

A DESCRIPTION OF PREVERB AND PARTICLE USAGE IN  
INNU-AIMÛN NARRATIVE

by

©Jane Bannister

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## *ABSTRACT*

Sentences with multiple preverbs and/or particles are examined in this thesis. The data sentences were collected from the first 18 stories of the Labrador Innu Text Project. Chapter 1 is an introduction to Innu-aimun grammar, with sections on previous research into word ordering, especially preverb ordering. Chapter 2 describes the patterning, use and co-occurrence of the ten most common preverbs in the data sentences. Preverbs are subdivided into modal preverbs, temporal preverbs, aspectual preverbs and other preverbs. Chapter 3 discusses 28 common particles in the data. These particles are also divided into smaller groups, including complementizers, focus particles, negative particles, adverbs, temporal and aspectual particles, particles of speaker opinion and particles with changed forms. Both chapters 2 and 3 include discussion of regular patterns of ordering of preverbs or particles. Chapter 4 is an analysis of the use of the independent or conjunct orders following negative particles. Optimality Theory is used to explain Innu data, and sentences are analyzed based on Brittain (2001, 1997). A general thesis conclusion ends chapter 4.

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*ABBREVIATIONS*

p = particle	CIN = conjunct independent neutral
p.intrg = interrogative particle	IIN = indicative independent neutral
p.neg = negative particle	IIP = indicative independent preterite
p.comp = complementizer	IIN.P = indicative independent neutral perceptive
prv = preverb	dup = reduplicated
dem = demonstrative	ic = initial change, the change of the first vowel in a verb stem or in a compound verb
VAI = animate intransitive verb	inv = inverse
VTA = transitive animate verb	NA =animate noun
VII = inanimate intransitive verb	NI = inanimate noun
VTI = transitive inanimate verb	obv=obviative
indef = indefinite	CS = conjunct subjunctive
perc = perceptive	intns = intensifier
IMP = imperative	

## ***1. INTRODUCTION***

The subject of this thesis is the particles and preverbs of Innu-aimûn (Montagnais). Algonquian languages, including Innu-aimûn, encode adverbial information in many different ways: through the use of particles of time and manner; with preverbs; and with verbal suffixes. Preverbs display regular ordering patterns, which have been explained by templatic accounts (See Lees 1979, Wolfart 1967, 1973 for preverb templates). These regular ordering patterns indicate that Innu-aimûn is not a free word order language. Other studies on Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi languages have examined word order (See for instance Starks 1987 on Woods Cree, and Cyr 1996 on Montagnais). Starks' work deals with the ordering of subject, object and verb in the Algonquian sentence. She says "although Woods Cree is technically a free word order language...word order is not entirely free" (1987:215). Although many different orderings of subject, object and verb are grammatical, unmarked sentences routinely show SVO order (1987:220). Cyr finds that Montagnais behaves similarly, with speakers being able to move sentence constituents around while maintaining the original meaning of the sentence, but displaying "typical word order preferences", like SV ordering when the verb is in the independent and VS ordering when the verb is in the conjunct (1996:197). The independent and conjunct orders are discussed in section 1.2.

Less work has been done regarding the ordering of particles. Ogg (1991) discusses Plains Cree connective particles, focusing on their position in the clause with respect to nouns and verbs. Ogg says connective particles often occur at the left edge of

the clause with other particles but her discussion does not focus on the relationship between particles or ordering, except for some ‘frozen forms’, multi-particle constructions that function as single words. These frozen forms include *êkwa mîna* ‘then again’ and *mâka mîna* ‘as usual’.

Innu-aimûn sentences also allow multiple preverbs and particles at the left edge of the sentence. Cinque’s (1999) influential work suggests an underlying hierarchy of adverbial heads provided by Universal Grammar. This hierarchy of adverbials creates a regular ordering of adverbs in every language. Evidence of regular ordering of particles and preverbs in Innu-aimûn might reflect this hierarchy. A description of the environments various preverbs and particles occur in is included in this thesis, with summaries of any regular ordering patterns appearing in chapter 2 for preverbs and chapter 3 for particles.

### ***1.1 Data and following chapters***

I am using sentences from the first 18 stories of the Labrador Innu Text Project (LITP). The texts are transcriptions of legends and stories tape recorded in 1967 by Madeleine Lefebvre and Robert Lanari. The stories were told by elders native to and/or living in Sheshâtshû. Some storytellers are from Davis Inlet, a nearby Naskapi-speaking community. The stories are largely *âtânûkana*, myths and legends, although one of the stories is *tipatshimûn*. *Tipatshimûn* are reports on actual events that have taken place. The texts of the stories show the effects of linked discourse, since the same characters are

present throughout an extended piece of text. Table 1.1 lists the book and story numbers, the title of the stories and the length of each story, indicated by the number of sentences.

Table 1.1: Labrador Innu Text Project Stories

Book-Story number	Title	Number of Sentences
I-1	Mishta-pâushtik <sup>u</sup>	8
I-2	Uâpush	15
I-3	Mishikamâunnû	40
I-4	Uâpush mâk Umâtshâshkuk <sup>u</sup>	166
I-5	Aiâsheu	107
I-6	Ka Uî Uîtshimikut Kâkua	69
I-7	Atîk <sup>u</sup> -Mîtsuâp	46
I-8	Ka Uitashkumat	48
I-9	Misses Hubbard	28
II-1	Tshishina Ka Nâtikut	38
II-2	Ka Katashkuet	43
II-3	Mishtamishk <sup>u</sup>	39
II-4	Meshapush	98
II-5	Kâiâkuâpisht Kâsht Ka Ishkuâtet	25
II-6	Ka Tshitishimâkanit Âtshen	41
II-7	Ka Uitatikumat	110
II-8	Tshishina Ka Nâtikut	30
II-9	Manitusha ka unâpemit ishkuet	56

The free translation of the text was done by two native speakers of Innu-aimûn: Judith Hill and Kanani Penashue. The glosses were added by myself and Laurel-Anne Hasler, a fellow master's student. This work was as part of SSHRC grant number 410-2000-0413, 'A Cross-Linguistic Study of Focus/Topic Structure and Binding

Relations in dialects of the Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi language group'. Hasler and I made a literal translation of the stories, referring to the free translations, and used Shoebox to create morpheme by morpheme glosses of each sentence of the stories. These two books are part of a corpus of interlinearized texts that has been used for research into anaphoric relations, and is available for further research.

The three number references to the texts take the form book number-story number-sentence number. For instance, when an Innu-aimûn sentence is referred to as 2-9-045, the source of the data is book 2, story 9, line 045. I will use the following format for the examples throughout: appearing on the first line below the Innu-aimûn sentence is the morphological breakdown of the sentence. Below that is the morpheme by morpheme gloss. In the third line below the original sentence is the part of speech. The gloss and part of speech lines use abbreviations, listed in Table 1.2 below. Numbers are used in these lines to indicate person, with 1 indicating first person and so on, with the addition of 4 to mark the obviative. The final line is a free translation by an Innu-aimûn speaker. Within this thesis, non-LITP examples are numbered consecutively throughout each chapter. Table 1.2 shows the parts of speech used to describe the interlinearized text examples.

Table 1.2: Abbreviations

p = particle	CIN = conjunct independent neutral
p.intrg = interrogative particle	IIN = indicative independent neutral
p.neg = negative particle	IIP = indicative independent preterite
p.comp = complementizer	IIN.P = indicative independent neutral perceptive
prv = preverb	dup = reduplicated
dem = demonstrative	ic = initial change, the change of the first vowel in either the verb stem or a compound verb
VAI = animate intransitive verb	inv = inverse
VTA = transitive animate verb	NA =animate noun
VII = inanimate intransitive verb	NI = inanimate noun
VTI = transitive inanimate verb	obv = obviative
indef = indefinite	CS = conjunct subjunctive
perc = perceptive	intns = intensifier
IMP = imperative	

I created a Shoebox database of selected sentences from the LITP. These sentences were selected because they had multiple preverbs, particles or combinations of preverbs and particles. I then used the concordance tool of Shoebox to isolate sentences with a particular preverb or particle. The concordance tool searches the database for a requested target word. It also provides the text occurring before and after the target word. This allowed me to compare all the sentences with a particular preverb or particle, and to examine the environments preceding and following the target preverb or particle.

The preverbs examined follow in chapter two, with descriptions of their typical environment. A short section with some theoretical discussion of the placement of preverbs follows. Chapter three is comprised of discussion of the typical environments surrounding different particles. The particles have been subdivided into general categories, such as ‘complementizer’ and ‘negator’. Some analysis of specific particles also occurs in chapter three. Chapter four is an expansion of the information found in Clarke (1982) and Brittain (2001) regarding interrogative and negative particles. The chapter includes analysis of the complements selected by the negative particles of Innu-aimûn, using Optimality Theory. Theoretical background pertinent to this analysis is included in chapter four. Chapter one continues with discussion of the structure of Innu-aimûn, and of previous research on preverb in the language.

## ***1.2 The structure of Innu-aimûn***

I examine the dialect of Innu-aimûn spoken in Shetshâtshû, Labrador in this paper. Innu-aimûn is an Algonquian language of the Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi family. It is a polysynthetic language with an animate/inanimate gender contrast, where humans, supernatural beings, animals and some plants are animate. Non-living objects are usually inanimate. Examples of the animate/inanimate contrast follow in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Animate and Inanimate nouns

Noun	Gloss	Gender
<i>nâpeu</i>	man	animate
<i>mânitu</i>	spirit	animate

<i>uâpush</i>	rabbit	animate
<i>mishtik<sup>u</sup></i>	tree	animate
<i>utâpân</i>	car	inanimate
<i>nipî</i>	water	inanimate
<i>ûsh</i>	boat	inanimate

Some non-living objects pattern grammatically as animate nouns, like *ashâm* ‘snowshoe’. This is common to all Algonquian languages, and has been discussed by many researchers, including Wolfart 1973 for Plains Cree and Darnell and Vanek 1976 for Cree.

Innu-aimûn uses an obviation system to distinguish between different third persons in discourse. Grammatical markers are used to differentiate between third persons.

The verbs of Innu-aimûn, and of all Algonquian languages, are quite complex. Statements that require many words in English can be expressed in one Innu-aimûn word, as in *mishûieu* ‘s/he makes him/her fearful and defensive of his/her place’. Nouns can act as the root of a verb, as in *nâpeuâtshimu* ‘s/he exaggerates a story’, which has as its root the animate noun stem *nâpeu* ‘man’. Nouns can also act as medial modifiers, as in *muâkueu* ‘s/he eats porcupine’, with the noun *kâk<sup>u</sup>* ‘porcupine’ (medial *âku*) modifying the verb *mueu* ‘s/he eats’.

Verbal inflection varies depending on the verb’s mode, order and transitivity. Transitive verbs are further classified as to whether their subject and/or object are animate or inanimate (Cyr 1996). A summary of Innu-aimûn transitivity classes and examples is in Table 1.4.



Table 1.4: Transitivity in Innu-aimûn

verb class	example	gloss
inanimate intransitive (II)	<i>utâmitin</i>	‘something knocks against an object or a surface’
animate intransitive (AI)	<i>utâmishinû</i>	‘s/he knocks him/herself against an object or surface’
transitive inanimate (TI)	<i>utâmâim</i>	‘s/he knocks on something’
transitive animate (TA)	<i>utâmishimeu</i>	‘s/he knocks someone against an object or surface’

Cyr (1996:189)

Figure 1.1 (based on Brittain 2001:21 for Western Naskapi, with modifications for Innu-aimûn from Baraby 1999:3) gives a summary of the subdivision of inflections possible for the four types of verbs (II, AI, TI, TA).

Figure 1.1: Verb Paradigms

Class	Order	Mode	Tense	Perceptive
II AI TI TA	Independent	Indicative	Neutral	yes
			Preterit	
		Indirect	Present	yes
			Past	yes
	Conjunct	Dubitative	Neutral	
			Preterit	
		Indicative	Neutral	
			Subjunctive/Habitual	
		Indirect		
Imperative	Indicative	Neutral		
		Preterit		
		Indirect		

The term ‘class’ is used by Algonquianists to refer to the transitivity of the verb and the gender of its subject or object. ‘Orders’ are the three basic conjugation patterns which can, according to Clarke 1982, be predicted by structural position (ie as main clause or subordinate clause). In my data from the LITP, I find that independent and

conjunct verbs appear in main clauses. Conjunct verbs regularly appear following negators, interrogatives or complementizers.

The independent order is marked with pronominal prefixes and with suffixes. The conjunct order is marked only by a set of suffixes. The changed conjunct order uses the same suffixes as the conjunct order with the first vowel of the verb undergoing a regular pattern of change. If a preverb is associated with a verb in the changed conjunct, the first vowel of the preverb will be changed, rather than the first vowel of the verb stem. The verb ‘smoke’ is shown in Table 1.5. It appears in the independent, conjunct and changed conjunct orders.

Table 1.5: Order in Innu-aimûn (Clarke 1982:83)

Order	example	gloss
independent	<i>nipîtuân</i>	‘I am smoking’
conjunct	<i>pîtuâiânî</i>	‘if/when I smoke’
changed conjunct	<i>pâtuâiânî</i>	‘whenever I smoke’

Verb order has a functional effect on the sentence in narrative (Cyr 1996, 1994). The independent is used for backgrounded sentences, the conjunct marks the sequential events of the story and the changed conjunct indicates a sudden change in the state of the world (Cyr 1996:192-3).

Modal inflection varies depending on whether or not the speaker was a direct witness to the event being discussed, or depending on the amount of doubt the speaker has about the information. Baraby includes the Perceptive (called subjective by Brittain and elsewhere) as a mode. The perceptive is used for the speaker’s perceptions of events,

or for describing events that occurred in a dream. Table 1.6 shows examples of modal inflection.

Table 1.6: Mode in Innu-aimûn (Cyr 1996:188, with information from MacKenzie, personal communication)

Mode	example	gloss
indicative	<i>atusseu</i>	‘s/he works (I am sure about it)’
indirect	<i>atussetak</i>	‘s/he works (I am sure about it though I haven’t witnessed it myself)’
perceptive	<i>ka-atusseua</i>	‘it seems to me that s/he works’
dubitative	<i>atussitshé</i>	‘s/he must be working’
subjunctive	<i>atussetî</i>	‘if/when s/he works’

The Innu-aimûn verb stem is modified for aspect and mood with preverbal elements. One of these elements is the preverb, a morpheme that can only appear before verbs and can take the pronominal prefixes used to conjugate the independent order. An example of a preverb with inflection for person prefixed to it is in (1b). Example (1a) shows the same verb without preverbal modification for tense.

(1a) nuâpamâu  
 ni- uâpam -âu  
 1- see -1sg  
 ‘I see him’ (Clarke 1982:41)

(1b) nikauâpamâu  
 ni- ka uâpam -âu

1- fut see -1sg  
 'I will see him'

(Clarke 1982:41)

I define a preverb as any element that can occur between the pronominal prefix and the verb stem. Particles, in contrast, are free standing words that do not appear between elements of verbal morphology. The verb stem is the element to which preverbs are added. A preverb plus verb stem creates a compound verb.

The particle occurs preverbally and modifies the verb phrase, as seen in 1-8-003.

(1-8-003)	<b>Tshek ekue</b>	tshîtshipâtât	ne
	tshek ekue	tshîtshipâtâ -t	ne
	then at.that.moment	run.away	-CIN.3 that
	<b>P P</b>	VAI	-sfx pro.dem.an

auâss.  
 auâss  
 child  
 NA

And **then**, the child ran off.

Particles can also modify word classes other than the verb.

(1-5-031)	Ek <sup>u</sup> tâpue nûtshikuâkanit	anite	<b>ût</b>
	ek <sup>u</sup> tâpue nûtshiku -âkani -t	anite	ût
	then indeed bother -indf>3	-CIN.3	there from
	<b>p p</b> VTA	-sfx -sfx	dem.adv <b>p</b>

**ishpimît.**  
 ishpimît  
 above  
**P**

Then, indeed, he was tormented from above.

In 1-5-031, the particle *ût* 'from' seems to modify another particle, *ishpimît* 'above'.

Alternatively, it is modifying the discontinuous phrase *anite ... ishpimît* 'there ... above'.

In this case, *ût* is modifying a demonstrative and a particle.

As well, particles cannot take verbal inflection, unlike preverbs, as seen in examples (1a) and (1b). The sentence \**Ni shâsh uâpâmâu* ‘I already see him’ could never occur. The particle *shâsh* ‘already’ must occur outside the verbal inflection. *Shâsh nuâpâmâu* is grammatical.

The basic test I use to determine the status of a word as particle or preverb is whether or not the word in question can appear following personal prefixes. Preverbs always can be preceded by personal prefixes. Particles never can.

### **1.3 Previous research on tense, aspect and mood in Innu-aimûn**

A description of morphemes that inflect Innu-aimûn sentences for tense and aspect can be found in Clarke (1982) and Clarke and MacKenzie (2000). Innu-aimûn marks tense with a future preverb, a past preverb and a past tense paradigm of verbal inflection.

Aspectual variation is marked by various preverbs and by reduplication. Cyr (1994) argues that different verbal orders act as different aspects within Montagnais discourse. She says the independent order is used in narratives for background information, acting as the imperfective. The conjunct order has perfective properties and is used in the sentences that describe the chronological, foregrounded events of the story. The changed conjunct order is used to focus listener’s attention on verbs that trigger the use of the conjunct (1994:181-183).

Preverbs can mark modal variation, as does the use of different inflection paradigms, as described in Drapeau (1996). She says that the modals expressed through



- (4) ninipâ  
 ni- nipâ  
 1- sleep-AI.IP  
 'I was asleep'

(Clarke 1982:46)

#### 1.4 *Previous research on preverb ordering*

Algonquian languages can be regarded as free word order languages (Cyr 1996:197), but as Cyr (1996) and Starks (1987) show, there are preferred word orders. Although many words can occur in different places in a sentence, preverbs must occur as part of the verb, with variation of order occurring within the compound verb. The ordering of preverbs relative to one another is discussed further in chapter two. In the following sections of this chapter, I discuss some work that has been done on the ordering of preverbs in Innu-aimûn and in Plains Cree.

##### 1.4.1 *Plains Cree preverbs*

Wolfart (1967) states that the Plains Cree verb stem is “preceded by two preverb positions any number of which, including none, may be occupied” (1967:5). This implies that every verb is preceded by two slots which may or may not be filled. In his 1973 work, Wolfart describes these two groups of preverbs. Preverbs of position 1 are complementizers and future tense markers. According to Wolfart, only one preverb of position 1 can occur in a verb phrase. He adds that position 1 preverbs differ from position 2 preverbs because they occur only as preverbs, and cannot occur as particles or as prenouns (Wolfart 1973:76-77). More than one position 2 preverb can occur in a verb phrase, and some of these preverbs can occur as prenouns and as particles, such as *ne:wo*





Table 1.7: Preverbs in Plains Cree (Wolfart 1973)

Position 1	Position 2	Verb stem
complementizers, subordinator <i>kā-</i> future tense markers <i>ka-</i> and <i>kita-</i>	abstract and concrete preverbs, potential action and intention, past tense <i>kī-</i> , able to <i>kī-</i> , <i>wī-</i> ‘intend to’, <i>isi-</i> ‘thus’, <i>ō-</i> , <i>ohci</i> , ‘from there, therefore, originally’.	
only one can appear	more than one can appear, no established order	

#### 1.4.2 Lees - expanding the template

Lees (1979) bases his work on Wolfart’s description of Position 1 and 2 preverbs in studying Sheshâtshû Innu-aimûn. He argues that preverbs can be divided into three classes, proposing an additional class: the ‘preadverbials’. He describes preadverbials as “preverb-like particles”. Preadverbials have properties characteristic of preverbs, but are not true preverbs, partly because they can act as prepositions (1979:126-127). Despite their name, preadverbials do not modify adverbials in the same way that preverbs modify the verb stem. Lees’ enlarged template is illustrated in Table 1.8.

Table 1.8: Preverbs of Innu-aimûn (Lees 1979)

Position I	Position II	Position III	Verb stem
complementizers and tense markers	preadverbials	other preverbs	



complementizer must precede the tense markers. He also claims (2) all three preverbal positions need not be filled. Any two of the positions can be filled, or only one, or none at all. An example of this follows in (9). Two preverbs occur before the verb stem *patat*, the position I complementizer *ka:-* and the position III preverb *pim-* ‘around’. Position II is unfilled.

- (9)
- |                                    |        |      |        |            |
|------------------------------------|--------|------|--------|------------|
| meyo                               | na:pew | ka:- | pim-   | patat      |
| p.neg                              | na     | prv  | prv    | vai        |
| be.not                             | man    | COMP | around | s/he.runs  |
| ‘it’s not the man who runs around’ |        |      |        | (1979:129) |

Lees also argues (3) the members of each preverbal class are mutually exclusive. For instance, only one complementizer and one tense preverb can occur in the position I slot. He adds that position II and III preverbs can, however, form compound preverbs. In (10), the position II preadverbials *ût* and *wi:* have come together to form a compound position II preadverbial.

