ̀dè** (also spelled **ǫ̀dè** or **dè**), meaning ‘if’ or ‘when’, is used to give this meaning. The following is another example, from a funny story written by the class in a Tǫ̀chǫ́ Yatì literacy course. It means, “Her older sister said, ‘It would be good if she won in the fiddle dance’.”

Tǫ̀'ik'eeǫ̀ t'à hoèhnǫ́ nǫ̀dè nezǫ́ ha," weba hadi.

Like the other examples, it emphasizes the effect of some event, if it happened.

This section has introduced four ways that **perfective** verb inflection is used:

1. When talking about **actions that have already been done**.
2. In telling about **actions that have never been done**.
3. When talking about **how one event follows another**.
4. When **discussing the good (or bad) effects of events happening**.

Meanings and Pronunciations for Perfective Inflections

In this book we haven't concentrated on perfective inflections so much until now. It is helpful, first, when talking about perfective verbs in Dogrib to separate two types of events: those that can be carried on it time indefinitely and those that have a moment of finishing.

Actions that can be carried on in time indefinitely:

ts'etse	crying
nàts'ewo	standing, living at a place
yats'ehtǫ́	praying
ts'eǫ̀	singing
k'ets'ech'ì	crawling around
k'ets'edzoh	skating or skiing around
dats'eechǫ́	touching/holding

With these actions, the crying, standing, praying, singing, etc. can be continued on with no end in sight. We can say that these verbs have **indefinite aspect**.

Aspect is a term used to talk about actions and events and how they unfold in time.

With the actions below, when people come together there is a time when they are together. When something has cooked, it is finished cooking. The same is true for things drying. Winning may take time, but then there is a winner. In the same way, there can be a lot of preparations for leaving, but then there is a moment when the leaving is complete. We can call these verbs **completive aspect** verbs.

Actions that have a moment of finishing:

hots'eehnè	winning
ts'eedè	leaving
ełèts'edè	coming together
ts'eeʔ]	stealing it
naxats'eeko	throwing up
et'è	cooking
egǫ	getting dry

There is an important meaning difference between the type of event described with the class of **completive aspect** verbs than with the class of **indefinite aspect** verbs. And, these two types of actions often show different patterns in how their perfective inflection is pronounced. Let's compare them:

Perfective forms for some actions of indefinite aspect:

łtse	he or she cried
nàłwo	he or she stood
yałhti	he or she prayed
ej]	he or she sang
k'eech'ì	he or she crawled around
k'ets'aadzoh	people skated/skied around
dayaachì	he or she touched/held it

With the **indefinite aspect** verbs, the action took place but is not being done any more. Many of these verbs – but not all – have the usual sounds **ł**, **e**, and **a** as part of the pronunciation of the perfective inflection. (We find these prefixes when a “third person”, he, she, it, or they, is the doer of the action.)

With many **completive aspect** verbs, the pronunciation of perfective inflection includes the sound **whè** or **è**. With these verbs, the action took place, and reached its conclusion or completion. (We find these prefixes when a “third person”, he, she, it, or they, is the doer of the action.)

Perfective forms for some actions of completive aspect:

ełèwhede	people came together
whet'e	it cooked
whegq̃	it dried
hoèhnq̃	he or she won
yeèʔɿ	he or she stole it
ts'eède	people left
naxaèhko	he or she threw up

We don't see this kind of patterning in English. In English the past tense is always made with the suffix **-ed**, not counting verbs with irregular past tense like the words **sang**, **came**, **saw**, **knew**, and others. For the English inflections, it doesn't matter what kind of meaning the verb has, **-ed** is always used.

Recap and Examples

Once we recognize the different sounds of perfective inflection, and understand how the meanings are related to inflections, it is easier to remember and know how to spell perfective verbs. If we look at some of the perfective verbs in the examples in this chapter we can separate them into **indefinite** and **completive** aspect sets. Some examples are given here.

Aspect	Example
indefinite	T'akwe setsèe eyits'q̃ setsɿ gixè nàihdè ɿlè.
indefinite	ʔedlaàtłq̃ sa ts'ò setsèe <u>wek'adaihwho</u> t''àxq̃q̃ hęʔę hadi.
indefinite	Tsà haɿhchoo eʔɿ while.
indefinite	Gahkwò gɿɿʔà t''àxq̃q̃ Yamoòzha deècha yì ʔoo k'e dètɿ.
completive	Eyɿ t'à setsèe Jimmy Erasmus <u>hoghàseèhtq̃</u> t'à masì dehwhq̃.
completive	Sɿ hò ɿnèe gots'q̃ hanii <u>whihtsɿ</u> while ne.
completive	ɿlàà wiiɿzi Yamoòzha yeamɿ dè gq̃q̃kw'àa k'e dèhtła while, dats'q̃q̃ wemq̃q̃ goèʔàa zq̃ k'eda.

Some verbs can be used with **either indefinite or completive aspect**, and so they mean different things with the different inflections. The verb **ts'ehk'è** meaning 'to shoot' is a good verb to show this possibility. Let's compare the following sentences:

Setà ekwò jhk'è.

Setà ekwò whehk'è.

The first example shows the signs of **indefinite** aspect with the prefix **j-**, so we understand that the shooting of caribou involved several animals, because the action took place over some indefinite time. But the second example has the **whe-** mark of **completive** aspect, so we can understand that my father shot just one animal. A number of other verbs show the same options. It isn't always simple to see this kind of differences, and sometimes it is hard to say what the meaning differences actually are.

Besides indefinite and completive aspect verbs we can identify other classes of verbs that show different inflection patterns. More discussion will have to wait for another time.

Aspects and Wekwee Whelaa/Prefixes

Because of the meanings that wekwee whelaa contribute to verbs, some of them always or usually are found together with either **indefinite aspect** or **completive aspect**, or some other aspect.

K'e-, for example, adds the meaning that an action goes on for some time without any specific direction to it. It is found in verbs like **k'ets'ele** 'carry around', **k'ets'eda** 'walk around', **k'ets'ekò** 'drive around', **k'ets'eet'j** 'look around', **k'eʔets'ekw'j** 'chop around', and many more. The wekwee wheʔoq **k'e-** in itself makes an indefinite event, and the perfective inflection on these verbs shows the marks of indefinite aspect. Here are some examples. With this prefix the verb stem/yatikwì is always the same for the imperfective and perfective paradigms. We can see that by comparing the pairs of verbs.

Verb	Meaning	Perfective	Meaning
k'ets'eda	walk around	k'eehda	I walked around
k'ets'et'lo	go around	k'eeht'lo	I went around
k'eʔà	(animals) roam around	k'eeʔà	(animals) roamed around
k'ets'ehsò	pull along	k'eyj'jhsò	he or she pulled it along
k'ets'edè	(many) go around	k'egeadè	they went around

Kà- (also spelled **hà-** or **xà-**), *wekwee wheʔǫ̀*, meaning ‘out’, also typically contributes indefinite aspect. If something is coming out, then there is no limit on how far out something may travel! This is an indefinite kind of event. With this prefix *yatikwì* is not always the same for the imperfective and perfective paradigms. Which verbs in the set below have different *yatikwì*?

Verb	Meaning	Perfective	Meaning
kàts'eedè	(many) come out	kàɫde	they have come out
xàts'etse	cry out	xàɫtsè	he or she cried out
xàt'à	be taken out	seghòò xàet'ǫ	my tooth was taken out
xàts'ewa	take (things) out	gotsè xàihwha	I took the nails out

A prefix suggesting completive aspect is **nà-**. This *wekwee wheʔǫ̀* is used in verbs of motion to describe a round trip from one place to another. When the trip is done, the event is complete. As expected, the signs of the completive aspect are found in perfective inflection for these verbs. With this prefix, are the *yatikwì* for imperfective and perfective always the same, or can they be different? What do you see in the verb pairs below?

Verb	Meaning	Perfective	Meaning
nàts'ezè	make a trip hunting	nàwhehzè	I have made a hunting trip
nàts'etł̄a	make a trip (to a place)	ekǫ̀ nàwhihtł̄a	I have gone there
nàts'edè	(many) make a trip	ekǫ̀ nàgehde	they have made a trip there

Another prefix that implies completive aspect is *wekwee wheʔǫ̀* **de-**, meaning ‘leaving’ or ‘starting out’. (With this prefix the **d** is missing if another prefix comes before it.) A lot of verbs can be combined with this prefix, and they always show completive aspect. The prefix indicates the completion of the preparation for leaving. With this prefix *yatikwì* can change from imperfective to perfective verbs.

Verb	Meaning	Perfective	Meaning
ts'eeł̄a	leave	dèhtł̄a	he or she has left
ts'eeètè	go to sleep	dètɫ̄	he or she has gone to sleep
nats'ee't'è	leave going back by boat	nageèht'e	they have left going back by boat
xàts'eeł̄a	leave, going out	xàèhtł̄a	she has gone out

We could find several other kinds of examples showing how the meanings of wekwee whelaa tell us the aspect of verbs. What these examples all show is how interrelated the parts of a verb's meaning are, and how all parts of the verb (wekwee whelaa, yatikwi) add something to the meaning of the whole word.

Because of these interrelationships, the verbs in spelling can seem a little complicated. If we are aware of the patterns of combination, though, things are much clearer.

Summary

We began this chapter by hearing Harriet Erasmus's story of how she learned to drive. This story and the stories from other chapters show how important the many verb inflections are in Tłjchǫ̀ Yatì. They are especially important for telling stories.

