

# STUDIES IN THE SYNTAX OF MIXTECAN LANGUAGES

Volume 2



Edited by  
C. Henry Bradley and Barbara E. Hollenbach



**Studies in the  
Syntax of Mixtecan Languages  
Volume 2**

**Summer Institute of Linguistics and  
The University of Texas at Arlington  
Publications in Linguistics**

Publication 90

**Editors**

Virgil Poulter  
University of Texas  
at Arlington

William R. Merrifield  
Summer Institute of  
Linguistics

**Assistant Editors**

Alan C. Wares

Iris M. Wares

**Consulting Editors**

Doris A. Bartholomew  
Pamela M. Bendor-Samuel  
Desmond C. Derbyshire  
Robert A. Dooley  
Jerold A. Edmondson

Austin Hale  
Robert E. Longacre  
Eugene E. Loos  
Kenneth L. Pike  
Viola G. Waterhouse

**Studies in the  
Syntax of Mixtecan Languages**

**2**

**C. Henry Bradley  
and  
Barbara E. Hollenbach**

**Editors**

**A Publication of  
The Summer Institute of Linguistics  
and  
The University of Texas at Arlington  
1990**

© 1990 by the Summer Institute of Linguistics, Inc.

Library of Congress Catalog No: 88-60931

ISBN: 0-88312-108-5

ISSN: 1040-0850

**All Rights Reserved**

No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means—electronic, mechanical, photocopy, recording, or otherwise—without the express permission of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, with the exception of brief excerpts in journal articles or reviews.

Copies of this and other publications of the Summer Institute of Linguistics may be obtained from

International Academic Bookstore  
Summer Institute of Linguistics  
7500 W. Camp Wisdom Rd.  
Dallas, TX 75236

**Studies in the  
Syntax of Mixtecan Languages**

**2**





# Contents

Preface . . . . .	vii
Abbreviations . . . . .	ix
A SYNTACTIC SKETCH OF AYUTLA MIXTEC . . . . .	1
<i>Robert A. Hills</i>	
A SYNTACTIC SKETCH OF COATZOSPAN MIXTEC . . . . .	261
<i>Priscilla C. Small</i>	



## Preface

The present volume constitutes the second installment of a set for which four volumes are projected. It contains syntactic sketches of two distinct Mixtec languages.

The first language included in this volume is Ayutla Mixtec, a member of the Southern Lowlands grouping, located in the extreme southwestern part of the Mixtec area in the state of Guerrero. It is one of the few Mixtec languages that have retained glottal stop in word-final position.

The second is Coatzospan Mixtec, a member of the Northern Highlands grouping of Mixtec languages. It is located at the extreme northeastern tip of the Mixtec area, virtually surrounded by speakers of Cuicatec (another Mixtecan language) and Mazatec (a language in the Popolocan family of Otomanguean). Coatzospan Mixtec shows a number of differences from the Highland Mixtec dialects that are geographically closest to it, and some of these differences may reflect influence from the neighboring languages.

These sketches follow the same outline and format as those in Volume 1 (Bradley and Hollenbach 1988).<sup>1</sup> They present the structure of Mixtec with minimum attention to theory. Over half of the space in each sketch is devoted to examples, and, at the end, each sketch includes an indigenous version of the tar-baby story as a sample text in the language. Further background information about these sketches can be found in the Preface and Introduction to Volume 1.

BEH

February 1990

---

<sup>1</sup>Bradley, C. Henry and Barbara E. Hollenbach (eds). 1988. *Studies in the syntax of Mixtecan languages 1*. Summer Institute of Linguistics and The University of Texas at Arlington Publications in Linguistics 83. Dallas.



## Abbreviations

ADD	additive	INTS	intensifier
AFF	affirmative	KNO	known object
AML	animal	LIM	limiter
an	animate	LIQ	liquid
CAUS	causative	lit.	literally
CEX	contrary to expectation	ME	male ego
cf.	compare	MS	man speaking
CF	contrafactual	NEG	negative
CMP	complementizer	OBL	obligatory
COL	collocative	PL	plural
COM	completive	POT	potential
CON	continuative	PROC	process
DER	derivational	reg. sp.	regional Spanish
DIM	diminutive	REP	repetitive
DIR	directional	RES	respect
EMPH	emphatic	RSN	resigned
EX	exclusive	SG	singular
FE	female ego	Sp.	Spanish
GEN	general	SPEC	specifier
HAB	habitual	SPH	spherical
HORT	hortatory	subj	subject
IMP	imperative	UN	unspecified third person
IN	inclusive	WOD	wood
INAN	inanimate	WS	woman speaking
INC	incompletive	?	gloss unknown
INT	interrogative		



# **A Syntactic Sketch of Ayutla Mixtec**

**Robert A. Hills**





# Contents

INTRODUCTION . . . . .	7
0.1 Orientation . . . . .	7
0.2 Phonology . . . . .	8
0.3 Bibliography . . . . .	8
1 BASIC SENTENCES . . . . .	11
1.1 Statements . . . . .	11
1.1.1 Impersonal sentences . . . . .	11
1.1.2 Intransitive sentences . . . . .	12
1.1.3 Transitive sentences . . . . .	12
1.1.4 Sentences with adjuncts . . . . .	13
1.1.5 Equative sentences . . . . .	21
1.1.6 Stative sentences . . . . .	22
1.1.7 Peripheral elements . . . . .	25
1.1.8 Focus permutations . . . . .	27
1.1.9 Sentential complements . . . . .	31
1.2 Questions . . . . .	38
1.2.1 YES/NO questions . . . . .	38
1.2.2 WH questions . . . . .	39

1.2.3 Indirect questions . . . . .	46
1.3 Commands . . . . .	48
1.4 Vocatives . . . . .	51
1.5 Sentential Markers . . . . .	53
2 VERB PHRASES . . . . .	61
2.1 Content Verb Phrases . . . . .	61
2.1.1 Verb nuclei . . . . .	61
2.1.2 Preverbal elements . . . . .	64
2.1.3 Postverbal elements . . . . .	75
2.1.4 Combinations of elements . . . . .	84
2.1.5 Focus permutations . . . . .	87
2.2 Equative Verb Phrases . . . . .	88
2.3 Stative Verb Phrases . . . . .	93
2.4 Continuous Verb Phrases . . . . .	102
2.5 Imminent Verb Phrases . . . . .	105
2.6 Iterative Verb Phrases . . . . .	109
2.7 Extended Verb Phrases . . . . .	111
3 NOUN PHRASES . . . . .	117
3.1 Basic Noun Phrases . . . . .	117
3.1.1 Noun nuclei . . . . .	117
3.1.2 Prenominal elements . . . . .	119
3.1.3 Postnominal elements . . . . .	120
3.1.4 Combinations of elements . . . . .	129
3.2 Measurement Noun Phrases . . . . .	131
3.3 Possessive Noun Phrases . . . . .	133
3.4 Interrogative Noun Phrases . . . . .	137
3.5 Adverbial Noun Phrases . . . . .	139

3.6	Appositional Noun Phrases . . . . .	141
3.7	Additive Noun Phrases . . . . .	143
3.8	Distributive Noun Phrases . . . . .	145
3.9	Indefinite Noun Phrases . . . . .	146
4	OTHER PHRASES . . . . .	149
4.1	Quantifier Phrases . . . . .	149
4.1.1	Additive numeral phrases . . . . .	149
4.1.2	Attributive numeral phrases . . . . .	151
4.1.3	Aggregative numeral phrases . . . . .	152
4.1.4	Expanded numeral phrases . . . . .	153
4.1.5	General quantifier phrases . . . . .	158
4.1.6	Distributive numeral phrases . . . . .	161
4.1.7	Alternative numeral phrases . . . . .	162
4.1.8	Emphatic numeral phrases . . . . .	162
4.1.9	Interrogative numeral phrases . . . . .	163
4.2	Adverb Phrases . . . . .	164
4.2.1	Basic adverb phrases . . . . .	164
4.2.2	Appositional adverb phrases . . . . .	166
4.2.3	Additive adverb phrases . . . . .	166
4.2.4	Repetitive adverb phrases . . . . .	167
4.2.5	Distributive adverb phrases . . . . .	168
4.2.6	Interval adverb phrases . . . . .	169
4.3	Prepositional Phrases . . . . .	169
5	PARTS OF SPEECH . . . . .	177
5.1	Content and Equative Verbs . . . . .	177
5.1.1	Derivation . . . . .	177
5.1.2	Inflection . . . . .	193

5.2 Stative Verbs . . . . .	199
5.3 Nouns . . . . .	201
5.3.1 Derivation . . . . .	201
5.3.2 Classification . . . . .	203
5.4 Pronouns . . . . .	210
5.5 Adverbs . . . . .	212
5.6 Quantifiers . . . . .	214
5.7 Prepositions . . . . .	215
5.8 Conjunctions . . . . .	216
5.9 Markers . . . . .	217
5.10 Interjections . . . . .	223
6 INTERSENTENTIAL RELATIONS . . . . .	225
6.1 Coordinate Relations . . . . .	225
6.1.1 Coordinate relations with conjunctions . . . . .	225
6.1.2 Coordinate relations without conjunctions . . . . .	233
6.2 Subordinate Relations . . . . .	234
6.3 Direct Quotations . . . . .	243
6.4 Relations Across Sentence Boundaries . . . . .	244
7 TEXT . . . . .	251

# Introduction

## 0.1 Orientation

Ayutla Mixtec is spoken by approximately 5,000 people living mainly in the outlying settlements of the municipal center, Ayutla de los Libres, Guerrero, Mexico. Within this dialect area there is no significant dialectal variation. Ayutla is located approximately one hundred kilometers east of the Mexico City–Acapulco highway and forty kilometers north of the western coastal highway. It is connected by paved road to each highway.

A number of the Mixtec villages have primary schools, an increasing number of Mixtec children attend high school in Ayutla, and a few have progressed to post-high school education. Before the mid 1970s only a few had left the area, but the number has been increasing since then. Mixtec is learned as a first language in most of the homes, except in the village of Tepango, where more than half of the children are exposed to Spanish within their families.

I began my field studies of this language in January of 1972. The first three years were spent in Tepango. On two occasions I have lived in Coapinola, a centrally located village within the dialect area. I have also lived three years in Ayutla with daily exposure to native speakers of Mixtec.

This sketch is based on data gathered from the inception of my fieldwork in 1972. Armando Jiménez Flores, from Tepango, served as the first principal language associate; he was about twenty-nine years old when the sketch was in early draft. The text in chapter 7 was first written by him in Mixtec and later recorded on tape; the version given is a transcription of the recording.

I am indebted to thirty-five-year-old Pedro Basilio García of Tepango. He has a unique sensitivity to his language and has made a valuable

contribution to the final draft. All statements and data have been thoroughly checked with him.

Special mention must be given to Leo Pankratz, my former colleague, who was the first to study Ayutla Mixtec. I have greatly benefited from his field notes and from texts which he gathered and compiled in 1968 into a concordance on the IBM 1410 computer at the University of Oklahoma by the Linguistic Information Retrieval Project of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, supported in part by Grant GS-270 of the National Science Foundation.

## 0.2 Phonology

Ayutla Mixtec has the following consonants: voiceless stops *p t ty k ky kw*; prenasalized voiced stops *mb nd ndy ng ngw*; fricatives *v s sy sh x*; nasals *m n ny ñ*; lateral *l*; flap *r*; and semivowel *y*. Of these, *p ky mb ng ngw sy x m* are rare.

There are four series of vowels: plain vowels *i e a o u*; vowels checked by glottal stop *ih eh ah oh uh*; nasalized vowels *in an un*; and nasalized vowels checked by glottal stop *inh anh unh*.

There are three tones: high (written with acute accent), mid (written with macron), and low (unmarked). In certain specialized constructions, a sequence of two tones occurs on a single vowel, in which case the vowel is doubled to provide a segment on which to mark the second tone. Note that this doubling does not indicate length. Tone sandhi is moderate, and the forms written in this sketch show the underlying tones, before the application of sandhi rules. The phonology of Ayutla Mixtec is described more fully in Pankratz and Pike (1967).

## 0.3 Bibliography

- Hills, Robert A., and Pedro Basilio. n.d. *Diccionario Bilingüe: Mixteco del Municipio de Ayutla y Español*. Manuscript, Summer Institute of Linguistics, Tucson, Arizona.
- Hills, Robert A., and William R. Merrifield. 1974. Ayutla Mixtec, Just in Case, *International Journal of American Linguistics* 40:283–91.
- Pankratz, Leo. 1981. Ayutla Mixtec Kinship Terms, in *Proto Otomanguean Kinship*, edited by William R. Merrifield, pp. 155–57. International Museum of Cultures Publication 11. Dallas: International Museum of Cultures.

Pankratz, Leo, and Eunice V. Pike. 1967. Phonology and Morphotonemics of Ayutla Mixtec, *International Journal of American Linguistics* 33:287-99.





# 1

## Basic Sentences

### 1.1 Statements

Verbs fall into three classes—content, equative, and stative—which serve to define sentence types. Sentences with content verbs are impersonal, intransitive, or transitive; transitive and intransitive sentences optionally take various kinds of adjuncts. Equative sentences link a subject to a nominal complement by means of an equative verb. Stative sentences link a subject to a stative verb; sometimes this linkage is provided by another verb. Each of these sentence types may take a peripheral location and/or time element. They may also have any element within them fronted to indicate focus. In addition, each of these types may be used as a sentential complement within another sentence.