- (10)
- |                           |      |              |            |
|---------------------------|------|--------------|------------|
| čekwa:no                  | ka:- | utwi:        | itotet?    |
| dem.obv                   | comp | prv-prv      | vai        |
| what                      | COMP | because-want | go?        |
| ‘Why does he want to go?’ |      |              | (1979:129) |

As well, Lees states (4) the preverbal element closest to the verb stem must attach to the verb stem. Finally, Lees claims (5) the “loosest point of linkage is not after the last preverb and before the verb stem, but after the position II preadverbial” (Lees 1979:129). This means that non-verbal elements can only be added after the position II slot. This has the further implication that other words can only appear between a position I preverb and

the verb stem if a preadverbial is present. Examples given by Lees are in (11) and (12), below.

(11) čekwa:no      ka:- utwi:                      na:pew itotet?  
 what-obv      COMP because-want      man      s/he.goes  
 'Why did the man want to go?'                      (Lees 1979:130)

(12) \*čekwa:no      ši:pa      ka:                      iskwes      itotet?  
 what-obv      under      COMP                      girl              s/he.goes  
 'What did the girl go under?'                      (Lees 1979:130)

In (11) the position I *kâ* is followed by the position II *ûtwi*. Since a preadverbial is present, the noun *na:pew* 'man' can appear before the verb. Example (12) is ungrammatical, Lees claims, because the noun *iskwes* 'girl' is between the position I preverb and the verb stem with no preadverbial present.

## 2. THE PREVERBS OF INNU-AIMÛN NARRATIVE

In this chapter, I describe the most frequently occurring preverbs in books 1 and 2 of the Labrador Innu Text Project. The description includes any regular patterns in the appearance of these preverbs, including proximity to clause boundaries or co-occurrence with any other preverb or particle. Any regular patterns of occurrence are compared with Cinque's (1999) theory of adverb ordering.

Regularity in the ordering of preverbs has been observed in other dialects of the Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi language continuum, such as Wolfart's 1973 study of Plains Cree (1973). Ordering in Sheshâtshû Innu-aimûn is also described in Lees (1979). Both of these approaches are discussed in Chapter 1. Clarke (1982) states situations in Innu-aimûn where co-occurrence of particles causes rigid ordering. When the preverbs *ka-* 'future' and *pâ-* 'likelihood, moral obligation' co-occur with *uî-* 'volition' or *tshî-* 'be able to', *ka-* and *pâ-* must precede. As well, *ka-* and *pâ-* cannot occur together. *Uî-* and *tshî-* are mutually exclusive as well. (1982:41). I will now describe some of the preverbs of Innu-aimûn, shown in Table 2.1. I have separated the preverbs into four groups – the modal preverbs *uî-*, *tshî-* and *pâ-*; the temporal preverbs *tshe-*, *ka-* (although *tshe-* and *ka-* are alternate forms of the same preverb, they are discussed separately in this thesis) and *kâ-*; the aspectual preverbs *tshî-* and *kâtshî-*. The final section includes the complementizer *e-* and the perceptive prefix *ka-*. *Ka-*, although not a true prefix, is included because of its presence in the compound verb. More preverbs occur in the stories of the LITP, but so rarely that there was not sufficient data to discuss them.

Table 2.1: Preverbs occurring in LITP Books 1 and 2

Preverb	Changed form	Gloss
Modal		
<i>uî-</i>	<i>uâ</i>	want
<i>tshî-</i>		can, ability
<i>pâ-</i>		should
Temporal		
<i>tshe-</i>		future
<i>ka-</i>		future
<i>kâ-</i>		past
Aspectual		
<i>tshî-</i>		perfective
<i>kâtshî-</i>		after
Complementizer		
<i>e-</i>		so

## 2.1 Modal preverbs

### 2.1.1 *uî-* ‘want’, volition, intention, habit

*Uî-* is preceded by several different morphemes in different ways: preverbs link to *uî-*, forming a larger compound verb; and negative particles and demonstratives precede *uî-* with a word boundary intervening. *Uî-* is usually followed directly by the verb stem but in one case is followed by a pronoun. This means *uî-* is often the final preverb in a longer string of particles, negative particles and preverbs.

*Uî-* is preceded twice by the perceptive prefix *ka-*. When the perceptive prefix occurs, the verb is marked with a *-ua* suffix., with the perceptive marked by the *-ua* suffix on the verb. 1-4-006 is an example of this.

```
(1-4-006)  Ka  -  uî      utâmaitsheua
           ka   uî      utâmaitsh -e                -ua
           perc try.to hit      -(TA)3>4          -perc
           pfx  prv   VTA      -sfx                -sfx
```





"Now," he said. "Make us cold. Now you can make us cold once again, since that's what you wanted."

2-2-036 shows a verb phrase made of the negative particle *ekâ*, the past preverb *kâ-*, the volitional preverb *uî-* and then the verb in the conjunct.

```
(2-2-036)  - Eitune      mâ,   itikû,
             (Unknown)  mâ   it  -iku          -u
             intns say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3
             p      VTA -sfx          -sfx

ekâ   kâ   uî   tshîtuîteîn      !
ekâ   kâ   uî   tshîtuîte -în    !
not   past want leave    -(AI)CIN.2S !
p.neg prv prv  VAI      -sfx      !
```

"You have been doing this," he said to her, "you did not want to leave! "

The following example, 2-2-014 shows *uî-* following a negative particle as part of a question, marked by the interrogative phrase *tshekuânnîtshe uet*. *Tshekuân*, glossed as 'what', is translated as 'why' because of the presence of *uet* following the verb of speaking. The status of *uet* is discussed further in section 3.7.1. where its behavior as a particle with preverb characteristics is expanded upon.

```
(2-2-014)  «Tshekuânnîtshe  », itenimeu,
             tshekuân -nîtshe  itenim  -eu
             what      -IDN.obv  think   -(TA)IIN.3>4
             p        -sfx      VTA      -sfx

« uet      ekâ   uî   tshîtuîtet      ? »
 ût      ekâ   uî   tshîtuîte -t
IC.because not  want leave    -CIN.3
p        p.neg prv VAI      -sfx
```

"Why", he was thinking, "does she not want to go?"

*Uâ-* is the changed form of *uî-* and thus appears at the leftmost edge of the compound verb. Examples from the LITP show *uâ-* appearing after a clause boundary, a demonstrative, a negative particle and a string of particles. It can be joined with another preverb in a compound verb. In 1-3-037, *uâ-* appears before the compound verb *nâtshi-uâpamât* ‘s/he is going to see him/her’. *Nâtshi* is described as a ‘concrete’ preverb in Clarke 2000/1986, in contrast with the ‘abstract’, more tense related preverbs.

(1-3-037)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	ât	niâtâti,		
	ek <sup>u</sup>	ât	nât	-âtî	
	then	even.if	IC.go.to	-(TA)CS.3>4	
	p	p	VTA	-sfx	
	<b>uâ</b>	nâtshi-	uâpamât,	ek <sup>u</sup>	apû
	uî	nâtshi-	uâpam -ât	ek <sup>u</sup>	apû
	IC.try.to	going.to	see	-(TA)CIN.3>4	then not
	prv	prv	VTA	-sfx	p p.neg
	uâpamât		pieshuâpamâti.		
	uâpam -ât		peshuâpam -âtî		
	see	-(TA)CIN.3>4	IC.near	-(TA)CS.3>4	
	VTA	-sfx	VTA	-sfx	

When he went to her, when he went to try to see her,  
when he got close he could no longer see her.

There are no other examples of *uâ-* occurring with another preverb. An explanation for this can be found in Western Naskapi. The Western Naskapi cognate of *nâtshi-* seems to be processed as part of the verb stem by speakers, as opposed to being part of a compound verb. This means a Western Naskapi speaker’s lexicon would have entries for both ‘see’ and ‘go to see’ as separate verbs. The evidence of Western Naskapi *nâtshi-* being part of the verb stem is that it is the only preverb that undergoes reduplication, a process that normally only affects the left edge of the verb stem. If *nâtshi-* is analyzed as part of the verb stem by Innu-aimûn speakers as well, then the compound verb would be

formed by the addition of *uâ-* to the verb stem *nâtshi-uâpamât*. This would support the observation that *uî-* and *uâ-* generally occur to the immediate left of the verb stem (Julie Brittain, personal communication).

There are three sentences where *uâ-* follows particles, as below. As well, all these examples show the particle *ât* occurring immediately to the left of *uâ-*. *Ât* is glossed in the dictionary as ‘even if, all the same, in spite of the fact that’. *Ât* here is translated differently. Instead of ‘even if’, the free translation uses ‘when’ or ‘while’.

(1-5-018)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	ne	nienekâtenitishit	ne
	ek <sup>u</sup>	ne	nekâtenitishi	-t ne
	then	that	IC.suffer.dup.reflx	-CIN.3 that
	p	pro.dem.an	VAI	-sfx pro.dem.an
	kûkûminâsh	nânitam	ât	
	kûkûminâsh	nânitam	ât	
	old.woman	all.the.time	even.if	
	NA	p	p	
	<b>uâ</b>	pitûtsheshitî,		
	uî	pitûtsheshi	-tî	
	IC.want	enter.dim	-(AI)CS.3	
	prv	VAI	-sfx	
	nenua	puâteu		
	nenua	puât	-e	-u
	that	dream	-(TA)TS.dir.3>4	-IIN.3
	pro.dem.an.obv(s/pl)	VTA	-sfx	-sfx
	ukussa	:	« Nîkâ »	!
	u-	kuss	-a	ni- ûkâuî !
	3-	son	-obv(s/pl)	1- mother.voc !
	prv-	NAD	-sfx	prv- NAD !

Then the old woman was always miserable. When she went in she always dreamed of her son calling: "Mom!"

(1-5-043)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	ât	<b>uâ</b>	pîtûtshet	anite	ne
	ek <sup>u</sup>	ât	uî	pîtûtshet	-t	anite ne
	then	even.if	IC.want	enter	-CIN.3	there that
	p	p	prv	VAI	-sfx	dem pro.dem

kûkûminâsh, ek<sup>u</sup> ishkutenû anite  
 kûkûminâsh ek<sup>u</sup> ishkuteu -inû anite  
 old.woman then fire -obv there  
 NA p NI -sfx dem.adv

ekue itinamuât tshîmannû,  
 ekue itinamu -ât tshîman -inû  
 and.then hand -(TA)CIN.3p>4 match -obv(s/pl)  
 p VTA -sfx NI -sfx

ekue ishkuâshuât nenua.  
 ekue ishkuâshu -ât nenua  
 and.then burn -IIN.3>4 that  
 p VTA -sfx pro.dem.an.obv(s/pl)

Then when the old woman wanted to go inside, then they handed her a stick on fire and then a match, and then they burned her.

(2-4-040) Ek<sup>u</sup> apû tshî uînameshet eshk<sup>u</sup>,  
 ek<sup>u</sup> apû tshî uînameshe -t eshk<sup>u</sup>  
 then not able clean.fish -CIN.3 still  
 p p.neg prv VAI -sfx p

ushâm papakâshinû nenû,  
 ushâm papakâshi -ini -u nenû  
 because be.thin.dim -obv -IIN.3 that  
 p VII -sfx -sfx pro.dem.in.obv

uâkâpissinam<sup>u</sup> mâni  
 uâkâpissin -am -u mâni  
 bend -(TI)TS.3>4 -IIN.3 usually  
 VTI -sfx -sfx p

nenû ât uâ uînameshetî.  
 nenû ât uî uînameshe -tî  
 that even.if IC.try clean.fish -(AI)CS.3  
 pro.dem.in.obv p prv VAI -sfx

But, he couldn't clean the fish yet. It was too thin. He kept bending it as he tried to clean the fish.

### 2.1.2 *tshî*- 'ability'

My data show *tshî*- 'can/able.to' appearing either sentence initially, or following one to three particles, negative particles or preverbs. However, this grouping can only contain one negative particle. *Tshî*- most often occurs directly to the left of the verb

stem. It is shown as the final preverb in a string of preverbs in 1-6-018, following. The future preverb *tshika-* precedes *tshî-*.

(1-6-018) Apû tshika **tshî** nipâit,  
 apû tshika tshî nipâi -t  
 not fut.3 able kill -(TA)CIN.3>1  
 p.neg prv prv VTA -sfx  
  
 itikû.  
 it -iku -u  
 say -(TA)inv.4>3 -IIN.3  
 VTA -sfx -sfx

"He will not be able to kill me," he said to her.

Sentence 2-4-004 shows *tshî-* following two particles: *muk<sup>u</sup>* 'but' and the negative particle *apû*. *Tshî-* directly precedes the verb stem, as in 1-6-018, above.

(2-4-004) Ât tshikâkuâteu mâni,  
 ât tshikâkuât -eu mâni  
 even.if spear -(TA)IIN.3>4 usually  
 p VTA -sfx -sfx p  
  
 muk<sup>u</sup> apû **tshî** nipâiât.  
 muk<sup>u</sup> apû tshî nipâi -ât  
 but not able kill -(TA)CIN.3>4  
 p p.neg prv VTA -sfx

He would spear them, but he couldn't kill them.

2-4-012 shows *tshî-* following the future preverb *ka-*, and directly before the verb stem. Clarke (1982:40) says the preverbs *ka-* and *pâ-* typically precede *tshî-*.

(2-4-012) - Mâuât apû **tshika tshî** nipâit.  
 mâuât apû tshika tshî nipâi -it  
 no not fut.3 able kill -(TA)CIN.3>1  
 p.neg p.neg pfx- prv VTA -sfx

"No, he will not be able to kill me."

There are some exceptions where *tshî-* is not directly followed by the verb stem. It can also be followed by a particle and the verb, as in 1-5-027, where *tshî-* is preceded by the negative particle *apû*, and followed by the particle *minekâsh* ‘long time’ and finally by the verb stem.

(1-5-027) Apû **tshî** minekâsh nûkushiân,  
 apû tshî minekâsh nûkush -iân  
 not can long.time be.visible -(AI)CIN.1  
 p.neg prv p VAI -sfx

tshessinât tshika nûtshikâkâunân.  
 tshessinât tshika ni- utshikâkâu -inân  
 surely fut.3 1- come.after -IIN.3>1p  
 p prv pfx- VTA -sfx

"I cannot show myself or else they will come after us."

A negative particle occurs between *tshî-* and the verb stem in 1-5-040.

(1-5-040) Ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite, tân  
 ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite tân  
 then that(over.there) old.woman there how  
 p pro.dem.an NA dem.adv p

tshipâ **tshî** ekâ natuâpameu.  
 tshipâ tshî ekâ natuâpam -eu  
 should.3 can not look.for -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 prv prv p.neg VTA -sfx

Then that old woman, how can she not go to him?

1-6-013 is a question formed with the interrogative clitic *-â*. *Tshî-* occurs both before and after *-â*. The clitic focuses its interrogative force on the word it is cliticized

to, so in this sentence, the speaker's ability to eat is being questioned, not the action of eating or the tree as object. *Tshî-* may be repeated here to place even more emphasis on the speaker's ability to eat. In this legend, a giant porcupine proposes marriage to a human woman. She asks the porcupine the following question, wondering if she will have the same powers as the porcupine after their marriage.

(1-6-013)	Nipâ		<b>tshî</b> â		<b>tshî</b> muâu		mishtik <sup>u</sup> ?
	ni-	pâ	tshî â		tshî mu -âu		mishtik <sup>u</sup>
	1-	should	can intrg		can eat -(TA)IIN.1>3		tree
	prfx-	prv	prv p		prv VTA -sfx		NA

"Would I be able to eat a tree?"

### 2.1.3 *pâ-* 'should'

In my data from the first 18 stories of the LITP, *pâ-* usually appears as *tshipâ-*. *Tshipâ-* is either the third person form of *pâ-*, or *pâ-* with the second person prefix *tshi-*. A similar process occurs with other preverbs such as *ka-* 'future' and *pâtshî-* 'potentiality'. This contrast is shown for *ka-* in (13) and (14) below. (13) shows *ka-* with the first person prefix. (14) shows *tshika-*, with no person prefix.

(13)	Nika-uâpamâu
	ni- ka- uâpam -âu
	1- fut- see -(TA)IIN.1>3
	prfx- prv- VTA -sfx
	"I will see him"

(14)	Tshika-uâpameu
	tshika- uâpam -eu
	fut.3- see -(TA)IIN.3>3'
	prv- VTA -sfx
	"S/he will see him/her"

(Clarke 1982:41)

(*Tshi*)*pâ-* appears preceded by a clause boundary, a demonstrative, and a string of a demonstrative and a particle. This preverb is often first in a string of preverbs and particles, but can also be the only preverbal information before a verb stem. *Tshipâ-* is often used in questions, with the usual word ordering *tân tshipâ tshî V*. As well, a word order like *tânite tshipâ ut tshî V* occurs. *Pâ-* precedes the preverb *tshî-* in both these question word orderings, as described by Clarke (1982:41). 1-5-040 shows the first word ordering in a question. Example 1-6-107 has the second word ordering for an interrogative. These examples also show particles occurring between preverbs and the verb stem. In 1-5-040, the negative particle *ekâ* follows the preverbs *tshipâ-* and *tshî-* and occurs directly to the left of the verb stem. In 1-6-107, the particle *ût* follows the preverb *pâ-* and precedes the compound verb *tshî- ûtshimitin*.

(1-5-040)	Ek <sup>u</sup> nâhî		kûkûminâsh anite,	tân	
	ek <sup>u</sup> nâhî		kûkûminâsh anite	tân	
	then that(over.there)		old.woman	there	how
	p pro.dem.an		NA	dem.adv	p
	<b>tshipâ</b>	tshî	ekâ	natuâpameu.	
	tshipâ	tshî	ekâ	natuâpam -eu	
	should.3	can	not	look.for	-(TA)IIN.3>4
	prv	prv	p.neg	VTA	-sfx
	Then that old woman, how can she not fetch him?				
(1-6-017)	Tânite	<b>tshipâ</b>	ût	tshî ûtshimitin	?
	tânite	tshi- pâ	ût	tshî ûtshim	-itin
	where	2-	should	because	can live.with
	p.intrg	prv	p	prv	VTA -sfx
	"How can I marry you?"				

*Pâ-* does not always indicate question formation, as in 2-7-007, where *pâ-* appears as part of the compound verb, and is preceded by the intensifier particle *mâ*.



(2-7-007) - Eukuan mâ tshipâ  
 eukuan mâ tshi- pâ  
 that's.it intns 2- should  
 dem p pfx- prv

peshuâpamâu  
 peshuâpam -âu  
 get.closer -(TA)IIN.2>3  
 VTA -sfx

eshinamin, iteu.  
 ishin -amin it -eu  
 IC.perceive.s.t-(TI)CIN.2>3 say -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 VTI -sfx VTA -sfx

"Then you might get very close to them, according to what you see in your dream," he said.

#### 2.1.4 Conclusion of modal preverbs

The modal preverbs examined above can all appear directly before the verb, but *tshî-* and *pâ-* allow other particles and preverbs to follow them. The modals can occur first in a clause, but also allow other preverbs or particles to precede them.

The changed modal preverb *uâ-* ‘volition’ can be preceded by the particle *ât* ‘even if’, although it is not required that the two co-occur.

Modal preverbs tend to co-occur with other modal preverbs, but can follow temporal preverbs.

## 2.2 Temporal preverbs

### 2.2.1 *tshe-* ‘future’

There are 31 sentences that use the preverb *tshe-* ‘future’ in the first 18 stories of the LITP. No preverbs appear before *tshe-* in my data sample. *Tshe-* occurs in nine sentences after a sentence/clause boundary. The remainder of the sentences show *tshe-* following demonstratives or particles. *Tshe-* immediately precedes the verb stem in most

of the sentences, but can also have a particle, a negative particle or a preverb intervening. In example 2-6-022, *tshe-* appears in a question, following an interrogative particle and followed by the modal preverb *tshî-* ‘ability’.

(2-6-022) Tânite **tshe** tshî pimûteiâk<sup>u</sup> ek<sup>u</sup> ?  
 tânite tshe tshî pimûte -iâk<sup>u</sup> ek<sup>u</sup>  
 where fut able walk -(AI)CIN.21pl so  
 p.intrg prv prv VAI -sfx p  
 Where will we walk there?

Example 2-7-099 shows *tshe-* after two particles, and preceding the verb stem.

