

Part III The Basic Noun

NOUNS

Oneida has several types of nouns.

One type is the whole word noun. It is not made up of stems, prefixes, and suffixes but exists simply as a whole word itself. There are, however, very few nouns in this class. Examples are *é·lháł dog* and *takós cat* and *kóskos pig*.

A second type of noun is built from a noun stem. Just as with the verbs, noun stems can be identified by their beginning sound. A-stems typically have no prefix but may have a suffix. Consonant stems typically have either a **ka-** or an **o-** prefix plus some suffix. These prefixes and suffixes do not add to the meaning of the noun but they are required in order to turn the stem into a word. Some examples:

stem	word	English
-nást-	o·náste	<i>corn</i>
-?sleht-	ká·sleht	<i>car, vehicle</i>
-náy-	oná·yá	<i>stone</i>
-(u)hwátsy-	ohwátsyá	<i>earth</i>
-wáñ-	owá·ná	<i>word, sound, voice</i>
-ahta-	áhta	<i>shoe</i>
-atána?tsl-	atána·tsehli	<i>lunch, groceries</i>

The particular choice of prefix and suffix is not predictable just by knowing the stem and meaning. It is something that has to be learned for each word.

The third type of noun is actually a word constructed as a verb and used as a noun. The verb often is a description of the noun. Examples:

shukwaya?tísu	<i>he has made us</i> = <i>the creator</i>
kawáñaye·nás	<i>it word-catches</i> = <i>tape recorder</i>
iyáha	<i>I am parent to him</i> = <i>my son</i>
tyohá·tú	<i>one who leads</i> = <i>the boss</i>
yakolihunya·níhe	<i>she makes the tradition for them</i> = <i>teacher</i>
skáhnáksá	<i>it has bad skin</i> = <i>fox</i>
lotlíhute	<i>the idea comes off of him</i> = <i>(he is) an official</i>
kanúhsote	<i>the house is standing</i> = <i>house</i>
onáyote?a·ká·	<i>people of the standing stone</i> = <i>Oneidas</i>

NOUNS IN SIMPLE SENTENCES

Oneida has a word for *this* - **ka?**i·kʌ - and a word for *that* - **thi·kʌ** - but there is no word for *to be* (*am, is, are, was, were*). Simple identification questions are:

náhte? <u>ka?</u> <u>i·kʌ</u>	<i>what is this?</i>
náhte? <u>thi·kʌ</u>	<i>what is that?</i>

náhte? is the word for *what*. The particle **né·** can also be used in identification questions. It has about the same meaning:

náhte? né· <u>ka?</u> <u>i·kʌ</u>	<i>what is this?</i>
náhte? né· <u>thi·kʌ</u>	<i>what is that?</i>

Answers to identification questions can take the following forms:

ká·sleht <u>ka?</u> <u>i·kʌ</u>	<i>this is a car</i>
ká·sleht né· <u>ka?</u> <u>i·kʌ</u>	<i>this is a car</i>
né· né· <u>ka?</u> <u>i·kʌ</u> ká·sleht	<i>what this is is a car</i>

Yes-no questions with a noun take the following forms:

ká·sleht <u>kʌ</u>	<i>is it a car?</i>
ká·sleht <u>kʌ</u> thi·kʌ	<i>is that a car?</i>
né· <u>kʌ</u> thi·kʌ ká·sleht	<i>is that a car?</i>

THE VERB WANT

The common forms of the verb *want*, one of the few e-stems, are presented here. Note the rhythm shifts.

i·kélhe	<i>I want</i>	yah té·kelhe	<i>I don't want</i>
íhselhe	<i>you want</i>	yah téhselhe	<i>you don't want</i>
í·lelhe	<i>he wants</i>	yah té·lelhe	<i>he doesn't want</i>
i·yʌlhe	<i>she wants</i>	yah té·yʌlhe	<i>she doesn't want</i>
lʌ·nélhe	<i>they want</i>	yah tehʌ·nélhe	<i>they don't want</i>

This is a good verb to use with nouns:

íhselhe? <u>kʌ</u> ká·sleht	<i>do you want a car?</i>
kʌ, i·kélhe? <u>ká·sleht</u>	<i>yes, I want a car</i>
i·yʌlhe? <u>kʌ</u> Wali ká·sleht	<i>does Mary want a car?</i>
náhte? í·lelhe	<i>what does he want?</i>
úhka? náhte? i·yʌlhe? <u>ká·sleht</u>	<i>who wants a car?</i>

ADJECTIVAL VERBS

Since Oneida has no separate class of adjectives, English adjectives correspond to verbs in Oneida. As verbs they require a pronoun prefix as in the following examples:

yakotunháhehle	<i>she is happy</i>	(yako- + -atunháhele)
lonolú·se	<i>he is lazy</i>	(lo- + -nolú·se)
luttókha	<i>they are smart</i>	(lu- + -attókha)
salha·lé kʌ	<i>are you ready</i>	(sa- + -lha·lé)
lo·tʌht	<i>he is poor, pathetic</i>	(lo- + -i·tʌht)
wakatsanu·ní·	<i>I am glad</i>	(wak- + -atsanu·ní·)