**1.1.1 Impersonal sentences.** The minimal form of an impersonal sentence consists of an impersonal verb, with neither subject nor object. Such verbs are limited to a small set and usually express meteorological and related concepts.

*tāan*  
CON:quake  
'There is an earthquake.'

*kūuh*  
POT:dawn  
'It will dawn.'

*ni nihi*  
 COM rumble  
 'It rumbled.'

**1.1.2 Intransitive sentences.** The minimal form of an intransitive sentence consists of an intransitive verb followed by its subject.

*kutu eh*  
 POT:weed we:IN  
 'We will weed.'

*kwashi ah*  
 CON:come she  
 'She is coming.'

*kāshí a*  
 CON:sleep he:RES  
 'He is sleeping.'

*sutyāh rih*  
 POT:swim it:AML  
 'It will swim.'

*ndīkó rah*  
 CON:cool it:LQ  
 'It is cooling.'

(See also 7.2, 7.5, 7.17, 7.18, 7.40, and many others.)

**1.1.3 Transitive sentences.** The minimal form of a transitive sentence consists of a transitive verb, its subject, and its object.

*shīhīh rih tikwī*  
 CON:drink it:AML water  
 'It is drinking water.'

*ni nahi ra ndushīh*  
 COM take:SG he hen  
 'He took the hen.'

*ni ndaku ra yuvāh ra*  
 COM resemble he father his  
 'He resembled his father.'<sup>1</sup>

(See also 7.1, 7.2, 7.5, 7.32, 7.39, and many others.)

Some transitive verbs permit the object to be unexpressed because it is understood from the context, as seen by comparing the following pair of sentences.

*chīhīh ra*  
 CON:plant he  
 'He is planting.'

*chīhīh ra nduchīh*  
 CON:plant he bean  
 'He is planting beans.'

**1.1.4 Sentences with adjuncts.** Both intransitive and transitive sentences may take the following adjuncts: locative, referent, instrument, and associative. Adjuncts are frequently expressed by an adverbial noun phrase or a prepositional phrase (see 3.5 and 4.3), which follows the subject in intransitive sentences and the object in transitive sentences. The specific locative noun or preposition used depends on both the kind of adjunct and the specific verb.

The locative adjunct expresses source, destination, or location, depending on the meaning of the verb, and it includes participants traditionally classified as indirect object. This adjunct is normally required with verbs that express change of possession, change of location, position, and placement.

With transitive verbs that express change of possession, the locative noun *ndahāh* 'hand' is used whenever an object is being transferred directly from hand to hand; and *nūuh* 'face' is used elsewhere, such as when a bulky or abstract object is being transferred, when the human source or goal gives or receives the object indirectly, or when the source or goal is an animal.

---

<sup>1</sup>Ayutla Mixtec pronouns do not distinguish grammatical function (see 5.4). It would therefore be more accurate to gloss them consistently by a single English form. I have, however, chosen to gloss them by the English form most appropriate in the context in order to enable the reader to understand the structure of the Mixtec examples more quickly.

With *ndahāh*:

*tāshīh i tutu ndahāh sihīh ah*  
 CON:give I paper hand mother her  
 'I am giving the paper to her mother.'

*kāhīnh sihīh ah tutu ndahāh i*  
 CON:get mother her paper hand my  
 'Her mother is receiving the paper from me.'

*nāhīh ra shuhūnh ndahāh ikwān*  
 CON:take:SG he money hand John  
 'He is taking money from John (Sp. *Juan*).'

*ni shakwīhnāh ra tutu ndahāh i*  
 COM COM:steal he paper hand my  
 'He stole the paper from me.'

With *nūuh*:

*satātū ra mbūrū nūuh yūhu*  
 POT:lend he donkey face my  
 'He will lend the donkey (Sp. *burro*) to me.'

*ni tatu ra tēi nūuh ikwān*  
 COM borrow he chair face John  
 'He borrowed the chair from John.'

*ni tashi ra kwētō vaha nūuh pēgrū*  
 COM give he word good face Peter  
 'He gave advice (Sp. *cuento* 'story') to Peter (Sp. *Pedro*).'

*nāhīh ra shuhūnh nūuh sīhe ikwān*  
 CON:take:SG he money face child John  
 'He is taking money (indirectly) from John's children.'

*satah chi nūnih nūuh ra*  
 POT:buy she:RES corn:kernel face his  
 'She will buy corn (indirectly) from him.'

*shikoh chi nūnih nūuh ra*  
 POT:sell she:RES corn:kernel face his  
 'She will sell corn (indirectly) to him.'

*tāshīh ikwān itya nūuh mbūrū*  
 CON:give John grass face donkey  
 'John is giving the grass to the donkey.'

With intransitive verbs that express change of location (motion verbs), the locative adjunct is usually expressed by a place name or by an adverbial basic noun phrase. This adjunct usually indicates destination.

*kwāhan ra yahvi*  
 CON:go he market  
 'He is going to market.'

*kishi ah itya*  
 POT:come she river  
 'She will come to the river.'

*kūhun ra shāhah ikūh*  
 POT:go he foot mountain  
 'He will go to the foot of the mountain.'

(See also 7.27 and 7.32.)

The adjunct may be omitted to mark motion with no specific destination.

*kwāhan ra*  
 CON:go he  
 'He is going.'

*kishi ra*  
 POT:come he  
 'He will come.'

With the verbs *keta* 'to leave (singular)', *kie* 'to leave (plural)', *kunu* 'to flee', and a few others, the locative adjunct indicates source.

*ni keta pēgrū tepāngō*  
 COM leave:SG Peter Tepango  
 'Peter left Tepango.'

*kunu pēgrū tepāngō*  
 POT:flee Peter Tepango  
 'Peter will flee from Tepango.'

To express source with a verb that takes destination, a sentence combination using one of these verbs in the first part must be employed (see 6.1.1).

With intransitive verbs that express position, the locative adjunct indicates location, and it is usually expressed by an adverbial possessive noun phrase.

*nāá shuhūnh tishin vihe*  
 CON:be:inside:SG money stomach house  
 'The money is inside the house.'

*kānūh tōto nūuh yūuh*  
 CON:be:upon:SG cloth face stone  
 'The cloth is lying on the rock.'

With transitive verbs that express placement, the locative adjunct follows the object. As with position verbs, the adjunct is expressed by an adverbial possessive noun phrase.

*tāanh ra shuhūnh tishin shātunh*  
 CON:put:inside:PL he money stomach box  
 'He is putting the money into the box.'

*ni chindūhuh ah tōto nūuh yivih*  
 COM lay:down:SG she cloth face palm:mat  
 'She put the cloth on the sleeping mat.'

*kani a nduyu shāhah iūnh*  
 POT:place:standing:SG he:RES post foot tree  
 'He will stand the post at the tree trunk.'

(See also 7.5, 7.16, 7.27, 7.29, and 7.33.)

The referent adjunct is marked either by the locative nouns *shāhah* 'foot' or *kwēntā* 'account' (Sp. *cuenta*), both used in this construction to mean 'on behalf of' or 'with reference to', or by the preposition *shūnh* 'with', used in this construction to mean 'with reference to'.

With *shāhah*:

*shāhñih ra pēgrū shāhah ñani ra*  
 CON:kill he Peter foot brother:ME his  
 ‘He is killing Peter for his brother.’

*sachūūnh ndūhu shāhah sīhe ndūhu*  
 POT:work we:EX:EMPH foot child OUR:EX:EMPH  
 ‘We will work for our children.’

*ni kihin ra shuhūnh shāhah nūnih*  
 COM get he money foot corn:kernel  
 ‘He received money for the corn.’

*kāhán pēgrū shāhah vihe unh*  
 CON:speak Peter foot house your:SG  
 ‘Peter is speaking about your house.’

*kāhán pēgrū kwēntā te chūūnh*  
 CON:speak Peter account his worklike  
 ‘Peter is speaking on behalf of the president.’

With *shūnh*:

*kētāh vaha ra shūnh ñuhūh*  
 CON:leave:SG good he with earth  
 ‘He is lucky with reference to the land.’

(See also 7.14, 7.22, 7.23, and 7.24.)

The instrument adjunct takes the preposition *shūnh* ‘with’, which also occurs with referent adjuncts. The instrument adjunct follows subject, object, and locative adjuncts. (Some impingement verbs, however, combine with an instrument noun to form a complex verb nucleus [see 2.1.1].)

*ni shahñih ikwān kīni shūnh chīlō*  
 COM COM:kill John pig with knife  
 ‘John killed the pig with a knife (Sp. *cuchillo*).’

*ndātāh ra tutūnh shūnh yāchā*  
 CON:split he firewood with ax  
 'He is splitting the firewood with an ax (Sp. *hacha*).'

(See also 7.3, 7.8, and 7.10.)

The associative adjunct takes the preposition *shūnh* 'with', which is also used with referent and instrument adjuncts. This adjunct has two uses: one adds an extra participant to some other element in the sentence, and the other one indicates the addressee with verbs of speech.

In the first use, it can add a participant to subject, object, or some other adjunct, but it is far more common with subject than with any other element. An associative adjunct doubling the subject of a transitive sentence usually follows the object, but it may precede it. The participant that is added by means of this adjunct is less prominent in the discourse than the other participant. Also, verbs with inherent number for subject or object (see 5.1.1) invariably agree with the first noun phrase, not with the combination of the two.

Expanding subject:

*ni ndava pēgrū shūnh lālū*  
 COM run:SG Peter with Larry  
 'Peter ran with Larry (Sp. *Lauro*).'

*kishi sūtu shūnh pēgrū*  
 POR:come priest with Peter  
 'The priest will come with Peter.'

*yīhvī pēgrū shūnh ra*  
 CON:be:afraid Peter with him  
 'Peter is afraid, along with him.'

*shīshīh ra nduchīh shūnh yūhu*  
 CON:eat he bean with me:EMPH  
 'He is eating beans with me.'

*shīshīh ra shūnh yūhu nduchīh*  
 CON:eat he with me:EMPH bean  
 'He is eating beans with me.'



*kūhun pēgrū yahvi shūnh ikwān*  
 POT:go Peter market with John  
 'Peter will go to the market with John.'

*kūhun pēgrū shūnh ikwān yahvi*  
 POT:go Peter with John market  
 'Peter will go to the market with John.'

*shāchūūnh pēgrū shūnh bētō shāhah lālū*  
 CON:work Peter with Bob foot Larry  
 'Peter is working with Bob (Sp. *Beto*) for Larry.'

*shāchūūnh pēgrū shāhah lālū shūnh bētō*  
 CON:work Peter foot Larry with Bob  
 'Peter is working with Bob for Larry.'

## Expanding object:

*ni nahi ah ndushīh shūnh ndīvih*  
 COM take:SG she chicken with egg  
 'She took a chicken, along with eggs.'

*ni satah ra yahāh shūnh ūnh*  
 COM buy he chili with salt  
 'He bought chilies, along with salt.'

*chīhīh ra nūnih shūnh nduchīh*  
 CON:plant he corn:kernel with bean  
 'He is planting corn along with beans.'

(See also 7.30.)

## Expanding locative adjunct:

*tashi i tutu ndahāh ah shūnh ndahāh*  
 POT:give I paper hand her with hand  
 'I will give the paper to her, along with

*sihīh ah*  
 mother her  
 her mother.'

*ni tatu ra tēi nūuh ikwān shūnh*  
 COM borrow he chair face John with  
 'He borrowed the chairs from John

*nūuh yūhu*  
 face my:EMPH  
 as well as me.'

*kwāhan ra vihe sūtu shūnh yukūnh*  
 CON:go he house priest with church  
 'He is going to the priest's house and also to the church.'

*ni taanh ra shuhūnh tishin shātunh*  
 COM put:inside:PL he money stomach box  
 'He put the money into the box

*shūnh tishin kaa*  
 with stomach metal  
 as well as the tin can.'

Expanding referent adjunct:

*kahnih ra pēgrū shāhah űani ra*  
 POT:kill he Peter foot brother:ME his  
 'He will kill Peter for his

*shūnh shāhah kuhva ra*  
 with foot sister:ME his  
 brother as well as for his sister.'

Expanding instrument adjunct:

*ndātāh ra tutūnh shūnh yāchā*  
 CON:split he firewood with ax  
 'He is splitting the firewood with an ax,

*shūnh īchi*  
 with machete  
 along with a machete.'

When the associative adjunct is used to add an extra participant, both participants must relate to the predication within a common time frame.

For example, in the first sentence showing a doubled subject, Peter and Larry must have been seen running at the same time; this sentence would be incorrect if Peter was seen running on a different day than Larry. Also, in the second sentence showing a doubled object, chili and salt would have to be bought at the same transaction. When this condition is not met, it is necessary to use a sentence combination to add extra participants (see 6.1.1).

The second use of the associative adjunct is to express the addressee with verbs of speech.

*ni kāhan te chūūnh shūnh bētō*  
 COM speak he worklike with Bob  
 'The president spoke to Bob.'