This chapter gave an overview of some important patterns involving **imperfective** and **perfective inflections** in verbs. First, we looked at patterns of usage and meaning for the imperfective and perfective verbs. Second, we explored verb meanings, identifying verbs with **indefinite aspect** and **completive aspect**, and showing how the pronunciation of the perfective inflection can be influenced by the **aspect** of the verb.

There is a lot of information in this chapter. Tłjchǫ̀ Yatì verbs are really informative, and it may take some patience to think about how all the different parts of the verb word work together. Like Harriet learning to drive a 'standard' car, it takes patience and persistence, help from others, and lots of laughs!



Ts'1 Nechàa

The Great Spruce Tree



CHAPTER

14

Wìledeè Gà Ts'ì Nechàa

Wìledeè gà ts'ì nechàa nàjʔaa sii wegho enehorìyah. Akwee whaà kò done deh gà nàgedè jìlè. Eyi ts'ì nechàa nàjʔaa sii wegà k'ìrelà gehʔaa k'è gòʔo. Hozì ts'ò nàzèedòò ekòò geedè, mòhnaà ts'èko wezha xè deh k'è nàgedè, nàzèedòò nageedè ts'ò.

Ts'èko gìgha la ʔo. Dze taàt'e m̀ k'aàgeeta xè ehgwàa gehts̀. Dendiwò segeèhʔ̀. Xèhts'ò ǹdè, ts'èko nàʔegeeli xè goxègogendo.

Qhndah dii ts'ì nechàa ghò done xègogendo. Eyi ts'ì sii nàèdi get'̀, asii tàda gik'e hòʔo ǹdè. Asii wets'ò ts'ats'eehndi gits'ò asii gihchi ʔ' à nàèdi get'̀.

Qhndah hagedi ʔ' à eʔexègogendo jìlè. Tahga got'̀jì eyits'ò Enòòda got'̀jì, hazhòò done eʔeghò nègidè ǹdè egedzi, nàhs̀ndeè hoh̀è, eyi ʔ' àxòò ǹdè dagowo. G̀nàà ʔ' à sònàgedè enahòt'e dè ehkènagedè.

ʔiwe gotsè gihchi, dzeht̀ k'e dawhelà ageehʔ̀. Jdaà xok'e xa, git'̀aat'̀ xa. Done gìgha la ʔo ekii geèkw'e hòj̀-le.

Di wegho gondi sii ts'ì nechàa nàjʔaa diidzèè k'e ts'ò ʔ'aani nàjʔaa hii hani àj̀.

Verna Crapeau wegondii

Yati K'èts'eezhòò

Wìledeè	nàjʔaa
nàèdi	tàda
àj̀	nàʔegeeli
sònàgedè	eʔexègogendo

Verna's story about the big spruce tree is full of description and history. Tł̄chq̄ Yatì can be expressive in many different ways. In other chapters and other stories we have seen how adverbs, verbs, and nouns can be very expressive, and we have also seen how wekwee whelaa can add expressive meaning. In this chapter we will let Verna's story lead us to think about creative uses of a prefix, **ełe-**, as well as introducing the **descriptive suffix** and 20 different **expressive suffixes**!

Wekwee Wheṛṛṛ Meaning 'Each Other'

There is a prefix that is often translated as 'each other'. It is spelled **ełe-**, **łe-**, or **eh-**, depending on the particular word or on the creative choice of the writer, speaker, or story-teller. In Verna's story she uses it in the following expressions, meaning 'they tell stories to each other', 'when they meet with each other', and 'they go apart from each other':

ełexègogendo

ełeghq̄ nègidè n̄jdè

ehkènagedè

The term for this prefix is **reciprocal**. 'Reciprocal' means going back and forth between people or things. We have seen this wekwee wheṛṛṛ in many of the stories in this book. A few examples from different stories are gathered together below, to show the variety of expressions possible with this useful prefix. The story of building the birch bark canoe is a real story of working together, so the short story from the interviews with the late Joe Suzie and Julie Mackenzie and others are full of discussion of helping each other.

Done gik'èezq̄ diì ne, siì ełets'àgedi ne, k'ṛṛṛṛṛ.
(Joe Suzie Mackenzie, *K'ìelà Tsehts̄j̄j*)

Hazhṛṛṛ ełets'àgedi t'à aget'̄j̄, ełeàḡj̄ṛṛṛ ḡj̄j̄j̄j̄ hṛṛ't'ì ełets'àgedi.
(Julie Mackenzie, *K'ìelà Tsehts̄j̄j*)

In these examples Joe Suzie and Julie used the verb **ełe**ts'àgedi/ **ełe**ts'àgedi, meaning 'they help each other' and also the noun **ełe**àḡj̄ṛṛṛ, meaning 'friends of each other'. As Julie said, 'They did it by all helping each other. People who were friends of each other all helped each other.'

The recipes that we looked at in Chapter 5 also have examples of the reciprocal prefix in the instructions for mixing. The word **ełeta** can be translated as 'with each other' or 'together'.

łè, sìga, łèdɟ eyits'ò dewa ełeta ʔaahłeh, kw'àyɟ nechà-lea yìi.

(Nora Lafferty, *Łèt'èhtłòa*)

Terri Douglas, in her story about a family boat trip, tells about how her two children sang to each other for a great long time:

Edlàɟwhàcho nàke ełets'ò geɟɟ.

(Terri Douglas, *Louise Dii Ts'ò Ts'eèʔe*)

In Marlyss Richardson's poem, she says that 'being without our traditions would be the same as not living'. Here the prefix is in the verb **ełèht'e**, meaning 'to be the same as each other'.

Gonàowoò whìle nɟdè ts'eeda-le sù ełèht'e.

(Marlyss Richardson, *Sèot'ɟ Amii Agɟt'e?*)

This prefix can be used with many verbs, postpositions, and nouns in creating new words. The listing of words beginning with **ełe-** or **eh-** in **Tłıchò Yatì Enɟht'è** gives only a small number of the words that are actually possible, and doesn't include the many words where the prefix is found in the middle of a word.

An interesting collection of nouns uses this prefix to express important family relationships in a single word. Four examples from the dictionary are shown next:

ełechike	'brothers'
ełedèke	'sisters'
ełemòqke	'aunt and niece or nephew'
ełetàke	'father and child'

The words are made up of three parts, the reciprocal **ełe-**, a noun (which is yatikwì) naming a family member, and yatilò wheʔoq **-ke**. Using this pattern we can express the closeness of family members to each other.

The reciprocal sometimes slightly changes yatikwì or a verb's inflection. For example, the verb meaning to fight in war is **ts'eghò**. The reciprocal verb meaning to fight *each other* in war is **ełets'egò**. Compare the two words below:

gɟɟghò	'they fought in a war'
ełegeagò	'they fought each other in a war'

Yatikwì (underlined in the word) has changed from ts'eghò to ełets'egò with the reciprocal added in. These verbs both have indefinite aspect since, unfortunately, war and fighting can be continued indefinitely in time. Their perfective inflections are slightly different because of the added reciprocal meaning.

We selected this prefix to discuss because it is useful and really important in expressing the importance of working together and sharing in the Tł̨chq̨ way of life.

There are many other prefixes that are useful and interesting to think about. For now, we will switch gears and look at **yatı̨q̨ whelaa, suffixes**.

Parts of Speech and the Descriptive Suffix

Through this book we have talked about words and their parts of speech, and used this information to help with spelling. Many times we have probably asked ourselves questions like: Is this a noun? Is it a verb? What are some postpositions in Tł̨chq̨ Yatı̨? What adverb would go nicely in this sentence?

Part of knowing Tł̨chq̨ Yatı̨ is knowing that we can make a new word by changing its part of speech. Examples in English are *teach* and *teacher*. The first word is a verb, with the meaning of an action, and the second one is a noun, with the meaning of a person who does that action. Another example is *soft* and *soften*. The first word is an adjective and the second one is a verb with a related meaning.

In Tł̨chq̨ Yatı̨ there is *yatı̨q̨ wheʔq̨* that changes a verb (or even a whole sentence!) into a noun, and we can call it the **descriptive suffix**. A verb expresses an action or the way something is; the related noun **describes** a person, place, or thing. In the words below, the descriptive suffix is underlined.

Verb	English	Related Noun	English
whek'ò	it is cold	whek'ò <u>o</u>	freezer
bòxàeht'è	he is cooking	bòxàeht'è <u>e</u>	cook
nàèdi k'èezq̨	he knows medicine	nàèdi k'èezq̨ <u>o</u>	doctor
nechà	it is big	nechà <u>a</u>	the big one
gots'àdi	she helps us	gots'àdi <u>i</u>	helper

If we look at these example we can see that the descriptive suffix is a copy of the vowel that comes at the end of the word and so it makes a “dragged” vowel. The extra vowel has no hat – **wets'aà** **while**; it doesn't have a tone mark.

The **descriptive suffix** makes words that describe nouns: people, places, things.

Here are some more words with the descriptive suffix. What is the verb they are made from?