(2-7-099) Eukuannû mâ ek<sup>u</sup> **tshe**  
 eukuan -inû mâ ek<sup>u</sup> tshe  
 that's.it -obv(s/pl) intns then fut  
 dem -sfx p p prv  
 tshîtshipaitûht.  
 tshîtshipâitu -ht  
 run.away -(AI)CIN.3p  
 VAI -sfx  
 Then they start off in haste.

The future and the perfective, discussed in 2.3.1, do not seem to appear in the same position in the structure of Innu-aimûn. This can be seen in a comparison of two sentences that contain the particle *ût*. *Ût* in these sentences is a particle of space, indicating the source of something being discussed. In the sentence with the future preverb *tshe-*, the verb clause appears with the future preverb first, followed by *ût*, then the verb. When *ût* appears with the perfective preverb *tshî-*, it precedes the preverb and the verb. In the examples which follow, 1-8-031 shows the future preverb, and 1-5-060 shows the perfective preverb.

(1-8-031) Nânitam tshika uâpimin anite  
nânitam tshi- ka uâpam -n anite  
always 2- fut see -IIN.2 there  
p pfx- pfx VTA -sfx dem.adv

tshe **ût** piputueiân,  
tshe ût piputue -iân  
fut from.there send.smoke.rising -(AI)CIN.1  
prv prv VAI -sfx

pâtush shûk<sup>u</sup> shâuennânûtî.  
pâtush shûk<sup>u</sup> shîueni -nânû -tî  
after lots IC.be.hungry -CIN.Indef -(AI)CS.3  
p p VAI -sfx -sfx

You will always see me where I will send up smoke,  
but only if the people are very hungry.

(1-5-060) - Tânite tshipâ ût tshî takushinû  
tânite tshipâ ût tshî takushin -u  
however should.3 from perf arrive -IIN.3  
p.intrg prv p prv VAI -sfx

tshikuss?  
tshi- kuss  
2- son  
pfx- NAD

How in the world could your son have returned?

It seems that the future preverb moves past the particle *ût*, but the perfective preverb does not, or that the particle originates closer to the verb stem in the sentence with the future preverb than it does in the sentence with the perfective. More data would be required to more conclusively describe the placement of these two preverbs.

### 2.2.2 *ka* 'future'

In my database, the future preverb *ka-* appears with the person marking prefixes *ni-* '1<sup>st</sup> person' and *tshi-* '2<sup>nd</sup> person'. In the third person, *ka-* always appears as *tshika-*, unmodified for person. This is the same process that affects *pâ-*, discussed above in section 2.1.3. The *tshi* element of *tshika-* is not a second person prefix. Personal prefixes

indicate that the verb to follow is in the independent order. *Tshika-*, however, can occur with both the independent and the conjunct.

My data show the future preverb is preceded by a clause or sentence boundary, particles or negative particles. *Ka-* is most commonly followed by the verb stem or a preverb, often *tshî-* ‘ability’. Clarke (1982:41) observes that *ka-* often precedes *tshî-* ‘ability’.

Example 2-8-007 shows the first person *nika-* preceded by two particles and directly to the left of the verb stem.

(2-8-007) - Eshk<sup>u</sup> mînuât **nika** takushin,  
 eshk<sup>u</sup> mînuât ni- ka takushin  
 later again 1- fut arrive  
 p p pfx- prv VAI

itikû,  
 it -iku -u tshe ish  
 say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3 fut say -CIN.2>1  
 VTA -sfx -sfx prv VTA -sfx

mâ takushiniânî mînuât.  
 mâ takushin -iânî mînuât  
 intns arrive -(AI)CS.1 again  
 p VAI -sfx p

"I will return," he said, "and then you will tell me when I get back."

1-5-030 shows *ka-* preceded by the second person *tshi-*.

(1-5-030) Shûk mitshiminî, itikû,  
 shûk mitshimin -î it -iku -u  
 go.ahead hold -Imp.2 say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3  
 p VTA -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx

shûk **tshika** utâmuâuat  
 shûk tshi- ka utâmu -âuat  
 go.ahead 2- fut hit.with.s.t. -(TA)IIN.2>3p  
 p pfx- prv VTA -sfx

niteshkanat.

nit- eshkan -at  
 1- horn -NA.pl

"Hold on to me tightly," he said to him. "You will hit my horns hard."

In 2-4-012, the third person *tshika-* follows the negative particle *apû*, and precedes *tshî-* ‘ability’ and the conjunct verb stem *nipâit* ‘he kills me’.

(2-4-012) Mâuât apû **tshika** tshî nipâit.  
 mâuât apû tshika tshî nipâi -t  
 no not fut.3 able kill -(TA)CIN.3>1  
 p.neg p.neg prv prv VTA -sfx

"No, he will not be able to kill me."

In 1-6-020, *tshika* again follows *apû* and precedes *tshî*.

(1-6-020) Kie apû **tshika** tshî nâtishk  
 kie apû tshika tshî nât -ishk  
 and not fut.3 can fetch CIN.3>2  
 p.conj p.neg prv prv VTA -sfx

tshinâpem, tshî uîtshimitânî.  
 tshi- nâpeu -im tshî uîtshim -itânî  
 2- man -poss perf live.with -CS.1>2  
 pfx- NA -sfx prv VTA -sfx

And, your husband will not be able to come rescue you, after you marry me.

### 2.2.3 *kâ-* ‘past’

*Kâ-* can be preceded by a demonstrative, noun, particle or the clause boundary. It is followed by the verb stem, a compound verb, or a particle and the verb stem. In 2-2-036 following, *kâ-* is preceded by the negative particle *ekâ* and followed by the verb compound *uî-* *tshîûtêin*.

(2-2-036) - Eitune mâ, itikû,  
 (Unknown) mâ it -iku -u  
 intns say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3  
 p VTA -sfx -sfx

ekâ **kâ** uî tshîtuêin !  
ekâ kâ uî tshîtuê -în !  
not past want leave -(AI)CIN.2S !  
p.neg pfx prv VAI -sfx !

"You have been doing this," he said to her, "because you did not want to leave!"

In 1-5-039, *kâ-* is preceded by the particle *shâshish* 'long ago', the interrogative particle *tânite* 'where' and the demonstrative *nete* 'there'. *Kâ-* occurs directly to the left of the verb stem.

(1-5-039) Shâshîsh tânite nete **kâ**  
shâshîsh tânite nete kâ  
long.ago where over.there past  
p.temp p.intrg dem.adv prv  
  
mûshâueunâkanit.  
mûshâueun -âkani -t  
bring.to.open.water -indf>3 -CIN.3  
VTA -sfx -sfx

It had been a long time ago when he had been taken away from here.

#### 2.2.4 Conclusion of temporal preverbs

The temporal preverbs can all appear clause-initially, and all tend to appear immediately before the verb, without other particles or preverbs intervening. It is not required that they precede the verb directly, however. Each temporal preverb can be followed by a particle, or another preverb. The temporal particles can also be preceded by other preverbs or a particle. In terms of ordering of preverb class, the temporal preverbs precede the modal preverbs.

## 2.3 Aspect preverbs

### 2.3.1 Perfective *tshî-*

The perfective *tshî-* occurs much less often than the modal *tshî-* in the stories of the LITP. Of the 48 sentences found with *tshî-*, only seven have the perfective *tshî-*. Perfective *tshî-* occurs directly before the verb in all of the sentences. It is found following a demonstrative, a clause boundary, and a particle. Some examples follow, the first of which, 2-9-045, has three occurrences of perfective *tshî-*, in a case of parallel structure. The first occurrence of *tshî-* in 2-9-045 shows that Innu-aimûn allows discontinuity in the verb phrase. The pronoun *nenû*, referring to the toboggan that is referenced as part of the verb *utâpânitsheu* ‘he gets the sled ready’, occurs between *shâsh* ‘already’ and the perfective *tshî-*.

(2-9-045) Shâsh nenû **tshî** utâpânitsheu,  
 shâsh nenû tshî utâpânitsh -eu  
 already that perf get.sled.ready -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 p pro prv VTA -sfx

shâsh **tshî** âneu, shâsh  
 shâsh tshî ân -eu shâsh  
 already perf place.st -(TA)IIN.3>4 already  
 p prv VTA -sfx p

**tshî** uîshkuetâpâteu  
 tshî uîshkuetâpât -eu  
 perf wrap.st -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 prv VTA -sfx

utauâssîma.  
 u- auâss -im -a  
 3- child -poss -obv(s/pl)  
 pfx- NA -sfx -sfx

He had already gotten his toboggan ready. He already had his children wrapped in the toboggan.

(1-4-100) Pâtush **tshî** mîtshishuiânî, tshe  
 pârush tshî mîtshishu -iânî tshe  
 after perf eat -(AI)CS.1 fut  
 p prv VAI -sfx prv

mîtshishuîn.  
 mîtshishu -in  
 eat -(AI)CIN.2  
 VAI -sfx

"When I am done eating, then you can eat."

(2-4-023) - Shâsh **tshitshî** tshissinuâpamitin,  
 shâsh tshi- tshî tshissinuâpam -itin  
 already 1- perf learn.by.observing -IIN.1>2  
 p pfx- prv VTA -sfx

iteu, etânapîtshein,  
 it -eu itânapîtshe -in  
 say -(TA)IIN.3>4 IC.weave.certain.way -(AI).CIN.2  
 VTA -sfx VAI -sfx

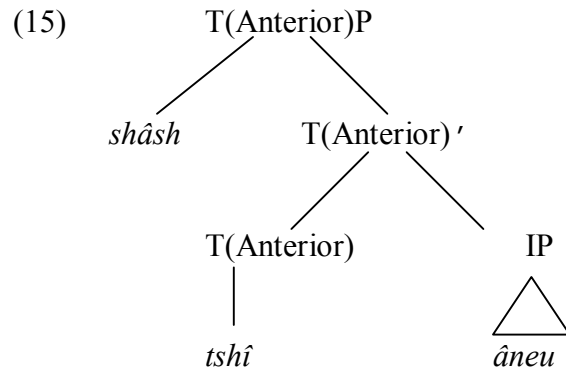
etâpekaut tshitânapî.  
 itâpekau -t tshi- ânapî  
 IC.weave -CIN.2> 2- net  
 VTA -sfx pfx- NA

"I already saw what you were doing", he said to him,  
 "the way you weave your net".

Every instance of *tshî-* in 2-9-045 is preceded by the particle *shâsh*, 'already'.

This doubly marks the perfective, as the completion of the event is signaled by the perfective preverb and the particle. This is also seen in the examples that follow 2-9-045. In 1-4-100 *tshî-* follows the particle *pârush* 'after'. In 2-4-023, *tshî-*, marked with the person marker *tshi-*, follows *shâsh*. Cinque (1999:77) claims these constructions like this in English contain an adverbial phrase that acts as a specifier to a functional head. (15) below shows the middle clause of 2-9-045. Cinque suggests the label of T(Anterior) accompanies the English adverb 'already' (1999:82-83).





The placement of the verb in I, rather than in V, is based on Brittain (2001).

### 2.3.2 *kâtshî-* 'after'

*Kâtshî-* often occurs sentence or clause initially, but can also follow demonstratives and particles. *Kâtshî-* is followed by the verb stem, demonstratives and particles. 1-5-098 shows *kâtshî-* as the only preverb in a compound verb.

(1-5-098)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	nenû		<b>kâtshî</b>	aitit,	
	ek <sup>u</sup>	nenû		kâtshî	iti	-t
	then	that		after	do.dup	-CIN.3
	p	pro.dem.in.obv	prv	VAI		-sfx
	ûkâuîa			ek <sup>u</sup>	tshe	
	u-	ûkâuî	-a	ek <sup>u</sup>	tshe	
	3-	mother	-obv(s/pl)	then	fut	
	prfx-	NAD	-sfx	p	prv	
	ueueshiât.					
	ueueshi		-ât			
	decide.on		-(TA)CIN.3>4			
	VTA		-sfx			

After doing this, he decided what to do with his mother.

2-3-038 allows a demonstrative, *nenua*, between the preverbal information and the verb. The demonstrative is referring to the object of the verb.

(2-3-038) **kâtshî** mâ nenua nipâiât  
 kâtshî mâ nenua nipâi -ât  
 after intns that kill -(TA)CIN.3>4  
 prv p pro.dem.an.obv(s/pl) VTA -sfx

itâkanû nânâ  
 it -âkani -u nânâ  
 say -Indef -IIN.3 that(dead)  
 VTA -sfx -sfx pro.dem.an

nimushumîpan, eukuannû  
 ni- mushum -pan eukan -inû  
 1- grandfather -absent that's.it -obv(s/pl)  
 pfx- NAD -sfx pro.dem -sfx

nepit.  
 nipi -t  
 IC.die -CIN.3  
 VAI -sfx

After he had killed them, it is said, my late ancestor died.

In 1-3-012, *kâtshî-* is preceded by a particle, a demonstrative and a particle. After *kâtshî-* there is a NP *nenua âkaneshâua* ‘that white man’, and then the remainder of the compound verb. The verbal complex is made discontinuous by the subject of the verb.

(1-3-012) Tâpue nenû mâ **kâtshî** nenua  
 tâpue nenû mâ kâtshî nenua  
 indeed that intns after that  
 p pro.dem.in.obv p prv pro.dem.obv(s/pl)

âkaneshâua uî tûtâkût,  
 âkaneshâu -a uî tûta -iku -t  
 Englishman -obv(s/pl) try.to do -inv -CIN.3  
 NA -sfx prv VTI -sfx -sfx

tshînîtshtshînikuânitshimeu nenû Mishikamânû.  
 tshînikuânitshime -u nenû Mishikamâu -inû

paddles.around.it -IIN.3 that Mishikamau -obv  
 VAI -sfx pro.obv N.name -sfx

Indeed, after the white man did this to him, he would  
 go round and round Mishikamau.

### 2.3.3 Conclusion of aspect preverbs

The two aspect preverbs appear following the clause boundary or following demonstratives, particles or preverbs. *Tshî-* always appears before the verb stem in my data. *Kâtshî-* immediately precedes the verb stem, creating a compound verb. In some cases, the compound verb is made discontinuous by a noun phrase or a particle that occurs between *kâtshî-* and the verb stem.

## 2.4 Other preverbs

### 2.4.1 *e-* ‘so’

*E-*, according to James (1991) signals the semantic function of an embedded clause in the context of the sentence as a whole, rather than giving tense information. James states it occurs with the conjunct, which is what I find in the stories of the LITP. She claims *e-* appears “in place of initial change in the first syllable of the verb” (1991:4). This suggests that it should appear as close to the verb stem as possible. In my data from the first 18 stories of the LITP, there are no preverbs that occur between *e* and the verb stem. *E-* is preceded only by particles and by clause boundaries. Brittain (2001) argues that *e-* acts as a subordinator. If *e-* is a subordinator, it belongs in C in the structure of an Innu-aimûn sentence. This then suggests that particles do not form part of the verb phrase, but rather occupy a slot outside of C.

The following examples show *e-* with one or two particles preceding.

(1-3-017) Tshek mâ e manâshtet utin  
 tshek mâ e manâshte -t utin  
 then intns so break.spruce.branches -CIN.3 take  
 p p prv VAI -sfx VTA

ne ishkuess, uî tashkamassekaim<sup>u</sup>  
 ne ishkuess uî tashkamassekaim -u  
 that girl try.to cross.bog -IIN.3  
 dem.an NA prv VTI -sfx

nenû massekussinû anite  
 nenû massek<sup>u</sup> -ss -inû anite  
 that muskeg -dim -obv(s/pl) there  
 dem.in.obv NI -sfx -sfx dem.adv

takuannû ekue  
 takuan -inû ekue  
 be -obv at.that.moment  
 VII -sfx p

tshitâussutshipanit.  
 tshitâussuâtshipani -t  
 sink.in.mud -CIN.3  
 VAI -sfx

While she was picking boughs, the girl tried to cross the bog. It was that small bog there where she went into the mud.

(2-2-004) Tshîuepâtuâu apishîsh, muk<sup>u</sup> peikuâu  
 tshîuepâtuâ -u apishîsh muk<sup>u</sup> peikuâu  
 run.home.carrying -IIN.3 little only once  
 VAI+O -sfx p p p

e mîtshishut.  
 e mîtshishu -t  
 so eat -CIN.3  
 prv VAI -sfx

She took home a little bit of it, only enough for one meal.

In other languages of the Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi continuum, other preverbs can appear between *e-* and the verb stem. Wolfart cites the Plains Cree example *ē-kīh-wīhtamākot* ‘when he told him’ (1973:77). East Cree also allows preverbs to appear

between *e-* and the verb stem as in the subordinate clause *e-chî-takusihk* ‘that the man came’ (Clarke et al 1993:41).

#### 2.4.2 *ka-* ‘perceptive’

Perceptive *ka-* is always accompanied by a verb with perceptive marking. Because it is linked with a verbal suffix, *ka-* is not a true preverb, but rather a prefix. It is included in this discussion because it appears as part of the compound verb. The perceptive is used to convey things as they appear to the speaker. The perceptive *ka-* is preceded by a clause or sentence boundary, by a particle or by a demonstrative. It is usually followed by a verb with the perceptive suffix *-ua*, which ends the sentence or clause. Some examples of the perceptive follow. In 1-2-012, the perceptive follows the interrogative compound *tshekuân uet*.

(1-2-012)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	tshekuân	uet	
	ek <sup>u</sup>	tshekuân	ût	
	then	what		IC.from
	p	p		p
	<b>ka</b> -tshikâkânuâshkupuâmenâua ?			
	ka	tshi-	kânuâshkupuâme	-nâ-ua
	perc	2-	have.long.thighs.dup	-(AI)IIN.P.2
	prv	prv-	VAI	-sfx
	"Then why do your thighs seem so long?"			

Two sentences with the perceptive allow a particle between the perceptive prefix and the verb. One of these sentences is illustrated below. 2-9-005 shows the particle *ût*, here meaning ‘from’, between the prefix and the verb.

(2-9-005) **Ka** - út shâtshishkueua  
ka út shâtshishkue -ua  
perc from/because stick.out.head -IIN.P  
prv p VAI -sfx

nâpeu, ek<sup>u</sup> shâsh  
nâpeu ek<sup>u</sup> shâsh  
man so/then already  
NA p p

ka - nimishta - minuâtâua.  
ka ni- mishta minuât -âua  
perc 1- very like -(TA)IIN.P  
pfx pfx- pfx VTA -sfx

"A man's head seemed to appear, and then right away I was really attracted to him."

*Út* is not an initial, that is, part of the verb stem in this sentence. There is no room for an initial in the verb *shâtshishkue-ua*; the slot in the verb template for initials is filled by *shâtshi-* ‘appear’. The medial position is filled with *-sku-* meaning ‘head’, and the final is the suffix *-e-*, indicating that the verb is animate intransitive. Wolfart describes three verb-internal components in Plains Cree: the obligatory initial, the optional medial and the final (1973:63). *Út* has an antecedent in the preceding sentence in the story – the man’s head appears from a rotten log. The perceptive is used in this sentence because a woman is quoted telling the story of what happened in her dream.

The second clause of 2-9-005, reprinted below, also contains prefixes between the perceptive prefix *ka-* and the verb stem.

(2-9-005) ek<sup>u</sup> shâsh  
ek<sup>u</sup> shâsh  
so/then already  
p p

ka - nimishta - minuâtâua.  
ka ni- mishta minuât -âua  
perc 1- very like -(TA)IIN.P  
pfx pfx- pfx VTA -sfx

... "and then right away I was really attracted  
to him".

In this clause, the first person prefix and the concrete preverb *mishta-* ‘very’ appear between *ka-* and the verb stem.

## 2.5 General Conclusion

When preverbs co-occur, the temporal preverbs tend to precede the modal preverbs. The modal preverbs appear directly to the left of the verb stem. Table 2.2 shows a template for a compound verb in Innu-aimûn.

Table 2.2 – Innu-aimûn compound verb

temporal preverbs	modal preverbs	verb stem

Within the modal preverbs, *pâ-* ‘should’ tends to co-occur with *tshi-* ‘able to’. When this happens, *pâ-* precedes *tshi-*.

When preverbs occur singly, they tend to appear directly to the left of the verb stem, although there are some instances where particles intervene. When this happens, it is often a negative particle that occurs between a preverb and the verb stem.

Finally, the complementizer preverb *e-* always appears immediately to the left of the verb stem in my data. No other preverbs intervene.



### 3. *THE PARTICLES OF INNU-AIMÛN*

In this chapter I describe the particles of manner and time that appear most frequently in the first 18 stories of the LITP. Although others appear as well, my discussion focuses on those that occur five or more times in the 18 stories. I will also be drawing some generalizations about the words that commonly precede and follow the particles in question, and making other observations about their use, where relevant. The particles of location are not included in this discussion. These particles, such as *upimeshkanau* ‘on the side of the road’ occur more infrequently in my database. The particle *ût*, which can act as either a locative particle or as a grammatical particle meaning ‘from’ or ‘because’ is included in my discussion due to other interesting factors, described in section 3.7.1.