*ndātūhūnh chi shūnh ra*  
 CON:chat she:RES with him  
 'She is chatting with him.'

*sakānh ni kāchi ra shūnh i*  
 thus COM say he with me  
 'Thus he said to me.'

(See also 7.14, 7.18, 7.19, and 7.32.)

It is not possible to have more than one associative adjunct in a single sentence.

A sentence rarely has more than three noun or prepositional phrase constituents. The text in chapter 7, for example, contains no sentences with four or more constituents beside the verb phrase. It is more natural to divide the material into two or more sentences than to complicate one sentence.

**1.1.5 Equative sentences.** Equative sentences parallel transitive sentences in their structure: they consist of an equative verb, a subject, and a nominal complement. The verbs that occur in equative sentences are limited to *kunduu* 'to be equal', *kunanīh* 'to be named', and, less frequently, *nanduu* 'to be transformed'.

*ni ndūu marā nā sīhī ra*  
 COM COM:be:equal Mary she female his  
 'Mary (Sp. *María*) was his wife.'

*kunanūh*         *ra ikwān*  
 POT:be:named he John  
 'He will be named John.'

*nanduu*                 *rah kashin*  
 POT:be:transformed it:LIQ ice  
 'It will change into ice.'

Equative sentences occasionally take an associative adjunct.

*ni ndūu*                 *pēgrū shūnh ikwān te chūūnh*  
 COM COM:be:equal Peter with John he worklike  
 'Peter was mayor with John.'

**1.1.6 Stative sentences.** The minimal form of a stative sentence consists of a stative verb and its subject. All such sentences are factual statements and continuative in meaning.

*vīshāh tōto*  
 wet cloth  
 'The cloth is wet.'

*ndatunh sahmāh*  
 pretty tortilla:cloth  
 'The tortilla cloth is pretty.'

*āsīnh māngō*  
 delicious mango  
 'The mango (Sp. *mango*) is delicious.'

*kwāān saa*  
 yellow bird  
 'The bird is yellow.'

*kātuh yohōh*  
 tight rope  
 'The rope is tight.'

(See also 7.23.)

The intransitive verb *koo* 'to exist' may be used to link the stative verb and the subject; it denotes external states.

*vīshāh yōō tōto*  
 wet CON:exist cloth  
 'The cloth is wet.'

*āsīnh ni yōo māngō*  
 delicious COM COM:exist mango  
 'The mango was delicious.'

*ndāhvī ni yōo ra*  
 poor COM COM:exist he  
 'He was poorly dressed.'

*kwīē koo ra*  
 slow POT:exist he  
 'He will be methodical.'

*ndaturh yōō ah*  
 pretty CON:exist she  
 'She is beautifully dressed.'

The intransitive verb *kuu* 'to be (inherently)' may be also used to link the stative verb and the subject; it denotes internal states.

*ndāhvī ni kuu ra*  
 poor COM be:inherently he  
 'He was a humble person.'

*kwīē kuu ra*  
 slow POT:be:inherently he  
 'He will be a prudent person.'

*ndaturh kūūh ah*  
 pretty CON:be:inherently she  
 'She has a beautiful disposition.'

Subjective states are expressed in two ways. To express a state with a reasonable degree of certainty, the stative verb is followed by *kāāh* 'to appear (singular)' or *ūnh* 'to appear (plural)'. These two verbs occur only in continuative and completive aspects.

*ndatunh ni kāa ah*  
 pretty COM COM:appear:SG she  
 'Apparently she was pretty.'

(See also 7.22.)

*āsinh ni kāa māngō*  
 delicious COM COM:appear:SG mango  
 'Apparently the mango was delicious.'

*ndatunh ūnh nya*  
 pretty CON:appear:PL they  
 'Apparently they are pretty.'

*āsinh ūnh māngō*  
 delicious CON:appear:PL mango  
 'Apparently the mangos are delicious.'

In order to express a state with greater degree of uncertainty, the stative verb is followed by *kuni* 'to appear'.

*vīshāh ni kuni tōto*  
 wet COM appear cloth  
 'The cloth appeared to be wet.'

*kwāān kuni ah*  
 yellow POT:appear she  
 'She may be fair (light colored).'

*ndatunh kūnī sahmāh*  
 pretty CON:appear tortilla:cloth  
 'The tortilla cloth appears to be pretty.'

A quantifier or quantifier phrase sometimes occurs as the predicate of a stative sentence.

*ūni tāhān kūūh rih*  
 three of:group:PL CON:be:inherently it:AML  
 'There are three animals.'

Stative sentences occasionally take an associative adjunct.

*chiē pēgrū shūnh ikwān*  
 big:SG Peter with John  
 'Peter is big, along with John.'

**1.1.7 Peripheral elements.** All sentence types may indicate time and location. Peripheral location describes the setting of the entire predication and so is distinguished from locative adjuncts, which complete the meaning of some verbs. Peripheral elements may be adverbs, adverb phrases (see 4.2), adverbial noun phrases (see 3.5), prepositional phrases (see 4.3), or subordinate sentences (see 6.2). Peripheral elements follow subject, object, and adjuncts. When time and location cooccur, time follows location.

Time:

*taan nūnūh*  
 POT:quake later:today  
 'There will be an earthquake soon.'

*ni ndīko rah iku*  
 COM cool it:LIQ yesterday  
 'It cooled yesterday.'

*sachūūnh ra shāhah sihe ra isā*  
 POT:work he foot child his day:after:tomorrow  
 'He will work for his children the day after tomorrow.'

*ni satah ah shūtah shāhah shīmānā*  
 COM buy she tortilla foot week  
 'She bought tortillas at the beginning of the week (Sp. *semana*).'

*kunanīh ra ikwān mahīh shīmānā*  
 POT:be:named he John in:middle:of week  
 'He will be named John in the middle of the week.'

*ndatunh kuu ah nūuh shīmānā*  
 pretty POT:be:inherently she face week  
 'She will have a beautiful disposition at the end of the week.'

(See also 7.19.)

## Location:

*taan shūkāh*  
 POT:quake far  
 'There will be an earthquake far away.'

*ni ndiko rah kihe*  
 COM cool it:LIQ outside  
 'It cooled outside.'

*nāá shuhūnh tishin shātunh kihe*  
 CON:be:inside:SG money stomach box outside  
 'The money is outside in the box.'

*sachūūnh ra shāhah sīhe ra yahvi*  
 POT:work he foot child his market  
 'He will work for his children at the market.'

*ni satah ah shūtah shātah vihe*  
 COM buy she tortilla back house  
 'She bought tortillas at the back of the house.'

*kunanīh ra ikwān tishin yukūnh*  
 POT:be:named he John stomach church  
 'He will be named John in the church.'

*kwīē kuu ah tein itu*  
 slow POT:be:inherently she between corn:plant  
 'She will be a prudent person among the corn stocks.'

## Time and location:

*sutyāh rih itya tyāan*  
 POT:swim it:AML river tomorrow  
 'It will swim in the river tomorrow.'

An extra time or location peripheral element can be added to a sentence by means of the associative adjunct (see 1.1.4).

*taan tyāan shūnh isā*  
 POT:quake tomorrow with day:after:tomorrow  
 'There will be an earthquake tomorrow, along with the day after.'



*sachūūnh ra shāhah sihe ra shāhah shīmānā*  
 POT:work he foot child his foot week  
 'He will work for his children at the beginning of the week,

*shūnh nūuh shīmānā*  
 with face week  
 along with the end of the week.'

*taan tutyōoh shūnh yihēh*  
 POT:quake Ayutla with Acapulco  
 'There will be an earthquake at Ayutla as well as Acapulco.'

*ni ndūko rah kihe shūnh tishin vihe*  
 COM cool it:LIQ outside with stomach house  
 'It cooled outside as well as inside the house.'

*kwīē kuu ah shātah vihe*  
 slow POT:be:inherently she back house  
 'She will be prudent behind the house as well as

*shūnh shāhah kūhu*  
 with foot brush  
 in the brush (near the house).'

**1.1.8 Focus permutations.** In appropriate discourse contexts, any one element (subject, object, adjunct, nominal complement, or peripheral element) may be focused by permuting it to pre-verb-phrase position. Throughout this sketch focused elements are indicated by capitalization in the free translation. Locative nouns and prepositions that mark adjuncts and peripheral elements are fronted along with the following noun phrase.

Subject focus:

*pēgrū kīshī*  
 Peter CON:sleep  
 'PETER is sleeping.'

*mbūrū shīhīh tikwī*  
 donkey CON:drink water  
 'THE DONKEY is drinking water.'

*marīā ni ndūu                    nā sīhī ra*  
 Mary COM COM:be:equal she female his  
 'MARY was his wife.'

*te kāah nanīh                    ikwān*  
 he that:far CON:be:named John  
 'THAT MAN is called John.'

*nalui ndatunh kāāh*  
 girl pretty CON:appear:SG  
 'Apparently THE GIRL is pretty.'

(See also 7.14.)

Object focus:

*tikwī shīhīh mbūrū*  
 water CON:drink donkey  
 'The donkey is drinking WATER.'

(See also 7.35.)

Locative adjunct focus:

*ndahāh sīhīh ah tāshīh i tutu*  
 hand mother her CON:give I paper  
 'I am giving the paper TO HER MOTHER.'

*nūuh ra satah chi nūnih*  
 face his POT:buy she:RES corn:kernel  
 'She will buy the corn FROM HIM.'

*yahvi kwāhan ra*  
 market CON:go he  
 'He is going TO MARKET.'

*tīshin vihe nāā                    shuhūnh*  
 stomach house CON:be:inside:SG money  
 'The money is INSIDE THE HOUSE.'

(See also 7.12.)

## Referent adjunct focus:

*shāhah sīhe ndūhu sachūūnh ndūhu*  
 foot child OUR:EX:EMPH POT:work WE:EX:EMPH  
 'We will work FOR OUR CHILDREN.'

*shāhah nūnih ni kihin ra shuhūnh*  
 foot corn:kernel COM get he money  
 'He received money FOR THE CORN.'

*shūnh nalui kāah tundāhah ra*  
 with girl that:far POT:marry he  
 'He will marry THAT GIRL.'

## Instrument adjunct focus:

*shūnh chīlō ni shahnih ikwān kīni*  
 with knife COM COM:kill John pig  
 'John killed the pig WITH A KNIFE.'

## Associative adjunct focus:

*shūnh lālū ni ndava pēgrū*  
 with Larry COM run:SG Peter  
 'Peter ran WITH LARRY.'

*shūnh pēgrū kishi sūtu*  
 with Peter POT:come priest  
 'The priest will come WITH PETER.'

## Nominal complement focus:

*ñā sīhī ra ni ndūu mariā*  
 she female his COM COM:be:equal Mary  
 'Mary was HIS WIFE.'

(See also 7.6 and 7.38.)

Peripheral elements may be focused by permuting them either to pre-verb-phrase position or to a position preceding any adjunct except locative.

*iku ni shāa pēgrū*  
 yesterday COM arrive:SG Peter  
 'Peter arrived YESTERDAY.'

*kihe shīshīh nya*  
 outside CON:eat they  
 'They are eating OUTSIDE.'

*sachūūnh ndūhu tyāan shāhah sīhe ndūhu*  
 POT:work we:EX:EMPH tomorrow foot child our:EX:EMPH  
 'We will work TOMORROW for our children.'

*ni ndava pēgrū yahvi shūnh lālū*  
 COM run:SG Peter market with Larry  
 'Peter ran AT THE MARKET with Larry.'

*ni shahnih ikwān kīni iku shūnh chīlō*  
 COM COM:kill John pig yesterday with knife  
 'John killed the pig YESTERDAY with a knife.'

*ni kihin ra shuhūnh vihe vīkāh shāhah nūnih*  
 COM get he money house rich foot corn:kernel  
 'He received money AT THE STORE for the corn.'

(See also 7.1, 7.7, and 7.13.)

To place stronger focus on an element, either the topic marker *ndū* or the conjunction *te* 'and' can be placed after the fronted element. *ndū* is always followed by pause, and most commonly topicalizes the subject, but it occasionally refers to some other element; for subject or object the appropriate pronoun copy occurs in normal position following the verb.

*mbūrū ndū / shīhīh rih tikwī*  
 donkey TOPIC CON:drink it:AML water  
 'As for the donkey, it is drinking water.'

*marīā ndū / ni ndūu ah nā sīhī ra*  
 Mary TOPIC COM COM:be:equal she she female his  
 'As for Mary, she was his wife.'

*tōto ndū / vīshāh a*  
 cloth TOPIC wet it:INAN  
 ‘As for the cloth, it is wet.’

*ñuhūh ndū / ni satah ra a*  
 earth TOPIC COM buy he it:INAN  
 ‘As for the land, he bought it.’

*tishin vihe ndū / nāá shuhūnh*  
 stomach house TOPIC CON:be:inside:SG money  
 ‘As for inside the house, there is money.’

*ndahāh te chūūnh ndū / tāshīh ra tutu*  
 hand his worklike TOPIC CON:give he paper  
 ‘As for the president, he gave the money.’

(See also 7.22, 7.23, and 7.24.)

In 7.6, an equative sentence occurs that contains both nominal complement focus and a topicalized subject. (This sentence also contains the complex sentential marker *ama ndū* [see 6.4].)