And since the function of adjectives is to modify nouns, there are many adjectival verbs in Oneida that typically incorporate a noun stem. For example, **-owa·nʌ** is the verb stem that means *big*. It combines with noun stems to form complex stems. A pronoun prefix is then added to the complex stem to make a complete word - **ka-** or **o-** for c-stems and **w-** for a-stems.

kanuhsowa·nʌ	<i>(it's) a big house</i>
ka?slehtowa·nʌ	<i>(it's) a big car</i>
kawʌnowa·nʌ	<i>(it's) a big word</i>

Here are some common adjectival verb stems:

-i·yó	<i>good</i>	requires ka- prefix
-áksʌ	<i>bad</i>	requires ka- prefix
-ase	<i>new</i>	requires o- prefix
-aka·yú	<i>old</i>	requires o- prefix
-es	<i>long</i>	requires ka- prefix

Some examples:

ka?slehti·yó	<i>a good car</i>
ka?slehtáksʌ	<i>a bad car</i>
o?sléhtase	<i>a new car</i>
o?sléhtaka·yú	<i>an old car</i>
kawʌ·nés	<i>a long word</i>
kanúhses	<i>a long house</i>

Only one adjectival verb can be attached to a noun at a time. If you want to talk about *a good long word*, you have to say *it's a good word and a long word*.

kawʌni·yó okhále? kawʌ·nés

Some adjectives require a coordination of particles, prefixes, and suffixes. *Little* is such an example. To say *a little house* requires a particle **ka?**, then a prepronominial prefix (technically called the partitive) **ni-**, then the pronoun prefix **ka-**, then the noun root for *house* **-nuhs-**, and finally the suffix for *little* **-á** or a plural form **-á·sa**.

ka? nikauhsá	<i>little house</i>
ka? nika? slehtá	<i>little car</i>
ka? nikawʌná	<i>little word</i>
ka? nikawʌná·sa	<i>little words</i>

A similar pattern turns the adjectival verb *long* into *short*.

ka?	nikanuhsésha	<i>short house</i>
ka?	nika? slehtésha	<i>short car</i>
ka?	nikawʌnénésha	<i>short word</i>
ka?	nikanʌstésha	<i>short corn</i>

Kind-of

To ask a *what-kind-of* question involves incorporating a noun stem with the verb stem ó·tʌ (or -o?tʌ-) and adding prefixes in the following way:

ot ni + ka + noun root + ó·tʌ

The particle **ot** is another word for *what* used specifically with -ó·tʌ to mean *what kind of*. The prepronominal prefix **ni-** is technically called the partitive and is required in many questions. It does not add any special meaning but it will sound wrong to omit it.

examples:

ot nikawʌnó·tʌ	<i>what kind of word is it?</i>
ot nika? slehtó·tʌ	<i>what kind of car is it?</i>
ot nikanuhsó·tʌ	<i>what kind of house is it?</i>
ot nikanʌstó·tʌ	<i>what kind of corn is it?</i>

To answer a *what-kind-of* question a single descriptive word is appropriate:

kawʌ·nés	<i>a long word</i>
o? slehtaka·yú	<i>an old car</i>
kanuhsi·yó	<i>a good house</i>

It is also appropriate to use the following:

kawʌ·nés nikawʌnó·tʌ	<i>a long word</i>
o? slehtaka·yú nika? slehtó·tʌ	<i>an old car</i>
kanuhsi·yó nikanuhsó·tʌ	<i>a nice house</i>

A *what-kind-of* phrase can also be used with other verbs:

ot nika? slehtó·tʌ ihselhe	<i>what kind of car do you want?</i>
ot nikanuhsó·tʌ snú·wehse	<i>what kind of house do you like?</i>

WHICH QUESTIONS

The Oneida phrase for *which* or *which one* is **kátsa ka·yʌ·**

kátsa ka·yʌ· ihselhe	<i>which one do you want?</i>
kátsa ka·yʌ· nika? slehtó·tʌ snú·wehse	<i>which kind of car do you like?</i>

POSSESSION

The verb root for *have* or *possess* is **-yá**. It is most frequently used with a noun root to form a complex stem. The vowel **-a-** is used to join the noun and verb roots together. This **-a-** contributes no additional meaning and is called simply a stem-joiner. The following are examples of these complex stems:

-?sléhtayá	<i>have a car</i>
-atłná·tslayá	<i>have groceries</i>
-nÁstayá	<i>have corn</i>

To turn stems into complete words pronoun prefixes are needed. The verb **-yá** requires objective prefixes but the sub-class is determined by the beginning sound of the complex stem (in this case, the beginning sound of the attached noun root).

wakatłná·tslayá	<i>I have groceries</i>
lotłná·tslayá	<i>he has groceries</i>
lonatłná·tslayá	<i>they have groceries</i>
waknÁstayá	<i>I have corn</i>
yakonÁstayá	<i>she has corn</i>
lotinÁstayá	<i>they have corn</i>

