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Chickasaw: An Analytical Dictionary. By Pamela Munro and Catherine Willmond. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1994. 589 pages. \$39.95 cloth.

Nearly five hundred years ago, Hernando de Soto encountered the powerful chiefdom of Chicaza in what is now northern Mississippi. The present work is the first scientific dictionary of the language spoken by the descendants of that ancient state. Chickasaw is at present spoken by fewer than a thousand people, the majority of whom are forty years of age or older. It is thus an endangered language; so this comprehensive dictionary of the language is most welcome. *Chickasaw: An Analytical Dictionary* is one of three dictionaries of various Muskogean languages published since 1990 and serves, with the others, to preserve the family from oblivion, adding to the small number of works on this least-studied of American Indian language families.

The primary author of the dictionary is Pamela Munro. Catherine Willmond is a native speaker of Chickasaw who provided the bulk of the source material for the dictionary. In addition to Willmond, twenty-eight other speakers of the language were consulted in compiling the dictionary entries. The dictionary is divided into four major sections: (1) "A Guide to the Dictionary," (2) "The Structure of Chickasaw Words," (3) "The Chickasaw-English Dictionary," and (4) "The English-Chickasaw Index."

Some of the narrative text in the guide to the dictionary has been written for the Chickasaw-speaking audience, who, regrettably, are not highly educated in English. Nonetheless, due to the complexities of the language's structure, the authors are forced to use the appropriate, albeit somewhat difficult, terminology.

The section entitled "The Structure of Chickasaw Words" is dense and packed with interesting information. It is the only complete sketch of Chickasaw grammar available at present. Specialists might quibble about some of the ways the information is presented, but the presentation is internally consistent and adequately explains what occurs in the language.

Of particular interest to the linguist is the discussion and exemplification of verb grades. Verb grades, which occur in some form in all Muskogean languages, are internal changes to a verb root that add aspectual meaning. These grades are particularly striking in Chickasaw (and in its sister language, Choctaw), and the discussion here is concise and clear.

The bulk of the work is composed of the "Chickasaw-English Dictionary." The orthography used for Chickasaw is based on the traditional Choctaw orthography (*lh* for the lateral fricative; underlining to indicate nasal vowels); however, short and long vowels are indicated by single and double vowel letters, respectively, as opposed to the distinct (and confusing) graphemes for vowels that are used in the Choctaw orthography.

The alphabetization of Chickasaw is straightforward. The consonants have the standard alphabetical order, with the glottal stop standing at the beginning of the alphabet and the lateral fricative (*lh*) following *l*. The long vowels, although written geminate, are alphabetized after the corresponding short vowels, and nasal vowels are alphabetized after long vowels. A certain difficulty with writing Chickasaw long vowels as if they were geminate occurs in some cases of long *a*, where the first member of the long vowel is part of the verb root, and the second is the intransitive suffix *-a*. This accounts for a number of phonological and accentual peculiarities, such as the geminate grade of *yaachi* "to make cry," which is unexpectedly *yáa'chi* and not **yá'chi*. This occurs because the long vowel of *yaachi* is two *a*'s across a morpheme boundary /*ya-a-chi*.

Each entry in the Chickasaw dictionary is followed by a definition in English. Verbs are supplied with information as to their inflection, and nouns pertaining to kinship or body parts are include information as to which pronominal prefix set they use to indicate possession. Since this is an analytical dictionary, the vast majority of items are given etymologies (i.e., broken down as to their morphemic structure). A large number of entries also have related words listed, and words of foreign origin (mostly English and Choctaw) are indicated. Finally, many sentences are given to show use of the Chickasaw words.

The dictionary lists separately all attested verb grades, so that a person hearing a Chickasaw verb form in a particular grade will be able to find it easily. This is an extremely useful feature of the dictionary, considering the fact that a verb may have up to six different forms, as is shown by *banna* "to want":

<i>banna</i>	unmarked
<i>bá'anna</i>	geminate grade
<i>báhhanna</i>	h-grade
<i>bahánnna</i>	hn-grade
<i>bánna</i>	n-grade
<i>báyya'anna</i>	y-grade

All attested grades of every verb are given, with the caveat that there may be other possible grade forms used by speakers other than those consulted and hence beyond the scope of the dictionary.

"The English-Chickasaw Index" is only a guide to English words with possible Chickasaw renderings. In producing an index rather than an English-Chickasaw dictionary, Munro and Willmond follow a recent trend in dictionary making, in which the effort is all spent on the target language-to-English section. It saves a lot of time and precious space, but it also can trick an unwary user. The index is, in some ways, too precise (for example, giving *abikoppolo'*, literally "bad illness" as a gloss for AIDS) and, in other ways, too vague (for example, to gloss the English word *bank*, the words *sakti* "earthen bank" and *ta'ossaa-asha* "money bank" are given side-by-side, without comment). The authors warn against using the index as an English-Chickasaw dictionary, and this warning needs to be reinforced.