The conjunction *te* ‘and’ is not used to focus subjects, and it is especially common with peripheral time elements. It is not usually followed by pause.

*tyāan te sachūūnh ra*  
 tomorrow and POT:work he  
 ‘TOMORROW (and then) he will work.’

*ndee vitin te koto ah ndushīh*  
 from:until now and POT:look she hen  
 ‘FROM NOW ON she will look after the chickens.’

*iin ndahāh te kasaha unh yāvi*  
 one hand and POT:make you:SG hole  
 ‘ONE FATHOM (more, and then) you will make a hole.’

(See also 7.15, 7.30, and 7.32.)

**1.1.9 Sentential complements.** Both subject and object complements occur, but object complements occur with a larger group of main verbs.

Subject complements occur most frequently with the following three main verbs: *ndihi* 'to finish', *kuni* 'to appear', and *kuvi* 'to be able'. The subject complement immediately follows the main verb, and there are various restrictions on the complement sentence. One such restriction is that the complement must contain a verb inflected for aspect, i.e., it cannot have a stative verb alone. A second one is that there are aspect restrictions between the main verb and the complement verb. With *ndihi* 'to finish', the two verbs must agree in aspect; with *kuni* 'to appear', the complement verb must be in potential aspect; and with *kuvi* 'to be able' (which is homophonous in potential and continuative aspects), either *kuvi* and the complement verb agree in aspect, or *kuvi* is in completive and the complement verb is in potential. Other restrictions on subject complement sentences are beyond the scope of this paper.

*ndihi*            *taan*  
 POT:finish    POT:quake  
 'The earthquake will finish.'

*ndihih*        *kishí*        *ra*  
 CON:finish    CON:sleep    he  
 'He is finishing sleeping.'

*ni*    *ndihi*    *ni*    *ndüu*            *ra*    *te*    *chüünh*  
 COM finish    COM    COM:be:equal    he    he    worklike  
 'He has finished being president.'

*kuni*            *kāku*            *rih*  
 POT:appear    POT:be:rescued    it:AML  
 'It will appear to be rescued.'

*kūnī*            *koho*            *ra*    *rah*  
 CON:appear    POT:drink    he    it:LIQ  
 'He appears to be drinking it.'

*ni*    *kuni*        *satah*    *ah*    *nūnih*  
 COM appear    POT:buy    she    corn:kernel  
 'She appeared to buy corn.'

*kuvi*            *kūsu*            *eh*  
 POT:be:able    POT:sleep    we:IN  
 'We will be able to sleep.'

*kāvī sātah te lūlū a*  
 CON:be:able CON:buy he small:SG it:INAN  
 'The boy is able to buy it.'

*ni kuvi koho rih tikwī*  
 COM be:able POT:drink it:AML water  
 'It was able to drink water (but didn't drink).'

*ni kuvi shihi rih tikwī*  
 COM be:able COM:drink it:AML water  
 'It was able to drink the water (and did).'

(See also 7.24.)

Subject complements also occur with stative sentences; they are especially common with stative verbs that evaluate the complement sentence in some way. There are no restrictions on the form of the complement sentence.

*vaha sachūūnh eh vitin*  
 good POT:work we:IN now  
 'It is good for us to work now.'

*ndisha sakānh ndūūh a*  
 true thus CON:be:equal it:INAN  
 'It is true that that's the way it is.'

(See also 7.25.)

Among the verbs that take object complements, some have special properties. The verb *vikwūn* 'to stop' requires the subject of the complement sentence to be coreferential with the subject of the matrix sentence, and the aspect of the complement verb cannot be completive.

*vikwūn ra kutu ra*  
 POT:stop he POT:weed he  
 'He will stop (preparations for) weeding.'

*vikwūn ra shītūh ra*  
 POT:stop he CON:weed he  
 'He will stop weeding (weeding in process).'

*shīkwūn ikwān chūhīh ra*  
 CON:stop John POT:plant he  
 'John is stopping (preparations for) planting.'

*ni shīkwūn ah sātah ah nūnih*  
 COM COM:stop she CON:buy she corn:kernel  
 'She has stopped buying corn.'

The verb *shahāh* 'to begin' requires coreferential subjects, but the subject of the matrix sentence may be unexpressed. As with *vikwūn* 'to stop', the aspect of the complement verb cannot be completive.

*shahāh kūsū ra*  
 POT:begin POT:sleep he  
 'He will begin to sleep.'

*shahāh ra kūsū ra*  
 POT:begin he POT:sleep he  
 'He will begin (preparations) to sleep.'

*shahāh ra kīshī ra*  
 POT:begin he CON:sleep he  
 'He will begin to sleep.'

*shāhāh ah kāhan ah*  
 CON:begin she POT:speak she  
 'She is beginning (preparations) to speak.'

*shāhāh kāhān ah*  
 CON:begin CON:speak she  
 'She is beginning to speak.'

*ni shahāh kunduu ra te chūūnh*  
 COM begin POT:be:equal he he worklike  
 'He has begun (preparations) to be president.'

(See also 7.2.)

The verb *kūni* 'to want' allows either coreferential or noncoreferential subjects, and takes an optional complementizer *ñā* or topic marker *ndū* (which is always followed by pause). When the subjects are coreferential and neither *ñā* nor *ndū* occurs, the subject of the matrix sentence may be



unexpressed. This verb requires the complement verb to be in potential aspect. Other verbs that refer to desire have similar properties.

*kūni ra kūsu ra*  
 POT:want he POT:sleep he  
 'He will want to sleep.'

*kūni ikwān kunduu pēgrū te chūūnh*  
 CON:want John POT:be:equal Peter he worklike  
 'John wants Peter to be president.'

*kūni ikwān ña kunduu pēgrū te chūūnh*  
 CON:want John CMP POT:be:equal Peter he woyklike  
 'John wants Peter to be president.'

*ni kūni satah ah nūnih*  
 COM want POT:buy she corn:kernel  
 'She wanted to buy corn.'

*ni kūni ra ndū / kashih ra chūya*  
 COM want he TOPIC POT:eat he banana  
 'He wanted to eat bananas.'

(See also 7.19, 7.21, and 7.23.)

Most other verbs that take object complements permit the subjects to be either coreferential or noncoreferential, permit the complement verb to have any aspect, and take an optional complementizer *ña* or topic marker *ndū*.

*kuni ra kīshí pēgrū*  
 POT:know he CON:sleep Peter  
 'He will know that Peter is sleeping.'

*kundani ra ni shishi ra*  
 POT:understand he COM COM:eat he  
 'He will comprehend that he ate.'

*kūndāni chi ña ni satah ndoh a*  
 CON:understand she:RES CMP COM buy you:PL it:INAN  
 'She is comprehending that you bought it.'

*ni tuu i ndū / ndūūh ra te vaha*  
 COM think I TOPIC CON:be:equal he he good  
 'I had the opinion that he was a good man.'

*kāhan a ña kūtuh koo yohōh*  
 POT:speak he:RES CMP tight POT:exist rope  
 'He will say that the rope will be tight.'

(See also 7.7, 7.14, 7.33, 7.38, and 7.41.)

Sometimes a sentential complement contains another one embedded in it. In such sentences the subject of an embedded sentence is always expressed before an object complement.

*kuvi shahāh ra kushi ra*  
 POT:be:able POT:begin he POT:eat he  
 'He will be able to begin to eat.'

*kūnī ra shahāh ra kushi ra*  
 CON:want he POT:begin he POT:eat he  
 'He wants to begin to eat.'

*kūnī ra kuni kuvi ra kushi ra*  
 CON:want he POT:appear POT:be:able he POT:eat he  
 'He wants to appear to be able to eat.'

An element within a subject complement may be focused by fronting it to the beginning of the matrix sentence, or it may be topicalized.

*nūnih ni kuni satah ah*  
 corn:kernel COM appear POT:buy she  
 'She appeared to buy CORN.'

(See also 7.24.)

An element within an object complement that is introduced by a complementizer or topic marker may be focused by fronting it to the beginning of the complement sentence. When no complementizer or topic marker occurs, an element within the complement sentence may be focused by fronting it to the beginning of either the complement sentence or the matrix sentence.

*kūndāni chi ña nduchīh ni satah ndoh*  
 CON:understand she:RES CMP bean COM buy you:PL  
 'She is comprehending that you bought BEANS.'

*ni tuu i ndū, te vaha ndūūh ra*  
 COM think I TOPIC, he good CON:be:equal he  
 'I had the opinion that he is A GOOD MAN.'

*kānī ikwān te chūūnh kunduu pēgrū*  
 CON:want John he worklike POT:be:equal Peter  
 'John wants Peter to be PRESIDENT.'

*te chūūnh kānī ikwān kunduu pēgrū*  
 he worklike CON:want John POT:be:equal Peter  
 'John wants Peter to be PRESIDENT.'

It is also possible to focus an entire object complement sentence by placing it before the matrix sentence. No complementizer or topic marker occurs.

*kīshī pēgrū / tūū ra*  
 CON:sleep Peter CON:think he  
 'He thinks THAT PETER IS SLEEPING.'

*ni shishi ra / kundani ra*  
 COM COM:eat he POT:understand he  
 'He will comprehend THAT HE ATE.'

*ni satah ndoh a / kūndāni chi*  
 COM buy you:PL it:INAN CON:understand she:RES  
 'She comprehends THAT YOU BOUGHT IT.'

*ndūūh ra te vaha / ni tuu i*  
 CON:be:equal he he good COM think I  
 'I had the opinion THAT HE IS A GOOD MAN.'

*kūtuḥ koo yohōh / kāhan a*  
 tight POT:exist rope POT:speak he:RES  
 'He will say THAT THE ROPE WILL BE TIGHT.'

Object complements of the verbs *vikwūn* 'to stop', *shahāh* 'to begin', or *kūni* 'to want', however, cannot be focused, nor can the subject complement of any sentence.

## 1.2 Questions

There are three types of questions: YES/NO questions, WH questions, and indirect questions.

**1.2.1 YES/NO questions.** Any basic sentence may be made into a YES/NO question either by using a special interrogative clitic, which raises the tone of the first syllable of the first word (see 5.9), or by placing either *ñāā* or *āān* at the beginning of the sentence (*ñāā* is more formal than *āān*).

*tāan*  
INT:POT:quake  
'Will there be an earthquake?'

*nī kīshi pēgrū*  
INT:COM COM:sleep Peter  
'Did Peter sleep?'

*ñāā taan*  
INT POT:quake  
'Will there be an earthquake?'

*ñāā tikwī koho mbūrū*  
INT water POT:drink donkey  
'Will the donkey drink WATER?'

*āān taan*  
INT POT:quake  
'Will there be an earthquake?'

*āān ñā sīhī ra ni ndūu mariā*  
INT she female his COM COM:be:equal Mary  
'Was Mary HIS WIFE?'

All three ways of questioning may be combined with words containing the negative clitic (see 2.1.2 and 5.9); negative forms expect a negative answer.

*táaān*

INT:NEG:POT:quake

‘There won’t be an earthquake, will there?’

*ñāā tāaān*

INT NEG:POT:quake

‘There won’t be an earthquake, will there?’

*ñāā vīshaāh tōto*

INT NEG:wet cloth

‘The cloth isn’t wet, is it?’

*āān tāaān*

INT NEG:POT:quake

‘There won’t be an earthquake, will there?’

*āān vīshāh tōto*

INT NEG:wet cloth

‘The cloth isn’t wet, is it?’

(See also 7.21.)

1.2.2 WH questions. Any element of a sentence may be questioned by using an appropriate interrogative pronoun, interrogative adverb, or interrogative noun phrase (see 5.4, 5.5, and 3.4) in focus position. Subjects, objects, and nominal complements are usually questioned by using *yoo* ‘who?’, *indā* ‘what?’, or a phrase.

Questioning subject:

*yoo kīshí*

who CON:sleep

‘Who is sleeping?’

*yoo kūkwāān*

who CON:become:yellow

‘Who is becoming fair (light colored)?’

*yoo ni satah rih*

who COM buy it:AML

‘Who bought it?’

*yoo ni ndūu te chūūnh*  
 who COM COM:be:equal he worklike  
 ‘Who was president?’

*yoo nanīh ikwān*  
 who CON:be:named John  
 ‘Who is named John?’

*yoo sūkūn*  
 who high  
 ‘Who is tall?’

*yoo kwāān koo*  
 who yellow POT:exist  
 ‘Who will be fair (light colored)?’

*yoo vaha ni kāa*  
 who good COM COM:appear:sg  
 ‘Who was apparently beautiful?’

*indā kāndūhuh nūuh mēsā*  
 what CON:be:lying:sg face table  
 ‘What is lying on the table (Sp. *mesa*)?’

*indā ni ndukūtuh*  
 what COM become:tight  
 ‘What became tight?’

*indā tiin tūnh kāsoh*  
 what POT:hold it:WOD CON:float  
 ‘What will support the roofing beam?’

*indā ndūūh ña chīe*  
 what CON:be:equal it:INAN big:sg  
 ‘What is a big thing?’

*indā nanīh kwāshah*  
 what CON:be:named Kwashah  
 ‘What is named Kwashah?’

*indā sūkān*  
 what high  
 ‘What is high?’