If you want to indicate both possession and a description of a noun as in *he has a good car*, then it is possible to use two words:

lo?sléhtayá ka?slehti·yó

But it is also possible to use the objective pronominal prefix and the adjectival verb on the same noun as in:

lo?slehti·yó *he has a good car*

There is another way to indicate possession. English uses possessive adjectives such as *my*, *your*, *his*, *her*, and *their*. Oneida uses a set of pronominal prefixes for attaching to nouns. They are close to, but not exactly the same as, the prefixes that attach to objective verb stems:

	a-stems	c-stems
<i>my</i>	akwa-	ak-
<i>your</i>	sa-	sa-
<i>his</i>	lao-	lao-
<i>her</i>	ako-	ako-
<i>their</i>	laon-	laoti-

The vowel drop rule applies here:

ahta	<i>shoe</i>	owa·ná	<i>word</i>
akwáhta	<i>my shoe</i>	akwa·ná	<i>my word</i>
sáhta	<i>your shoe</i>	sawa·ná	<i>your word</i>
laóhta	<i>his shoe</i>	laowa·ná	<i>his word</i>
akóhta	<i>her shoe</i>	akowa·ná	<i>her word</i>
laonáhta	<i>their shoe</i>	laotiwa·ná	<i>their word</i>

ká·sleht	<i>car</i>
aké·sleht	<i>my car</i>
sá·sleht	<i>your car</i>
laó·sleht	<i>his car</i>
akó·sleht	<i>her car</i>
laotí·sleht	<i>their car</i>

Epenthesis - a sound rule

When putting together stems and prefixes and suffixes sometimes clusters of consonants are formed that are not considered pronounceable in Oneida. For example, a prefix ending in -k joined to a stem beginning with -khw- produces -khw-, which is not possible. And any prefix ending in a consonant before a stem beginning with -? creates an impossible cluster. To avoid such impossible clusters a vowel called technically an epenthetic vowel is added. It is always the vowel -e- in Oneida. There is no meaning associated with this vowel but it is required. The linguistic process of adding sound to facilitate pronunciation is called epenthesis.

wak (objective pronoun prefix) + ?sléhtayʌ (verb stem meaning *have a car*)
 wake?sléhtayʌ *I have a car*

MORE ON NOUNS

Here are some more noun roots and how they are used as full words:

<i>money</i>	-hwist-	ohwísta
<i>food</i>	-khw-	kákhwa
<i>song, prayer</i>	-lʌn-	olʌ'ná
<i>animal</i>	-naskw-	kanáskwa
<i>medicine</i>	-nuhkwat-	onúhkwat
<i>mind</i>	-?nikuhl-	o?nikúhlá
<i>person</i>	-ukwe-	u·kwé

(o?nikú·la? is the context form)

W - O Rule - a sound rule

When a stem ends in a **-w** and a suffix or another stem begins with a **u-** or **o-**, then the **-w** is lost when the parts are combined. For example **-khw-** and **-naskw-** end in **-w** and the *kind-of* root (**ó·tʌ**) begins in **o-**. So:

<i>ot nikakhó·tʌ</i>	<i>what kind of food is it?</i>
<i>ot nikanaskó·tʌ</i>	<i>what kind of animal is it?</i>

NOUN EXTENDERS

Some noun stems require a special suffix before a verb stem can be attached to them. This suffix adds no meaning but is required. The form of the suffix varies from word to word so it must be learned as an extension of the noun. Three of the nouns encountered so far require noun extenders:

-ahtha-	<i>shoe</i>	-ahtahkw-	<i>shoe (with extender)</i>
-nuhkwat-	<i>medicine</i>	-nuhkwtls-	<i>medicine (with extender)</i>
-ukwe-	<i>person</i>	-ukwe?t-	<i>person (with extender)</i>

For example:

<i>kanuhkwatsli·yó</i>	<i>good medicine</i>
<i>ohtáhkwase</i>	<i>new shoe</i> (some say ahtáhkwase)
<i>ukwe?ti·yó</i>	<i>good person</i>
<i>waknuhkwtlayʌ</i>	<i>I have medicine</i>

If a verb stem is not attached to the noun, then the extender is not used:

<i>sanúhkwat</i>	<i>your medicine</i>
<i>laóhta</i>	<i>his shoe</i>

COUNTING

Numbers

úskah	<i>one</i>
téken	<i>two</i> (<i>tékni</i> is the context form)
áhs <u>λ</u>	<i>three</i>
kayé	<i>four</i>
wisk	<i>five</i>
yá'yahk	<i>six</i>
tsya·ták	<i>seven</i>
té·klu	<i>eight</i>
wá·thu	<i>nine</i>
oye·lí	<i>ten</i>

Incorporated counting

To say one of any object involves the following pattern:

prepronominial prefix + pronoun prefix + noun root (plus extender) + verb root
 s- ka- -at
 (iterative) (w- for a-stems)

Examples:

skaw <u>λ</u> ·nát	<i>one word, one voice</i>
ska?sléhtat	<i>one car, one vehicle</i>
skanáskwat	<i>one animal</i>
skahwístat	<i>one dollar</i> (literally, <i>one money</i>)
swahtáhkwat	<i>one shoe</i>

If you say **úskah owa·ná**, people will understand what you mean but think you're using a kind of babytalk. Incorporated counting is much preferred.