Noun	English
Nàj j	Lac La Martre Falls
nàtee	prophet
wek'eet'èe	grill
ts'iet'aa, njht'èet'aa	airplane

In this book we have seen the descriptive suffix before. We saw it in Chapter 8 in talking about compound words and words with the place suffix **-k'è**. Here are some examples of compound words. They all show the same pattern: a sentence ends with the descriptive suffix, and this sentences describes yatikwì, which comes last. In these examples the darkest letter is the descriptive suffix.

cheko ghàehtq̄ d̄q̄	teacher
sq̄mba whelaa k̄	bank
wet'à det'aa t'ì	starter cord
behchj̄ k'èd̄ d̄q̄	driver

It's almost the same pattern in words for places. Here are some examples:

k'ets'edzoo k'è	arena, skating rink
tì ts'ih̄ts̄ k'è	well for water
ded̄ edaa k'è	place where moose live
kw'ih̄ xàgojhdoo k'è	mosquito bite

In these words a place is described with a sentence ending in the descriptive suffix, and the other suffix **-k'è** lets us know we are talking about a place.

Can you find some examples of the descriptive suffix in Verna's story? What about other stories? All of the stories in this book are very descriptive, so you are bound to find some examples in each story.

Yatìḷ Whelaa with Expressive Meanings

Verna's story includes the word **nàhsjndeè**, meaning a great feast. This word contains the yatìḷ wheḷḷ **-ndeè**, meaning 'great'. (This suffix is also spelled without the **n** as **-deè**.) It is one of a big group of **expressive suffixes**. These suffixes are used in forming words out of other words (especially nouns), and they are also found in a lot of nicknames. They are common and can make some really funny words to make people laugh and enjoy life, so it is great to understand how they are used. Some of them combine together, and we will look at how this can affect their spelling. The suffixes are grouped in this chapter into two groups according to their meanings. The first group of suffixes relate to the size of a thing, and the second group relate to what a thing looks like or how it is.

Size

There are four very common yatìḷ whelaa that have meanings basically like 'big' or 'small'. Two are for big things and two are for small things.

The suffix **-ndeè/-deè** in Verna's story is in this group, and means 'great'. This meaning relates to size or importance. A few words including this suffix are shown here:

Tideè/Tindeè	Great Slave Lake
yahtindeè/yahtideè	bishop
dḡdeè/dḡndeè	great person or crowd
kḡgodeè/kḡgondeè	city

The word for 'Great Slave Lake' gives the name to the transportation company called *Air Tindi!*

In the word meaning 'city', the suffix comes together with a prefix, which is underlined here: **kḡgodeè**. This prefix, usually spelled **go-** or **ho-**, is used when referring to an area or space, and it can be called the **areal prefix** for this reason. We will come across a few more examples of the areal prefix in this section.

The words above are nouns, but **-ndeè/-deè** and some of the other suffixes can also be found in verbs. Here is a pair of examples showing this:

Nezj deè.	It is very good.
Wet'aaà deè.	It is greatly important.

In spelling, people sometimes spell this suffix as **-a** when it comes after a nasal vowel. We see this in the spelling of the words for ‘puppy’ and ‘cents’ in the list above. Some people write the words this way and some write them as **tłja** and **satsòa**.

There are two other spelling rules that go with this suffix. If a word ends in the letter < **h** >, this letter is left out and no < **h** > is pronounced when the suffix **-a** is used. Does this rule sound familiar from an earlier chapter? There are two examples below. Yatìkwì is on the left and the word including yatìlq wheʔqò is on the right.

Yatìkwì	English	Yatìkwì + a	English
beh	knife	bea	pocket knife
deh	river	dea	little river

If a word ends in a double vowel, the vowel of the suffix bumps one of the other vowels out. The word on the left is the root word and the word on the right includes the suffix. Three vowels are not allowed at the end of a word in Tłjchq Yatì.

Yatìkwì	English	Yatìkwì + a	English
t'asii	something	t'asia	little thing
goghòò	teeth	goghòa	little teeth
gokek'w'òò	toes	gokek'w'òà	little toes
dqziì, dqzhiì	man	dqzià, dqzhià	little boy

Yatìlq wheʔqò **-a** is part of a lot of nicknames. Most of us are little when we get our nicknames, and we are all cute, so it's no wonder that so many nicknames include this suffix!

Zozèa	Lisìa
Maidèa	Dzim`a

This suffix is also common as a suffix on verbs. It emphasizes the smallness of the meaning of the verb or gives that meaning of cuteness that it can have with nouns. The translation is shown as ‘kind of’, but the meaning doesn't really translate exactly into English. This suffix is usually written as part of the verb word. A few verbs always have this suffix, including the ones at the beginning of this list.

Neghoa.	It is narrow.
Ehts'òà.	It is curly.
ǰghǰà/ǰyǰà.	It is round (like a ball).
Deboa.	It is thin.
Netsà-lea.	It is small.
ǰt'qà.	It is flat.
Nàtsoa.	He or she is kind of strong.
Nezǰà.	It is kind of good.
Dek'oa.	It is kind of red.

This suffix is one of the few suffixes that can be used with postpositions and adverbs easily. Here are a couple of examples of postpositions showing the suffix:

godoa	a little above
deʔǰà	a little behind

Here are two adverbs:

ǰhǰà	quietly
ts'èwhǰà	slowly or softly

This suffix easily combines with other suffixes, and we will see examples of this later.

This suffix is very often part of the word that means 'it is small':

Netsà-lea.	It is small.
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The word doesn't have to have this suffix, since **netsà-le** also means 'it is small'. There is another variation on this word. If something is really small and cute, we can say **netsà-lǰà**. The vowel sounds at the end of this word seem to make us think of smallness. Here are some other words for things that sound really small. What other words can you think of to add to this bunch?

netsà-lǰà	it is really small
sebehchǰà	my little vehicle
gobòkw'ǰà	belly button

The last one of the four big and small suffixes is **-tsoa**. It means 'small'. It isn't always easy to translate and say what the difference is between the two 'small' suffixes, except **-a** is much more commonly used. The suffix **-tsoa** usually doesn't give us the feeling of a cute or cherished thing that we often feel with the suffix **-a**.

There are some sets of words where we can compare the two suffixes. In the first set yatìkwì is 'river'.

deh	river
dea	little river
dehtsoa	creek or stream

In the next set yatìkwì is 'person'.

dḡ	person
dḡḡ	little person
dḡtsoa	midget

This suffix is used in many nicknames.

Madlètsoa

Zozètsoa

Here are some other words with this suffix:

titsoa	small lake
tḡtsoa	thin ice season
golamḡḡtsoa	smallest finger
gokemḡḡtsoa	smallest toe
dḡḡkatsoa	small narrows
kw'ətsoa	dishpan

It seems as if **-tsoa** is often used when we are able to compare a bigger thing with a smaller one, and the word for the smaller one will include this suffix.

Physical Qualities

With the expressive suffixes size isn't everything; there are quite a few yatìḡ whelaa with meanings relating to how something looks or what condition it is in. Most of the suffixes can be used with a lot of words, and most of them are used in nicknames too. They can sometimes be used together to give an even more expressive meaning. We can see this with the examples in the next group of words. The root word **ḡè** means 'flour'. The other words all include the suffix **-t'è** that means 'burnt' or 'cooked', and then maybe one or two other suffixes. The last two words end with the cute little suffix **-a** that we just talked about.

lè	flour
lèt'è	bannock or bread
lèt'èwì	bread made with yeast
lèt'èhgò	pilot biscuits
lèt'èhtlòa	pancakes
lèt'èhyìà	donuts

These suffixes are fun to think about because of how vividly they describe things. How many words can you add to the lists for each suffix? How many other suffixes can you think of?

-tlòo

A suffix for flabby or fatty, soft or smooth things. It is the opposite of **-gò**, for dry or skinny things. When it combines with the suffix **-a** it is spelled **-tlòa**.

lèt'èhtlòa	pancakes
dòtlòo	fat person
Jàànitlòo	[nickname]
Jotlòo	[nickname]

-gò

A suffix for dry or skinny things and the opposite of **-tlòo**. It is spelled **-gòà** when it combines with the suffix **-a**. This suffix is related to the verb **whegò**, meaning 'it is dry'. In nicknames the suffix makes us think that the person is slim – or was slim when they got their nickname.

lèt'èhgò	pilot biscuits
bògò	drymeat
t'ihgò	babiche
Misègòà	[nickname]

-yìà

A suffix for round things in the shape of a ball. There is a related verb **yìà** or **yìj**, meaning 'it is round like a ball'. When this suffix is part of a nickname it makes the person sound jolly or happy. It looks as if this suffix includes the suffix **-a** in it. The spelling **-ghìà** is used by some people.

lèt'èhyìà	donuts
kw'àyìà	bowl
ts'ahyìà	tam
Maàyìà	[nickname]

-wii

A suffix for puffy things.

łèt'èwii	bread made with yeast
kwewii	puffy rocks

-lii

A suffix for things in the shape of a sausage or dangling things. It is spelled **-liia** when it combines with the suffix **-a**.

godzaliì	calf muscle
gokw'jliì	muscle on upper arms or biceps
tłehliì	tallow
godziìhliì	earrings

-gwii

A suffix for things in crumbs or small pieces. It is spelled **-gwia** when it combines with the suffix **-a**.

łèt'ègwii	bread crumbs
kwegwii	gravel
tsogwìà/chogwìà	rain showers
łınahkwògwìà	bits of meat from the spine of fish

The suffixes in the lists above relate to the shape of the object. For the next suffixes, the meaning relates to how the object is, its condition. The first two have the basic meanings 'new' and 'old.'