*indā vīshāh yōō*  
 what wet CON:exist  
 ‘What is wet?’

*indā vīshāh ni kuni*  
 what wet COM appear  
 ‘What appeared to be wet?’

*indā āsinh ūnh*  
 what delicious CON:appear:PL  
 ‘What are apparently delicious?’

*ndēē ñahāh kīshí*  
 which woman CON:sleep  
 ‘Which woman is sleeping?’

## Questioning object:

*yoo ni chindyēēh ra*  
 who COM help he  
 ‘Whom did he help?’

*indā sātah chi*  
 what CON:buy she:RES  
 ‘What is she buying?’

*ndēē ña sātah chi*  
 which it:INAN CON:buy she:RES  
 ‘Which thing is she buying?’

## Questioning nominal complement:

*yoo kunduu ra*  
 who POT:be:equal he  
 ‘What will he be?’

*indā ndūūh nuh*  
 what CON:be:equal it:WOD  
 'What is it?'

*indā ni ndūu a*  
 what COM COM:be:equal it:INAN  
 'What was it?' (referring to smashed object)

*ndēē ndikīnh ndūūh a*  
 which seed CON:be:equal it:INAN  
 'Which kind of seed is it?'

The nominal complement of *nanūh* 'to be named', however, is questioned by using *saa* 'how?'

*saa nanūh ra*  
 how CON:be:named he  
 'What is his name?'

Adjuncts that are signaled by a locative noun or a preposition are usually questioned by using *yoo* 'who?' or *indā* 'what?' When *yoo* is used, the locative noun or preposition immediately follows *yoo*.

*yoo ndahāh tashi ikwān tutu*  
 who hand POR:give John paper  
 'To whom will John give the paper?'

*yoo shāhah shāhnih ra kīni*  
 who foot CON:kill he pig  
 'For whom is he killing the pig?'

*yoo shūnh shīshīh ra nduchīh*  
 who with CON:eat he bean  
 'With whom is he eating beans?'

*yoo shūnh kwāhan ah*  
 who with CON:go she  
 'With whom is she going?'

When *indā* is used, the locative noun occurs at the end of the sentence.





*mūh ni taan*  
 where COM quake  
 'Where was the earthquake?'

*mūh shīshīh pēgrū*  
 where CON:eat Peter  
 'Where is Peter eating?'

*ama ni shishi pēgrū*  
 when COM COM:eat Peter  
 'When did Peter eat?'

*ndēē űuu kwāhan ra*  
 which town CON:go he  
 'To which town is he going?'

*ndēē yōoh ni shaa ra*  
 which month COM COM:arrive:sg he  
 'On which month did he arrive?'

Root cause and purpose are questioned by using the idiomatic interrogative noun phrase *ndēē shāhah* 'why?'

*ndēē shāhah kūnī kavi ra*  
 which foot CON:appear POT:die he  
 'What is the root cause of his being sick?' (lit. 'Why does it appear that he will die?')

*ndēē shāhah ni kihin ra shuhūnh*  
 which foot COM get he money  
 'For which purpose did he get the money?'

Cause is questioned by using the interrogative adverb *ndichūn* 'why?'

*ndichūn kūnī kavi ra*  
 why CON:appear POT:die he  
 'Why is he sick?' (lit. 'Why does it appear that he will die?')

*ndichūnh ni kihin ra shuhūnh*  
 why COM get he money  
 'Why did he get the money?'

Stative verbs are questioned by using the interrogative adverb *saa* 'how?'; one of the content verbs discussed in 1.1.6 must occur.

*saa yōō a*  
 how CON:exist it:INAN  
 'What is it like?'

*saa ni kuni tōto*  
 how COM appear cloth  
 'How did the cloth appear?'

*saa ūnh māngō*  
 how CON:appear:PL mango  
 'How apparently are the mangos?'

*saa ni kāa marā*  
 how COM COM:appear:SG Mary  
 'How apparently was Mary?'

Certain specific kinds of state, such as height, depth, size, and weight may be questioned more specifically by *saa* 'how?' followed by a stative verb that denotes significant magnitude of state in each semantic domain.

*saa sūkūn ra*  
 how high he  
 'How tall is he?'

*saa kūnū a*  
 how deep it:INAN  
 'How deep is it?'

*saa chīe ra*  
 how big:SG he  
 'How big is he?'

*saa nāhnūh a*  
 how big:PL it:INAN  
 'How big are they?'

*saa vīe a*  
 how heavy it:INAN  
 'How heavy is it?'

Content verbs are questioned by using the interrogative pronoun *indā* ‘what?’ or the interrogative noun phrase *ndēē ña*, followed by the verb *saa* ‘to do’ (for an agentive subject) or *ndoho* ‘to suffer’ (for a nonagentive subject).

*indā ni shaa ra*  
 what COM COM:do he  
 ‘What did he do?’

*indā ni ndōho ra*  
 what COM COM:suffer he  
 ‘What happened to him?’

*ndēē ña shāāh unh*  
 which it:INAN CON:do you:SG  
 ‘Which thing are you doing?’

*ndēē ña kundoho ndoh*  
 which it:INAN POT:suffer you:PL  
 ‘Which thing will happen to you?’

**1.2.3 Indirect questions.** Indirect YES/NO questions are introduced by the conjunction *nāāh* ‘if’; the interrogative clitic is not used, nor are the other interrogative sentential markers. The indirect question must be positive, and the main verb is usually the continuative negative form of *kuni* ‘to know’. (See 6.1.1 for a description of indirect disjunctive questions.)

*shūnī ah nāāh koho sīhe ah tātanh*  
 NEG:CON:know she if POT:drink child her medicine  
 ‘She doesn’t know if her child will drink the medicine.’

*shūnī bētō nāāh ndūūh pēgrū te chūūnh*  
 NEG:CON:know Bob if CON:be:equal Peter he worklike  
 ‘Bob doesn’t know if Peter is president.’

(See also 7.31.)

Indirect WH questions occur as the object complement of such verbs as *kāhan* ‘to say’, *ndatūhunh* ‘to ask’, *kanini* ‘to think’, *kundani* ‘to understand’, and *kuni* ‘to know’. No complementizer or topic marker occurs.

*kāhan i yoo ndahāh tashi ikwān tutu*  
 POT:speak I who hand POT:give John paper  
 'I will speak about whom John will give the paper to.'

*kāhán ra nūuh ndēē tīh tāshīh ikwān itya*  
 CON:speak he face which it:AML CON:give John grass  
 'He is speaking about which animal John is giving the grass to.'

*ndatūhunh a mūh ni keta pēgrū*  
 POT:ask he:RES where COM leave:SG Peter  
 'He will ask about where Peter left from.'

*ndātūhúnh ndoh shūnh ndēē tyāh koho ra tātanh*  
 CON:ask you:PL with which it:LIQ POT:drink he medicine  
 'You are asking about which liquid he will drink the medicine with.'

*ni ndatūhunh nduh indā kihin ra shuhūnh shāhah*  
 COM ask we:EX what POT:get he money foot  
 'We asked about what he will get the money for.'

*kanini nya ndēē ña shāāh unh*  
 POT:think they which it:INAN CON:do you:SG  
 'They will consider what you are doing.'

*shānīnī ra yoo ni ndūu te chūūnh*  
 CON:think he who COM COM:be:equal he worklike  
 'He is thinking about who was president.'

*ni shanini ra indā nanīh kwāshah*  
 COM COM:think he what CON:be:named Kwashah  
 'He thought about what is named Kwashah.'

*kūdāni chi saa kunanīh a*  
 CON:understand she:RES how POT:be:named he:RES  
 'She is comprehending what he will be named.'

*kundani ra yoo sūkān*  
 POT:understand he who high  
 'He will understand who is tall.'

*kuni pēgrū indā ni nduu kūtuh*  
 POT:know Peter what COM COM:be:equal tight  
 ‘Peter will know what has become tight.’

*shīnī ndoh mīh ni taan*  
 CON:know you:PL where COM quake  
 ‘You know where the earthquake was.’

*ni shini ra ama ni shishi pēgrū*  
 COM COM:know he when COM COM:eat Peter  
 ‘He knew when Peter ate.’

(See also 7.17.)

There is a discontinuous idiom, *tashi . . . kwēntō* ‘to inform’ or ‘to give advice’, which also introduces indirect questions. Sentences containing this idiom in effect have two objects, the word *kwēntō* and the indirect question. If a locative adjunct occurs, the indirect question follows it.

*tāshīh ikwān kwēntō yoo kīshī*  
 CON:give John word who CON:sleep  
 ‘John is informing (someone) about who is sleeping.’

*ni tashi ah kwēntō nūuh eh indā satah chi*  
 COM give she word face our:IN what POT:buy she:RES  
 ‘She informed us about what she will buy.’

Indirect questions cannot be focused to the front of the matrix sentence.

### 1.3 Commands

To form a second person singular familiar command, a basic sentence with the verb in potential aspect is used, except that the subject is not expressed.

*kaka*  
 POT:walk  
 ‘Walk!’

*kihin tutūnh*  
 POT:get firewood  
 ‘Get the firewood!’

*tashi tutu ndahāh sihīh ah*  
 POT:give paper hand mother her  
 'Give the paper to her mother!'

*satah nūnih nūuh ra*  
 POT:buy corn:kernel face his  
 'Buy the corn from him!'

For polite commands and for second person plural commands the subject is expressed; such sentences are also used as statements.

*kaka unh*  
 POT:walk you:SG  
 'Please walk!' or 'You will walk.'

*kihin ndōhó tutūnh*  
 POT:get you:PL:EMPH firewood  
 'Please get firewood!' or 'You will get firewood.'

*kāhun yōhó yahvi vitin*  
 POT:go you:SG:EMPH market now  
 'Please go to market now!' or 'You will go to market now.'

*kāhun unh shūnh pēgrū*  
 POT:go you:SG with Peter  
 'Please go with Peter!' or 'You will go with Peter.'

*tashi unh tutu ndahāh sihīh ah*  
 POT:give you:SG paper hand mother her  
 'Please give paper to her mother!' or 'You will give paper to her mother.'

*satah ndōhó nūnih nūuh ra*  
 POT:buy you:PL:EMPH corn:kernel face his  
 'Please buy corn from him!' or 'You will buy corn from him.'

(See also 7.18.)

First and third person commands take the hortatory marker *na* in the verb phrase (see 2.1.2); it signals politeness. (This marker is also used occasionally in second person commands.)

*na kāhun i*  
 HORT POT:go I  
 'Let me go!'

*na kushi ra shūnh yūhu*  
 HORT POT:eat he with me:EMPH  
 'Let him eat with me!'

*na sachūūnh eh*  
 HORT POT:work we:IN  
 'Let us all work!'

*na kihin ah nduchih*  
 HORT POT:get she bean  
 'Let her get beans!'

(See also 7.28.)

A few verbs have special imperative forms (see 5.1.2), which occur instead of potential aspect in commands.

*kwāhān*  
 IMP:go  
 'Go!' (one person)

*tōhoh*  
 IMP:GO:IN  
 'Let's go!' (two persons)

*tōhoh ndoh*  
 IMP:GO:IN you:PL  
 'Let's go!' (three or more persons)

*nyaha*  
 IMP:come  
 'Come!' (one person)

*nyaha unh*  
 IMP:come you:SG  
 'Please come!'



*nyaha yōhó*  
 IMP:COME you:SG:EMPH  
 ‘Please come!’

*nyaha ndōhó*  
 IMP:COME you:PL:EMPH  
 ‘Please come!’

#### 1.4 Vocatives

Vocatives occur sentence initial, sentence medial (under certain conditions), and sentence final. In initial position they are used to get the attention of the addressee and are more insistent. In medial or final position they assume the attention of the addressee has been secured and are usually more polite. Vocatives are always set off from the rest of the sentence by pause. Vocatives are usually kinship terms or proper names, though sometimes they are pronouns, common nouns, or short noun phrases. A few kinship terms, related terms that indicate respect, and proper names occur with various tone patterns to indicate different speaker attitudes (see 5.3.2). The following examples show sentence-initial vocatives.

*shītō / ama kūhun unh*  
 uncle when POT:go you:SG  
 ‘Uncle, when are you going?’

*ikwāan / ni shiní i ñani unh ndiheh*  
 John COM COM:sense I brother:ME your:SG earlier:today  
 ‘John, I saw your brother earlier today.’

*nāyah / kwāhān kihe*  
 dog CON:go outside  
 ‘Dog, go outside!’

Sentence-medial vocatives occur only following the first part of a complex sentence or the frozen parenthetical expression *shiní unh* ‘you know’. The topic marker *ndī* often follows sentence-medial vocatives.

*shiní unh / takwihe / vitin kūhun i*  
 CON:know you:SG he:respected now POT:go I  
 ‘Please notice, Sir, now I’m about to go.’

*kāih shāa unh / ikwān ndī / kāhan unh*  
 when POT:arrive:SG you:SG John TOPIC POT:speak you:SG  
 ‘When you arrive, John, speak

*shūnh ra*  
 with him  
 to him!’

*kāni i kāhan i shūnh ndōhó / ne*  
 CON:want I POT:speak I with you:PL:EMPH they  
 ‘I want to speak to you, you people who

*ītāh nāah / te kundani*  
 CON:be:standing:PL there:near and POT:understand  
 are standing there, so that you will

*ndōhó*  
 YOU:PL:EMPH  
 understand.’