To say two of any object involves the following pattern:

prepronominial prefix + pronoun prefix + noun root (plus nominalizer) + verb root
 te- -ka- -ake
 (dualic) (w- for a-stems)

Examples:

tekaw <u>λ</u> ·náke	<i>two words, two voices</i>
teka?sléhtake	<i>two cars, two vehicles</i>
tekanáskwake	<i>two animals</i>
tekahwístake	<i>two dollars</i>
tewahtáhkwake	<i>two shoes</i>

To say three or more of anything involves the following pattern:

number prepronominial prefix + pronoun prefix + noun root (plus extender) + verb root
 ni- -ka- -ake
 (partitive) (w- for a-stems)

Examples:

áhsʌ nikawʌ·náke	<i>three words, three voices</i>
wísk nika?sléhtake	<i>five cars, five vehicles</i>
yá·yahk nikánákwake	<i>six animals</i>
wá·thu nikahwístake	<i>nine dollars</i>

Higher Numbers

Numbers between ten and twenty are formed by adding the word for *-teen* **yawa·lé** after the numbers one to nine:

úskah yawa·lé	11
tékni yawa·lé	12
áhsʌ yawa·lé	13
kayé yawa·lé	14
wísk yawa·lé	15
yá·yahk yawa·lé	16
tsya·ták yawa·lé	17
té·klu yawa·lé	18
wá·thu yawa·lé	19

Multiples of tens are formed by using the word for *tens* (or *decades*) **niwáshʌ**:

tewáshʌ	20
áhsʌ niwáshʌ	30
kayé niwáshʌ	40
wísk niwáshʌ	50
yá·yahk niwáshʌ	60

Examples of numbers up to one hundred:

tewáshʌ wísk	25	(two tens five)
kayé niwáshʌ téken	42	(four tens two)
wísk niwáshʌ té·klu	58	(five tens eight)
áhsʌ niwáshʌ áhsʌ	33	(three tens three)
té·klu niwáshʌ wísk	85	(eight tens five)

The word for *hundred* is **úskah tewʌ?nyáwelu**, which does not change or incorporate:

wísk tewʌ?nyáwelu ok yá·yahk niwáshʌ uskah	561
tsya·ták tewʌ?nyáwelu ok wísk	705
úskah tewʌ?nyáwelu ok tékni yawa·lé	112
wísk tewʌ?nyáwelu nikahwístake	\$500

The word for *thousand* is **skanutó·tslat**, literally *one box*, probably from a strongbox of money.

CLASSIFICATORY COUNTING

Only noun stems can be incorporated in the above pattern. So how do you count other kinds of nouns such as the whole word nouns like *é·lhal dog* or the description nouns like *skʌhnáksʌ fox*? In such cases you incorporate a more general noun. In this case -naskw- *domestic animal* and -lyo?t- *wild animal* are the more general noun stems.

<i>skanáskwat é·lhal</i>	<i>one dog</i>
<i>áhsʌ nikanáskwake é·lhal</i>	<i>three dogs</i>
<i>tekalyó·take skʌhnáksʌ</i>	<i>three foxes</i>
<i>oye·lí nikalyó·take skʌhnáksʌ</i>	<i>ten foxes</i>

In this way Oneida speakers classify the objects of the world into categories. This happens not just in counting as we will see when we discuss noun incorporation more fully (see page 58).

COUNTING PEOPLE

Nouns for people generally do not follow the incorporated pattern used with most simple nouns. Instead there are special words for counting people.

<i>shayá·tat</i>	<i>one person (male)</i>
<i>tsyeyá·tat</i>	<i>one person (female)</i>
<i>tehniyáshe</i>	<i>two people (at least one male)</i>
<i>tekniyáshe</i>	<i>two people (females)</i>
<i>áhsʌ niha·tí</i>	<i>three people (at least one male)</i>
<i>áhsʌ nikú·tí</i>	<i>three people (females)</i>

Higher numbers or indefinite amounts follow the last pattern above by substituting other numbers or particles for *áhsʌ*.

<i>oye·lí niha·tí</i>	<i>ten people</i>
<i>tohka? niha·tí</i>	<i>several people</i>
<i>to niha·tí</i>	<i>how many people</i>
<i>tho niha·tí</i>	<i>that many people</i>

LOCATIVE SUFFIXES

Oneida does not really use prepositions but it does have several noun suffixes that indicate relative locations (near, in, on, and under). They are:

-ákta	<i>near</i>
-aktúti (or -aktáti)	<i>alongside</i>
-á·ke	<i>on</i>
-aʔkéshu	<i>all over</i>
-aku	<i>in</i> (the a is a stem joiner and the accent falls initially on the syllable before the a)
-akúshu	<i>deep in, through</i>
-o·kú	<i>under</i>