The particles I describe have been subdivided into seven categories, complementizers, focusing particles, negatives, adverbs, temporal and aspectual particles, particles of speaker opinion and two idiosyncratic particles with changed forms.

#### 3.1 *Complementizers*

##### 3.1.1 *ek<sup>u</sup>* ‘then’

*Ek<sup>u</sup>* occurs very frequently in Innu-aimûn stories, with about 120 occurrences of the word in my database. It is discussed in Branigan and MacKenzie 2002. The most frequent placement of *ek<sup>u</sup>* is sentence/clause-initially, followed by preverbs, particles, demonstratives or the verb. 2-6-019 and 2-8-012 show *ek<sup>u</sup>* followed by a preverb and particle, respectively.

(2-6-019) **Ek<sup>u</sup>** tshe utîtamâku e kassekâut.  
 ek<sup>u</sup> tshe utîtamû -iku e kassekâu -t  
 then fut arrive -CIN.21>3 so be.a.waterfall -CIN.3  
 p prv VTI -sfx pfx VII -sfx

"There, we will reach the falls."

(2-8-012) **Ek<sup>u</sup>** tshek pepunnit, ât  
 ek<sup>u</sup> tshek pipun -nit ât  
 then then IC.be.winter -(VII)CIN.3' as.soon.as  
 p p VII -sfx p

akua pipunnit, **ek<sup>u</sup>**  
 akua pipun -nit ek<sup>u</sup>  
 unknown be.winter -(VII)CIN.3' then  
 VII -sfx p

pietuenaminitî  
 petuet -aminitî  
 IC.come.towards.making.noise -(TI)CIN.4>5  
 VTI -sfx

auennua tshipishkuâmît.  
 auen -inua tshipishkuât -im -î  
 someone -obv(s/pl) doorway -poss -loc  
 pro.indef -sfx NI -sfx -sfx

Then, winter came and, because it was winter, then there was someone at the door.

The next most common position for *ek<sup>u</sup>* is clause-finally, usually following a verb, as in examples 2-4-061 and 1-4-053.

(2-4-061) Tâpue teshkamipâtât **ek<sup>u</sup>**.  
 tâpue tashkamipâtâ -t ek<sup>u</sup>  
 true IC.run.across -CIN.3 then  
 p VAI -sfx p

Then, it is true, he ran across.

(1-4-053) **Ek<sup>u</sup>** iesset **ek<sup>u</sup>**.  
 ek<sup>u</sup> esse -t ek<sup>u</sup>  
 then IC.break.ice(trap.beaver) -CIN.3 then  
 p VAI -sfx p

Then he chopped through the ice to trap the beavers.

*Ek<sup>u</sup>* occurs least often within the clause, followed by particles, demonstratives or the verb, and preceding particles. 1-6-027 shows *ek<sup>u</sup>* following the verb and preceding a particle. In 2-1-023 *ek<sup>u</sup>* occurs between particles.

(1-6-027) Eshe, iteu, tshika uîtshimitin  
 ehe it -eu tshi- ka uîtshim -itin  
 yes say -(TA)IIN.3>4 2- fut live.with -IIN.1>2  
 p VTA -sfx pfx- prv VTA -sfx

**ek<sup>u</sup>** enuet.  
 ek<sup>u</sup> enuet  
 then at.least  
 p p

"Yes, I will marry you, then."

(2-1-023) « Eukuan **ek<sup>u</sup>** nâsht  
 eukuan ek<sup>u</sup> nâsht  
 that's.it then really  
 dem p p

nikûtshinân tshekât »,  
 ni- kûtshi -nân tshekât  
 1- die.of.cold -(AI)IIN.1p almost  
 pfx- VAI -sfx p

iu itâkanû.  
 i -u it -âkani -u  
 say -IIN.3 say -Indef -IIN.3  
 VAI -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx

"We are almost dying of cold," he said, it is told.

### 3.1.2 *tshek* 'then', *ekue* 'then/so' and *tshek ekue*

*Tshek* and *ekue* appear separately in some sentences, but also appear together. Of the 71 data sentences with the word *ekue*, and the 24 with *tshek*, *tshek ekue* appears in 14. When they appear together, they are regularly clause-initial, as in the following examples:

(1-8-003) **Tshek ekue** tshítshipâtât ne auâss.  
 tshek ekue tshítshipâtâ -t ne auâss  
 then and.then run.away -CIN.3 that child  
 p p VAI -sfx pro.dem.an NA

And then, the child ran off.

(2-1-024) Apû tshî minûkatet, **tshek**  
 apû tshî minûkate -t tshek  
 not can burn.well -CIN.3 then  
 p.neg prv VII -sfx p

**ekue** minûkatet.  
 ekue minûkate -t  
 and.then burn.well -CIN.3  
 p VII -sfx

It did not burn well, but by and by it did burn well.

(2-4-079) **Tshek ekue** nakatâht  
 tshek ekue nakat -âht  
 then at.that.moment leave.behind -(TA)CIN3p>4  
 p p VTA -sfx

anite e patshituâht.  
 anite e patshituâ -ht  
 there so check.net -(AI)CIN.3p  
 dem.adv prv VAI -sfx

Then they left him behind there when they checked the net.

*Tshek ekue* does not require the highest position in the sentence structure. In example 1-8-033, *ek<sup>u</sup>* has first position. *Ek<sup>u</sup>* appearing at the extreme left edge of a sentence is described in Branigan and MacKenzie 2002.

(1-8-033) Ek<sup>u</sup> **tshek ekue** shîuenîht.  
 ek<sup>u</sup> tshek ekue shîueni -ht  
 so then and.then be.hungry -(AI)CIN.3p  
 p p p VAI -sfx

Then, by and by, they were hungry.

It can also be seen from this example and from 2-1-024 above that the combination of *tshek ekue* can be glossed as ‘by and by’. The two particles, which separately have the similar meaning ‘then’, together have the meaning ‘eventually’.

Despite the fact that *tshek ekue* appears to be a frozen form (similar to those identified by Ogg 1991), *tshek* and *ekue* can appear separately. The following example, 2-7-020, shows *tshek* sentence-finally, with *ekue* in a higher position:

(2-7-020)	Apû	tshî	pimutakuatât		<b>ekue</b>
	apû	tshî	pimutakuat	-ât	ekue
	not	can	shoot.at	-(TA)CIN.3>4	and.then
	p.neg	prv	VTA	-sfx	p
	shatsheueshkakut tshek.				
	shâtsheueshkâ	-iku		-t	<b>tshek</b>
	come.to		-(TA)TS.inv.4>3	-CIN.3	then
	VTA		-sfx	-sfx	p

He could not shoot her with his bow and arrow there.  
Then, she came around to where he was.

When appearing without *ekue*, *tshek* usually appears sentence-initially. It is followed by particles and preverbs, negative particles, or simply the verb. In sentence 1-8-035, *tshek* appears twice. First it is sentence-initial, preceding the verb. In the next clause of the sentence, it is clause-initial and followed by the number particle *patetât*, ‘five’.

(1-8-035)	<b>Tshek</b>	mîtshet,	<b>tshek</b>	patetât	itâkanû
	tshek	mîtsheti	tshek	patetât	it -âkani -u
	then	be.many	then	five	say -Indef. -IIN.3
	p	VAI	p	p	VTA -sfx -sfx

	peikupipuna		nenû.
	peikw-	pipun -a	nenû
	one-	winter -obv(s/pl)	that
	px-	NI -sfx	pro.dem.in.obv

By and by, many times, five times in one year, it was said.

Here in 1-8-006 the negative particle *apû* appears between *tshek* and the verb.

(1-8-006) **Tshek** apû pâpissenimât  
 tshek apû pissenim -ât  
 then not IC.notice.s.o -CIN.3  
 p p.neg VTA -sfx

tshetshipâtânitî  
 tshitshipâtâ -nitî  
 IC.run.off -CIN3.obv  
 VAI -sfx

nenua ukussa.  
 nenua u- kuss -a  
 that 3- son -obv(s/pl)  
 pro.dem.an.obv(s/pl) pfx- NAD -sfx

By and by, he did not notice that his son had gone.

*Ekue* frequently appears alone in the LITP stories. *Ekue* appears sentence or clause-initially, but also occurs following particles or demonstratives. 1-3-014 shows *ekue* following the particle *muk<sup>u</sup>* ‘only’. 1-5-071 shows *ekue* following the demonstrative *anite* ‘there’.

(1-3-014) Muk<sup>u</sup> **ekue** akuâshitâpet  
 muk<sup>u</sup> ekue akuâshitâpe -t  
 only at.that.moment drag from water -CIN.3  
 p p VAI -sfx

kanapua mâni.  
 kanapua mâni  
 for.sure usually  
 p p

He would usually have just pulled it ashore.

(1-5-071) Nîshinîshâpânî utishkuema,  
 nîshînu -shâpânî u- ishkuenu -im -a  
 be.two -IDR.obv 3- wife -poss -obv(s/pl)  
 VII -sfx pfx- NA -sfx -sfx

anite	<b>ekue</b>	ânâshit	nîsht	tshe
anite	ekue	ânâshi -t	nîsht	tshe
there	and.then	place.s.o	unknown	fut
dem.adv	p	VAI	-sfx	unknown
				prv

takushinnitî		ukussa.		
takushin	-nitî	u-	kuss	-a
arrive	-(AI)CIN.4	3-	son	-obv(s/pl)
VAI	-sfx	pfx-	NAD	-sfx

He had two wives. He placed both of them where his son would arrive.

*Ekue* is usually followed by the verb, but a preverb, a particle or a locative particle can occur between *ekue* and the verb. In 1-4-119, the particle *iâpit* ‘anyway’ appears between *ekue* and the verb. 1-7-014 shows the preverb *uî-* ‘want’ in the same place.

(1-4-119) **Ekue** iâpit nakatâukut.  
ekue iâpit nakatâu -iku -t  
at.then anyway leave.behind -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -CIN.3  
p p VTA -sfx -sfx

And then, he flew off anyway, leaving him behind.

(1-7-014) **Ekue** uî tshitinikuât  
ekue uî tshitin -iku -ât  
and.then try.to grab.s.o -inv -(TA)CIN.3p  
p prv VTA -sfx -sfx

**ekue** nipâiâht.  
ekue nipâi -âht  
and.then kill -(TA)CIN.3p>4  
p VTA -sfx

Then it was going to catch up with them and so they killed it.

### 3.1.3 *ât* ‘even if’

There are six sentences with *ât* in my database. *Ât* occurs sentence/clause-initially, after a particle or after a demonstrative. *Ât* is followed by preverbs, particles or

the verb. In 1-8-008, *ât* follows the particle *ek<sup>u</sup>* and precedes the verb. 2-4-004 shows *ât* sentence-initially, before the verb.

(1-8-008) Tshessenimât, ek<sup>u</sup>  
 tshissenim -ât ek<sup>u</sup>  
 IC.know.about -(TA)CIN.3>4 then  
 VTA -sfx p

**ât** niânatuâpamât, mâuât.  
 ât natuâpam -ât mâuât  
 even.if IC.look.for.dup -(TA)CIN.3>4 no  
 p VTA -sfx p.neg

When he realized that he was gone, even though he went looking for him, no.

(2-4-004) **Ât** tshikâkuâteu mâni,  
 ât tshikâkuât -eu mâni  
 even.if spear -(TA)IIN.3>4 usually  
 p VTA -sfx p

muk<sup>u</sup> apû tshî nipâiât.  
 muk<sup>u</sup> apû tshî nipâi -ât  
 but not able kill -(TA)CIN.3>4  
 p p.neg prv VTA -sfx

He would spear them, but he couldn't kill them.

### 3.1.4 *tshetshî* 'so that'

*Tshetshî* 'so that' is labelled a complementizing particle in Drapeau's 1999 dictionary of the Betsiamites dialect of Montagnais. The dictionary also cites the morphologically related word *tshitshî*, the unchanged form of *tshetshî*, as a complementizing particle. Because of these dual forms, this word could also be classified amongst the particles with changed forms. Additionally, the form of *tshetshî* is more akin to that of a preverb, due both to the initial change and because of the



phonological shape of the word. Preverbs tend to be CV or CVCV shaped, while particles are CVC syllables.

My database contains no examples of the complementizer *tshitshî*, and only seven examples of *tshetshî*. In these seven sentences, it occurs at the beginning of a new clause with the compound verb directly to the right. An illustrative example follows.

(2-4-034)	Tshipâ	tshî	mînik <sup>u</sup>		natuenitamutî	
	tshipâ	tshî	mîn	-iku	natuenitamu	-tî
	should.3	can	give	-inv	ask.for	-CS.2>3
	prv	prv	VTA	-sfx	VTA	-sfx
	assîkumâna		<b>tshetshî</b>		mûkumânitshein.	
	assîkumân	-a	tshetshî		mûkumânitshe	-in
	metal	-NI.pl	so.that		make.knife	-(AI)CIN.2
	NI	-sfx	p.conj		VAI	-sfx

Perhaps he would give you metal to make a knife, if you asked him for it.

### 3.1.5 Conclusion of complementizers

The complementizer particles generally appear clause initially and followed by the verb. Complementizers can be followed by other preverbs and particles appearing before the verb stem. The complementizer *ek<sup>u</sup>*, however, may occupy a different slot in the structure of Innu-aimûn, since it can precede other complementizing particles, such as *ât*.

## 3.2 Focus particles

### 3.2.1 *muk<sup>u</sup>* ‘only, but’

*Muk<sup>u</sup>* often appears at the beginning of a sentence or a clause. It can also be preceded by demonstratives and negatives. *Muk<sup>u</sup>* is followed by particles, preverbs,

combinations of particles and preverbs, or the verb. 1-3-014 shows *muk<sup>u</sup>* sentence-initially, with the particle *ekue* ‘then’ between *muk<sup>u</sup>* and the verb. *Muk<sup>u</sup>* appears following a demonstrative and preceding a preverb in 2-8-021.

(1-3-014) **Muk<sup>u</sup>** ekue akuâshitâpet  
 muk<sup>u</sup> ekue akuâshitâpe -t  
 only at.that.moment drag from water -CIN.3  
 p p VAI -sfx  
 kanapua mâni.  
 kanapua mâni  
 for.sure usually  
 p p

He would usually have just pulled it ashore.

(2-8-021) Eukuannû **muk<sup>u</sup>** kâtshî unâtenit  
 eukuan -inû muk<sup>u</sup> kâtshî unâte -nit  
 that's.it -obv only after catch.fire -(II)CIN.4  
 dem -sfx p prv VII -sfx  
 nenû upimîm.  
 nenû u- pimî -im  
 that 3- fat -poss  
 pro.dem.in.obv pfx- NI -sfx

Then his fat started burning rapidly.

### 3.3 Negative particles – *ekâ* and *apû*

Three negative particles appear in the first 18 stories of the LITP: *apû*, *ekâ* and *ama*. *Apû* and *ekâ* are negators regularly used in Innu-aimûn. They are used to negate all word categories, including nouns, verbs and particles. My focus in this description is on the negative particles when they negate verbs. A more detailed discussion of their distribution with respect to independent or conjunct verb orders appears in Chapter 4.

The third negative particle, which appears in one LITP story, is *ama*. It is cognate to the East Cree *nama*, and is used in the Davis Inlet Naskapi. Its use in one of the stories

recorded in Sheshâtshîu almost certainly reflects migration between communities, and the origins of the storyteller. Its patterning will not be discussed in my work since it is probably not a Sheshâtshîu Innu-aimûn particle.

### 3.3.1 *ekâ*

Although *ekâ* can appear sentence or clause-initially, it usually follows one to three particles or preverbs. In 1-3-003, *ekâ* is preceded by the particle *ek<sup>u</sup>* ‘then’ and is followed by the verb.

(1-3-003) Ek<sup>u</sup> **ekâ** nitâpuetuâua,  
 ek<sup>u</sup> ekâ ni- tâpuetu -âua  
 then not 1- agree -(TA)IIN.P.3  
 p p.neg pfx- VTA -sfx

nitânish, iteu.  
 ni- tânish it -eu  
 1- daughter say -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 pfx- NAD VTA -sfx

"Then I did not give him my consent for my daughter",  
 he said.

1-5-040 shows *ekâ* following a particle and two preverbs and preceding the verb stem.

(1-5-040) Ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite, tân  
 ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite tân  
 then that(over.there) old.woman there how  
 p pro.dem.an NA dem.adv p  
 tshipâ tshî **ekâ** natuâpameu.  
 tshipâ tshî ekâ natuâpam -eu  
 should.3 can not look.for -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 prv prv p.neg VTA -sfx

Then that old woman, how can she not go to him?

It is unusual for most particles to appear between preverbs and the verb stem as *ekâ* does in 1-5-040. Typically, particles must occur to the left of the compound verb. The negative particles, therefore, do not behave in the same manner as other particles. Allowing the negative within the compound verb may be necessary to allow negation of the verb stem without negating the tense or aspectual information given by the preverbs.

2-2-036 shows that there is also room for preverbs between the negative particle and the verb stem. In this sentence, *ekâ* is negating the entire compound verb *kâ uî tshitûtein* ‘you wanted to go’.

```
(2-2-036)  - Eitune   mâ,   itikû,
             unknown  mâ    it   -iku -u
             intns   say  -(TA)TS.inv.4>3  -IIN.3
             p       VTA -sfx -sfx

ekâ   kâ    uî    tshitûtein!
ekâ    kâ    uî    tshi- itûte      -in
not    past  want 2-   go.by.foot -(AI)IIN.1/2
p.neg  pfx   prv   pfx- VAI      -sfx
```

"You have been doing this," he said to her, "because you did not want to leave!"

### 3.3.2 *apû*

*Apû* is either clause/sentence-initial or preceded by particles. In my database, it is never preceded by preverbs, unlike *ekâ*. *Apû* is followed by the verb, by the compound verb or by particles. *Apû* also occurs with the temporal particle *nîtâ* ‘never’ following it. *Nîtâ* ‘never’, is discussed separately in section 3.5.3.

In 1-6-055, *apû* is followed by three particles that occur before the verb.

```
(1-6-055)  Apû   minekâsh  shâsh   ût      unuûu
```

apû	minekâsh	shâsh	ût	unuî	-u
not	long.time	already	from	go.out	-IIN.3
p.neg	p	p	p	VAI	-sfx

ne	ishkueu.
ne	ishkueu
that	woman
pro.dem.an	NA

Not long after that, the woman came out.

In 1-4-099 *apû* precedes the compound verb.

(1-4-099)	-	Aaa, mâuât, iteu,	<b>apû</b>
	aaa	mâuât it -eu	apû
	aah	no say -(TA)IIN.3>4	not
	p	p.neg VTA -sfx	p.neg

tshika	tshî	ashâmitân.
tshi-	ka	tshî ashâm -itân
2-	fut	can feed -CIN.1>2
px-	px	prv VTA -sfx

"Aah, no," he said. "I can't give you any to eat."

2-1-032 is an example of *apû* followed by a combination of particles and preverbs. *Apû* is sentence initial and followed by the particle *mînuât* 'again', the preverb *tshika*- 'future' and the temporal particle *nîta* 'never'. All these things precede the verb stem.

(2-1-032)	'	<b>Apû</b>	mînuât	tshika	nîta	itâshpinet
		apû	mînuât	tshika	nîta	itâshpine -t
		not	again	fut.3	never	die.some.way -CIN.3
		p.neg	p	prv	p	VAI -sfx

auen	tshetshî	kûtshit,	eukuan
auen	tshetshî	kûtshi	-t eukuan
someone	so.that	die.of.cold	-CIN.3 that's.it
pro.indef	pxf.conj	VAI	-sfx dem

eshpish	mitunenitamin	'
eshpish	mitunenit	-amin
as.much.as	be.intelligent	-(TI)CIN.2>3

prv	VTI	-sfx
itikûtshe.		
it	-iku	-tshe
say	-inv.4>3	-(TA)IDN.3>4
VTA	-sfx	-sfx

"Never again will a person freeze to death. That is how intelligent you are." That is what he said to him.

### 3.3.3 Conclusion of negatives

The two negative particles behave differently in terms of what they follow. *Ekâ* tends to follow complementizers or preverbs. *Apû* occurs clause-initially, or can follow complementizing particles or particles of speaker opinion. Both negative particles often precede modal or tense preverbs or the verb. The specific conjugation of the verb that follows the negative particles is discussed in chapter four.