-gòò

A suffix relating to being new. The suffix **-a** can be combined with this one, and the combination is spelled **-gòà**.

kegòò	new shoes
behtsjjgòò	new vehicle
lıdìgòò	fresh tea
chekogòò	teen-ager

-zòò/-zhòò

A suffix relating to being old. When this suffix is combined with the suffix **-a** the spelling is **-zòà/-zhòà**.

tłjzòò, tłjzhòò	old dog
tòzòò, tòzhòò	old pail
ts'èzòò, ts'èzhòò	old woman
kògozòà, kògozhòà	little old house

This expressive suffix might be related to the noun **sqò/shò** meaning 'old age', and to verbs like **gojzq/gojzhq** 'he or she is smart'.

There are suffixes for 'female' and 'male' that go with words naming animals (and people).

-ts'è 'female'

dlòots'è	female squirrel
dìgats'è	female wolf
tłjts'è	female dog
nogèets'è	female fox

For caribou, we say **ekwò dets'è**. For people, we say **ts'èko**. Here the suffix doesn't look like a suffix at all!

-ziì/-zhì 'male'

dqziì, dqzhì	man, male person
dqzià, dqzhà	little boy
tłjeziì, tłjezhì	male dog

We couldn't think of many other words with this suffix. Can you think of any more? When it combines with the suffix **-a**, it is spelled **-zià** or **-zhà**.

-ts'ì/-ch'ì

A suffix relating to being tattered or falling apart. The word sometimes has a negative meaning but not always. This suffix combines with the suffix **-a**, and the spelling for the combination is **-ts'ìa** or **-ch'ìa**.

t'asiìts'ì, t'asiìch'ì	old stuff, scraps, garbage
tqhts'ì, tqhch'ì	old bucket, garbage pail
k'ohs'ì, k'ohch'ì	rain clouds, dark clouds
ts'et'ìts'ì, ts'et'ìch'ì	marijuana
kògots'ìa, kògoch'ìa	little old shack
Aèch'ìa Kò	[nickname for Weaver and Devore store]

-tʰɿ

A suffix relating to strongly negative values and harmfulness. This suffix basically means 'bad'! A related noun is **hoetʰɿ**, meaning 'sin'.

nàèdiiʰɿ	poison
tihʰɿ	diarrhea
Edàetʰɿ	devil
tàdaʰɿ	STD or SDI
godoòtʰɿ	blood poisoning

-t'è/-t'èe

A suffix meaning 'burnt' or 'cooked'. With the suffix **-a**, the spelling is **-t'èa**. This suffix is related to the verb **et'è** 'it is cooking'.

lèt'è	bread, bannock
kw'àt'èe	frying pan
bòt'èe	cooked meat

-kw'qò

A suffix meaning 'empty' or 'bare'. This suffix seems to be related to the noun **ekw'qò** meaning 'bones'. The noun for glacier or ice overflow, **kw'qò**, also seems to be related.

tqhk'qò	empty bottle
ts'ik'qò	bare tree without branches
nqhbàak'qò	empty tent
kògok'qò	empty house

Do you use this suffix?

-wà

A suffix that refers to an especially important kind of something. With the first example below, among all of the trees (**ts'ì**), the main type is **ts'ìwà**, or white spruce.

ts'ìwà	white spruce
dzièwà, jìewà	blueberries
kwewà	granite

The meaning of this suffix isn't easy to pin down. Can you think of any other words with the same suffix?

-nɪɪ

A suffix for talking with respect about people who are no longer living. Sometimes this suffix is spelled as a separate word.

netà nɪɪ	your late father
sedè nɪɪ	my late sister
kw'atideè nɪɪ	the late chief
gaàgɪḡ Edì nɪɪ	our late friend Eddy

In all, we have made notes on 20 expressive suffixes, counting the 'big' and 'small' suffixes that we started with. This is not a complete list! Tɪɪchɔ̄ Yatì is very rich in expressive possibilities, and there is so much more to find out about.

Summary

The story by Verna Crapeau of the big tree near the river paints a beautiful picture of history, the ways of our elders, and traditional life. This story and others in this book show how using Tɪɪchɔ̄ Yatì lets us express our love of our culture and history and the places of our history and present-day life.

This chapter has explored some of the power for creating words using **wekwee whelaa** (prefixes) and **yatìḡ whelaa** (suffixes). We looked at just one prefix in this chapter, an important one: the **reciprocal**, which works to show that people are acting with each other together. The prefix connects with postpositions, as in the word **eɬexè**, meaning 'with each other', and with verbs, as in the word **eɬets'àgedi**, meaning 'they help each other'.

The first suffix we looked at, the **descriptive suffix**, is used in creating words that describe nouns, including people, places, and things. We also looked at a group of **expressive suffixes** that give depth, creativity, expressiveness, and strength to words and sentences.

By reading and learning about parts of Tɪɪchɔ̄ Yatì in all of the chapters of this book, we have gained important knowledge that will help with our spelling.



Dzɛ Taàt'è Dii Yatì T'à Ats'et'j • 104 Useful Words

1	sɔ	me	27	cheko tseko	young man, young person
2	nɔ	you	28	nezɔ	it's good
3	goxɔ, gaaxɔ	us	29	nàredii'è	store
4	naxɔ	you people	30	enɔht'èkò nɔht'èkò	school, office
5	ededɔ dedɔ	him, her, them	31	shètɔ sètɔ	he, she is eating
6	eyits'ò	and	32	hòt'è	he, she, it is
7	eyit'à	so	33	hagòht'è	so it is
8	ɔlè	it was	34	asii	something
9	nɔdè	if	35	mòhnaà wòhdaà	some
10	hanì	that way	36	edza	cold weather
11	while	there is none	37	gòkò	an area is warm
12	ekò	at that time	38	naetfe	he, she is walking
13	hanikò kanikò hanihò	but	39	goyii gozhii gozii	inside (the house)
14	hasèhdi	he, she told me	40	wek'è	on it
15	dii	this	41	wek'eè	after it
16	eyi	that, there	42	wek'èè	according to it
17	hɛɛɛ	yes	43	haehsɔ	I said so
18	ɔle	no	44	wek'èehsò wek'èehshò	I know it
19	t'à	because	45	nɔwò	he, she wants
20	ɔlè	one	46	-le, niile	not
21	hadì	he, she said so	47	xè	with
22	masi	thank you	48	sii	focusing marker
23	amèè amii	who?	49	sii	very
24	ayii	what?	50	ekòò	there
25	edjɔ adjɔ	where?	51	adzà ajà	it happened
26	dàtɔ	how many?	52	agòhdzà agòhjà	a situation happened

53	sechi, setsɪ	my younger brother	79	lanì làanì	like (it)
54	ehtsɪ	granny	80	wets'ɔ	his/hers, from him/her
55	ehtsèe	grandpa	81	wets'ò	to him
56	semòɔ	my aunt	82	wegha	for him
57	seʔeh	my uncle	83	gha	for
58	nàke	two	84	done dɔ	person, man
59	taɪ	three	85	ts'èko	woman
60	dɪ	four	86	t'eekeo	girl
61	sɪlàɪ	five	87	nɪwà gɔɔwà	it is far
62	ek'ètai, k'ètaa	six	88	sɔnàts'edè	play
63	ʔòhdɪ	seven	89	nàgots'eze nàgots'ezhe	play
64	ek'èdɪ, k'èdɪ	eight	90	semɔ	my mother
65	ʔòtɔ	nine	91	setà	my father
66	hoònɔ	ten	92	seba semba	my older sister
67	esanìle	it is okay	93	sɪnde	my older brother
68	dzɔ jɔ	here	94	sedè	my younger sister
69	dì	now	95	hoɪzɪ	it is good (situation)
70	dì	very, too much	96	netsà nechà	it is big
71	zɔ	only	97	dɪ	he, she said
72	setì	my daughter	98	at'ɪ	he, she, it is doing
73	seza sezha	my child, my son	99	hayele ha	he, she is going to do it
74	sèot'ɪ	my family	100	gode	she, he speaks
75	dàanìghɔ edàanìghɔ	why?	101	elɪ	she, he, it is
76	dàanì edàanì	how?	102	whela	they [things] are there
77	too, to	night	103	wheda	she, he, it [animal] is sitting
78	dzɛ	day	104	wheʔɔ	it is there

The words with shading are verbs. Many of these words have more than one good spelling, so don't be surprised if you see different spellings in your reading.

Glossary – Terms Used in this Book

This section gives a list of grammatical terms and other important words used in this book. Most definitions include examples. The chapters where the term is talked about is given at the end of the definition.

Adjective – A word that describes a **noun**. In Tłıchq Yatı̄ many descriptive words are **verbs** because they have **inflections** like verbs. Adjectives in Tłıchq Yatı̄ don't have inflections and they combine with a **verb** to make a complete sentence. *Example: eya, j̄jzha.*

Adverb – A word that gives more information about the verb's meaning or the event being described. It describes the action named by the verb or gives information about the time or place of the event. *Example: Hòt'ò shèetj.* Chapter 6, Chapter 7.

Adverbial clause – A type of **subordinate clause** that gives more information about the event being described. The clause has the function of an **adverb**. *Example: K'omqòdqò sadaera t'à s̄j̄nì whekò.* Chapter 12.

Adverbial phrase – A **phrase** that gives more information about the event being described. The phrase has the function of an **adverb**. *Example: Elà ȳj̄ ets'aeht̄a.* Chapter 12.