These are attached to noun roots (after a nominalizer, if the noun root has one) as in the following examples:

kaʔslehtákta	<i>near the car</i>
kaʔslehtá·ke	<i>on the car</i>
kaʔsléhtaku	<i>in the car</i>
kaʔslehto·kú	<i>under the car</i>
kanuhsákta	<i>near the house</i>
kanuhsá·ke	<i>on the house</i>
kanuhso·kú	<i>under the house</i>
ohwatsyá·ke	<i>on earth</i>
ohwatsyo·kú	<i>under the earth</i>
kanuhkwatsslákta	<i>near the medicine</i>
kalnáku	<i>in the song</i>
kaluhyahá·ke	<i>in the sky (= on the blue -luhy- is the root for <i>blue</i>)</i>
oshuhkalá·ke	<i>on the floor (-shuhkal- is the noun root for <i>board</i>)</i>

There is also a suffix that means *at one's place* and it attaches to names or words for people. Its form is **-ke** if the word ends in a consonant and **-'ne** if it ends in a vowel.

Amóske	<i>at Amos' place</i>
Walí·ne	<i>at Mary's place</i>
lakeʔnihá·ke	<i>at my father's place</i>
ukwehuwé·ne	<i>at the Oneidas' place</i>

ORIENTATION VERBS

Oneida has a number of adjectival verbs that describe the orientation or position of nouns. Like other adjectival verbs they attach to the end of the noun root. Many Oneida nouns, especially for sizable objects, are rarely used without specifying their orientation or position in some way. These orientational verbs offer an easy way to do that. The two most common ones are:

-yʌ	<i>lie</i>
-ote?	<i>stand</i>

Some examples:

kanúhsote	<i>a house (standing)</i>	-nuhs-	<i>house</i>
kalu'tóte	<i>a tree (log standing)</i>	-lut-	<i>log, tree</i>
kana'yóte	<i>a stone standing</i>	-nay-	<i>stone</i>
kakʌhote	<i>a flag (cloth standing)</i>	-kʌh-	<i>cloth</i>
kahʌ'táyʌ	<i>a field (lying)</i>	-hat-	<i>field</i>
kanyata'láyʌ	<i>a lake (lying)</i>	-nyatal-	<i>lake</i>
kana'táyʌ	<i>a town (lying)</i>	-nat-	<i>town</i>
kana'yáyʌ	<i>a stone (lying)</i>	-nay-	<i>stone</i>

It is possible to use a word such as **kanúhsa** without any orientational verb but it calls to mind an imagined house or a pictured one floating in the abstract rather than one standing on the ground as houses usually do. For smaller objects, such as a stone, that can be moved around into different positions, it is possible to speak about the object in the abstract without specifying an orientation, e.g. **ona'yá**.

There are also other less frequently used orientational verbs:

-ute?	<i>protrude from, be attached to</i>
-ale?	<i>be in (as a part or member)</i>
-at	<i>be in</i>
-a·té·	<i>exist, extends</i>
-it	<i>be in</i>
-hele?	<i>be on top of</i>
-o	<i>be in water</i>
-óhale?	<i>be stuck on the end of</i>

These orientation verbs often create derived stems with specialized meanings.

Some examples:

kana·yále?	<i>rocky</i>	-nay-	<i>stone</i>
kayá·tale?	<i>picture (body in it)</i>	-ya?t-	<i>body</i>
yonikwʌhsale?	<i>bloody (blood in it)</i>	-nikwʌhs-	<i>blood</i>
yotsistóhkwa?	<i>star (sparks in it)</i>	-tsistohkw-	<i>spark</i>
kana·yát	<i>it's loaded (bullet in it)</i>	-nay-	<i>stone, bullet</i>
wá·yat	<i>pie (fruit in it)</i>	-(a)hy-	<i>fruit</i>
yotsítsyute?	<i>blooming (flower in it)</i>	-tsitsy-	<i>flower</i>
yohté·lute?	<i>it's rooted (root on it)</i>	-htehl-	<i>root</i>
lʌtáhsute?	<i>he has a tail (tail on him)</i>	-itahs-	<i>tail</i>
lotlihilute?	<i>he's an official (issue on him)</i>	-lihw-	<i>issue</i>
yohwʌtsya·té	<i>the earth (earth extends)</i>	-uhuwʌtsy-	<i>earth</i>
yonutáhele?	<i>hilltop</i>	-nut-	<i>hill</i>
wehnisla·té	<i>today (day extends)</i>	-ehnisl-	<i>day</i>

NOUN SUFFIXES

There are a handful of special suffixes that attach after regular noun suffixes.