## 3.4 Adverbs

### 3.4.1 *tshîts hue* ‘really’

*Tshîts hue* usually appears near the beginning of a clause, but not clause-initially. It follows particles, often *ek<sup>u</sup>* ‘then’ or *shâsh* ‘already’, in most examples in my database. *Tshîts hue* is followed by the verb, other particles, or a preverb. 2-2-021 has *shâsh* preceding *tshîts hue*, with *tshîts hue* immediately preceding the verb. However, there is room in an Innu-aimûn sentence for many more particles, as seen in 1-5-046, below. In that sentence, *tshîts hue* is part of a series of particles. It follows *ek<sup>u</sup>* ‘then’ and is followed by the particle of location *pâpessîsh* ‘close by’, and a particle of speaker opinion, *kanapua* ‘definitely’. The verb follows these particles.

(2-2-021) Shâsh **tshîts hue** shîuenû, shâsh  
shâsh tshîts hue shîueni -u shâsh  
already really be.hungry -IIN.3 already  
p p VAI -sfx p

**tshîts hue** tshimâkateu ne nâpeu.  
tshîts hue tshimâkate -u ne nâpeu  
really be.thin -IIN.3 that man  
p VAI -sfx pro.dem.an NA

Already, he was really hungry. Already, the man was getting really thin.

(1-5-046) Ek<sup>u</sup> **tshîts hue** pâpessîsh kanapua tânuâ,  
ek<sup>u</sup> tshîts hue pessîsh kanapua itâ -inua  
then really close.by.dup definitely IC.be -obv  
p p p p VAI -sfx

eukuannû tshe utîtikut  
eukuan -inû tshe utît -iku -t  
that's.it -obv(s/pl) fut meet -(TA)inv.4>3 -CIN.3  
dem -sfx prv VTA -sfx -sfx

uâpannitî ukussa.  
uâpan -initî u- kuss -a  
be.dawn -(II)CIN.4 3- son -obv(s/pl)  
VII -sfx pfx- NAD -sfx

Then he was getting really close. He would reach her the following day.

### 3.4.2 *minâush* 'hardly'

*Minâush* is not used very often in the first 18 stories of the LITP, appearing in only seven sentences. In these sentences, *minâush* appears sentence-initially three times, and after a particle three times. In the remaining sentence in my database, *minâush* follows a pronoun. It is followed by preverbs, or by the verb. In 1-4-011, *minâush* is sentence-initial, and followed by the preverb *tshî-* and the verb. In 2-2-022, *minâush* follows *shâsh* 'already' and directly precedes the verb.

(1-4-011) **Minâush** tshitshî pipimûten, iteu.  
 minâush tshi- tshî pimûte -n it -eu  
 hardly you- can walk.dup -IIN.2 say -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 p pfx- prv VAI -sfx VTA -sfx

"You can hardly walk," he said to him.

(2-2-022) Shâsh **minâush** tshî pimûteu, ekue pet  
 shâsh minâush tshî pimûte -u ekue pet  
 already hardly able walk -IIN.3 and.then here  
 p p prv VAI -sfx p p

takushinit kâu.  
 takushini -t kâu  
 arrive -CIN.3 again  
 VAI -sfx p.time

Already, he could hardly walk. Then he returned home.

### 3.4.3 *shûk*<sup>u</sup> 'so much'

*Shûk*<sup>u</sup> sometimes follows the verb, a particle or a demonstrative. In other sentences it is followed by the verb or by a compound verb. It can also occur sentence-finally. In 1-3-013, *shûk*<sup>u</sup> follows the particle *anûtsîshîsh* and a demonstrative, and is followed by the verb.

(1-3-013) Anite miâm uâpâkatî, ekute anite  
 anite miâm unknown ekute anite  
 there like unknown right.there there  
 dem.adv p p dem.adv

nepâiâkannitî atîkua, anûtsîshîsh  
 nipâi -âkani -nitî atîk<sup>u</sup> -a anûtsîshîsh  
 IC.kill -Indef. -obv caribou -obv(s/pl) present.time  
 VTA -sfx -sfx NA -sfx p

nenua **shûk**<sup>u</sup> nipinua mâni.  
 nenua shûk nip -inua mâni  
 that lots be.dead -obv(s/pl) usually  
 pro.dem p VAI -sfx p



There, when . . . , recently killed caribou would always be there.

2-1-033 shows *shûk<sup>u</sup>* following the verb. In this sentence, it is modifying *innû* ‘person’.

(2-1-033)	Tâpue	mâ	apû	nîtâ				
	tâpue	mâ	apû	nîtâ				
	indeed	intns	not	never				
	p	p	p.neg	p				
	kûtshit			<b>shûk<sup>u</sup></b>	itâkanû			innû.
	kûtshi	-t	shûk <sup>u</sup>	it	-âkani	-u		innû
	die.of.cold	-CIN.3	lots	say	-Indef	-IIN.3		person
	VAI	-sfx	p	VTA	-sfx	-sfx		NA

Indeed, as of today not many Innu have frozen to death, it is said.

#### 3.4.4 Conclusion of adverbs

Two of the adverbs discussed, *minâush* and *shuk<sup>u</sup>*, can appear sentence or clause-initially. *Tshîshue* does not. It is preceded by complementizer particles or temporal/aspectual particles like *shâsh* ‘already’. When the other adverbial particles are preceded by particles, they tend to be of the temporal/aspectual category. All the adverbial particles can be followed by the verb they modify, or can be followed by preverbs.

### 3.5 Temporal and aspectual particles

#### 3.5.1 *shâsh* ‘already’

*Shâsh* occurs sentence/clause-initially, as in 2-2-022, as well as following particles. *Shâsh* is seen following two particles in 1-6-055.

(2-2-022) **Shâsh** minâush tshî pimûteu, ekue pet  
 shâsh minâush tshî pimûte -u ekue pet  
 already hardly able walk -IIN.3 and.then here  
 p p prv VAI -sfx p p

takushinit kâu.  
 takushini -t kâu  
 arrive -CIN.3 again  
 VAI -sfx p.time

Already, he could hardly walk. Then he returned home.

(1-6-055) Apû minekâsh **shâsh** ût unuîu  
 apû minekâsh shâsh ût unuî -u  
 not long.time already from go.out -IIN.3  
 p.neg p p p VAI -sfx

ne ishkueu.  
 ne ishkueu  
 that woman  
 pro.dem.an NA

Not long after that, the woman came out.

*Shâsh* can be followed by the verb, a clause boundary, particles or preverbs. It is used three times in 2-9-045, once with the demonstrative *nenû* ‘that’ and the preverb *tshî-* ‘perfective’ occurring between *shâsh* and the verb stem. *Nenû* refers to the toboggan that is part of the verb *utâpânitsheu* ‘s/he gets the sled ready’. This sentence is also discussed in section 2.3.1.

(2-9-045) **Shâsh** nenû tshî utâpânitsheu,  
 shâsh nenû tshî utâpânitsh -eu  
 already that perf get.sled.ready -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 p pro prv VTA -sfx

**shâsh** tshî âneu, **shâsh**  
 shâsh tshî ân -eu shâsh  
 already perf place -(TA)IIN.3>4 already  
 p prv VTA -sfx p

tshî uîshkuetâpâteu  
 tshî uîshkuetâpât -eu  
 perf wrap.them -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 prv VTA -sfx

utauâssîma.  
 u- auâss -im -a  
 3- child -poss -obv(s/pl)  
 pfx- NA -sfx -sfx

He had already gotten his toboggan ready. He already had his children wrapped in the toboggan.

In 1-4-070, *shâsh* appears sentence-finally.

(1-4-070) Kassinû apû tânitî **shâsh**.  
 kassinû apû itâ -initî shâsh  
 all not be -(AI)CS.3 already  
 p p.neg VAI -sfx p

None of them were there anymore.

1-6-054 shows *shâsh* at the end of a group of particles, directly before the verb.

(1-6-054) Apû minekâsh **shâsh** mâmâtuetâk.  
 apû minekâsh shâsh mâmâtue -tâk  
 not long.time already moan -(AI)IIP.3  
 p.neg p p VAI -sfx

Not long after that, already he was moaning.

### 3.5.2 *mînuât* 'again'

*Mînuât* occurs sentence/clause-initially in half of the sentences in which it occurs in my database. 2-6-016 shows *mînuât* occurring clause-initially.

(2-6-016) **Mînuât** ekue tipishkât, eshk<sup>u</sup>  
 mînuât ekue tipishkâ -t eshk<sup>u</sup>  
 again and.then be.night -CIN.3 still  
 p p VII -sfx p

pimishkâuat iâpit.  
 pimishkâ -uat iâpit

paddle -(AI)IIN.3p always  
 VAI -sfx p

After another nightfall, still they were paddling..

*Mînuât* can occur after particles. It can also occur sentence-finally following a verb. Sentence 2-8-007 illustrates both these cases. In the first clause, *mînuât* follows the particle *eshk<sup>u</sup>* ‘later’ or ‘still’ and occurs directly to the left of the compound verb. In the second clause, *mînuât* occurs sentence-finally following the verb.

(2-8-007) - Eshk<sup>u</sup> **mînuât** nika takushin,  
 eshk<sup>u</sup> mînuât ni- ka takushin  
 later again 1- fut arrive  
 p p pfx- prv VAI

itikû,  
 it -iku -u tshe ishin  
 say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3 fut say -CIN.2>1  
 VTA -sfx -sfx prv VTA -sfx

mâ takushiniânî **mînuât**.  
 mâ takushin -iânî mînuât  
 intns arrive -(AI)CS.1 again  
 p VAI -sfx p

"I will return," he said, "and then you will tell me when I get back."

2-1-020 shows *mînuât* preceding the demonstrative *nenû*.

(2-1-020) Ek<sup>u</sup> iteu : **Mînuât** nenû ekuana  
 ek<sup>u</sup> it -eu mînuât nenû ekuan -a  
 then say -(TA)IIN.3 again that enough -obv  
 p VTA -sfx p pro.dem p -sfx

uenuît, eukuannû meshta -  
 unuî -t eukuan -inû mishta  
 IC.go.out -CIN.3 that's.it -obv IC.very  
 VAI -sfx dem -sfx prv

pitshikâshut mishkumî.  
 pitshikâshu -t mishkumî  
 sticky.with.heat -CIN.3 ice

VAI -sfx NA

Then he said: « Again he was the one who went out, that was when the ice really crackled/popped. »

1-4-120 has *mînuât* directly before the verb in the first clause, and directly following the verb in the second clause.

(1-4-120) **Mînuât** pepâmpâtât, pepâmpâtât **mînuât**.  
 mînuât papâmpâtâ -t papâmpâtâ -t mînuât  
 again IC.run.dup -CIN.3 IC.run.dup -CIN.3 again  
 p VAI -sfx VAI -sfx p

Again, he was off on his run, he was off on his run again.

### 3.5.3 *nîtâ* ‘never’

*Nîtâ* ‘never’ always occurs with a negative particle preceding it. The negative particle does not have to immediately precede *nîtâ*, although it usually does. *Nîtâ* is followed by the verb, a preverb or a particle. 2-1-033 shows *nîtâ* following the negative particle *apû* and immediately to the left of the verb.

(2-1-033) Tâpue mâ apû **nîtâ**  
 tâpue mâ apû nîtâ  
 indeed intns not never  
 p p p.neg p

kûtshit shûk<sup>u</sup> itâkanû innû.  
 kûtshi -t shûk<sup>u</sup> it -âkani -u innû  
 die.of.cold -CIN.3 lots say -Indef -IIN.3 person  
 VAI -sfx p VTA -sfx -sfx NA

Indeed, as of today not many Innu have frozen to death, it is said.

In 2-1-032, *nîtâ* does not directly follow *apû*. The particle *mînuât* and the preverb *ka-* occur between *nîtâ* and the verb stem.

(2-1-032)	'	Apû	mînuât	tshika	<b>nîtâ</b>	itâshpinet	
		apû	mînuât	tshika	nîtâ	itâshpine	-t
		not	again	fut.3	never	die.some.way	-CIN.3
		p.neg	p	prv	p	VAI	-sfx
		auen	tshetshî	kûtshit,		eukuan	
		auen	tshetshî	kûtshi		-t	eukuan
		someone	so.that	die.of.cold		-CIN.3	that's.it
		pro.indef	pxf.conj	VAI		-sfx	dem
		eshpish	mitunenitamin	'			
		eshpish	mitunenit			-amin	
		as.much.as	be.intelligent			-(TI)CIN.2>3	
		prv	VTI			-sfx	
		itikûtshe.					
		it	-iku			-tshe	
		say	-inv.4>3			-(TA)IDN.3>4	
		VTA	-sfx			-sfx	

"Never again will a person freeze to death. That is how intelligent you are." That is what he said to him.

*Nîtâ* follows the negative particle *ekâ* in 1-8-030. Example 1-8-030 also shows that particles can appear between *nîtâ* and the verb, with the particle *muk<sup>u</sup>* 'only' in that position. In this story, a boy is kidnapped by a bear. The boy's father finds his child and returns him to their community. After his return, the boy dreams that the bear is speaking to him. In 1-8-030, the bear speaks to the boy, telling him not to mention him a lot. Later in the story, the bear tells the boy only to say his name twice.

(1-8-030)	Eukuan	ekâ	<b>nîtâ</b>	muk <sup>u</sup>	mîtshetuâu	
	eukuan	ekâ	nîtâ	muk <sup>u</sup>	mîtshet	-uâu
	that's.it	not	never	only	many	-times
	dem	p.neg	p	p	p	-sfx
	tshika	uîn,		itikû.		
	tshi-	ka	uîn	it	-iku	-u
	2-	fut	name.s.o.Imp	say	-(TA)inv.4>3	-IIN.3



then even.if IC.grab.beaver -(AI)CIN.4  
 p p VAI -sfx

shâpûtuepanua **mâni**.  
 shâpûtue -pan -ua mâni  
 go.straight.through -IIP -perc usually  
 VAI -sfx -sfx p

Then, he was trying to grab the beavers but they kept going through.

(1-3-015) Kâtshî mânukâshutî ek<sup>u</sup>  
 kâtshî mânukâshu -tî ek<sup>u</sup>  
 after set.up.camp -(AI)CS.3 then  
 prv VAI -sfx p

uânâtîkuet ek<sup>u</sup> mâtshishut  
 uînâtîkue -t ek<sup>u</sup> mîtshishu -t  
 IC.clean.caribou -CIN.3 then IC.eat -CIN.3  
 VAI -sfx p VAI -sfx

kanapua **mâni**.  
 kanapua mâni  
 for.sure usually  
 p p

After setting up his tent, then he would clean the caribou and he would always have something to eat.

Even those sentences with *mâni* appearing before a verb have *mâni* near the end of a clause, as can be seen in 2-4-040 below. In this sentence, *mâni* modifies the verb it follows, which means ‘he bends it’. The *nenû* following *mâni* refers to a piece of metal first mentioned in a previous sentence. *Nenû* serves as the object of the verb. A new clause begins after *nenû*, starting with the particle *ât*. *Ât* was discussed in section 3.1.3.

(2-4-040) Ek<sup>u</sup> apû tshî uînameshet eshk<sup>u</sup>,  
 ek<sup>u</sup> apû tshî uînameshe -t eshk<sup>u</sup>  
 then not able clean.fish -CIN.3 still  
 p p.neg prv VAI -sfx p

ushâm papakâshinû nenû,  
 ushâm papakâshi -ini -u nenû  
 because be.thin.dim -obv -IIN.3 that  
 p VII -sfx -sfx pro.dem.in.obv

uâkâpissinam<sup>u</sup> **mâni** nenû



uâkâpissin -am<sup>u</sup> mâni nenû  
 bend -(TI)IIN.3>4 usually that  
 VTI -sfx p pro.dem.in.obv

ât uâ uînameshetî.  
 ât uî uînameshe -tî  
 even.if IC.try clean.fish -(AI)CS.3  
 p prv VAI -sfx

But, he couldn't clean the fish yet. It was too thin.  
 He kept bending it as he tried to clean the fish.

### 3.5.5 *eshk<sup>u</sup>* 'still', 'yet', 'later'

*Eshk<sup>u</sup>* can appear at the beginning of a clause or sentence. It can also follow a verb, appearing at the end of a clause. When it appears at the beginning of the clause, it can be followed by the verb, a negative particle and the verb or a combination of particles. 2-8-007 shows *eshk<sup>u</sup>* sentence-initially, with the particle *mînuât* 'again' between it and the compound verb, which contains the preverb *ka-* 'future'.

(2-8-007) - **Eshk<sup>u</sup>** mînuât nika takushin,  
 eshk<sup>u</sup> mînuât ni- ka takushin  
 later again 1- fut arrive  
 p p pfx- prv VAI

itikû,  
 it -iku -u tshe ishî  
 say -(TA)TS.inv.4>3 -IIN.3 fut say -CIN.2>1  
 VTA -sfx -sfx prv VTA -sfx

mâ takushiniânî mînuât.  
 mâ takushin -iânî mînuât  
 intns arrive -(AI)CS.1 again  
 p VAI -sfx p

"I will return," he said, "and then you will tell me when I get back."

Sentence 1-9-028 has two occurrences of *eshk<sup>u</sup>*. It first appears between the particle *tânite* and the negator *ama*. The second *eshk<sup>u</sup>* is sentence-final.

(1-9-028) Ek<sup>u</sup> ama nitshissenimâu tânite nete  
ek<sup>u</sup> ama ni- tshissenim -âu tânite nete  
then not 1- know.about -(TA)IIN.1>3 how over.there  
p p pfx- VTA -sfx p dem.adv

etâtshimuht, tânite **eshk<sup>u</sup>** ama  
itâtshimu -ht tânite eshk<sup>u</sup> ama  
IC.tell.story -(AI)CIN.3p because yet not  
VAI -sfx p.intrg p p

nimâmituneniten, nitauâssîun **eshk<sup>u</sup>**.  
ni- mâmitunenit -en ni- auâssî -n **eshk<sup>u</sup>**  
1- think.about -IIN.1 1- be.young -IIN.1 still  
pfx- VTI -sfx pfx- VAI -sfx p

I don't know how she told her story because I did not think as I do now. I was still a child.

### 3.5.6 *nânitam* 'always'

Only seven examples of *nânitam* are in my database. It occurs clause-finally three times, clause-initially once and within the clause three times. It follows the verb in four sentences. 1-8-031 shows *nânitam* clause-initially, preceding a preverb.

(1-8-031) **Nânitam** tshika uâpimin anite tshe ût  
nânitam tshi- ka uâpam -n anite tshe ût  
always 2- fut see -IIN.2 there fut from  
p pfx- pfx VTA -sfx dem.adv prv prv

piputueiân, pâtush shûk<sup>u</sup>  
piputue -iân pâtush shûk  
smoke -(AI)CIN.1 after lots  
VAI -sfx p p

shâuennânutî.  
shîueni -nânu -tî  
IC.be.hungry -CIN.Indef -(AI)CS.3  
VAI -sfx -sfx

You will always see me where I will send up smoke,  
but only if the people are very hungry.

In 1-5-019, *nânitam* appears twice. First it is sentence-initial and followed by a demonstrative, and then it appears between the particle *tânite* and the verb.

(1-5-019) **Nânitam** eukuan etât, tânite  
 nânitam eukuan itâ -t tânite  
 always that's.it IC.be -CIN.3 where  
 p dem VAI -sfx p.intrg

nânitam tshissîueu.  
 nânitam tshissîtu -eu  
 always remember -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 p VTA -sfx

It was there that she always remembered him.

In 1-8-028 *nânitam* appears following the verb, between the particle *mâ* and the demonstrative *nenua*.

(1-8-028) Kenuenimât mâ **nânitam** nenua.  
 kanauenim -ât mâ nânitam nenua  
 IC.take.care.of -(TA)CIN.3>4 intns always that  
 VTA -sfx p p dem.obv

The bear had taken care of him the whole time.

### 3.5.7 *tshekât* ‘almost’

Only 5 examples of *tshekât* occur in my database. In those five examples, it appears clause-initially three times. When it occurs clause-initially it is followed by the verb twice and is followed by a demonstrative and the verb once. It can also follow the verb and appear clause-finally or within the clause, between a demonstrative and the verb, as in 1-7-042, following. 2-4-067 is an example of *tshekât* occurring sentence-initially, preceding the verb.



ekue	iâpit	nakatâu	-iku	-t
at.that.moment	anyway	leave.behind	-inv.4>3	-CIN.3
p	p	VTA	-sfx	-sfx

And then, he flew off anyway, leaving him behind.

The negative particle *ama* and the particle *uiesh* appear between *iâpit* and the verb in 1-9-019.

(1-9-019)	<b>Iâpit</b>	ama	uiesh	tûtâkuat		
	iâpit	ama	uesh	tût	-iku	-at
	anyway	not	IC.because	do	-inv.4p>3	-IIN.3p
	p	p	p	VTA	-sfx	-sfx

nâshtîsh, ama nânûtshikâkua.

nâsht	-îsh	ama	nûtshiku	-iku	-a
completely	-dim	not	bother.dup	-inv.4p>3	-obv(s/pl)
p	-sfx	p	VTA	-sfx	-sfx

Still, they did nothing to harm them at all. They didn't lay a finger on them.