Adverbial prefix – A verb **prefix** that adds meaning to a verb to make the meaning more specific. This type of prefix is similar to adverbs. *Example: ets'aeht̄a, anats'edi, neèht̄a, k'ets'ebe.* Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Areal prefix – A **prefix** that is used when talking about an area, a space, or a situation. It is usually spelled **go-** or **ho-**. In some cases it is spelled **ke-** or **xe-**. It can be a prefix on postpositions, verbs, nouns, and some suffixes. *Example: Sqòmbak'è gots'ò, hok'èezq, nàgoèhdq, hojz̄j̄, xenats'edi, kò got'̄a, kògocho.* Chapter 14.

Aspect – A term used to talk about how actions and events unfold in time. Two aspects that are mentioned in this book are **indefinite aspect** and **completive aspect**. Chapter 13.

Auxiliary – A “verb helper” that comes after a verb to add information about the event's time or possibilities. *Example: Gixè nàhdè j̄lè.* Chapter 6, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Barred l – The **consonant** printed **ł**. This name is used because it is written with the bar across the letter **l**. Both **ł** and **l** are pronounced with air passing through the mouth on the sides of the tongue. Chapter 1, Chapter 5.

Bound stem – A **stem/yatikwì** that is never used except as part of a larger word or phrase. Another term is **linked stem**. The opposite is **free stem**. Rare in English, bound stems are very common in Tłjchq Yatì. All verb stems in Tłjchq Yatì are bound stems. (There is one exception, the verb **di**, meaning ‘he or she says’!) Yatikwì **tà** in the word **setà** (meaning ‘my father’) is a bound stem because it never appears as a word by itself. *Examples of bound stems are underlined in these words: getse, ts’ijl, sedaà, weghò, wek’èts’eezò, k’ets’ege.* Chapter 5, Chapter 9, Chapter 11.

Clause – A term for a **sentence**, especially when it is part of a bigger sentence. Just like a sentence, a clause almost always includes a **verb**. Types of clauses include **adverbial clauses**, **relative clauses**, and **subordinate clauses**. In the example, there are two clauses, and they both have their own verb. *Example: Lìgawhìtqò ejj njdè, hòt’a radzà ne.* Chapter 12, Chapter 14.

Click – A term for the symbol ‘ used to spell **consonant** sounds made with stoppage of air at the **voicebox** and one other place, for example **kw’**, or **t’**. It is also called **glottal** or **wewèk’è**. Chapter 1, Chapter 3.

Completive aspect – A term for describing actions or events that have a completion. Compare **indefinite aspect**. **Verbs** or **sentences** can be described with this term. *Examples: ts’ehstj, ts’eedè, nàts’ezè, nìts’ele.* Chapter 13.

Compound word – A word made up of two or more **stems/yatikwì**, plus the needed **prefixes** and **suffixes**. *Examples: lìgawhìtqò, tłeht’oò, Behchokò, satsòke.* Chapter 8, Chapter 9.

Conjunction – A word that links one part of a sentence to another part that comes before or after. In English the words **and** and **or** are conjunctions. In the examples the conjunctions are underlined. *Example: njdè; hanìhò; ehstj eyts’ò ehstèè; nàregeeli xè goxègogendo.* Chapter 12.

Consonant – A consonant is a single distinctive sound of language made with some type of blockage of air as it comes out from the lungs. *Examples: b, ch, gh, k’, t, s, ts, y, z.* Chapter 1, Chapter 3, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 11.

Contraction – A shortening of a word so it has fewer sounds in it. An example in English is **isn’t** and in Tłjchq Yatì saa nezj or wek’ègdì, short for *segħa nezì* and *wek’ènedì*. Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Dè gojì – The names of places on the land. They are called ‘placenames’ in English. **Dè gojì** are **nouns** in grammar. *Examples: T’èrehdaà, Whatì, Dèlìì, Dètajhtòò, Xàèlìì, Wekweèti.* Chapter 8, Chapter 14.

Descriptive suffix – A suffix that makes words describing nouns. The suffix copies the last vowel (but not the tone) of a verb, verb phrase, or sentence to make a “dragged” vowel. It makes nouns (for example, *wek’òò*), compound words (for example, *nàèdik’èezhòò*), place terms (for example, *asìi dehshee k’è*), and **relative clauses**. Chapter 8, Chapter 14.

Dialect – Different language patterns used in different places, for example how the English language is used in Canada or in New York City, or other areas. Dialects are found in all languages, including Tìchò Yatì. Dialects can also be defined by different ages of people or by different family groups. Chapter 2, Chapter 7, Chapter 8, Chapter 11, Chapter 12, Chapter 14.

“Dragged” vowel – A **vowel** that is held (or dragged) and pronounced for a longer time than a plain vowel. It is spelled with a double letter. It is also called a **long lowel**. *Examples: dii, ts’eedzi, laa, wekw’òò, goyatì, t’akwelòò.* Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 11.

Dual – A term that means ‘related to two things (exactly two, not more or less)’. This English word is related to the word ‘duet’. Some **verbs**, **verb stems**, or **prefixes** are always dual. With nouns, if the things come in pairs, like eyes, legs, socks, or shoes, we can talk about one of them by using the noun stem *-k’èè*, as in *segòò k’èè* ‘one of my arms’. In verbs, compare **singular** and **plural**. *Examples: sèahìì, sègetì, eghàladiida, dataahtì, kòta k’èget’à.* Chapter 5, Chapter 11.

Expressive suffix – A **suffix** with an expressive meaning. Examples are the suffixes meaning ‘big’ and ‘small’, and others with meanings relating to how an object looks. In the examples the suffixes are underlined. *Examples: Dehcho, bebia, zhahgwia, kegòò.* Chapter 14.

Family of consonants – A set of five consonants that are all made with the mouth in a similar shape. The *t* family includes *t*, *l*, *dl*, *tʰ* and *tʰ’*. Chapter 5, Chapter 6, Chapter 12.

First person – A term that relates to whoever is speaking, for example ‘me’ or ‘us’. Compare **second person** and **third person**. The examples are first person pronouns or verbs. *Examples: sì, goxì, whìhtsì, nàdìitso, weghàts’ììdà.* Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Free stem – A **stem** or **yatikwì** that can stand alone as a word. This term is the opposite of **bound stem** or **linked stem**.
Examples: dlòò, kwe, tɔ, ladà. Chapter 9.

Future tense – The term used for actions that are going to happen. Compare **past tense** and **present tense**. In Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì the auxiliary **ha** is usually used to express the future tense. This word is spelled **ha**, but it usually sounds like it is part of the verb that comes before, and sometimes the **h** is not pronounced.
Examples: Xok'e agode ha. Jdaà gonàowoò gitò ha. Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Glottal – The symbol ɾ, also called **click** or **weweèk'è**. This **consonant** sound is made with stoppage of air at the voicebox.
Examples: ɾeh, ɾoo, ts'erj, goròò, nàreeli, t'àreh. Chapter 1, Chapter 6.

Grammar – The whole set of patterns for relating sounds and meanings in language. **Nouns** and **verbs**, **consonants** and **vowels** are part of our understanding of grammar. Knowing grammar helps us with spelling, so there is a lot of grammar in this book. Chapter 3, Chapter 9, Chapter 12.

Head of a word – The **stem** that expresses the type of object or event being named in a **compound word** or a word with prefixes or suffixes. An example is the stem **ts'ò** in **chohts'ò**. The term **yatikwì** is used in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì. In the examples the heads of the words are underlined. *Examples: eyechj, Nàkedzèè, k'elà.* Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Imperfective – The term used when talking about **verbs**, for an action that is not completed. Sometimes the term **present tense** is used. The opposite is **perfective**. For the examples here, compare the perfective verbs under the definition of 'perfective'.
Examples: nehtsj, ts'ejj, sek'èdi, eghàlajda. Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 13.

Imperfective paradigm – The **verb paradigm** expressing **imperfective** actions. *Examples: ehtsj, nehtsj, diihtsj, ts'ehtsj, ahtsj, gehtsj.* Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Indefinite aspect – A term for describing actions or events that can continue on with no end. Compare **completive aspect**. **Verbs** or **sentences** can be described with this term. *Examples: ts'ejj, k'ets'etlo, weghàts'eeda, nànts'edè.* Chapter 13.

Inflection prefix – A type of **wekwee wheʔoʔo/prefix** that fills in information about who is involved in an event or the timing of the event. In the examples, the verbs are the same except for the inflection prefixes. *Examples: nehtsj, ts'ehhtsj, ahtsj, gehhtsj, whehtsj.* Chapter 4, Chapter 5, Chapter 7, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 13.

Linked stem – A **stem/yatikwi** that is never used except as part of a larger word or phrase. Another term is **bound stem**. The opposite is **free stem**. Rare in English, bound stems are very common in Tłjchq Yatì. All verb stems in Tłjchq Yatì are bound stems. (There is one exception – the word **di** meaning ‘he or she says or said’!) The stem **ghòò** in the word **seghòò** (meaning ‘my teeth’) is a bound stem because it never appears as a word by itself. Chapter 5, Chapter 9, Chapter 11.

Literacy – Reading and writing in a language. Literacy includes reading, the types of letters used in reading and writing, spelling, patterns of spelling, and styles of writing. Introduction, Chapter 2, Chapter 8, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Long vowel – A **vowel** that is held (or dragged) and pronounced for a longer time than a plain vowel. It is spelled with a double letter. It is also called a “**dragged**” **vowel**. *Examples: dii, ts'eedzj, laa, t'akwelòò.* Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 11.

Manner adverb – An **adverb** (or adverbial phrase) that tells **how** an event takes place. *Examples: ts'èwhjā, jhłjł, ts'atà, nezjł.* Chapter 6.