There are numerous indications that Chickasaw is a threatened language. First, there is attrition of vocabulary. The number of word roots that are no longer attested independently suggests such a loss. The lack of month names other than English ones also indicates that the language is losing vocabulary; this contrasts with the Muskogean languages Alabama and Koasati, which still use month names based on numerals. Finally, the vocabulary pertaining to natural history is impoverished, especially in regard to bird names. For example, in proto-Muskogean there were at least three independent terms for hawks; none of these are preserved in Chickasaw but are replaced with terms based on *akankabi'* "chicken-killer." Second, there is English influence on syntax, which can be seen in some of the sample sentences. For example, the Chickasaw idiom for catching an illness is taken from English: In Chickasaw, one "takes an illness" (cf. English "to take sick"), *sipoknabi'i'shli* "I have syphilis," literally "I take syphilis." In other Muskogean languages, such as Koasati, the illness takes one, e.g., *holpá shibáhlik cii:silahq*. "You will catch pneumonia," literally "Pneumonia will take you." Third, there are a number of calques on English, for example *iminti* "to ejaculate," literally "to come" (as in English), as opposed to a Muskogean language such as Alabama, which has a purely native term *boyotli*, the root of which means "scatter."

There is much of interest that can be gleaned from the dictionary. One such interesting process will be mentioned here. Chick-

asaw permits spectacular contractions of compound words, contractions so great that, were the full forms not attested, they could not be retrieved from the contracted form. The following are four examples:

Contraction	Gloss	Full form
<i>naachi</i>	"quilt"	<i>nanna anchi</i>
<i>solhpo'</i>	"saddle"	<i>issoba ompatalhpo'</i>
<i>ta'osso</i>	"money"	<i>tali'holisso</i>
<i>tafola</i>	"sofkey"	<i>tanchi'folowa</i>

The appearance of nasal vowels in the contractions suggests the origin for the phonemic nasal vowels that are found in some other nouns.

The criticisms that one can make of the dictionary are few. Pleasantly, typographical errors are surprisingly rare. There can be no argument with the data provided, and only a little with the interpretation in the etymologies, which, for the majority of readers, will be of small interest or little importance. Since the explosion of information available on the other Muskogean languages in the past fifteen years, a greater reliance on comparative Muskogean would explain certain irregularities and rare words in Chickasaw. For example, there are many cases of long *i* in the penultimate syllable of transitive verbs, where the transitive verb has only a long *a*. Comparative evidence shows that the long *i* comes from the sequence *ay*, and the long *a* from the collapse of the sequence *aya*, as in the following:

Chickasaw	<i>paniili / panaa</i>	"to twist / be twisted"
Koasati	<i>panayli / panayka</i>	"to twist / be twisted"
Chickasaw	<i>wakiili / wakaa</i>	"to cause to fly / to fly"
Alabama	<i>wakaylichi / wakayka</i>	"to cause to fly / to fly"

Comparative evidence also would help to illuminate certain nonoccurring roots. For example, the root <*shiyammi*> is set up partly on the basis of the verb *bakshiyammi* "to put a diaper on." However, Alabama and Koasati *iboksi* "diaper; breechcloth" is cognate to the first two syllables of the Chickasaw word and indicates that the roots should be <*bakshi*> and <*yammi*>.

A rare word that would have been clarified by comparison is *ninak*, which is glossed "moon." However, cognate forms in other Muskogean languages, such as Mikasuki *ni:taki*, mean "night."

The full word for "moon" in Chickasaw is given as *hashi ninak aa*, which literally would mean "the sun that goes at night." There are a number of other clarifications that could be made, but these are of interest only to the specialist.

Munro has a fascination with the grammatical workings of Chickasaw not unlike that of a clockmaker with the workings of an intricate clock. However, the author shares with the clockmaker a certain indifference to the aesthetics of the object of her fascination. The vast majority of Chickasaw sentences used as examples merely illustrate the grammatical operations of the language. Sometimes, sententially meaningless items are included ("I burned up with you."). The sentences are also populated with Munro's students, colleagues, and family. It may be amusing for the cognoscenti to identify as many as possible, but one regrets the lack of examples that come out of a Chickasaw cultural context.

Finally, some useful information appears on the inside of the book jacket that does not occur in the body of the work. When this book is ordered for library use, the inside parts of the book jacket should be tipped into the book as it is catalogued.

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Chiefs, Agents & Soldiers: Conflict on the Navajo Frontier, 1868–1882. By William Haas Moore. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1994. 355 pages. \$45.00 cloth.

Historical considerations of the Navajo are as numerous as those dealing with any other American Indian group. Historians such as Garrick and Roberta Bailey, Donald Parman, and Peter Iverson have dealt extensively with Navajo history, including the tragic "Long Walk" to the Bosque Redondo in eastern New Mexico in 1864 and the twentieth-century efforts to establish the Navajo Nation. Still, William Haas Moore has demonstrated that even the most frequently studied groups have crucial periods or topics in their history that have been neglected by historians. In *Chiefs, Agents & Soldiers*, Moore deals with the decades between the famous "Long Walk" and the end of the nineteenth century. In particular, he focuses on the early reservation years after the Navajo were allowed to return to their homeland in 1868. These years are significant, because they encompass the period immedi-