*kāih shāāh unh sakānh / mīshūtūn ndī / kahnih i yōhó*  
 when CON:do you:SG thus cat TOPIC POT:kill I you:SG  
 ‘When you do that, cat (old Sp. *mistón*), I could kill you!’

The following examples show sentence-final vocatives.

*tichūh ni shahndya i / nanāa*  
 avocado COM COM:cut I mother  
 ‘I cut down the avocados, Mother.’

*tōhoh vihe / te kushi eh / te lui*  
 IMP:go:IN house and POT:eat we:IN he ?  
 ‘Let’s go home and eat, young man!’

*ni kishi ra / shishū*  
 COM come he aunt  
 ‘He came, ma’am.’

*vaha sachūūnh unh / pehē*  
 good POT:work you:SG dear  
 ‘Do a good job, dear!’

*kuchi ikāh / nāyah rein*  
 POT:chew bone dog inferior  
 'Eat the bone, you fleabag!'

*arō chūhīh ra / tātā shūh*  
 rice CON:plant he father old:respected  
 'He is planting rice (Sp. *arroz*), Grandfather.'

(See also 7.18.)

## 1.5 Sentential Markers

There are three sets of sentence-initial elements: those that mark exclamation (interjections), those that mark mood, and those that mark reality. There is also a set of sentence-final markers, which signal speaker-addressee decision attitude.

Interjections precede a sentence-initial vocative (if present) and are always followed by pause. They denote the speaker's reaction to something he has seen, heard, or experienced. They include *áán* 'surprise', *ūta* or *tāa* 'negative surprise', *xanh* 'displeasure', *xāán* 'inquisitiveness', *ūūxūun* 'sadness', and *aīi* 'pain' or 'deep sorrow'.

*áán / ni kihin ra mū pēsū*  
 SURPRISE COM get he thousand peso  
 'Oh, he received a thousand (Sp. *mil*) pesos (Sp. *peso*)!'

*ūta / ni shīhi kīni*  
 NEG:SURPRISE COM COM:die pig  
 'Oh no, the pig died!'

*xanh / vāahāh ni shaa unh*  
 DISPLEASURE NEG:good COM COM:do you:SG  
 'Hmh, you did a bad thing!'

*xāán / indā ni kāhan unh*  
 INQUISITIVENESS what COM speak you:SG  
 'What!? What did you say?'

*ūūxūun / ni shīhi sihīh i*  
 SADNESS COM COM:die mother my  
 'Oooh, my mother died!'

*aii / ni shahndya shūnh miih i*  
 ouch COM COM:cut with SPEC I  
 'Ouch, I cut myself'

(See also 7.14.)

The mood markers are a sentence-initial tone rise, *ñāā*, and *āān*, all of which mark YES/NO questions (see 1.2.1 for examples), and *āchi*, which marks supplication.

*āchi chindyēh unh yūhu*  
 SUPPLICATION POT:help you:SG me  
 'Oh please, help me!'

The reality markers include three simple forms, the sentential markers *suu* 'certainly' and *kwāīnh* 'maybe' and the general marker *tēeh* 'probably'; two sentential markers containing the negative clitic (see 5.9), *sūūh* or *sūuh* 'certainly not' and *kwāāīnh* 'unlikely'; and various complex markers such as *suu ndisha* 'certainly true', *kwāīnh ndisha* 'maybe true', and *tēeh ndisha* 'probably true'.<sup>2</sup>

*suu ni kuun sāvih iku*  
 certainly COM pelt rain yesterday  
 'Certainly it rained yesterday.'

*kwāīnh kuun sāvih tyāan*  
 maybe POT:pelt rain tomorrow  
 'Maybe it will rain tomorrow.'

*tēeh koo niih kwīya vitin*  
 probably POT:exist corn:ear year now  
 'Probably there will be (sufficient) corn this year.'

*sūuh kīshí te lūlū*  
 NEG:certainly CON:sleep he small:SG  
 'There is no possibility that the boy is sleeping.'

---

<sup>2</sup>An alternative analysis for sentences with reality markers is to consider them stative sentences containing a subject complement (see 1.1.9). Some support for this alternative analysis is found in 7.38, where *sūuh* 'not certainly' occurs as part of an object complement sentence, rather than as part of the matrix sentence. By their very nature, reality markers should be limited to matrix sentences.

*kwāāinh kīshí te lūlū*  
 NEG:maybe CON:sleep he small:SG  
 ‘It is unlikely that the boy is sleeping.’

*suu ndisha te sāvih ndūūh ra*  
 certainly true he rain CON:be:equal he  
 ‘It is certainly true that he is a Mixtec.’

*kwāāinh ndisha ni shaa ra sakānh*  
 maybe true COM COM:do he thus  
 ‘It is maybe true that he did that.’

*tēh ndisha sachūūnh ra*  
 probably true POT:work he  
 ‘It is probably true that he will work.’

Mood markers precede reality markers when both occur. Both mood and reality markers follow a sentence-initial vocative. There are various cooccurrence restrictions between reality markers and other parts of the sentence. For example, the negative forms of *suu* and *kwāāinh* occur only when the verb is positive, and *tēh* ‘probably’ cannot occur with postverbal *xān* ‘doubt’ (see 2.1.3). Also, the interjection *āān* ‘surprise’ cannot cooccur with *suu* ‘certainly’. A complete discussion of such restrictions is beyond the scope of this paper.

*ñāā suu ni kuun sāvih iku*  
 INT certainly COM pelt rain yesterday  
 ‘Did it really rain yesterday?’

*āān kwāāinh kuun sāvih tyāan*  
 INT maybe POT:pelt rain tomorrow  
 ‘Will it maybe rain tomorrow?’

*āchi sūuh saa eh sakānh*  
 please NEG:certainly POT:do we:IN thus  
 ‘Oh please, surely let’s not do that!’

*ikwāan / ñāā suu ni kuun sāvih iku*  
 John INT certainly COM pelt rain yesterday  
 ‘John, did it really rain yesterday?’

*tatāa / āān kwāīnh kuun sāvih tyāan*  
 father INT maybe POT:pelt rain tomorrow  
 'Father, will it probably rain tomorrow?'

*ūta / ikwāan / űāā suu ni shīhi kīni*  
 NEGATIVE SURPRISE John INT certainly COM COM:die pig  
 'Oh no, John, did the pig really die?'

There are two types of sentence-final markers. The first includes 'only *nuh*, which creates tag questions, and the second type refers to the type of decision involved. This set includes: *ni* 'suggested', *choh* 'modifiable', *ndi* 'contrary', *tih* 'urgent', *va* 'factual', *ranh* 'logical', and *ndoh* 'assertive'.

The tag question marker *nuh* occurs only on YES/NO questions that contain the tone-raising interrogative marker. If the sentence is positive, an affirmative answer is expected; and if it contains the negative clitic (see 5.9), a negative answer is expected.

*nī satah ndoh nduchīh yahvi nuh*  
 INT:COM buy you:PL bean market TAG  
 'You bought the beans at the market, didn't you?'

*nī satāh ndoh nduchīh yahvi nuh*  
 INT:NEG:COM buy you:PL bean market TAG  
 'You didn't buy the beans at the market, did you?'

The suggested marker *ni* usually occurs with statements containing a verb in potential aspect. When it occurs with statements containing a verb in continuative or completive aspect, it denotes pretense. It occurs with commands to indicate the speaker's conclusion while leaving room for the addressee to disagree.

*sachūūnh eh ni*  
 POT:work we:IN SUGGESTED  
 'We have decided to work, but what do you think?'

*shāchūūnh eh ni*  
 CON:work we:IN SUGGESTED  
 'We are pretending to be working.'

*ni shachūūnh eh ni*  
 COM COM:work we:IN SUGGESTED  
 'We pretended to work.'

*kūhun unh yahvi ni*  
 POT:go you:SG market SUGGESTED  
 'I have decided that you could go to market; what do you think?'

The modifiable marker *choh* occurs with statements containing a verb in potential aspect and with commands to indicate that the speaker has made a decision that is modifiable.

*kahmi nduh mihih choh*  
 POT:burn we:EX trash MODIFIABLE  
 'We have decided to burn the trash and respect your suggestions.'

*kahmi ndōhó mihih choh*  
 POT:burn you:PL:EMPH trash MODIFIABLE  
 'Burn the trash, but I am open to your suggestion as to when and how!'

The contrary marker *ndi* occurs with statements, YES/NO questions, and commands to indicate that the speaker considers the addressee to be in opposition.

*shihih ra tātanh ndi*  
 CON:drink he medicine CONTRARY  
 'He is taking the medicine even though you do not want him to.'

*koho unh tātanh ndi*  
 POT:drink you:SG medicine CONTRARY  
 'It does not matter; you must take the medicine!'

The urgency marker *tih* occurs with statements in potential aspect, YES/NO questions in any aspect, and commands.

*koko vihe tih*  
 POT:burn house URGENT  
 'The house is going to catch on fire!'

*ñāā koko vihe tih*  
 INT POT:burn house URGENT  
 'Is the house going to catch on fire?!'

*ñāā shīshí vihe tih*  
 INT CON:burn house URGENT  
 'Is the house on fire?'

*āān ni shīshi vihe tih*  
 INT COM COM:burn house URGENT  
 'The house burnt down, didn't it?'

*kūhun unh tih*  
 POT:go you:SG URGENT  
 'Go; it's urgent!'

The factual decision marker *va*, which indicates strong obligation based upon physical circumstance, occurs with statements and commands.

*ni chahvi ra shuhūnh yōoh va*  
 COM pay he money month FACTUAL  
 'Circumstance dictates; he must pay the annual tax.'

*chahvi unh shuhūnh yōoh va*  
 POT:pay you:SG money month FACTUAL  
 'Circumstance dictates; pay the annual tax!'

The logical marker *ranh* occurs with statements and commands to indicate a final decision made on the basis of reason; it indicates strong obligation, but is softer than *va*.

*soho sachūūnh ra ranh*  
 like:this POT:work he FINAL  
 'It is reasonable; he will do the work like this!'

*ni shahnih ra kīni ranh*  
 COM COM:kill he pig FINAL  
 'It is reasonable; he killed the pig!'

*tuhun unh kūhu ranh*  
 POT:pull you:SG weeds FINAL  
 'It is reasonable; pull the weeds!'

The assertive marker *ndoh* occurs with statements and commands; it indicates strong obligation based upon authority.



*kanduu ra te chūūnh kwīya kihin ndoh*  
 POT:be:equal he he worklike year POT:get ASSERTIVE  
 ‘He will be president next year.’

*kāhun unh skwēlā ndoh*  
 POT:go you:SG school ASSERTIVE  
 ‘Go to school (Sp. *escuela*)!’ or ‘You will go to school!’



## 2

# Verb Phrases

### 2.1 Content Verb Phrases

Content verb phrases consist of a nucleus which may be simple or complex, eight optional preverbal elements, and seven optional postverbal elements.

**2.1.1 Verb nuclei.** Both simple and complex verb nuclei occur; the latter are idioms composed of a verb plus another word, which may be a noun, a content verb, a stative verb, an adverb, or an indeterminate element.

A simple nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect. In the examples given in this chapter, the parts of each sentence outside the verb phrase are enclosed in parentheses.

*isa* (ah)  
POṬ:embroider (she)  
'(She) will embroider.'

*tuu* (ra)  
POṬ:think (he)  
'(He) will think.'

*ndaku* (ra yuvāh ra)  
POṬ:resemble (he father his)  
'(He) will resemble (his father).'

A verb-plus-noun nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a noun. Such constructions appear to have arisen historically by means of the incorporation of a direct object or an adjunct into the verb phrase.

*tūin kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:hold sin (he Peter)  
 '(He) will blame (Peter).'

*tashi soho (ra)*  
 POT:give ear (he)  
 '(He) will obey.'

*kihin shiko (ra)*  
 POT:get scent (he)  
 '(He) will smell (something).'

*ndūhuh katih (ra)*  
 CON:be:located:SG shade (he)  
 '(He) is in the shade.'

A variety of nouns indicating instrument freely combines with a small set of impingement verbs to form complex nuclei.

*kuun yūuh (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:pelt stone (he Peter)  
 '(He) will pelt (Peter) with stones.'

*kūūnh māngō (ra pēgrū)*  
 CON:pelt mango (he Peter)  
 '(He) is pelting (Peter) with mangos (Sp. *mango*).'

*sūkuh yohōh (ra pēgrū)*  
 CON:strike vine (he Peter)  
 '(He) is striking (Peter) with a rope.'

*tūvīh lāpī (ra pēgrū)*  
 CON:poke pencil (he Peter)  
 '(He) is poking (Peter) with a pencil (Sp. *lapiz*).'

A verb-plus-content-verb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a verb which has the tone pattern for potential aspect but which lacks a potential prefix (see 5.1.2).

*yōō*      *ndishi*      (*a*)  
 CON:exist POT:be:covered (it:INAN)  
 ‘(It) is decorated.’

*keta*      *nūu*      (*ra*)  
 POT:leave:SG POT:be:lowered (he)  
 ‘(He) will leave descending.’