*Iâpit* appears sentence-finally in 2-6-016.

(2-6-016)	Mînuât	ekue	tipishkât,	eshk <sup>u</sup>
	mînuât	ekue	tipishkâ	-t eshk <sup>u</sup>
	again	and.then	be.night	-CIN.3 still
	p	p	VII	-sfx p

pimishkâuat **iâpit**.

pimishka	-uat	iâpit
paddle	-(AI)IIN.3p	always
VAI	-sfx	p

After another nightfall, still they were paddling.

### 3.5.9 *minekâsh* 'a long time'

*Minekâsh* follows a negator in four of the seven example sentences from my database. One of these sentences has a preverb between the negator and *minekâsh*.

*Minekâsh* follows demonstratives in the other sentences. It is followed by particles or the

verb. In 1-6-054, *minekâsh* directly follows the negator *apû*, and precedes the particle *shâsh* ‘already’.

(1-6-054) Apû **minekâsh** shâsh mâmâtuetâk.  
 apû minekâsh shâsh mâmâtue -tâk  
 not long.time already moan -(AI)IIP.3  
 p.neg p p VAI -sfx

Not long after that, already he was moaning.

In 1-5-027, *minekâsh* appears between a preverb and the verb stem. *Minekâsh* appears in a slot normally reserved for preverbs.

(1-5-027) Apû tshî **minekâsh** nûkushiân,  
 apû tshî minekâsh nûkushi -ân  
 not can long.time be.visible -(AI)CIN.1  
 p.neg prv p VAI -sfx

tshessinât tshika nûtshikâkâunân.  
 tshessinât tshika ni- utshikâkâu -inân  
 surely fut.3 1- come.after -IIN.3>1p  
 p pfx- pfx- VTA -sfx

"I cannot show myself or else they will come after us."

1-9-018 shows *minekâsh* following a demonstrative and preceding the verb.

(1-9-018) Ek<sup>u</sup> pet iâpit anite **minekâsh** tâuat  
 ek<sup>u</sup> pet iâpit anite minekâsh itâ -u -at  
 then here anyway there long.time IC.be -IIN.3 -pl  
 p p p dem.adv p VAI -sfx -sfx

ekunâht innua.  
 akun -âht innu -a  
 IC.take.pictures -CIN.3p>4 person -obv(s/pl)  
 VTA -sfx NA -sfx

Then they stayed there. They stayed for a very long time, taking pictures of the Innu.

### 3.5.10 *kâu* ‘again’

*Kâu* appears clause-finally, clause-initially or within the clause. When it appears clause-finally, it usually follows the verb. Appearing clause-initially, it is followed by

one particle, which is often *ekue* ‘then/so’. Within the clause, *kâu* is preceded by a particle and followed by a preverb. In 1-5-083, *kâu* follows the verb and is clause-final.

(1-5-083)	Anite	pimûtâkuenua			
	anite	pimûtâkue	-ini	-u	-a
	there	shoot.bow	-obv	-IIN.3	-obv(s/pl)
	dem.adv	VAI	-sfx	-sfx	-sfx
	pitamâ	ishpimît	ekue	pîtûtshenitî	<b>kâu</b> .
	pitamâ	ishpimît	ekue	pîtûtshe	-nitî kâu
	now	up	and.then	come	-(AI)CIN.4 again
	p	p	p	VAI	-sfx p.time

There, he shot an arrow and then he came back inside again.

In 2-5-015, *kâu* appears after a clause boundary and before the particle *ekue* and the verb.

(2-5-015)	Kueshtâshkamûtshe			kanapua
	kueshtâshk	-am		-ûtshe kanapua
	go.around.outside	-(TI)TS.3>4	-IDN.3	definitely
	VTI	-sfx	-sfx	p
	itâkanû	muk <sup>u</sup>	nemenû	
	it -âkani	-u	muk <sup>u</sup>	neme
	say -Indef.	-IIN.3	only	that.one.over.there
	VTA -sfx	-sfx	p	dem
				-obv
				-sfx
	etûtet,		<b>kâu</b>	ekue
	itûte	-t	kâu	ekue
	IC.go.by.foot	-CIN.3	again	and.then arrive
	VAI	-sfx	p.time	p
				VAI
				-sfx

He must have gone around it through the shaking tent, people say; he just walked around and then came back again.

2-7-074 shows *kâu* following *mînuât*, another particle meaning ‘again’ and preceding the perceptive preverb *ka-*.

(2-7-074)	Umushuma			pînim
	u- mushum	-a		pînim
	3- grandfather	-obv(s/pl)		too.soon.or.too.late
	px- NAD	-sfx		p

ekue	tâtshipuniti		tâpue, mînuât
ekue	tâtshipun -iti		tâpue mînuât
and.then	get.fat	-(TA)1>2	indeed again
p	VTA	-sfx	p p

<b>kâu</b>	kâ	ishinâkushinitî	ekue
kâu	kâ	ishinâkushi -nitî	ekue
again	past	look.like	-(AI)CIN.4 and.then
p.time	px	VAI	-sfx p

ishinâkushinitî.  
 ishinâkushi -nitî  
 look.like -(AI)CIN.4  
 VAI -sfx

His father in law indeed started to get fat and, again, he looked more like himself, and like before.

### 3.5.11 Conclusion of temporal and aspectual particles

The temporal and aspectual particles are a large and varied set. Some tend to appear sentence/clause-initially, and are followed by the verb. This sub-set includes *shâsh*, *eshk<sup>u</sup>* and *tshekât*. Others tend to appear with other particles, like *mînuât*, which can occur following negative particles, particles of speaker opinion, and other temporal/aspectual particles. *Nânitam* follows particles of speaker opinion. *Iâpit* follows the complementizer particles and precedes negative particles, while *minekâsh* follows negative particles and precedes temporal/aspectual particles.

## 3.6 Particles of speaker opinion

### 3.6.1 *kanapua* 'surely'

*Kanapua* occurs after the verb in several database sentences. It precedes a particle, a preverb, or a demonstrative. Sentence 1-3-015 shows *kanapua* following and modifying the verb, and being followed by the particle *mâni* 'usually'. *Kanapua* can also



precede the verb, as seen in sentence 1-6-064. A preverb can occur between *kanapua* and the verb, as in 1-5-105.

(1-3-015) Kâtshî mânukâshutî ek<sup>u</sup>  
 kâtshî mânukâshu -tî ek<sup>u</sup>  
 after set.up.camp -(AI)CS.3 then  
 prv VAI -sfx p

uânâtîkuet ek<sup>u</sup> mâtshishut  
 uînâtîkue -t ek<sup>u</sup> mîtshishu -t  
 IC.clean.caribou -CIN.3 then IC.eat -CIN.3  
 VAI -sfx p VAI -sfx

**kanapua** mâni.  
 kanapua mâni  
 for.sure usually  
 p p

After setting up his tent, then he would clean the caribou and he would always have something to eat.

(1-6-064) Ek<sup>u</sup> **kanapua** kueshtak, enuet  
 ek<sup>u</sup> kanapua kusht -ak enuet  
 then definitely IC.fear -(TA)CIN.1>3 at.least  
 p p VTA -sfx p

ekue uîtsheuk.  
 ekue uîtsheu -ak  
 at.that.moment go.with -(TA)CIN.1>3  
 p VTA -sfx

Then, anyway, I was afraid of him, and somehow then I went with him.

(1-5-105) Kie mâmîshkut **kanapua** tshika ishpan  
 kie mâmîshkut kanapua tshika unknown  
 and in.exchange for.sure fut.3  
 p.conj p p prv

pepûki.  
 pipun -k  
 IC.be.winter -CIN.3  
 VII -sfx

And she flies back and forth when the seasons change.





### 3.6.4 *nâsht* ‘quite’, ‘really’, ‘completely’

*Nâsht* usually appears within the clause, never clause-finally and only once clause-initially. It directly precedes the verb in four out of seven examples in my database and often follows other particles. In 1-5-051 *nâsht* appears following the particle *ek<sup>u</sup>* and preceding a verb in the perceptive, with the perceptive prefix.

(1-5-051) « Ueshâ ek<sup>u</sup> **nâsht**  
 uesh -â ek<sup>u</sup> nâsht  
 because -ques then really  
 p -sfx p p

ka - takushinitaka nikuss » ,  
 ka takushin -itak -â ni- kuss  
 perc arrive -IIP -IIN.P 1- son  
 pfx VAI -sfx pfx- NAD

itenitam<sup>u</sup>.  
 itenit -am<sup>u</sup>  
 think -(TI)IIN.3>4  
 VTI -sfx

"Oh my, then my son must indeed be coming," she was thinking.

2-5-006 shows *nâsht* between particles.

(2-5-006) Ek<sup>u</sup> **nâsht** kuetû itinânû kie apû  
 ek<sup>u</sup> nâsht kuetû iti -nânu kie apû  
 then really end do -Indef and not  
 p p p VAI -sfx p.conj p.neg

takuâk anite meshikamât nipî.  
 takuan -t anite mishikamâ -t nipî  
 be -CIN.3 there IC.be.big.lake -CIN.3 water  
 VII -sfx dem.adv VII -sfx NI

Then, there was really nothing that could be done for there was no large body of water there.

### 3.6.5 *mâ* 'well', intensifier

*Mâ* is a focus particle that occurs frequently in my data sentences. It can focus different word classes, including verbs (the focus of my study), particles and demonstratives. I have placed the sentences containing *mâ* in different categories depending on where *mâ* appears in the clause. *Mâ* can appear (1) clause-finally not modifying a verb, (2) clause-finally following a verb and modifying it, (3) clause-initially without a verb (only one example of this), (4) clause-initial modifying a verb phrase, (5) clause-internally not modifying a verb and finally, (6) clause-internally modifying a verb. This final category has the most members. Sentences in group (1) show *mâ* following a demonstrative or a particle as in 2-8-005. The first occurrence of *mâ* in 2-8-005 seems to be modifying the particle *ek<sup>u</sup>* 'so'.

```
(2-8-005)  Eku mâ,      iteu,                shîkatiminân,
            eku mâ      it  -eu                shîkatim  -inân
            so  intns  say  -(TA)IIN.3>4  make.cold -Imp.2>21p
            p   p      VTA -sfx                VTA      -sfx

            eku  mâ      mînuât shîkatiminân
            eku  mâ      mînuât shîkatim  -inân
            then intns  again make.cold -Imp.2>21p
            p     p      p  VTA      -sfx

            kê    uî shîkatimiât.
            kê    uî shîkatim  -iât
            past  want  make.cold -(TA)CIN.2>1pl
            pfx  prv  VTA      -sfx

            "Now," he said.  "Make us cold.  Now you can make us
            cold once again, since that's what you wanted."
```

Group (2) has *mâ* appearing clause-finally following a verb, as in 1-4-107.

```
(1-4-107)  Eku  mîtskishu mâ      !
            eku  mîtskishu mâ      !
            then eat.Imp.2 intns  !
```

p VAI p !

"Well, now you can eat".

In 1-8-034, *mâ* may be focusing the demonstrative *nâ*, making it the only example in group (3).

(1-8-034) **Mâ** nâ nimushum uet  
 mâ nâhî ni- mushum ût  
 intns that 1- grandfather IC.from.there  
 p pro.dem.an pfx- NAD prv

pîputueut, iteu mâni.  
 pîputue -ut it -eu mâni  
 make.smoke.rise -rel say -(TA)IIN.3>4 usually  
 VAI -sfx VTA -sfx p

"There is my grandfather's smoke," he said to them every now and then.

Group (4), clause-initial *mâ* modifying a verb phrase, has *mâ* followed by an interrogative particle, by a verb or a compound verb, as in 1-6-009.

(1-6-009) Itikû niâtikut :  
 it -iku -u nât -iku -t  
 say -inv.4>3 -IIN.3 IC.go.to -inv.4>3 -CIN.3  
 VTA -sfx -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx

**Mâ** tshika uîtshimin ?  
 mâ tshi- ka uîtshim -in  
 intns 2- fut live.with -CIN.2>1  
 p pfx- prv VTA -sfx

He said to her, when he came towards her: "Will you marry me?"

Group (5), *mâ* occurring clause internally not focusing a verb or verb phrase, has *mâ* following a demonstrative or a pronoun, and preceding demonstratives or particles.

1-3-007 shows *mâ* following a demonstrative and preceding the demonstrative and noun phrase *ne nitânish* 'that my daughter'.

(1-3-007) Eukuan **mâ** ne nitânish,  
 eukuan mâ ne ni- tânish  
 that's.it intns that 1- daughter  
 dem p pro.dem.an pfx- NAD

ka - tshitshitaussutshipanaua,  
 ka tshi- tshitâussûtshipan -âua  
 perc 2- get.stuck.in.mud -IIN.P  
 pfx pfx- VAI -sfx

tshitishinâtin, massekut.  
 tshi- ishinu -itin massek<sup>u</sup> -îit  
 2- dream -IIN.2>1 muskeg -Loc  
 pfx- VTA -sfx NI -sfx

"There my daughter, you were stuck in the mud in a bog, I saw you in a dream.

*Mâ* follows a pronoun and precedes a particle in 1-8-036.

(1-8-036) Nemenû **mâ** mâshten patetât  
 neme -inû mâ mâshten patetât  
 that.one -obv(s/pl) intns last five  
 p.pro -sfx p p p

itâkanû, ekute  
 it -âkani -u ekute  
 say -Indef. -IIN.3 right.there  
 VTA -sfx -sfx p

eshitâtshimâkanit tânite apû  
 ishitâtshim -âkani -t tânite apû  
 IC.pull.certain.way -Indef. -CIN.3 because not  
 VTA -sfx -sfx p p.neg

tshî pimûtet.  
 tshî pimûte -t  
 able walk -CIN.3  
 prv VAI -sfx

There the last five it was said, then he was carried there on toboggan because he could not walk.

Group (6), the largest group, has *mâ* within the clause focusing the verb or preverbs. *Mâ* follows a demonstrative, the verb, preverbs or particles. It is followed by a demonstrative, the verb, a preverb or a particle. In 1-8-028, *mâ* follows the verb and precedes the particle *nânitam* 'always'.





### 3.6.6 Conclusion of particles of speaker opinion

The particles of speaker opinion seem to be placed in the sentence more freely. This is to be expected, if they are added as afterthoughts to already stated sentences. This also suggests that their position in Innu-aimûn sentence structure may be more peripheral. An exception to that statement is the particle *mâ*. *Mâ*, when it appears with other particles, can appear following complementizers, other particles of speaker opinion, and temporal/aspectual particles. It can be followed by complementizing particles, the verb or preverbs. Similarly, *nâsht* can appear following complementizers or other particles of speaker opinion, and preceding the verb. Generally, the other particles of speaker opinion can appear following complementizer particles and before the verb.

## 3.7 Particles subject to initial change

### 3.7.1 *ût* (*uet*) 'from/because'

*Ût*'s form changes like a preverb, but it can modify other word classes besides verbs, like a particle. *Ût* can act like either an adverb or a preposition (José Mailhot, personal communication). In my data, *ût* follows demonstratives, preverbs and particles. As well, it is followed by the verb, or followed by preverbs and the verb. In these cases, it is acting as an adverb. *Ût* is followed by a locative particle, and acts as a preposition in 1-5-031, below.

(1-5-031)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	tâpue	nûtshikuâkanit		anite	ût	
	ek <sup>u</sup>	tâpue	nûtshiku	-âkani	-t	anite	ût
	then	indeed	bother	-indf>3	-CIN.3	there	from
	p	VTA	-sfx	-sfx	dem.adv	p	p

ishpimît.  
 ishpimît  
 above  
 p

Then, indeed, he was tormented from above.

The changed form, *uet*, follows a variety of word types, including demonstratives, nouns, particles and verbs. It also occurs clause/sentence-initially. *Uet* occurs before preverbs, the negative particle *ekâ* and the verb. In the question found in 1-6-017, *ût* appears between two preverbs.

(1-6-017) Tânite tshipâ **ût** tshî uîtshimitin ?  
 tânite tshi- pâ ût tshî uîtshim -itin  
 where 2- should because can live.with -IIN.1>2  
 p.intrg pfx- prv p prv VTA -sfx

How can I marry you?

2-7-067 shows *ût* between a preverb and the verb.

(2-7-067) Eukuannû nenû tshipâ **ût**  
 eukuan -inû nenû tshipâ ût  
 that's.it -obv(s/pl) that would because  
 pro.dem -sfx pro.dem.in.obv prv p

nipipan itâkanû ne  
 nipi -pan it -âkani -u ne  
 be.dead -IIP.3 say -indf>3 -IIN.3 that  
 VAI -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx pro.dem.an

e uîshâkût atîk<sup>u</sup>.  
 e uîshâkû -t atîk<sup>u</sup>  
 so be.in.rut -CIN.3 caribou  
 pfx VAI -sfx NA

That is the way in which those caribou would have died, it is said, from rutting.

2-6-009 shows *ût* following a demonstrative and preceding the verb.

(2-6-009) Uiâshtet mâ, nete **ût**

uâshte -t mâ nete ût  
 be.light -CIN.3 intns over.there from  
 VII -sfx p dem.adv p

uâshtenû, âshtamâshk<sup>u</sup>  
 uâshte -nû âshtamâshk<sup>u</sup>  
 be.light -VII.4' on.side.of.wooded.mountain  
 VII -sfx p

ekute **uet** uâshtenit nenû  
 ekute ût uâshte -nit nenû  
 right.there IC.from be.light -(VII)CIN.3' that  
 p p VII -sfx pro.dem

kâtshî nipâiâkanniti  
 kâtshî nipâi -âkani -ini -iti  
 after kill -indf>3 -obv -1>2  
 prv VTA -sfx -sfx -sfx

unâtshima.  
 u- nâtsh -im -a  
 3- son.in.law -poss -obv(s/pl)  
 pfx- NAD -sfx -sfx

There was a light which came from the side of the mountain after his son in law was killed.

In 1-2-012 another use of *uet* can be seen. When it appears in questions following the interrogative particle *tshekuân*, the gloss is 'why'. *Tshekuân* alone glosses as 'what'. In 1-3-039, *uet* follows the demonstrative *eukuan* 'that's it' and precedes the negative particle *ekâ*.

(1-2-012) Ek<sup>u</sup> tshekuân **uet**  
 ek<sup>u</sup> tshekuân ût  
 then what IC.from  
 p p p

ka-tshikâkânuâshkupuâmenâua ?  
 ka- tshi- kâkânuâshkupuâme -nâua  
 perc 2- have.long.thighs.dup -IIN.P  
 pfx pfx- VAI -sfx

"Then why are your thighs so long?"

(1-3-039) Eukuan **uet** ekâ tâpuetâkanit  
 eukuan ût ekâ tâpuet -âkani -t  
 that's.it IC.because not agree -Indef. -CIN.3  
 dem p p.neg VTI -sfx -sfx

tshetshî	atuâikanit			:	matshi	-
tshetshî	atu	-âkani	-t		matshi	
so.that	point.at	-Indef.	-CIN.3		bad	
p.conj	VTI	-sfx	-sfx		pvb	

tshîshikâu		etuâkanitî				
tshîshikâ	-u	atu	-âkani	-tî		
be.day	-IIN.3	IC.point.at	-Indef.	-CS		
VII	-sfx	VTI	-sfx	-sfx		

inânû		Petshishkâpishkâu.				
i	-nânu	-u	Petshishkâpishkâu			
say	-Indef	-IIN.3	Petshishkapushkau			
VAI	-sfx	-sfx	NA.name			

That is why you can not point at it. The weather gets bad if you point at it, it is said, Petshishkapishkau.

Wolfart (1973) describes the Plains Cree cognates of *ût*, *ô* and *ohci* ‘from there, therefore; originally’. He says that *ô* behaves as a preverb and *ohci* as a particle. *Ô* precedes all other preverbs with which it appears, and *ohci* has no fixed position (1973:77). It is possible that Plains Cree has maintained two historical forms that Sheshâtshîu Innu-aimûn has collapsed into one form with two functions. According to Drapeau’s *Dictionnaire Montagnais-Français*, the historical pronunciation of Montagnais *ût* is *utchi*, which is more phonologically similar to the Plains Cree *ohci*. Alternatively, the Montagnais *utchi* could be little changed from the historical Cree-Montagnais-Naskapi form of the word, with the Plains Cree separation of *ô* and *ohci* an innovation.

### 3.7.2 *ishpish* (*eshpish*) ‘so much that’, ‘as far as’, ‘so much’, ‘so much so’, ‘ever since’

Although *ishpish* and *eshpish* are labelled particles, their meaning and form seem close enough to consider that *eshpish* is the changed form of *ishpish*. As well, *eshpish*

appears with the conjunct form of the verb in my database, which is expected when initial change occurs in a preverb. Many of the examples of *eshpish* are followed by the verb *tât* ‘s/he is there’ or its plural form, *tâht* ‘they are there’.