-kó	<i>great</i>
-kʌ	<i>passed on</i>
-u'wé	<i>original, native</i>
-kéha?	<i>the ways of</i>
-hnéha?	<i>the ways of</i>
-ha·ká·	<i>the people of</i>

The meaning of **-kó** is often specific to the word it is attached to. It is always accented. This is an exception to the regular accent rules and suggests that in generations past it was part of a longer expression that has become simplified. Consider the following examples:

latolatskó	<i>mighty hunter</i> (lato·láts = a hunter)
takoskó	<i>wild cat</i> (takos = cat)
onuhkwatkó	<i>powerful medicine</i> (onúhkwat = medicine)
yutatlihunyʌnitha?kó	<i>university, college</i> (yutatlihunyʌnítha? = school)

-kʌ is typically used on a word referring to a person and adds the meaning that the person is no longer alive. Sometimes, however, it is used on inanimate objects to show they are no longer owned or operating. This suffix is always accented and never whispered.

aksotkʌ	<i>my late grandmother</i>
yukhinulha?kʌ	<i>our mother who is now dead</i>
yukhihsotokukʌ	<i>our ancestors who have passed on</i>
ka?slehtkʌ	<i>it used to be a car</i>

-u'wé refers to native objects or beings to distinguish them from later innovations.

ahtha?u'wé	<i>moccasin</i> (ahtha? = shoe)
ukwehu'wé	<i>Oneida or Iroquoian person</i> (u'kwé = person)
kitkithu'wé	<i>prairie chicken</i> (kitkit = chicken)

-kéha? occurs on words that end in a consonant and **-hnéha?** occurs on words that end in a vowel but both have the same meaning *the characteristic ways of*. They attach to nouns that refer to people. For example:

ukwehuwehnéha	<i>in the Oneida way, the Oneida language</i>
	(ukwehu·wé = <i>Oneida</i>)
o?sluni?kéha	<i>in the white way, the English language</i>
	(o?slu·ní· = <i>white people</i>)

-ha·ká· attaches to a place word and refers to the people of that place.

kanatakuha·ká	<i>people from in town, cityfolk</i>
	(kana·táku = <i>in town</i>)
Simoha·ká	<i>people from Seymour</i>
	(Simo = <i>Seymour</i>)
onayote?a·ká	<i>Oneidas, People of the Standing Stone</i>
	(oná·yóte = <i>standing stone</i>)

PEOPLE NOUNS

Noun stems referring to people are a little different from those referring to objects. The people nouns generally take the same prefixes that verbs take. As we will see later [page 99] the words for relatives are even more like verbs when they take transitive prefixes as in *laksótha?* *my grandfather*, more literally *he is grandfather to me*.

The noun stems for people of various ages are the following

-ksa?- child (takes subjective prefixes)

- keksá· I am a child**
- seksá· you are a child**
- laksá· he is a child, boy**
- yeksá· she is a child, girl**
- latiksa?shúha? (they are) children**

-nikʌhtluha- *male teen* (takes subjective prefixes)

- lanikʌhtlúha he is young, a teenager**
- (cf. **-nikʌhtlu-** *handsome*
- lanikʌhtlu he is handsome lanikʌhtehlu**)

-ya?taseha- *female teen* (takes subjective prefixes)

- yeya?taséha she is young, a teenage**
- (cf. **-ya?tase-** *pretty*
- yeýá·tase she is pretty yeýá·tase**)

-yʌha- *young adult* (takes objective prefixes plus **ka?** **nit-**)

- ka? nithoyʌha he is young**
- ka? nityakoyʌha she is young**

-yʌ'sa- *young adults* (for plural forms of -yʌha-)
 ka? nithotiyʌ'sa *they are young*

-kstʌ- *old person* (takes objective prefixes)

wakekstʌha	<i>I am old</i>
sakstʌha	<i>you are old</i>
lokstʌha	<i>he is old, old man</i>
yakokstʌha	<i>she is old</i>
akokstʌha	<i>old woman</i>
lotikstʌha	<i>old people</i>
lotikstohokúha	<i>old people</i>
lotiktsohokukʌ	<i>ancestors (old people who have passed on)</i>

-kwʌna?t- *elder* (takes objective prefixes)

lokwʌná·ta	<i>he is an elder</i>
yakokwʌná·ta	<i>she is an elder</i>
lotikwʌná·ta	<i>elders</i>

There is also a noun stem for infants -wil- but it is used like most object nouns. Thus:
 ka? nikawilá *a small baby*

The general word for being a person is -ukwe-. It is a u-stem and takes the subjective prefixes for a u-stem listed below. It is also used in a generic sense without any pronominal prefix:

k-	<i>I</i>	ku·kwé	<i>I am a person</i>
s-	<i>you</i>	su·kwé	<i>you are a person</i>
l-	<i>he</i>	lu·kwé	<i>he's a person; a man</i>
y-	<i>she</i>	yu·kwé	<i>she's a person; a woman</i>
lʌn-	<i>they</i>	lʌnu·kwé	<i>they are people; people</i>
		u·kwé	<i>people</i>

These same pronoun prefixes can be used when the noun -ukwe- is attached to adjectival verbs, but it requires an extender -?t-.

lukwe?ti·yó	<i>he's a good person</i>
lʌnukwe?tákṣʌ	<i>they are bad people</i>

In an earlier conversation vocabulary we learned you could say *I am Oneida ukwehu·wé niʔí* or *I am white oʔslu·ní· niʔí* with a special pronoun. You can also use subjective pronominal prefixes:

kukwehu·wé	<i>I am Oneida</i>	ka?slu·ní·	<i>I am a white person</i>
lukwehu·wé	<i>he is Oneida</i>	la?slu·ní·	<i>he is a white person</i>
yukwehu·wé	<i>she is Oneida</i>	yu?slu·ní·	<i>she is a white person</i>

CONVERSATIONAL VOCABULARY

The expression for *or* is **ok ne?n**. There are several words for *and*. The most common word for connecting two objects is **okhale?** or simply **khale?**. When *and* means something like *and so*, then **okhna?** or **tahnú** is a good translation. **Nok tsi?** means *but*.