*ūnh*      *ndichi*      (*ra*)  
 CON:be:standing:SG POT:be:erect (he)  
 ‘(He) is standing erect.’

A verb-plus-stative-verb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by either a basic stative verb or one derived from a noun (see 5.2).

With basic stative verbs:

*kāhan*      *kāhnūh*      (*ra*)  
 POT:speak important (he)  
 ‘(He) will give a speech.’

*keta*      *vaha*      (*ra*)  
 POT:leave:SG good (he)  
 ‘(He) will be lucky.’

(See also 7.22.)

With derived stative verbs:

*ūnh*      *shūih*      (*ra*)  
 CON:be:standing:SG intestineline (he)  
 ‘(He) is kneeling.’ (cf. *shiti* ‘intestine’)

*kahndya*      *chūūnh*      (*ra*)  
 POT:cut worklike (he)  
 ‘(He) will administrate.’ (cf. *chuun* ‘work’)

A verb-plus-adverb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a locative, temporal, or general adverb.

*ndasi ihnu (ra a)*  
 POT:close outside (he it:INAN)  
 '(He) will enclose (it).'

*shūtōh ndihev (ra)*  
 CON:look short:time (he)  
 '(He) is staring.'

*shūtōh ndyaa (ra tutu)*  
 CON:look adheringly (he paper)  
 '(He) is examining (the paper).'

A verb-plus-indeterminate-element nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a word that occurs only in one or a few frozen phrases. It is therefore not possible to assign the second element to a class without access to historical or comparative data.

*shūnī shāhānh (ra)*  
 CON:sense ? (he)  
 '(He) is deceiving.'

*kūin taān (ra)*  
 POT:be:standing:SG ? (he)  
 '(He) will argue.'

**2.1.2 Preverbal elements.** There are eight orders of optional elements that precede the verb nucleus. Listed from the nucleus out to the beginning of the verb phrase they are: directional, aspect, preverbal self-determinative, preverbal co-involvement, preverbal manner, negative, near time, and modal.

Directionals occur only when the verb nucleus is in potential aspect, and the subject of the sentence is animate. They include four reduced forms of the motion verb *kūhun* 'to go': *kūn* 'potential directional' (from *kūhun*); *kwān* 'continuative directional' (from *kwāhan*); *shān* or *shān* 'habitual directional' (from *shāhān*); and *shān* 'completive directional' (from *shāhan*). The *shān* form of the habitual directional occurs before verbs that have a low mid tone pattern, and the *shān* form occurs before verbs that have either a low low or a mid low tone pattern.

*kūn kūsu (rih)*  
 POT:DIR POT:sleep (it:AML)  
 '(It) will go (somewhere) to sleep.'

*kwān kutu (eh)*  
 CON:DIR POT:weed (we:IN)  
 '(We) are going (somewhere) to weed.'

*shán kinīh (ra rih)*  
 HAB:DIR POT:shoot:at (he it:AML)  
 '(He) habitually goes (somewhere) to shoot at (it).'

*shān koho (rih tikwī)*  
 HAB:DIR POT:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) habitually goes (somewhere) to drink (water).'

*shān kahmi (ra mihīh)*  
 COM:DIR POT:burn (he trash)  
 '(He) has returned from burning (trash).'

(See also 7.16.)

Even though the directional is a preverbal element, it has aspect inflection and as a result behaves like a nucleus with respect to the cooccurrence restrictions between other preverbal elements and different aspects of the verb.

In second preverbal position, the completive aspect marker *ni* occurs. The following verb or directional must be in the completive aspect form. With most verbs *ni* must occur to indicate completive aspect since completive and potential aspects would otherwise be identical, but it is optional with verbs that differ in their potential and completive forms. Furthermore, the use of *ni* is optional in connected discourse if completive meaning is clear from the context. The following sets of examples distinguish completive and potential forms.

*ni taan*  
 COM quake  
 'There was an earthquake.'

cf. *taan*  
 POT:quake  
 'There will be an earthquake.'

*ni kāku (yōhó)*  
 COM be:rescued (YOU:SG:EMPH)  
 '(You) were rescued.'

cf. *kāku* (yōhó)  
 POT:be:rescued (YOU:SG:EMPH)  
 '(You) will be rescued.'

*ni ndaku* (ra yuvāh ra)  
 COM resemble (he father his)  
 '(He) resembled (his father).'

cf. *ndaku* (ra yuvāhra)  
 POT:resemble (he fatherhis)  
 '(He) will resemble (his father).'

*ni shihi* (rih tikwī)  
 COM COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) drank (water).'

cf. *koho* (rih tikwī)  
 POT:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) will drink (water).'

and *shihi* (rih tikwī)  
 COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) drank (water).'

(See also 7.1, 7.3, 7.5, 7.7, 7.8, and many others.)

In third preverbal position, preverbal self-determinative occurs, expressed by the specifier *mūh*, which is used in this position to mean 'haphazardly'.

*mūh sachūūnh* (ra)  
 SPEC POT:work (he)  
 '(He) will work haphazardly.'

*mūh kāhān* (ra)  
 SPEC CON:speak (he)  
 '(He) is speaking recklessly.'

In fourth preverbal position, the co-involvement marker *ingāh* 'same time' occurs. It denotes that members of a plural subject are simultaneously yet separately involved in the predication.



*ingāh*      *yōō*      (*te tātú ra*)  
 same:time CON:exist (he hired his)  
 ‘(They) simultaneously have (their hired men).’

*ingāh*      *kūmīh*      (*ra ñuhūh*)  
 same:time CON:have (he earth)  
 ‘(They) contemporaneously possess (land).’

*ingāh*      *ni satah*      (*ra nūnih*)  
 same:time COM buy (he corn:kernel)  
 ‘(They) simultaneously bought (corn).’

In fifth preverbal position, preverbal manner occurs. It is distinguished from postverbal manner (see 2.1.3), and may cooccur with it. While most preverbal and postverbal elements are expressed by small closed classes, preverbal manner is expressed by a large and diverse class of modifiers: stative verbs, stative verb phrases, adverbs, adverb phrases, general quantifiers, general quantifier phrases, content verbs in continuative aspect, and the intensifier *sha*. *sha* occurs with a certain degree of throat stricture, which is indicated by boldface type.

With stative verbs:

*ndasun*      *kāhán*      (*ra*)  
 fragile CON:speak (he)  
 ‘(He) is speaking in a friendly manner.’

*kama*      *shīhīh*      (*ra tikwī*)  
 fast CON:drink (he water)  
 ‘(He) is drinking (water) fast.’

With stative verb phrases:

*ndasun*      *va kāhán*      (*ra*)  
 fragile INTS CON:speak (he)  
 ‘(He) is speaking in a very friendly manner.’

(See also 7.8.)

With adverbs:

*nāhnūh shīka (ra)*  
 occasionally COM:walk (he)  
 ‘(He) walked occasionally.’

(See also 7.14.)

With an adverb phrase:

*yatin yatin shikāh (kitih)*  
 near near CON:walk (animal)  
 ‘(The animal) is walking very near.’

With a general quantifier:

*kwāhah shāhān (ra)*  
 much HAB:go (he)  
 ‘(He) goes a lot.’

With a general quantifier phrase:

*sē va ni taan*  
 little INTS COM quake  
 ‘There was a very small earthquake.’

With a content verb:

*ndihni kaka (ra)*  
 CON:be:worried POT:walk (he)  
 ‘(He) will walk in an agitated fashion.’

With the intensifier:

*sha nīhi*  
 oh:very CON:rumble  
 ‘Oh, it’s rumbling a lot!’

*sha shūtūh (eh)*  
 oh:very CON:weed (we:IN)  
 ‘Oh, (we all) are getting a lot of weeding done!’

*sha shihi (rih tikwī)*  
 oh:very COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 'Oh, (it) drank a lot of (water)!'

*sha kundoho (ra)*  
 oh:very POT:suffer (he)  
 'Oh, (he) will suffer a lot!'

In sixth position, the negative marker occurs. It is expressed by replacing the tones of the following word by a mid low mid pattern. If this word has only two syllables, the first vowel is doubled to bear the first two tones.

*kūnduhūh (ra vihe ra)*  
 NEG:POT:be:located:SG (he house his)  
 '(He) will not be at (his house).'

*kwāashīh (ra yahvi)*  
 NEG:CON:come (he market)  
 '(He) is not coming (to market).'

*nāahmāh (ah tōto)*  
 NEG:POT:mend (she cloth)  
 '(She) will not mend (the cloth).'

*kāaān (ra ñuhūh)*  
 NEG:CON:dig (he earth)  
 '(He) is not digging (the earth).'

(See also 7.5, 7.21, and 7.23.)

Note that, for most regular verbs and some irregular verbs, this tone replacement results in neutralizing the distinction between potential and continuative aspect forms. The last two examples can also be translated '(She) is not mending (the cloth).'

' and '(He) will not dig (the earth).'

In verbs of Class II (see 5.1.2), a final glottal stop is added to the verb in the negative form; and in irregular verbs of Class VII, a final glottal stop is added in potential aspect.

*kāahānh (ra)*  
 NEG:POT:blush (he)  
 '(He) will not blush.'

*kāakāh* (ah)  
 NEG:POT:walk (she)  
 '(She) will not walk.'

In verbs of Class VI, the replacement pattern is mid low mid low, with doubling of the final vowel to bear the extra tone.<sup>1</sup>

*shāanū* (ra)  
 NEG:POT:dream (he)  
 '(He) will not dream.'

Negative also occurs with verbs in completive aspect, in which case the tone replacement is spread across both *nī* and the verb nucleus.

*nī* *nduhūh* (ra vihe ra)  
 NEG:COM be:located:SG (he house his)  
 '(He) was not at (his house).'

*nī* *kishūh* (ra yahvi)  
 NEG:COM COM:come (he market)  
 '(He) did not come (to market).'

*nī* *kaān* (ra űuhūh)  
 NEG:COM dig (he earth)  
 '(He) did not dig (the earth).'

*nī* *nahmāh* (ah tōto)  
 NEG:COM mend (she cloth)  
 '(She) did not mend (the cloth).'

*nī* *kahānh* (ra)  
 NEG:COM blush (he)  
 '(He) did not blush.'

There are also two specialized negative forms, which are restricted to completive aspect. Contrary-to-expectation forms use a mid low tone se-

---

<sup>1</sup>There are a number of other irregularities in negative forms that are beyond the scope of this study. Because of these irregularities, there is some reason to consider negative forms to belong to inflectional morphology. Nevertheless, only one negative form is permitted in a sentence, and so it is treated here as a clitic, i.e., an element whose distribution belongs to the syntax, but whose form is realized as a change in a neighboring word.

quence on *ni*, and resigned forms use mid tone on *ni*; both forms use the continuative aspect form of the verb, rather than the completive form.

Contrary-to-expectation negative:

*nū*                    *kāān*        (*ra* *ñuhūh*)  
 CEX:NEG:COM    CON:dig    (he earth)  
 ‘(He) did not dig (the earth) (but he should have).’

*nū*                    *kāhānh*       (*ra*)  
 CEX:NEG:COM    CON:blush (he)  
 ‘(He) did not blush (but he should have).’

(See also 7.31, 7.34, and 7.41.)

Resigned negative:

*nī*                    *kāān*        (*ra* *ñuhūh*)  
 RSN:NEG:COM    CON:dig    (he earth)  
 ‘(He) did not dig (the earth) (and nothing more can be done).’

*nī*                    *kāhānh*       (*ra*)  
 RSN:NEG:COM    CON:blush (he)  
 ‘(He) did not blush (and nothing more can be done).’

The basic negative tone replacement can also occur with co-involvement and self-determinative, as well as on the verb nucleus.

*mūih*                *sachūūnh*    (*ra*)  
 NEG:SPEC        POT:work    (he)  
 ‘(He) will work not haphazardly.’

*ūngāh*               *kūmūh*       (*ra* *ñuhūh*)  
 NEG:same:time    CON:have    (he earth)  
 ‘They possess land not contemporaneously.’

Negative can also occur with preverbal manner expressed by a single modifier, which may be a stative verb, an adverb, a general quantifier, or a content verb. Only general adverbs and a limited number of locative adverbs occur in this construction.

With a stative verb:

*ndāasūn kāhán (ra)*  
 NEG:fragile CON:speak (he)  
 '(He) is speaking in a not friendly manner.'

With adverbs:

*sāakān ni shachūūnh (unh)*  
 NEG:thus COM COM:work (you:SG)  
 '(You) worked not like that.'

*yāatīn kwāhan (ra)*  
 NEG:near CON:go (he)  
 '(He) is going not near by.'

With a general quantifier:

*kwāahāh shāhán (ra)*  
 NEG:much HAB:go (he)  
 '(He) goes not a lot.'

With a content verb:

*ndūihnī kaka (ra)*  
 NEG:CON:be:worried POT:walk (he)  
 '(He) will walk not in an agitated fashion.'

In seventh preverbal position, the near-time marker *sha* 'already' occurs; it is almost homophonous with the intensifier. It means 'right now' when it occurs with verbs in continuative or potential aspect, and 'just now' when it occurs with verbs in completive aspect.

*sha shītūh (ra)*  
 already CON:weed (he)  
 '(He) is weeding right now.'