Nasal consonant – In Tłjchq Yatì the nasal consonants are **m** and **n**, and **mb** and **nd**. These are pronounced so that air comes out from the lungs through the nose. At the same time, the passage through the mouth is closed off. *Examples: nj, mj, nàeda, naèhmj, masì, dàneḡewo.* Chapter 4, Chapter 7, Chapter 8, Chapter 11.

Nasal hook – A term for the symbol written under the vowel in nasal vowels. It is called **wjghòà** in Tłjchq Yatì. *Examples: sj, tq, łàà, jxèḡ.* Chapter 4.

Nasal vowel – **Vowels** pronounced so that the air comes through the nose and mouth. In Tłjchq Yatì spelling they are written with a small mark under the vowel. This symbol is termed **wjghòà**. In English it is called the **nasal hook**. *Examples: dzḡ, hjwhāà, kò, dj, zḡ, neḡewo, wjghòà, tq.* Chapter 4, Chapter 7, Chapter 8, Chapter 11.

Noun – Nouns are words naming things, people, places, including abstract things. This word can be said in Tłıchq Yatı̀ as **wet’á ts’ı̀zı̀ yatı̀**. Nouns or noun phrases can be the **subject** or **object** in a sentence. Nouns can be counted (for example, *nıhtł’è tai, sadzeè ı̀lè*). *Examples: ts’èko, too, nıhtł’èwò, nıhtł’èk’et’aa, weghq sèts’ezee, sah, nageà, shı, yatı*. Chapter 3, Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Noun paradigm – A set of words made by combining a **noun stem** with different **prefixes** expressing who the thing belongs to. The paradigm for **kwe** ‘rock’ includes the words **sekweè, gokweè**, and others. *Example: sedè, nedè, wedè, godè, naxıdè, gidè*. Chapter 4, Chapter 9.

Noun phrase – A **phrase** or group of words that works together to identify a person, place, thing, or abstract thing. *Examples: ts’ı̀ nechàa nàıraa sı, ası nezıı, Bay Island ts’edıı dıı, webebia ı̀lèà wegòhtı-lee sı, dq ı̀q*. Chapter 12.

Noun stem – **Yatikwı̀** or **stem** that the **noun** or **noun paradigm** is built on. In the following examples the noun stem is underlined. With **free stems**, the whole word is the noun stem. *Examples: tıı, zıh, sesqòmbaà, gobehchıı, neyatıı, naxıqò*. Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Object – In a sentence, the thing that is affected by the action expressed by the verb. The object can be **wet’á ts’ı̀zı̀ yatı̀/noun** or **noun phrase**, or an **object prefix**, or both. In the examples the object of the sentence is underlined. *Examples: Semq selà daachi. Ts’et’ı̀ deı ı̀lè. Naneehchı ha. Hawèıdı*. Chapter 12.

Object paradigm – A set of related verbs where only the **object prefix** is different in each one. In the examples the object prefix is underlined. *Examples: hawèehsı, hanèehsı, hagıehsı, hanaxèehsı*. Chapter 12.

Object prefix – An **inflection prefix** expressing who or what the **object** of the verb is. If the object is not expressed as **wet’á ts’ı̀zı̀ yatı̀** or a **noun phrase**, it can be expressed by a prefix in the verb word. In the examples the object prefix is underlined. *Examples: hawèehsı, sek’èdı, nèts’ııhwhq, goxègogedo*. Chapter 12.

Oral vowel – A **vowel** pronounce with air flowing through the mouth only. Another term is **plain vowel**. The opposite of **nasal vowel**. *Examples: Whatı, sadeè, la, ehtsèe, ı, whaà, t’ıh, ezeh*. Chapter 4.

Parts of speech – The term for types of words, including **wet'à ts'ìizì yatì (noun)**, **wet'à dàgot'j yatì (verb)**, **adverb**, **postposition**, and more. Parts of speech are classes of words that are similar in meaning and grammar. Chapter 3, Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 12.

Past tense – The term for an action that happened before now. Sometimes the term **perfective** is used. Compare **present tense** and **future tense**. The past tense in Tłjchq Yatì can be expressed by the auxiliary **jlè**, also pronounced as **-lè** or **-lè**. *Example: Elà kwe k'e ajà. Hòt'ò sèts'aze jlè. Cheko wit'aà gígòhtj jlè.* Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Perfective – The term used for an action that is completed. Sometimes the term **past tense** is used. The opposite is **imperfective**. For the examples here, compare the imperfective verbs under the definition of 'imperfective'. *Examples: whèèhtsj, ts'ajj, sek'èjdi, eghàlaneedà.* Chapter 10, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Perfective paradigm – The **verb paradigm** expressing **perfective** actions. *Examples: whihtsj, whèèhtsj, yèhtsj, diihtsj, ts'ehtsj, whahtsj, gèhtsj.* Chapter 10, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Perfective prefix – An **inflection prefix** for forming **perfective verbs**. We can identify perfective prefixes by comparing imperfective and perfective verbs. For example, imperfective **ts'ejj** 'we are singing' and perfective **ts'ajj** 'we sang'. The vowel **a** in this verb lets us know it is a completed action. Chapter 10, Chapter 13.

Phrase – A group of words that works together in a sentence. In this sentence, a **noun phrase** is underlined: *Asì hazqò gha masì nèt's'jhwq.* In this sentence, two **postposition phrases** are underlined: *Setsj elàzhaa t'à sexè jìe gha dèhʀe.* In this sentence, a **verb phrase** is underlined: *Hazqò dq yahtikò ts'ò ts'eède.* Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 12.

Pitch of the voice – In languages and in music, **vowels** can be pronounced on higher or lower notes (higher or lower pitch) according to the tune of a song or the tune of a **syllable**. In Tłjchq Yatì spelling, vowels with lower pitch are spelled with the symbol ` , called **wets'aà**. This symbol is also called a **tone mark**. *Examples: gòkò, tèt'è, jle, jlè.* Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 9.

Place adverb – An **adverb** (or adverb phrase) that tells where an event takes place. *Examples: jç, ekqò, mòht'à, jdoò, wet'a, gomqò, jkwèè.* Chapter 6, Chapter 7.

Placename – The name of a place or area. In Tɔ̀chọ̀ Yatii they are called **dè gojì**. Placenames are **nouns/wet’à ts’ìzì yatii** in grammar. *Examples: Sọ̀mbak’è, Nọ̀dii, Hàèlɔ̀, Sahti, Wiiledeè, Gots’okàti, Behchokò, Whati, Tɔ̀keèdeè.* Chapter 8.

Plain vowel – A **vowel** pronounced with air flowing through the mouth only. Another term is **oral vowel**. The opposite of **nasal vowel**. *Examples: Whati, sadeè, la, ehtsèè, to, whaa, t’ih, ezeh.* Chapter 4.

Plural – A term that means ‘related to more than one or two things’. Some **verbs, verb stems, or inflection prefixes** are always plural. Compare **singular** and **dual**. In the examples of verbs that come next, all of them relate to plural subjects. *Examples: gogede, weghonits’eètọ̀, naahde, sọ̀nadè.* Chapter 5, Chapter 11.

Possessed noun – A **noun** described by mentioning the person or thing that owns it or that is associated with it. **Sebehchij** is an example. The vehicle is being identified as mine. *Examples: gotà, njnde, gimọ̀, wedzẹ̀, wet’i, selbòò, naxisọ̀mbaa, gonè.* Chapter 9.

Possessed noun suffix – A **suffix** on possessed nouns. Usually this suffix is a copy of the vowel of the **stem**, with **wets’aà**, low tone. In **sedaèhteè** (meaning ‘my bed’), the underlined vowel is the suffix. *Examples: wet’i, selbòò, naxisọ̀mbaa, gonàowoò.* Chapter 9.

Postposition – A type of word that expresses the relationship between things, for example **wek’e** (meaning ‘on it’) or **wegha** (meaning ‘for him, her, them or it’). Postpositions come after a **noun** or **noun phrase** to make a **postposition phrase**. Or, the postposition can have a **prefix** to express the relationship. In the examples the postposition is underlined. *Examples: wede, sets’ò, wek’èè, diidzẹ̀ k’e, ehtsɔ̀ eyits’ọ̀ ehtsèè gixè, nọ̀hbàa yi, gonè gots’ọ̀, gikwì mọ̀.* Chapter 7.

Postposition paradigm – The set of **postpositions** that mean the same thing except for the person or thing in the relationship expressed by the postposition. *Examples: sexè, nexè, wexè, goxè, naxixè, gixè, elexè.* Chapter 7.

Postposition phrase – A **phrase** or group of words built up from a postposition. The phrase works together to express a relationship in the sentence. *Examples: diidzẹ̀ k’e, ehtsɔ̀ eyits’ọ̀ ehtsèè gixè, nọ̀hbàa yi, t’asii k’èxa, gonè gots’ọ̀, gikwì mọ̀.* Chapter 7, Chapter 12.

Predicate – The action of a sentence, often what the **subject** of the **sentence** is doing. Most predicates include **wet'à dàgot'jɿ yatì**. The predicate combines with the subject to make a complete sentence. When the subject is understood from the **subject prefix**, the whole sentence could be the predicate. In the example sentences, the predicate is underlined. *Example: Sechi Yamoògaà sazɿ nèk'e ts'ò adzà jlè. Sezha ɿtaà gete. Gonàowò gogha wet'àarà. Sɿ t'aa nàgoehde.* Chapter 12.