Table talk

se·ká·se? kΛ ...	<i>Do you like ...?</i> (Use only for foods - it really means <i>do you like the taste of it.</i>)
wake·káhse	<i>I like it.</i>
wake·ká·se? onu?uhsla?kó	<i>I like pumpkin.</i>
tasatányat ...	<i>pass it (this way)!</i>
ihselhe? kΛ ...	<i>do you want ...?</i>
yah té·kelhe	<i>I don't want it.</i>
k·Λ, i·kélhe	<i>yes, I want it.</i>
yawéku	<i>it tastes good</i>
wesáhtane? kΛ	<i>did you have enough?</i>
wakáhtu	<i>I'm full</i>

MINI NOUN DICTIONARY

What follows is a listing of the noun roots that have occurred so far and an assortment of others with the information needed to build them into words. In the left column are listed the Oneida noun roots in alphabetical order. If the noun root requires a noun extender before certain suffixes, it is included in parentheses. The middle column is the general English meaning. In the right column is the most basic Oneida word that can be made from the noun root. The form in parentheses is the pronunciation without words coming after it. You can use this list to practice building words from the noun roots and the patterns described in Part III.

NOUN ROOT (EXTENDER)	MEANING	WORD (ISOLATION FORM)
-ahkwʌny-	<i>clothes</i>	ahkwʌnya? (ahkwʌni)
-(a)hsliye- (-t-)	<i>string</i>	ahsli·yé· (ahsli·ye)
-ahta- (-hkw-)	<i>shoe</i>	áhta (áhta)
-ahtahnawʌ- (-tsl-)	<i>ball</i>	ahtá·nawʌ (ahtá·nawʌ)
-ahy-	<i>fruit, berry</i>	káhik (káhik)
-atekhwahlahkhw- (-atsl-)	<i>table</i>	atekhwahlahkhwa? (atekhwahlahkhwa)
-atla?sw-	<i>luck</i>	atlá·swa? (atláhswa)
-atokwat- (-sl-)	<i>spoon</i>	atókwat (atókwat)
-atʌna?tsl-	<i>lunch</i>	atʌná·tsli? (atʌná·tsehli)
-atyá?tawi?t- (-sl-)	<i>dress, shirt, jacket</i>	atyá·tawiht (atyá·tawiht)
-a?ahsl-	<i>basket</i>	[ashé·nut]
-a?kʌhl-	<i>dirt</i>	o?kʌ·la? (o?kʌhla)
-hnʌna?t-	<i>potato</i>	ohnʌná·ta? (ohnʌnáhta)
-hnek-	<i>liquid</i>	ohne·ká· (liquor) (ohne·ka)
-hsó?kw-	<i>nut</i>	ohsó·kwa? (ohsóhkwa)
-hsʌn-	<i>name</i>	ohsʌ·ná· (ohsʌ·na)
-htehl-	<i>root</i>	ohté·la? (ohtéhla)
-hul-	<i>gun</i>	káhule? (káhule)
-hut-	<i>plant</i>	óhute? (óhute)
-huw-	<i>boat</i>	kahuwe·yá (kahuwe·ya)
-hwatsil-	<i>family</i>	kahwa·tsíle? (kahwa·tsíhle)
-hwist-	<i>money</i>	ohwísta? (ohwísta)
-hʌt-	<i>field, garden</i>	kahʌtá·ke (in the field)
-hyatuhsli-	<i>paper, book</i>	kahyatúhsli? (kahyatúhsehli)
-itahs-	<i>tail</i>	otáhsa? (otáhsa)
-itsy-	<i>fish</i>	kátsya (kátsi)
-ityohkw-	<i>crowd, team</i>	kʌtyóhkwa (kʌtyóhkwa)
-kal-	<i>story, cost</i>	oka·lá· (oka·la)
-khw-	<i>food</i>	kákhwá? (kakhwa)
-ks-	<i>dish, plate</i>	[átsyʌ] (átsi)
-ksa?- (-t-)	<i>child</i>	yeksá·
-kstʌ-	<i>old person</i>	akokstʌha? (akokstʌha)
-kʌh-	<i>cloth</i>	okʌha? (okʌha)