There are only four examples in my database of *ishpish*. It occurs following a clause boundary, following the verb, following a preverb and following a particle. It is followed by particles, the compound verb or the verb. 2-5-018 shows *ishpish* between a preverb and the verb. In 2-7-080, *ishpish* appears between a particle and the verb. In both these sentences, *ishpish* is appearing in a preverb-like position.

(2-5-018) Eukuan eshkukatenit nenû  
 eukuan ishkukate -nit nenû  
 that's.it IC.be.left.unburnt -(II)CIN.4 that  
 dem VII -sfx pro.dem

kâ **ishpish** itûtet.  
 kâ ishpish itûte -t  
 past so.much go.by.foot -CIN.3  
 prv p VAI -sfx

Right there where the line of fire stopped was where he had walked.

(2-7-080) Nete mâ **ishpish** shashkannit,  
 nete mâ ishpish shashkan -nit  
 over.there intns so.much be.melting.snow -(II)CIN.4  
 dem.adv p p VII -sfx

ekute etâht itâkanû,  
 ekute itâ -ht it -âkani -u  
 right.there IC.be -(AI)CIN.3p say -indf>3 -IIN.3  
 p VAI -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx

anite panakutenû  
 anite panakute -nû  
 there ground.is.visible.as.snow.melts -(VII)IIN.4  
 dem.adv VII -sfx

ekute e-itâht,  
 ekute e- itâ -ht  
 right.there IC.conj- be -(AI)CIN.3p  
 p prv- VAI -sfx

shashkannû		shâsh.
shashkan	-nû	shâsh
be.melting.snow	-(VII)IIN.4	already
VII	-sfx	p

Later, when the snow started to soften, they stayed there, it is said, there where patches of ground were showing where the snow had melted.

In example 2-5-018, *ishpish* occupies preverbal position (between the preverb *kâ-* and the verb *itûtet*). In contrast to 2-5-018, example 2-7-080 does not show *ishpish* occurring in preverb position. I conclude that *ishpish* is a particle that is required to be closer to the verb than other particles. Examples of the placement of the changed form *eshpish* support this second conclusion, as *eshpish* seems to be a particle that appears closer to the verb than other particles. Unfortunately, there are no examples of person marking on *ishpish* preceding a verb in the independent, which would be the most compelling evidence to classify *ishpish* as a preverb.

*Eshpish* directly precedes the verb in eleven of the thirteen sentences in my database. It is preceded by other particles or demonstratives, but there are no examples of a preverb preceding *eshpish*. When *eshpish* appears within the clause, that is, with particles or demonstratives preceding it, it always directly precedes the verb. *Eshpish* also occurs clause-initially, either directly preceding the verb or preceding a demonstrative or a particle. 2-9-003 shows *eshpish* clause-initially, preceding the verb *tâht* ‘they are there’.

(2-9-003)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	shâuenîht	tshîts hue	<b>eshpish</b>
	ek <sup>u</sup>	shâueni -ht	tshîts hue	eshpish
	so/then	be.hungry	-CIN.3p really	while
	p	VAI	-sfx p	p
	tâht		anite.	

itâ -ht anite  
 IC.be -CIN.3pl there  
 VAI -sfx dem

They were really hungry while they were there.

*Eshpish* is sentence-initial in 2-8-010, and followed by another particle and a demonstrative.

(2-8-010) **Eshpish** mâ anite tât,  
 eshpish mâ anite itâ -t  
 as.much.as intns there IC.be -CIN.3  
 p p dem.adv VAI -sfx

nâpinnit ek<sup>u</sup> miâutât  
 nîpin -nit ek<sup>u</sup> mâutâ -t  
 IC.be.summer -(VII)CIN.3' then IC.gather -CIN.3  
 VII -sfx p VAI+O -sfx

pimînû.  
 pimînû  
 grease  
 NA

While he was there in the summer, he spent the whole time gathering fat.

In 2-1-015 *eshpish* appears after a particle and before the verb.

(2-1-015) Ek<sup>u</sup> iteu itâkanû : « Ek<sup>u</sup>  
 ek<sup>u</sup> it -eu it -âkani -u ek<sup>u</sup>  
 then say -(TA)IIN.3>4 say -Indef -IIN.3 then  
 p VTA -sfx VTA -sfx -sfx p

**eshpish** shâkâpueshit ne,  
 eshpish shâkâpueshi -t ne  
 as.much.as sweat -CIN.3 that  
 p VAI -sfx pro.dem

pîâpâtshikut, ek<sup>u</sup> uenuît.  
 pâtshiku -t ek<sup>u</sup> unuî -t  
 IC.drip.dup -CIN.3 then go.out -CIN.3  
 VII -sfx p VAI -sfx

Then it is told that he said: "Then, while he was dripping with sweat, he went outside."

### 3.8 *Other particles*

Some particles occur so infrequently there are too few sentences available to give a description of their use. These include *mîshkut* ‘instead’, *enuet* ‘at least’, *ushâm* ‘because’, *ushkat* or *ueshkat* ‘at first’, *anûtshîsh* ‘present time’, *pâtush* ‘after’, *uesh* ‘because’, *tshessinât* ‘probably/surely’, *shâshîsh* ‘long time ago’ and *minekâshish* ‘a while/ for long enough’. These particles appear infrequently in the first eighteen stories of the LITP.

### 3.9 *General conclusion*

The complementizing particles most often appear at the left edge of the Innu-aimûn sentence, preceding all other particles occurring in the sentence. When other particles appear in a sentence without a complementizer, they also appear on the left edge. Focus particles appear at the left edge, and are usually only preceded by negative particles in my data. Negative particles are variable in their placement, however, since they can either negate a constituent of the sentence or negate the sentence as a whole. When they negate a constituent, they precede it. The negative particles can even appear within the compound verb. Other particles typically cannot appear between a preverb and the verb it modifies. When co-occurring with other particles, the negative particle *apû* tends to follow complementizers and particles of speaker opinion. Adverb particles follow complementizers or temporal/aspectual particles. More than one temporal/aspectual particle can appear in a sentence. The particles of speaker opinion



can occur after the verb. When they appear before the verb, they occur after complementizers. One particle appears preceding a negative particle and a temporal/aspectual particle. More than one particle of speaker opinion can occur in a sentence. A possible template for the particles of Innu-aimûn is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Innu-aimûn particle template

Complementizer	Speaker Opinion	Temporal/ Aspectual	Adverb	(Compound) Verb
----------------	--------------------	------------------------	--------	--------------------

Negative particles can occur between any particles, or between the particles and the (compound) verb. Not enough data is available to include the focus particles in this template.

#### 4. QUESTIONS, NEGATIVES AND THE FORM OF THE VERB

Previous research has shown that verbs appear as independent or conjunct based in part on the temporal reference of a statement or question, and whether or not the statement is negated. Clarke states that for interrogatives, “the exact form of the verb... is dependent on the temporal reference of the event” (1982:127). Questions with a present reference use the indicative neutral changed conjunct, questions with future reference have the preverb *tshe-* and the indicative neutral conjunct, and questions with past reference use the preterit indicative independent (1982:127). Examples from Clarke (1982:128-131) follow. Example (16) shows the changed conjunct used after question words in questions with present reference. (17) has future reference, as evidenced by the preverb *tshe-* used before the conjunct verb. Example (18) has past reference, indicated by the *-pan* suffix of the preterit indicative independent.

(16) *Auen uîâpamukut?*  
‘Who is seeing him?’

(17) *Tânite tshe-mishikât?*  
‘Where will he arrive?’

(18) *Tân eshpish takuanîpan?*  
‘How much was there?’

Clarke (1982:127) reports that the negative particles *apû* and *ekâ* are always followed by the conjunct. This is in contrast with some of the data I have found, where

verbs in the independent follow the negative *ekâ*. Example 1-6-037 has a quoted question. The question *Tân nânâ ekâ tâua?* has a question particle *tân*, the negative *ekâ* and the verb in the independent perceptive. The perceptive verb in this sentence does not take the prefix *ka-* because it is negated.

(1-6-037)	Tekushinit	nânâ	nâpeu	
	takushin -t	nânâ	nâpeu	
	IC.arrive -CIN.3	that(absent)	man	
	VAI -sfx	pro.dem.an	NA	
	: Tân nânâ	ekâ tâua ?	iteu.	
	tân nânâ	ekâ itâ -ua	it -eu	
	how that(absent)	not be -IIN.P	say -(TA)IIN.3>4	
	p pro.dem.an	p.neg VAI -sfx	VTA -sfx	

The man came home: "How come she's not here?" he asked.

In example 1-4-160, a different form of question morphology occurs with a verb in the independent. The interrogative in 1-4-160 is formed with the enclitic *-â*, which usually appears in yes-no questions (Clarke 1982:126). Clarke shows no negated yes-no questions in her work. The enclitic itself is added as a suffix to the element being questioned, so it can be suffixed to any word category. In 1-4-060, the verb following the question marker *â* is negated with *ekâ*, and is in the independent.

(1-4-160)	- Eshe, tânite	ushâm	tshuî	mimîtshishun
	ehe tânite	ushâm	tshi- uî	mîtshishu -n
	yes where	because	2- want	eat.dup -IIN.2
	p p.intrg p	pfx- prv	VAI	-sfx
	mâni, tshipâ	tshî â	ekâ	âkushin?
	mâni tshi- pâ	tshî â	ekâ	âkushi -n
	usually 2-	should can	intrg not	be.sick -IIN.2
	p pfx- prv	prv p	p.neg VAI	-sfx

"Yes. No wonder you're sick, you always want to eat and eat."

Example 1-5-097 is an example of a sentence with past reference taking the independent preterit endings, as described in Clarke (1982). 1-5-097 is an exclamation in question form. Because of its use of the question particle *tân* 'how', I expect its syntax to be question-like, and true to question form, the verb has the independent preterit suffixes expected.

(1-5-097)	Tân tshipâ	ekâ	ishkuâtepannû		
	tân tshipâ	ekâ	ishkuâte	-pan	-nû
	how should.3	not	burn	-IIP	-(II)IIN.4
	p prv	p.neg	VII	-sfx	-sfx
	upimîm.				
	u-	pimî	-im		
	3-	fat	-poss		
	px-	NI	-sfx		

How should his marrow not burn?

However, the presence of the negative causes a problem. Clarke says that negatives typically require a verbal complement in the conjunct (1982:127). This statement seems to be contradicted by sentence 1-5-097. It is possible that the question word's (*tân*) requirements for a verb following in the independent are greater than the negative's requirements for a conjunct verb. That is, that *tân* needs to be followed by the independent in order for checking to occur. *Ekâ*, preferring a conjunct, does not need the conjunct to satisfy a checking relationship and therefore can allow the independent.

This data suggests that the description found in Clarke (1982) should be revisited. Are question words usually followed by the conjunct, with a limited set followed by the

independent? What follows negative particles? These two questions are addressed in the current chapter.

#### 4.1 Interrogatives

In examining questions with *wh*-words from the LITP data, we see that both the independent and the conjunct orders can occur. I will discuss three Innu-aimûn *wh*-words in the following sections: *tshekuân* ‘what’, *tân* ‘how’ and *tânite* ‘where’.

##### 4.1.1 *tshekuân* ‘what’

In the first two books of LITP stories, I found 9 questions with the interrogative word *tshekuân*. Four of those questions followed *tshekuân* with an independent form and five followed with a conjunct form of the verb. Three of the five conjunct forms are the changed conjunct with the change either in the verb itself or an accompanying preverb. The four sentences with the independent were all the independent perceptive, with a gloss of “it seems”. The independent perceptive is discussed in the introduction to this chapter. An example sentence with the independent perceptive follows. This verb form is not discussed in Clarke (1982), possibly because it did not happen to occur in her field work.

(1-2-006)	Ek <sup>u</sup>	ne	tshekuân	ka -
	ek <sup>u</sup>	ne	tshekuân	ka-
	then	that	what	perc
	p	pro.dem.an	p	p

tshuîshâukanâshtenâua ?  
 tshi- uîshâukanâshtenâ -ua  
 2- have.yellow.feet -IIN.P  
 pfx- VAI -sfx

"And why are the bottoms of your feet yellow?"

An example of a question with the conjunct form of the verb follows. This sentence follows Clarke's description. It has future reference (due to the future preverb *tshe-*) and a conjunct verb.

(1-5-074) - Tshekuânnû                      tshe ashâmak                      ?  
 tshekuân -inû                      tshe ashâm -ak  
 what                      -obv(s/pl) fut feed -(TA)CIN.1>3  
 NI                      -sfx                      prv VTA -sfx

"What should I feed him?"

The following sentence, 1-4-034, contains an example of the changed conjunct, again used in an exclamatory statement with interrogative syntax.

(1-4-034) Tshekuânnû                      tshemâtenit,                      uîshtinû !  
 tshekuân -inû                      tshimâte -ini -t                      uîsht -inû  
 what                      -obv(s/pl) IC.stand -obv -CIN.3 lodge -obv  
 p/NI                      -sfx                      VAI                      -sfx -sfx                      NI                      -sfx

What was standing there but a beaver lodge!

In 2-9-015 the meaning of *tshekuân* is changed because of the changed particle *uet*, from 'what' to 'why'. This use of *uet* is discussed in Chapter 3. However, as seen above in example 1-2-006 (page 79), *tshekuân* can be glossed as 'why' without *uet*.

(2-9-015) « Tshekuânnîtshe                      uet                      ekâ  
 tshekuân -nîtshe                      ût                      ekâ  
 what                      -IDN.obv from/because not  
 p/ni                      -sfx                      p                      p.neg  
  
 uî                      tshîtsheetshî ? »                      itenimeu.  
 uî                      tshîtsheetshî -t                      itenime -eu  
 want leave.with.sled -CIN.3 think -(TA)IIN.3  
 prv VAI                      -sfx                      VTA                      -sfx

"Why is it that she does not want to travel to winter camp?" he was wondering.

#### 4.1.2 *tân* 'how'

There are 19 questions with *tân* 'how/what' in the first 18 stories of the LITP. Eleven of these are in the changed conjunct with the remaining two in the conjunct. Six are in the independent. One of the sentences in the independent has the preterit suffix, reference number 1-5-097.

(1-5-097) *Tân tshipâ ekâ ishkuâtepannû*  
*tân tshi- pâ ekâ ishkuâte -pan -nû*  
 how 2- should not burn -IIP -(II)IIN.4  
 p pfx- prv p.neg VII -sfx -sfx

*upimîm.*  
*u- pimî -im*  
 3- fat -poss  
 pfx- NI -sfx

How his fire flared up the caribou marrow!

Other sentences with the independent do not have past reference. Rather, they have a sense of the dubitative, either due to their use of the dubitative suffix or in their meaning. Clarke glosses verbs with the dubitative ending with 'perhaps' (1982:48). Sentence 2-5-021, shows the independent dubitative present suffix on the verb following *tân*.

(2-5-021) *Tân itashinitshenî nenua*  
*tân itashi -nitshenî nenua*  
 how be.such.a.number -(AI)IDN.4 that  
 p VAI -sfx pro.dem.an.obv(s/pl)

*ukâiâshtuaitsheshîma* ?  
*u- kâiâshtuaitsheshî -im -a*  
 3- firefighter -poss -obv(s/pl)  
 pfx- NA -sfx -sfx

"I wonder just how many there were of his firefighters!"

Example 2-3-021, although lacking a dubitative suffix on the verb following *tân*, has an element of speculation – the speaker has not seen a giant beaver pelt, but rather is basing his knowledge on the information in the story. This speculation is similar to the dubitative, used when there is no first-hand knowledge of the event being described. The verb following *tân* is in the independent.

(2-3-021) Tân tshipâ ishpitetshishû atai,  
 tân tshipâ ishpitetshishi -u atai  
 how would.3 be.a.certain.size -IIN.3 beaver.pelt  
 p prv VAI -sfx NA  
  
 ne meshishtit amishk<sup>u</sup> ?  
 ne mishishti -t amishk<sup>u</sup>  
 that IC.be.big -CIN.3 beaver  
 pro.dem.an VAI -sfx NA

How big the pelt would be of one of the giant beaver!

The preverb *tshipâ*- ‘could/should’ is often present with verbs in the independent that follow *tân*, as in 2-3-021 above and 1-5-040 and 1-5-042 below.

(1-5-040) Ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite, tân  
 ek<sup>u</sup> nâhî kûkûminâsh anite tân  
 then that(over.there) old.woman there how  
 p pro.dem.an NA dem.adv p  
  
 tshipâ tshi ekâ natuâpameu.  
 tshipâ tshi ekâ natuâpam -eu  
 should.3 can not look.for -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 pfx- pr prv p.neg VTA -sfx

Then that old woman, how can she not go to him?

(1-5-042) Kie tân tshipâ tshî itenimikû  
 kie tân tshipâ tshî itenim -iku -u  
 and how should.3 perf think -(TA)inv.4>3 -IIN.3  
 p.conj p prv prv VTA -sfx -sfx

And how he would not think of him.



The sentences with *tân* and the changed conjunct do not have any particles or preverbal material between the wh-word and the verb, in comparison with the previous examples of the wh-word, preverbs and the independent. Some examples of the changed conjunct in questions follow:

(1-4-042) - « Tâñ etîñ ? » ituekâtueu.  
 tâñ iti -in ? ituekâtue -u  
 what IC.do -(AI)CIN.2 ? reply -IIN.3  
 p VAI -sfx ? VAI -sfx

"What are you doing?" he (Hare) repeated back to him.

(2-7-029) Tâñ etenitamin anite tshîts hit  
 tâñ itenit -amin anite tshîts hit  
 how IC.think -(TI)CIN.2>3 there very.near  
 p VTI -sfx dem p

etâinî ?  
 itâ -inî  
 IC.be -(AI)CS.2  
 VAI -sfx

How do you feel when you are very near?

#### 4.1.3 *tânite* 'where'

Eleven questions with *tânite* occur in the first 18 LITP stories. Of these, eight are in the independent, two are in the conjunct and one is in the changed conjunct. Again, some of those in the independent are dubitative, such as example 2-7-102. Others have the preverb *pâ-*, 'should', suggested in section 2.2.3 to have a dubitative meaning.

Sentence 1-6-017 is shown below with *pâ-*.

(2-7-102) Tâñite anite takuanîtshe ?  
 tâñite anite takuan -itshe  
 where there exist -IDN.3  
 p.intrg dem.adv VII -sfx

Where would that be?

(1-6-017) Tânite tshipâ ût tshî uîtshimitin ?  
 tânite tshi- pâ ût tshî uîtshim -itin  
 where 2- should because can live.with -IIN.1>2  
 p.intrg pfx- prv p prv VTA -sfx

How can I marry you?

None of the verbs in the independent are in the preterit.

Both the verbs with the conjunct have the future preverb *tshē-*. The one example of the changed conjunct has a present time reference. This is consistent with the observations made by Clarke (1982:127).

#### 4.1.4 Conclusion of interrogatives

Overall the data from the LITP are consistent with the observations made in Clarke (1982) of sentences with interrogative words. I have observed that the independent dubitative and independent perceptive can follow question words. The independent also follows question words when the compound verb contains the preverb *pâ-*. Variations from Clarke's observations may be the result of differences in the source of data. Clarke's syntactic data came from sentences and short texts elicited from speakers (1982:viii). My data, coming from long stories mainly from the oral history of the Innu, have the grammar of extended narrative. There may be verbal forms in the LITP stories that were not recorded by Clarke.

Sentences with negatives are examined next to see if the LITP data follows the generalization found in Clarke (1982) that verbs following a negator are in the conjunct. Then the question of why verbs following a question word and a negator appear in the forms they do will be examined.

## 4.2 *Negatives*

In this section I examine the forms of the verb that follow the negative particles *apû* and *ekâ* in Innu-aimûn. I then describe the differing structure of sentences with *apû* and *ekâ*, based on Brittain (1997) and Brittain (2001). An Optimality Theory discussion of negated sentence structure concludes this section.

### 4.2.1 *Verbal forms following negators*

Clarke says that both the negators *apû* and *ekâ* are followed by verbs in the conjunct. *Apû* is the main clause negator and *ekâ* is used in subordinate clauses (1982:127). Brittain (2001) finds that the Western Naskapi cognate *âkâ* occurs with the independent subjective, the conjunct and in imperative sentences (206).