Prefix – A meaningful part of a **word** before the **stem/yatikwi**. The words **wekwee wheʔoʔ** (singular) and **wekwee whelaa** (plural) are also used. This is one of the most important terms in grammar for Tɿɿchɿ Yatì. In the word **sekò** (meaning 'my house'), the prefix **se-** (meaning 'my') is attached to the stem **kò** (meaning 'house'). With many verbs, there are a few prefixes before the stem. In the examples here the prefixes are underlined. *Examples: gete, gogha, nezha, adzà, hawèehsɿ, naxàèhko, goʔphdaà, goxègogedo.* Chapter 4, Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Present tense – The term for an action that is happening now. Compare **past tense** and **future tense**. Often the same verb expresses the present tense or imperfective. In the examples the present tense verbs are underlined. *Examples: Sèot'ɿ amì agɿt'e? Masi naxèehwhɿ. Nezɿ nàreelɿ. Done hazhò etets'àdi.* Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Pronoun – A word with a meaning like 'I', 'you', 'they', 'us', etc. Here are examples of Tɿɿchɿ Yatì pronouns: *sɿ, nɿ, ededɿ, goxɿ, naxɿ, kɿ*. The meanings of pronouns are given in the pronouns themselves or in **possessed noun prefixes**, **subject prefixes**, and **object prefixes**. Chapter 4, Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12.

Reciprocal – **Wekwee wheʔoʔ** used with **postpositions**, **verbs**, and **nouns**, and also found in some **adverbs**. It is spelled **ete-**, **te-**, or **eh-**, depending on people's choices. As a prefix it is usually translated as 'each other' or 'one another'. 'Reciprocal' means going back and forth between people or things. The example words all include that kind of meaning. The prefix is underlined. *Examples: eteta, etexè, tets'ò, ehs'àts'edi, etexègogendo, etedèke, eteàgɿɿ.* Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Reflexive – **Wekwee wheʔoʔ** used with **postpositions**, **verbs**, and **nouns**. It is spelled **ede-** or **de-** and it is used when relating a person or thing and itself. A good example is the verb *edexoneehdi*, when you are telling someone 'look after yourself!'. *Examples: Detà gà wheda. Edegha agele ha.* Chapter 7.

Relative clause – A clause (sentence) used to describe a noun. An example from Verna’s story in Chapter 14 is *ts’i nechàa*, meaning ‘the spruce that is big’ or ‘the big spruce’. The relative clause comes after the noun and it ends with the **descriptive suffix**. Another example, from Nora’s recipe for *lèt’èhtlòà*, is *eyè aatìi*, meaning ‘an egg that has been beaten’.

Second person – A term that relates to whoever is listening, for example ‘you’ or ‘you people’. Compare **first person** and **third person**. The examples are second person **pronouns** or **verbs**. *Examples: nj, naxj, whẹẹhtsj, nànetso, weghàahda*. Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12.

Sentence – The expression of a complete thought, including the thing that is being talked about (the **subject**) and what is said about it (the **predicate**). *Examples: Done hazhòè elets’adi. T’akwe setsèe eyits’ò setsj gixè nàihdè jlè. Eyè kw’à nechà-lea yì ahtì. Sj nàà ajà*. Chapter 3, Chapter 12.

Singular – A term that means ‘related to one thing (and not more than one thing)’. This English word is related to the word ‘single’. Some **verbs**, **verb stems**, or **prefixes** are always singular. Compare **dual** and **plural**. The examples are all **wet’à dàgot’j j yatìi**. *Examples: wheda, whetj, k’ego, sèetj, sònàawo, ehdzj*, Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Soft palate – The back part of the roof of the mouth. It is made out of muscles, not bone. The soft palate comes down when we pronounce **nasal consonants** and **nasal vowels** and when we breathe through the nose. Chapter 4, Chapter 6, Chapter 8, Chapter 11.

Stem – The part of a **word** that **prefixes** or **suffixes** are attached to. In Tjchq Yatìi, **yatikwì** can be used too. **Wet’à ts’iizì yatìi**, **wet’à dàgot’j j yatìi**, **postpositions**, and **adverbs** all have stems. In the noun **bògò**, (meaning ‘dry meat’) the suffix **-gò** (meaning ‘dry’) is added to the stem **bò** (meaning ‘meat’). In the examples here the stem is underlined. *Examples: k’eeht’j, naette, edlàjwhàcho, eghàlageeda, weghàhoèwoo, nechà-le, gonàowoò, kw’àyjā, gots’ò, wek’e*. Chapter 4, Chapter 5, Chapter 8, Chapter 10, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Subject – The term for the doer of the action. It combines with the **predicate** to make a complete **sentence**. Usually a sentence is about what the subject is doing. In Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì each sentence has a subject and each verb has a **subject prefix** expressing who the subject is. In the examples the subject is underlined.

Examples: Done hazhòò etets'àdi. Sezha jtaà gete. K'omòòdòò sadaera t'à sɔ̀nì whekò. "Kwe ka nɛ̀ɛ̀wò", dɔ̀zhìì hasèhdi.

Chapter 5, Chapter 12.

Subject prefix – The **inflection prefix** inside a **verb/wet'à dàgot'ɔ̀ yatì** telling who is doing the action. In the examples the subject prefix is underlined. *Examples: geɔ̀j, aht'è, nits'ɔ̀ɔ̀e, eyaehɔ̀, eghàlageeda, nehtsɔ̀, hawìdi, wek'adaihwho, sèdiitɔ̀.*

Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12.

Subjective adverb – An **adverb** (or phrase) expressing what the speaker himself or herself thinks about the action or event.

Examples: Edahxò yets'àreedì ha. Dàhsòò tɔ̀lì k'e naette nòò.

Chapter 6.

Subordinate clause – A smaller **clause** or **sentence** inside a larger one. Some subordinate clauses act like **adverbial phrases** to describe the event, and others express what someone said, thought, or did. Others are **relative clauses**. In the examples the subordinate clause is underlined. *Examples: Tteht'oò ette zò t'à dedì. Webàa whegò nɔ̀dè ets'aahk'a. Nezɔ̀ eghàlagɔ̀dà t'à gighò nàtì niile. Gɔ̀wàa nàgedè kò gixageehà, Semò John goxè adzà k'èezò.* Chapter 12.

Suffix – A meaningful part of a word after the **stem**. The words for this concept in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì are **yatìlò wheɔ̀ɔ̀** (singular) and **yatìlò whelaa** (plural). We find suffixes on **nouns/wet'à ts'ìzìì yatì**, **verbs/wet'à dàgot'ɔ̀ yatì**, **postpositions**, **adverbs**, and other parts of speech. In the word **nàhsɔ̀ndeè** (meaning 'great feast'), the suffix **-ndeè** (meaning 'great') is attached to **nàhsɔ̀** (meaning 'feast'). Some suffixes copy the vowel of the stem, for example the **descriptive suffix -a** on the word **nechàa** (meaning 'the one that is big'). It is possible for a word to include more than one suffix. In the examples the suffixes are underlined. *Examples: tɔ̀-le, wedòò, nàzèe, libòà, wet'ìi, elàzhaa, elàk'è, nezɔ̀cho-le.* Chapter 4, Chapter 6, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Suffix for places – **Yatìlò wheɔ̀ɔ̀ -k'è** that is used in words naming places or sites for specific purposes. The suffix is underlined in the examples. *Examples: elàk'è, m̀hkh'è, k'ets'ebee k'è, nɔ̀ht'èet'aa k'è Sòòmbak'è.* Chapter 8.

Syllable – A group of sounds in a language. A syllable has a **vowel** in it and any **consonants** that come before or after. In poems and songs, syllables carry the beats of the rhythm, and in Tłjchq Yatì story-telling syllables can be stretched out for special effects in the story. In the examples, the number of syllables in the word is written after the word. *Examples: tłj – 1, Tłjchq – 2, eyaelj – 4, SeNòhtsjj – 3, esàgodl-le – 5.* Chapter 9, Chapter 11, Chapter 14.

Third person – A term that relates to whoever is not speaking or listening, for example ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’ or ‘them’. Compare **first person** and **second person**. The examples are third person pronouns or verbs. *Examples: ededj, gièhtsj, nàtso, goghàgjjdà.* Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Time adverb – An **adverb** (or phrase) that tells when or how often an event takes place. *Examples: jxèq, jtaà, jdaà, jmbè k’e, dzq taat’e, t’akwe whaà, eyi t’axqò, Edàidzqè ts’ò.* Chapter 6.

Tone – The **pitch** on **vowels** or **syllables**. In Tłjchq Yatì the low tone is shown with ` on top of a vowel symbol, called the tone mark or **wets’aà**. Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 9.

Tone mark – The symbol ` , also called **wets’aà**. It is used in Tłjchq Yatì spelling to mark vowels with lower pitch. In the examples here, all of the vowels have the tone mark. *Examples: tsà, tè, kò, dii, dèti, hòt’ò, gòkò, nàzè.* Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 9.

Understood object – An **object** understood from the **object prefix** in the verb, without the need for an object noun or noun phrase. In the examples the object prefix is underlined. *Examples: Setì yehtsj. Masi nèts’jjhwhq. Dq hasèhdi. Wek’èehsq.* Chapter 12.

Understood subject – A **subject** understood in a sentence from the **subject prefix** in the verb, without the need for a subject noun or noun phrase. In the examples the subject prefix is underlined, if there is one. *Examples: Wek’èehsq. Wegha asii neht’è. Bebia ts’àdi. Eladjj ats’ede ha.* Chapter 12.