-kwil-	<i>twig</i>	okwi·lá· (okwi·la)
-kwʌna?t-	<i>elder</i>	akokwʌná·ta? (akokwʌnáhta)
-lan-	<i>corn soup</i>	ola·ná· (ola·na)
-lihw-	<i>news, issue</i>	olí·wa? (olihwā)
-lut-	<i>tree, log</i>	ka·lúte? (ka·lúte)
-lʌn-	<i>song, prayer</i>	ola·ná· (ola·na)
-lyo- (-?t-)	<i>animal</i>	kályo? (káli)
-na?tal-	<i>bread</i>	kaná·talok (kaná·talok)
-nakt-	<i>bed</i>	ka·nákte? (ka·nákte)
-naskw-	<i>animal, pet</i>	kanáskwa? (kanáskwa)
-nat-	<i>town, settlement</i>	kanatá·ke (<i>in town, Green Bay</i>)
-nikʌhtluha-	<i>male teen</i>	lanikʌhtlúha (<u>lanikʌhtlúha</u>)
-nhaht-	<i>branch</i>	ónhahta? (<u>ónhahta</u>)
-nlaht-	<i>leaf</i>	ónlahta? (<u>ónlahta</u>)
-nuhkwa?t- (-sl-)	<i>medicine</i>	onúhkwaht (onúhkwaht)
-nuhs-	<i>house</i>	kanúhsote? (kanúhsote)
-nut-	<i>hill</i>	onutá·ke (<i>on the hill</i>)
-nutakl- (-itsl-)	<i>sugar</i>	onutákli? (<u>onutákehli</u>)
-nuto?tsl-	<i>box</i>	kanutó·tsli? (kanutó·tsehli)
-nu?t-	<i>milk</i>	onú·ta? (<u>onúhta</u>)
-nu?usl-	<i>squash, melon</i>	onu?úsli? (onu?úsehli)
-nʌst-	<i>corn</i>	o·nʌste? (o·nʌste)
-nʌy-	<i>stone, bullet</i>	ona·yá· (ona·ya)
-nyatal-	<i>lake</i>	kanyatalá·ke (<i>on the lake</i>)
-sahe?t-	<i>beans</i>	osahé·ta? (osahéhta)
-shu?kal-	<i>floor, board</i>	oshu?kalá·ke (<i>on the floor</i>)
-skaw-	<i>brush (woodsy)</i>	oska·wáku (<i>in the brush</i>)
-slʌht-	<i>sleep, dream</i>	oslʌhta? (<u>oslʌhta</u>)
-sto?sl-	<i>feather</i>	ostó·sli? (ostó·sehli)
-the?tsl-	<i>flour</i>	othé·tsli? (<u>othé·tsehli</u>)
-tsi?nahkw-	<i>nest</i>	otsi?náhkwa? (otsi?náhkwa)
-tsi?tsy-	<i>flower (beer)</i>	otsi?tsya? <i>flower</i> (otsi·tsi <i>beer</i>)
-tsi?tʌ- (-tsl-)	<i>bird</i>	otsi?tʌha? (<u>otsi?tʌha</u>)
-tsist-	<i>fire, spark</i>	o·tsíste? (o·tsíste)
-uhwʌtsy-	<i>earth, land</i>	ohwʌtsya? (<u>ohwʌtsi</u>)
-ukwe- (-?t)	<i>person</i>	yu·kwé (yu·kwe)
-wʌn-	<i>word, voice</i>	owʌ·ná· (owʌ·na)
-wil-	<i>baby</i>	owi·lá· (owi·la)
-wis-	<i>glass, ice</i>	o·wíse? (o·wíse)
-yʌt-	<i>wood</i>	o·yʌte? (o·yʌte)
-ya?t-	<i>body</i>	oyá·ta? (<u>oyáhta</u>)
-ya?taseha-	<i>female teen</i>	yeya?taséha (<u>yeya?taséha</u>)
-yal-	<i>bag</i>	ka·yále? (ka·yále)
-yo?tʌhsł-	<i>work</i>	kayo?tʌhsła? (<u>kayo?tʌhsəhla</u>)
-yukw-	<i>tobacco</i>	oyúkwa? (<u>oyúkwa</u>)
-yu?kwal-	<i>smoke</i>	oyú·kwala? (<u>oyú·kwala</u>)

-yʌha-	<i>young person</i>	ka? nityakoyʌha (ka? <u>nityakoyʌha</u>)
-?nuhs-	<i>egg</i>	o?nhúhsa? (o?nhúhsa)
-?nikuhl-	<i>mind</i>	o?nikú·la? (o?nikúhl <u>a</u>)
-?wahl-	<i>meat</i>	o?wá·lu? (o?wáhlu)
-?watsist-	<i>bark (of tree)</i>	o?wa·tsíste? (o?wa·tsíste <u>l</u>)

I-STEMS

In general when a prefix ending in -a is attached to a stem beginning with -i, the two combine as -ʌ-. So when the ka- prefix is used with i-stems, this rule applies as in the following examples:

kʌtsyowa·nʌ	<i>big fish</i>	ka- + -itsy- + -owanʌ
kʌtsi·yó	<i>good fish</i>	ka- + -itsy- + -iyo
kʌtyohkowa·nʌ	<i>big crowd</i>	ka- + -ityohkw- + -owanʌ
kʌtahses	<i>long tail</i>	ka- + -itahs- + -es

There is more about i-stems later on p. 92.

O-stems and u-stems are described later on p. 93.