In the first 18 LITP stories, 76 sentences appear with the negator *apû*, and 35 with the negator *ekâ*. Of those sentences with *apû*, the majority appear with a verb following in the conjunct, with two exceptions, one with the independent neutral and one with an indirect independent. These two exceptions are due to the fact that *apû* negates a constituent other than the verb. The verb does not then need to be in the conjunct. The sentences with *ekâ* show more variation. Six have the independent neutral, one has the independent preterit, four are the independent perceptive and six are imperatives. The rest have a verb in the conjunct. *Ekâ* is followed by many different verb conjugations. Some examples of *ekâ* with different verb forms follow. 1-3-003 has the independent perceptive neutral.

(1-3-003) Ek<sup>u</sup> ekâ nitâpuetuâua,  
 ek<sup>u</sup> ekâ ni- tâpuetu -âua  
 then not 1- agree -(TA)IIN.P.3  
 p p.neg pfx- VTA -sfx

nitânish, iteu.  
 ni- tânish it -eu  
 1- daughter say -(TA)IIN.3>4  
 pfx- NAD VTA -sfx

"Then I did not give him my consent for my daughter",  
 he said.

The independent perceptive appears in questions, as seen in section 4.1 and in sentence 2-7-084, where the word *ueshâushâm* 'oh my god' is glossed as in the free translation as 'why'.

(2-7-084) Ei, iteu, ueshâushâm  
 ei it -eu ueshâushâm  
 hey say -(TA)IIN.3>4 oh.my.goodness  
 p VTA -sfx p

ekâ tshikâshunâua.  
 ekâ tshi- kâshu -nâua  
 not 2- hide.oneself -(AI)IIN.P.2  
 p.neg pfx- VAI -sfx

He said: "oh my goodness, why aren't you covering  
 yourself?"

The imperative is used in the second instance of *ekâ* in 2-2-011.

(2-2-011) Ekâ pitamâ, iteu, ushâm mishta -  
 ekâ pitamâ it -eu ushâm mishta  
 not now say -(TA)IIN.3>4 because very  
 p.neg p VTA -sfx p pfx

minuâua mîta ute  
 minuâ -ua mît -a ute  
 be.good -(VII)IIN.3p firewood -obv(s/pl) here  
 VII -sfx NI -sfx p.adv

uâtshiâk<sup>u</sup>, ekâ tshîtshipitshitâu.  
 uîtshi -âk<sup>u</sup> ekâ tshîtshipitshi -âtâu  
 IC.help.s.o -CIN.21>3 not leave.with.sled -Imp.1p>3

VTA                    -sfx                    p.neg VAI                    -sfx

"Just wait awhile ," she said, " there is really good wood here at our camp. Let's not move our camp.

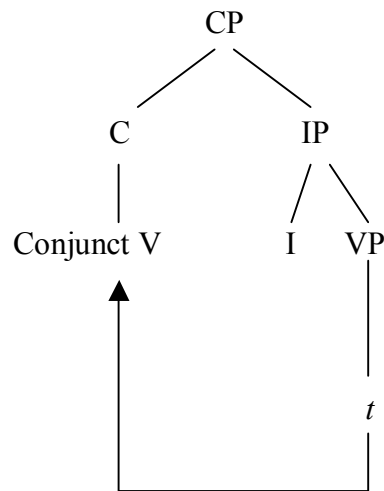
Many of the examples of *ekâ* and *apû* with verbs other than the conjunct are from quoted speech, although not all are.

Innu-aimûn allows the independent, conjunct and changed conjunct forms of the verb to follow the negator *ekâ*, but usually only allows the conjunct and changed conjunct to follow *apû*. Interrogatives require verbal complements of different orders, depending on the tense requirements of the sentence. Often the verb following an interrogative is in the independent. What happens when the verb being questioned is also negated? If the verb is negated by *ekâ* there may be no problem for an analysis since *ekâ* can be followed by the independent as well. If the verb is followed by *apû*, then problems may arise.

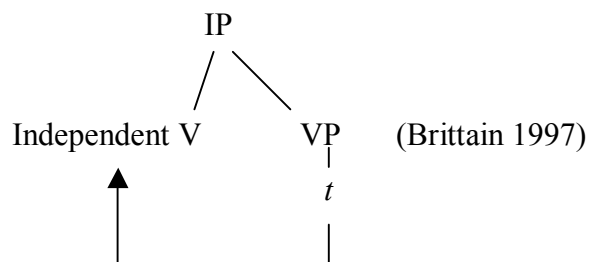
#### 4.2.2 *Negated sentence structure*

The next question is how these sentences are structured. Why can *ekâ* accept verbs in the independent while *apû* never can? Brittain (1997) suggests that *ekâ* is in C, and that *apû* is in spec-C. Brittain (2001) argues that both *ekâ* and *apû* are in C. Brittain says that the conjunct form of the verb raises to C, and that the highest point that the independent form of the verb rises is to Infl. A conjunct verb is shown in (19), and an independent in (20).

(19)



(20)



(Brittain 1997)

More specifically, Brittain argues the independent verb moves from the head of the verb phrase through Agr<sub>O</sub> and T to land at the head of the Agr<sub>S</sub>P (1997:262). The conjunct verb moves directly from the head of the VP to the head of the CP, in an instance of Long Head Movement. It does not stop in Agr<sub>O</sub>, T or Agr<sub>S</sub>, as evidenced by the fact conjunct verbs are not inflected for person or tense to the same extent that independent verbs are (1997:263-66).

Does this shed any light on why *ekâ* can take verbs in the independent as a complement and *apû* never can? If *ekâ* is in C, a more compact structure would result if

it is followed by the independent, because the independent only raises to Infl. This is shown in (21) following.

$$(21) \quad [_{CP} [_{C'} [_{C} \text{ekâ}] [_{IP} V_{\text{independent}}]]]]$$

When *ekâ* is followed by a conjunct, they both must be in C, creating a sentence with CP-recursion, as in (22).

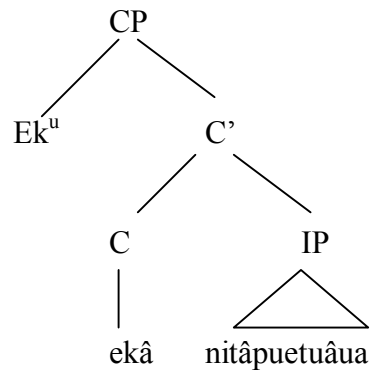
$$(22) \quad [_{CP} [_{C'} [_{C} \text{ekâ}] [_{CP} [_{C'} [_{C} V_{\text{conjunct}}] [_{IP} t]]]]]]$$

Allowing *ekâ* to be followed by the independent creates an elegant tree structure with less redundancy. *Apû* in spec-C can take the conjunct, with complement raising to C. This appears in (23).

$$(23) \quad [_{CP} \text{apû} [_{C'} [_{C} V_{\text{conjunct}}] [_{IP} t]]]]$$

In an analysis with *apû* in C, as in Brittain (2001), all sentences with *apû* and the conjunct will require a double CP-structure, like the sentences formed with *ekâ*. With both negators in identical syntactic position, how can they be differentiated? Brittain says that Innu-aimûn learners use syntactic context to distinguish *apû* and *ekâ*, with *apû* used only in main clauses and *ekâ* used in subordinate clauses (2001:216). Some examples of the structure of negated independent and conjunct verbs follow, with only the relevant part of the sentence diagrammed. All examples are from the LITP.

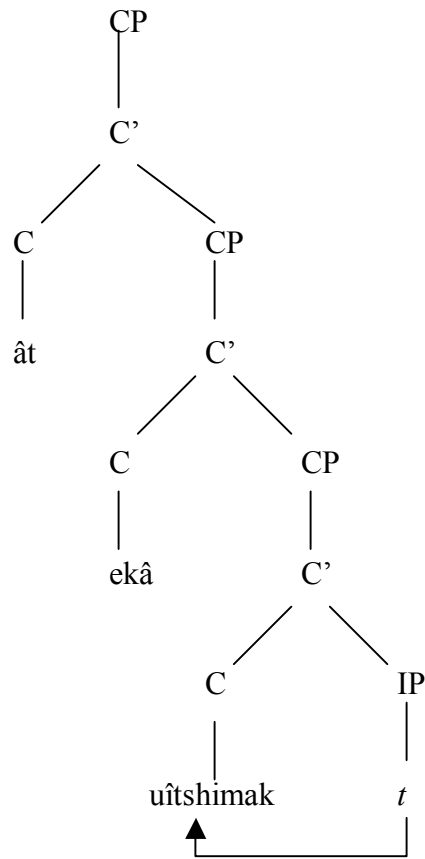
(24) *ekâ* with independent: 1-3-003



*Ek<sup>u</sup> ekâ nitâpuetuâua*  
'Then I did not give him my consent for her'

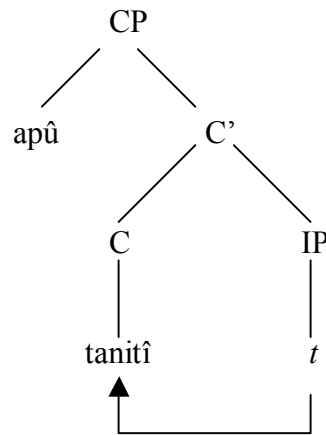


(25) *ekâ* with conjunct: 1-6-025



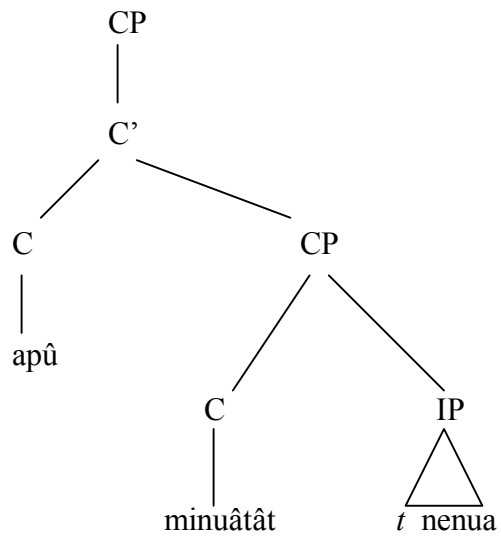
*ât ekâ uîtshimak*  
'if I don't marry him'

(26) *apû* in Spec-CP with conjunct: 1-3-025, following Brittain (1997):



*apû tânitî.*  
 'she was not there'

(27) *apû* in C with conjunct: 1-5-007, following Brittain (2001):



*Apû minuâtât nenua.*  
 'she did not like him'

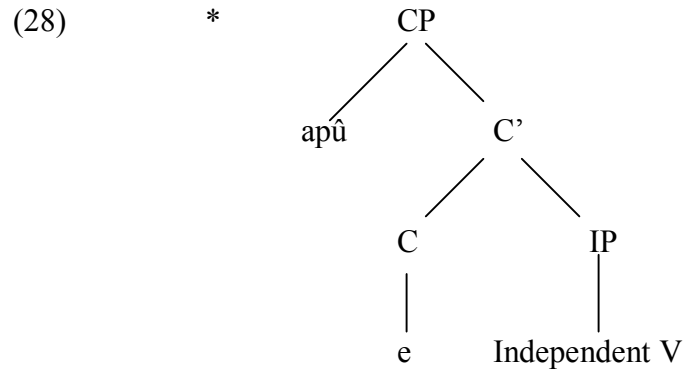
As can be seen, the trees with *ekâ* and *apû* in C followed by the conjunct are more complex, involving CP-recursion. This recursion is not necessary for the structures of *ekâ* and the independent. *Ekâ*, occurring in C, allows independent verb forms because they do not rise to C. If *apû* is found in spec-C, CP recursion is not incurred when a conjunct verb that raises to C is negated.

With one exception, *apû* never occurs with the independent. Sentence 1-6-055 is this exception. It is an example of constituent negation.

(1-6-055)	Apû	minekâsh	shâsh	ût	unuîu	
	apû	minekâsh	shâsh	ût	unuî	-u
	not	long.time	already	because	go.out	-IIN.3
	p.neg	p	p	p	VAI	-sfx
	ne ishkujeu.					
	ne	ishkujeu				
	that	woman				
	pro.dem.an	NA				
	Not long after that, the woman came out.					

In 1-6-055, it is possible to have the independent following *apû* because it is actually negating the particle *minekâsh* ‘long time’. In cases of non-sentential negation, the form of the verb is not influenced by *apû*.

Why does *apû* never occur with the independent? If it did, there would be an unfilled C between *apû* and the verb, as in (25). The placement of *apû* in (25) follows Brittain 1997.



This suggests that Innu-aimûn grammar does not allow an unfilled complementizer head.

#### 4.3 *Optimality Theory and unfilled heads*

Further insight into the problem of an unfilled head can be found in Grimshaw's (1997) work on the distribution of heads in English which uses the principles of Optimality Theory (OT). The basic tenets of OT are outlined by Grimshaw as follows:

- Constraints are universal.
- Constraints can be violated.
- Grammars are rankings of constraints
- The optimal form is grammatical; all nonoptimal candidates are ungrammatical. An optimal output form for a given input is selected from among a class of competitors in the following way: a form that, for every pairwise competition involving it, best satisfies the highest-ranking constraint on which the competitors conflict, is *optimal*. (Grimshaw 1997:373)

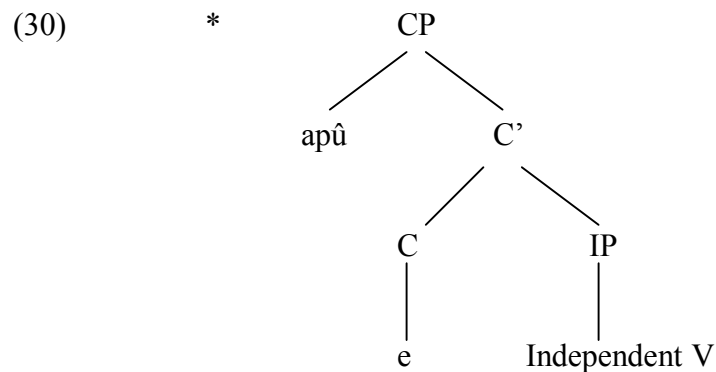
Optimality Theory is formalized into three components: the Generator (GEN), the Evaluator (EVAL) and the universal set of constraints (CON) (Archangeli 1997:14). In OT, multiple possible candidates are generated at the same time. The number of possible candidates is infinite, as GEN can add, delete or rearrange elements in the input. They are then evaluated for how well they satisfy a ranked set of constraints. These constraints are available to all languages, but may be ranked differently in each one. The grammatical output is the candidate that violates the least number of constraints, or one that violates only lowly ranked constraints. Violations of low-ranked constraints are allowed only if necessary to satisfy higher ranked constraints. Ungrammatical forms are those that have many violations, or those that violate high ranked constraints. (Archangeli 1997). EVAL deals with the infinite number of possible candidates using Faithfulness constraints which require the ideal output to be relatively similar to the input, meaning that a large number of possible outputs do not need to be considered in the computation. Completely unfaithful candidates must always be disqualified.

The constraints proposed by Grimshaw (1997) that are relevant to Innu-aimûn are as follows in (29).

- (29)
- Operator in Specifier (Op-Spec) – Negatives and interrogatives (that trigger English inversion) must be in Specifier.
  - Obligatory Head (Ob-Hd) – A projection has a head.
  - No Lexical Head Movement (No-Lex-Mvt) – A lexical head cannot move.

- Economy of Movement (Stay) – Trace is not allowed.

The constraint Obligatory Head, which states that all projections have a head, can be used to explain the impossible sentence in example (28) above, repeated below as (30):



Again, Innu-aimûn never allows the negator *apû* to be followed by the a verb in the independent. In OT terms, this candidate sentence violates the constraint Ob-Hd because of the empty complementizer. Since *apû* never occurs with the independent, Innu-aimûn must rank this constraint fairly highly. Every output with *apû* and the independent would also contain an unfilled head, C, and so would crash. This can also be illustrated by a tableau, showing the impossible sentence compared to the grammatical *apû* followed by the conjunct, below:

Tableau 1 – Violation of Ob-Head- comparing 1-3-025 to the ungrammatical sentence

Candidates	Ob-Head	Op-Spec	No-Lex-Mvt	Stay
☞ [CP apû[C' [C tanitî][IP t]]]			*	*
[CP apû[C' [C e][IP V-independent]]]	*!			

The optimal candidate, marked ☞, only violates No-Lex-Mvt and Stay. These violations are acceptable, and thus lowly ranked, since Innu-aimûn allows verbs to move up in the tree for checking reasons. The dashed line separating two columns indicates that their ranking with respect to each other is unimportant. The unacceptable, non-occurring sentence is marked as unacceptable with the exclamation point following the asterisk that marks constraint violations. Note that according to the analysis of Brittain (2001), there would also be asterisks in Op-Spec, since *apû* is an operator not in specifier position. This constraint is also violated by all sentences with *ekâ*, so it does not rank highly in Innu-aimûn.

Ob-Head can optionally be violated in English, as the following examples from Grimshaw (1997) show:

(31) \*<sub>[IP wh e [VP t V...]]</sub> (1997:389)

(31), illustrating a sentence with a subject wh-phrase, is ungrammatical due to the violation of the obligatory head constraint. This would look like \* “who see?”. There is no tense information on the verb because Infl is unfilled.

(32) [<sub>CP wh e [IP DP will [VP V t]]</sub>] (1997:396)

Example (32) illustrates a complement to a subject that provides more information about the subject, like “who he will see”. This example also violates Obligatory Head, because C is unfilled. This CP, however, is the optimal candidate of its tableau, despite the violation, because all other candidates considered violated the higher ranked (for English) constraint of Op-Spec.

Op-Spec is violated in grammatical Innu-aimûn sentences. All sentences with the negator *ekâ* violate this constraint because of *ekâ*'s presence in the complementizer, rather than in spec-C, like *apû*. An OT tableau illustrating this is shown below. Sentence 2-9-017, showing *apû* followed by the conjunct, is included to show that it does not violate Obligatory Head or Operator in Specifier.

Tableau 2 – *Ekâ and apû* – text sentences 1-3-003 and 1-6-025, repeated from above, and sentence 2-9-017

Candidates	Ob-Hd	Op-Spec
☞ [CP ek <sup>u</sup> [C' [C ekâ][IP nitapueuâua]]]		*
☞ [CP [C' [C ât][CP [C' [C ekâ][CP [C' [C <i>uîshimak</i> ][IP t]]]]]		*
☞ [CP apû [C' [C <i>tshîûtet</i> ][IP t]]]		

Although it is possible that Op-Spec is merely lowly ranked in Innu-aimûn, there is also the possibility of there being another constraint that is being spared violation because of the violation of Op-Spec. Perhaps the placement of particles and preverbs



could have something to do with this, since the absence of the negators in specifier position leaves that position open.

#### **4.4 Conclusion to chapter four**

This chapter begins with a problem – if interrogative particles are typically followed by the independent form of the verb, and negative particles are followed by the conjunct, which form of the verb should appear when an interrogative and a negative appear in the same sentence? I first examine three interrogatives on their own, and discover that in the LITP stories, these particles can be followed by the independent or the conjunct form of the verb. Negatives as well show variation in the form of the verb they take as a complement. Both the conjunct and independent forms occur with the negative particle *ekâ*. Optimality theory gives an explanation why only *ekâ* can occur with the independent.

*Ekâ* will always occur in negated interrogatives, because it is the negator that typically appears in subordinate clauses. *Ekâ*'s choice of complements is variable, so it seems negated interrogatives could appear with either the independent or the conjunct. I believe the question of which form of the verb will appear in a negated interrogative depends more on the verb form needed for the story, than on a checking relationship.

#### **4.3 General thesis conclusion**

In this thesis, I have described the placement of the most frequently occurring preverbs and particles in Sheshâtshîu Innu-aimûn. I have found that the temporal

preverbs precede modal preverbs, and that aspectual preverbs co-occur with particles with a similar meaning. The preverb *e-* always appears directly to the left of the verb stem. In my data, it appears with no other preverbs.

A diagram of a possible Innu-aimun compound verb appears in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Innu-aimûn compound verb

temporal preverb	modal preverb	verb stem
------------------	---------------	-----------

Amongst the particles, I have seen that particles tend to appear as close to the left edge of the sentence as possible. Complementizer particles always appear on the left edge of the sentence, and directly precede particles of speaker opinion.

Temporal/aspectual particles then follow. Adverbs finally will appear closest to the verb.

Table 4.2 shows a possible ordering of particles in an Innu-aimûn sentence.

Table 4.2: Innu-aimûn particle template

Complementizer	Speaker Opinion	Temporal/ Aspectual	Adverb	(Compound) Verb
----------------	-----------------	---------------------	--------	-----------------

Textual examples of these preverbs and particles have come from legends and stories collected in 1967. The environments described, then, are those representative of oral narrative style. Research into conversational use of preverbs and particles may show slightly different patterns of use.

The final chapter of this thesis includes an Optimality Theory analysis of negator choice and verb order (independent versus conjunct) in narrative.

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