Verb – A word that names an action, event, state of being or knowing, or a situation. We can use the word **wet’à dàgot’jj yatì** in Tłjchq Yatì. Almost every **clause** or **sentence** has a verb in it as part of the **predicate**. In the example sentences the verbs are underlined. *Examples: Done hazhqò ełets’adi. T’akwe setsèe eyits’q setsj gixè nàihdè jlè. K’omqòdqò sadaera t’à sjni whékò. Ts’èko tq goyèhkw’e.* Chapter 3, Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Verb helper – This is another term for **auxiliary**. A “verb helper” is a word that comes after a **verb/wet’à dàgot’ù yatì** to add information about the event’s timing or possibilities. Chapter 6, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Verb paradigm – The set of **wet’à dàgot’ù yatì/verbs** that mean exactly the same thing except for who is doing the action. The words are the same except for the **subject prefix**. Verb paradigms are similar to **noun paradigms** because the words are the same, but the person or people involved changes. The examples are from the same verb paradigm for the verb meaning ‘talk’. *Examples: gohde, gòde, gode, gots’ede, godiide, gowide, goahde, gogede.* Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11.

Verb phrase – A **phrase** that describes an action, event, state of being or knowing, or a situation. The verb phrase is the **predicate** of almost every **clause** or **sentence**. When there is an **understood subject**, the verb phrase can be the entire sentence. In the examples the verb phrases are underlined. *Examples: Setà hanì yet’aat’j. Goxj naxigà ts’eèhkw’e ha. Nets’ò gohde. Nedèa nezjì nàreeli.* Chapter 12.

Verb stem – The **stem/yatikwì** that the **verb** or **verb paradigm** is built on, with added **prefixes** and **suffixes**. The verb stem carries the main meaning about the type of action. It comes at the end of the verb word. In each example the verb stem is underlined. *Examples: gots’ede, whekò, goyièhkw’e, etets’adi, ezeh, ts’ehtsj, nàreeli, geède.* Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 13.

Vocal cords – The term for the two muscles that we can vibrate or stop in the **voicebox**. The **vowel** sounds **a, e, i, and o**, and also the **consonants l, z, zh, gh, w, y, m, and n** are made with the vocal cords vibrating. In the consonants **ʔ, t’, tʃ’, ts’, ch’, k’, and kw’** the vocal cords stop the sound for an instant. Depending on how tight or relaxed the vocal cords are, the **pitch** of the sounds is changed higher or lower. Chapter 5, Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 11.

Voicebox – The part of our throat that we use in making sounds, around the area of the Adam’s apple. It is called **weweèk’è** in Tłıchq Yatì. The muscles in the voicebox can be vibrated or stopped. This area is very important for both **vowels** and **consonants**. Chapter 3, Chapter 5, Chapter 6, Chapter 7.

Vowel – A vowel is a sound of language that is made so that air flows freely out through the mouth. The four vowel in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì are **a**, **e**, **i**, and **o**. In Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì vowels can be pronounced with air flowing through the mouth only (**plain vowel**), or through both the nose and mouth (**nasal vowel**). They may be pronounced with a higher or lower **pitch**. See also the discussion of **long** (or “dragged”) **vowels**. Each **syllable** is built around a vowel. *Examples: ladà, ts’ete, giihdi, gobò.* Chapter 1, Chapter 3, Chapter 4, Chapter 6, Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Wekwee wheʔoʔo – A meaningful part of a **word** before **yatikwì** (also known as a **prefix**). The word means ‘something that is before it’. In the word **nemɔ**, **ne-** is **wekwee wheʔoʔo** and **-mɔ** is **yatikwì**. This is one of the most important terms in grammar because of how many options there are when we choose **wekwee wheʔoʔo**. With many verbs, there are a few **wekwee whelaa** before **yatikwì**. The opposite is **yatilɔ wheʔoʔo** (**suffix**). In the examples **wekwee whelaa** are underlined. *Examples: gete, ts’ete, wek’èts’eezhɔ, wenaahndi, semɔ, gimɔ, wekwee, gots’o.* Chapter 4, Chapter 7, Chapter 9, Chapter 10, Chapter 11, Chapter 12, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Wekwee whelaa – The plural of **wekwee wheʔoʔo**. The opposite is **yatilɔ whelaa**. The term means ‘things that are before it’.

Wet’à dàgot’ɔ̀ yatì – Words that describe actions, states of being or knowing, events, and situations. This word means ‘word for what is happening’ and can be translated as **verb** in English. Almost every **clause** or **sentence** has **wet’à dàgot’ɔ̀ yatì** in it as part of the **predicate**. In the example sentences, **wet’à dàgot’ɔ̀ yatì** are underlined. *Examples: Done hazhɔ̀ etets’adi. T’akwe setsèe eyits’o setsɔ̀ gixè nàihdè ɔ̀lè. K’omɔ̀dɔ̀dɔ̀ sadaera t’à sɔ̀ni whékò. Ts’èko ɔ̀ goyièhkw’e.* Chapter 3, Chapter 5, Chapter 10, Chapter 12, Chapter 13.

Wet’à ts’iizì yatì – Words that name things, people, and places, including abstract things. This word means ‘word for naming’ and can be translated as **noun** in English. Most things called **wet’à ts’iizì yatì** can be counted (for example, *ts’èko nàke, nàowo hoònɔ*), and they can be the **subject** or **object** of **wet’à dàgot’ɔ̀ yatì/verbs**. *Examples: ts’èko, too, nɔ̀htf’èwò, nɔ̀htf’èk’et’aa, weghɔ̀ sèts’ezee, sah, nageà, shɔ̀, yati.* Chapter 3, Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Wets’aa – The symbol ` , also called tone mark. The term means ‘its hat’ in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì. It is used in Tɔ̀chɔ̀ Yatì spelling to show a **vowel** with lower **pitch**. *Examples: ladà, wets’aa, dèhtf’è, dìga, fih, gòk’ò.* Chapter 1, Chapter 6, Chapter 9.

Weweèk'è – The part of our throat called the **voicebox** in English. The word is also the name for a **consonant** sound made by a stoppage of air in the voicebox. If this is the only stoppage of air the sound is written as ʔ. This symbol is sometimes called **glottal**. If the air is stopped in two places during the pronunciation of a consonant the symbol ' is used, for example **k'** or **tʔ'**. The apostrophe is sometimes called **click**. Chapter 3, Chapter 6.

Wɪghòḗ – The term for the symbol under vowels, for example in ɪ, written to show a **nasal vowel**. The term means 'its little nose' in Tɪchḡ Yatì. *Examples: sɪ, goxɪ, detsɪ, tḡ, gomḡ, hḡḡḡ, tḡḡ, ɪxḡḡ, ɪt'ḡḡ, tḡḡ.* Chapter 1, Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 11.

Word – The basic building blocks of **sentences**. A word has a meaning in itself. A word can be said alone, but **wekwee whelaa** (**prefixes**) and **yatìḡ whelaa** (**suffixes**) can't be. Words belong to different **parts of speech**, for example **wet'à ts'ìzì yatì**, **wet'à dàgḡ'ɪ yatì**, **postposition**, **adverb**, etc. An important step in understanding a sentence is to separate the words apart. Sometimes people don't agree about how the words in a sentence are divided, for example **shouldn't** in English. Chapter 3, Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 12, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Yatì – This word translates 'word' or 'language'. With the **possessed noun suffix** it has a "dragged" vowel, **yatì**, as in *seyatì, goyatì, naxiyatì, wet'à dàgḡ'ɪ yatì*.

Yatìkwì – The **stem** that defines the type of object or event being named in a **compound word** or a word with **prefixes** or **suffixes**. This term translates as 'the word's head' in Tɪchḡ Yatì. In the compound word *nazhats'ah*, **yatìkwì** is *ts'ah*. It is called the **head of the word** in English. In the examples yatìkwì is underlined. *Examples: tehkwì, dzèḡht'è, Yahtità, gochèkw'ḡḡ, kw'it'èè, Dehcho, sedzeè, k'ets'ede, gonàowò, welibàà.* Chapter 4, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 14.

Yatılọ wheṛṛṛ – A meaningful part of a **word** after **yatikwì** (also known as a **suffix**). The term means ‘something that is at the end of the word’. In the word *dehcho*, *deh* is **yatikwì** and *-cho* is **yatılọ wheṛṛṛ**. We find **yatılọ whelaa** on **wet’à ts’iizii yatii**, **wet’à dàgot’j̄j yatii**, **postpositions**, **adverbs**, and other parts of speech. The opposite is **wekwee wheṛṛṛ** (**prefix**). Sometimes, **yatılọ wheṛṛṛ** is a copy of the vowel of the stem, for example the **descriptive suffix** *-a* on the word *nechàà* (meaning ‘the one that is big’). It is possible for a word to include two or more yatılọ whelaa. In the examples they are underlined. *Examples: t̄ṛ-le, wedṛṛ, nàzèè, libòa, wet’i, elàzhaa, elàk’è, t̄èt’ègwia, nezcho-le*. Chapter 4, Chapter 6, Chapter 8, Chapter 9, Chapter 13, Chapter 14.

Yatılọ whelaa – The plural of **yatılọ wheṛṛṛ**. The opposite is **wekwee whelaa**. The term means ‘things that are at the end of the word’.



• ṭ̀chọ yatì woòhkw'ọọ segha neẓ • ̀exègots'ıdo •