*sha kutu (ra)*  
 already POT:weed (he)  
 '(He) will weed right now.'

*sha nāhīh (ra a)*  
 already CON:take:SG (he it:INAN)  
 '(He) is taking (it) right now.'

*sha nahi (ra a)*  
 already POT:take:SG (he it:INAN)  
 '(He) will take (it) right now.'

*sha ni taan*  
 already COM quake  
 'There already now was an earthquake.'

*sha ni ndīko (rah)*  
 just COM cool (it:LIQ)  
 '(It) just now cooled.'

In eighth preverbal position, the modal markers *na* and *nā* occur. The hortatory *na* always implies personal interest on the part of the speaker, and frequently a strong wish. A response is usually expected on the part of the addressee. Hortatory occurs with nonnegative verbs inflected for potential aspect; see 1.3.

*na kūhun (i)*  
 HORT POT:go (I)  
 'Let (me) go!'

*na satah (eh tātanh)*  
 HORT POT:buy (we:IN medicine)  
 'Let (us all) buy (medicine)!' or '(We all) wish to buy (medicine).'

*na saa (unh ña vaha)*  
 HORT POT:do (you:SG it:INAN good)  
 'May (you) do ([me] a favor)!'

*na kushi (ra shūnh yūhu)*  
 HORT POT:eat (he with me:EMPH)  
 'Let (him) eat (with me)!'

*na chindyeēh (ndyosī yōhó)*  
 HORT POT:help (God you:SG)  
 'May (God [Sp. Dios]) help (you)!'

(See also 7.28.)

The obligation marker *nā* is used to state a requirement. Like *na*, it occurs only with verbs inflected for potential aspect, but *nā* is not restricted to nonnegative forms.

*nā koho (ra tātanh)*  
OBL POT:drink (he medicine)  
'(He) must drink (the medicine).'

*nā kūhun (unh yahvi)*  
OBL POT:go (you:SG market)  
'(You) must go (to market).'

Preverbal manner, self-determinative, and co-involvement may be questioned nonspecifically by the interrogative adverb *saa* 'how?'

*saa ni kāhan (ra)*  
how COM speak (he)  
'How did (he) speak?'

*saa sachūūnh (ra)*  
how POT:work (he)  
'How will (he) work?'

(See also 7.17 and 7.26.)

Certain specific kinds of preverbal manner, such as quality, quantity, frequency, velocity, and loudness, may be questioned more specifically by *saa* 'how?', followed by a word that denotes significant magnitude in each semantic domain. (Compare 1.2.2, which describes a similar construction used to question the predicate of a stative sentence.)

*saa vaha kutu (ra)*  
how good POT:weed (he)  
'How well did (he) weed?'

*saa kwāhah ni taan*  
how much COM quake  
'How much did the earth quake?'

*saa shikāh ni satah (ra nūnih)*  
how far COM buy (he corn:kernel)  
'How often did (he) buy (corn)?'



*saa kama kwāhan (rih)*  
 how fast CON:go (it:AML)  
 'How fast is (it) going?'

*saa tīhēh kāhan (ra)*  
 how hard POT:speak (he)  
 'How loudly will (he) speak?'

**2.1.3 Postverbal elements.** There are seven orders of elements following the verb nucleus. Listed from the nucleus out to the end of the verb phrase they are: postverbal manner, reflexive, postverbal co-involvement, postverbal self-determinative, limiter, repetitive, and nominal.

In first postverbal position, postverbal manner occurs. It is distinguished from preverbal manner, and may cooccur with it. It is expressed by a large and diverse class of modifiers. Stative verbs and stative verb phrases are the most common elements in this position, but certain adverbs, adverb phrases, general quantifiers, and content verbs in continuative aspect also occur. A few lexical items are restricted to this position, but phrases containing the negative marker do not occur in it. However, most manner constituents occur in either preverbal or postverbal manner position.

With stative verbs:

*koto kini (ra)*  
 POT:look awful (he)  
 '(He) will scowl.'

*kaka kwīē (eh)*  
 POT:walk slow (we:IN)  
 '(We) will walk methodically.'

(See also 7.11, 7.16, and 7.36.)

With a stative verb phrase:

*koto kini va (ra)*  
 POT:look awful INTS (he)  
 '(He) will scowl a lot.'

With adverbs:

*shāchūūnh ndyaa (ra)*  
 CON:work adheringly (he)  
 '(He) is working as an assistant.'

(See also 7.18 and 7.37.)

With an adverb phrase:

*kaka tuhva va (eh)*  
 POT:walk preparedly INTS (we:IN)  
 '(We) will walk very preparedly.'

With a general quantifier:

*kāhán kwāhah (ah)*  
 CON:speak much (she)  
 '(She) is speaking a lot.'

With a content verb:

*kāhan shīhé (ra)*  
 POT:speak CON:be:angry (he)  
 '(He) will speak angrily.'

Two different manner modifiers sometimes occur in sequence in post-verbal manner position. In some cases the two modifiers may occur in either order with no apparent meaning change, but in others the order is fixed. This seems to be a function of the particular lexical items that occur as the nucleus and as the two modifiers. A full listing of such restrictions is beyond the scope of this paper.

With free order:

*ni tiin kwachi shīhé ndyeēh (ra ikwān)*  
 COM hold sin CON:be:angry strong (he John)  
 'Forcefully (he) angrily blamed (John).'

*ni tiin kwachi ndyeēh shīhé (ra ikwān)*  
 COM hold sin strong CON:be:angry (he John)  
 'Angrily (he) forcefully blamed (John).'

*kāhan kāhnūh sūh māñā (ra)*  
 POT:speak important humorous tempting (he)  
 ‘Temptingly (Sp. *maña* ‘evil habit’) (he) will give a joshing speech.’

*kāhan kāhnūh māñā sūh (ra)*  
 POT:speak important tempting humorous (he)  
 ‘Joshingly (he) will give a tempting speech.’

*kāhán kāshīh tūvīh (ra)*  
 CON:speak clear visibly (he)  
 ‘Openly (he) is speaking with clear concepts.’

*kāhán tūvīh kāshīh (ra)*  
 CON:speak visibly clear (he)  
 ‘With clear concepts (he) is speaking openly.’

With fixed order:

*shāhndyā chūūnh tūvīh kwīē (ra)*  
 CON:cut worklike visibly slow (he)  
 ‘Carefully (he) is openly administrating.’

*ni shachūūnh sihē māñā (ra)*  
 COM COM:work hidden tempting (he)  
 ‘Temptingly (he) secretly worked.’

*kāhan shii kāshīh (ra)*  
 POT:speak tough clear (he)  
 ‘Hesitantly (he) is speaking clearly.’

Sometimes the same element occurs in both preverbal and postverbal manner; the sentences invariably have different meanings. While preverbal manner qualifies the verb, postverbal manner semantically infuses it, so that the combination of verb and postverbal manner is often difficult to distinguish from a complex nucleus. Consider the following pairs of sentences.

*sūh kāhán (ra)*  
 humorous CON:speak (he)  
 ‘(He) is speaking humorously.’

cf. *kāhán sūh (ra)*  
 CON:speak humorous (he)  
 '(He) is speaking frivolously.'

*ūhvi ni kani (ra)*  
 painful COM hit (he)  
 '(He) hit painfully.'

cf. *ni kani ūhvi (ra)*  
 COM hit painful (he)  
 '(He) hit hard.'

*ūh shīkāh (ra)*  
 touchy CON:walk (he)  
 '(He) is walking carefully.'

cf. *shīkāh ūh (ra)*  
 CON:walk touchy (he)  
 '(He) is fasting.' (abstinence for spiritual power)

*tīhēh kāhán (ra)*  
 hard CON:speak (he)  
 '(He) is speaking loudly.'

cf. *kāhán tīhēh (ra)*  
 CON:speak hard (he)  
 '(He) is shouting.'

In second postverbal position, reflexive occurs, which comprises both reciprocal and reflexive notions. It occurs only in transitive sentences. Reciprocal is expressed by the verbal marker *tāhānh* 'each other', which denotes partial reciprocal interaction between two parties, or by either of two idioms, *shūnh tāhānh* 'with each other', which denotes complete reciprocal interaction between two parties, or *nūuh tāhānh* 'face of each other', which denotes either partial or complete reciprocity. Some verbs permit either partial or complete reciprocity, and others permit only one or the other.

*ndāsīh tāhānh (ra)*  
 CON:hate each:other (he)  
 '(They) hate each other.' (one is more hostile)

*ndāsīh shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 CON:hate with each:other (he)  
 '(They) hate each other.' (both are equally hostile)

*katin tāhānh (ra)*  
 POR:bet each:other (he)  
 '(They) will bet each other.'

*kāhan shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 POR:speak with each:other (he)  
 '(They) will speak to each other.'

*ni shaku shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 COM COM:cry with each:other (he)  
 '(They) commiserated with each other.' (They fully shared each other's sorrow.)

*ni shaku nūuh tāhānh (ra)*  
 COM COM:cry face each:other (he)  
 '(They) commiserated with each other.' (One enters empathetically into the other's sorrow.)

*kwiña nūuh tāhānh (rih)*  
 POR:growl face each:other (it:AML)  
 '(They) will growl at each other.'

Reflexive is expressed by *shūnh mīh* 'with self'.

*ndāsīh shūnh mīh (ra)*  
 CON:hate with SPEC (he)  
 '(He) hates himself.' or '(They) hate themselves.'

Sometimes an intensifying element follows one of these expressions.

*shāchūnh shūnh tāhānh shachīh (ra)*  
 CON:work with each:other always (he)  
 '(They) are working always with each other.'

*kāhán shūnh mīh shachīh (ra)*  
 CON:speak with SPEC always (he)  
 '(He) is talking always with himself.'

In third postverbal position, the co-involvement marker *īngāh* 'same time' occurs. It denotes that members of a plural subject are simultaneously and jointly involved in the predication. (This word also occurs in preverbal position with a somewhat different meaning.)

*yōō īngāh (te tātú ra)*  
 CON:exist same:time (he hired his)  
 '(They) have (hired men) in common.'

*kūmīh īngāh (ra űuhūh)*  
 CON:have same:time (he earth)  
 '(They) possess (land) in common.'

*ni satah īngāh (ra nūnih)*  
 COM buy same:time (he corn:kernel)  
 '(They) jointly bought (the corn).'

As with reflexive, an intensifying element occasionally follows *īngāh*.

*shāchūūnh īngāh shachīh (ra)*  
 CON:work same:time always (he)  
 '(They) are working always simultaneously together.'

In fourth postverbal position, the self-determinative element occurs. It is expressed by the specifier *mīih* 'self', and it denotes that the subject's involvement in the predication is without reason or purpose. (This word also occurs in preverbal position with a somewhat different meaning.)

*sachūūnh mīih (ra)*  
 POT:work SPEC (he)  
 '(He) will work upon whim.' or '(He) will work for no reason.'

*shāhndyā mīih (ra itūnh)*  
 CON:cut SPEC (he tree)  
 '(He) is cutting (the tree) without any reason.'

*kāhán mīih (ra)*  
 CON:speak SPEC (he)  
 '(He) is speaking on his own.' or '(He) is just talking.'

As with reflexive and postverbal co-involvement, an intensifying element occasionally follows *mīih*.

*kāhán mīh shachīh (ra)*  
 CON:speak SPEC always (he)  
 '(He) is talking always without a reason.'

In fifth postverbal position, limiter occurs. It is expressed by seven general markers. *kwīih* 'just' denotes that the subject's involvement does not go beyond that specified by the predication.

*ni kāhan kwīih (ra shūnh ra)*  
 COM speak just (he with him)  
 '(He) just spoke (to him).'

The intensifier *va* 'very' intensifies the predication, and *ka* 'more' extends it temporally.

*kīshí va (ra)*  
 CON:sleep INTS (he)  
 '(He) is sleeping a lot.'

*kīshí ka (ra)*  
 CON:sleep ADD (he)  
 '(He) is still sleeping.'

(See also 7.5 and 7.41.)

*vih* 'excessive' denotes a predication that is in excess of what would be considered appropriate.

*ni shitu vih (ra)*  
 COM COM:weed excessive (he)  
 '(He) weeded too much.'

*shīhīh vih (rih tīkwī)*  
 CON:drink excessive (it:AML water)  
 '(It) is drinking too much (water).'

The limiter *ni* 'only' shows that the predicate is less extensive in some respect than what is possible.

*ni taan ni*  
 COM quake LIM  
 'There was only an earthquake.'

*ni kāshi ni (ra)*  
 COM COM:sleep LIM (he)  
 ‘(He) only slept.’

*shihīh ni (rih tikwī)*  
 CON:drink LIM (it:AML water)  
 ‘(It) is only drinking (water).’

The desiderative *na* ‘hope’ communicates that the speaker desires realization of the predication. It frequently combines with the preverbal element *na* ‘hortatory’.

*tāan na*  
 CON:quake HOPE  
 ‘I hope there is an earthquake!’

*kwashi na (ra)*  
 CON:come HOPE (he)  
 ‘I hope (he) is coming!’

*ni nahi na (ra ndushīh)*  
 COM take:SG HOPE (he hen)  
 ‘I hope (he) took (the hen)!’

*na chindyēh na (ndyosī yōhó)*  
 HORT POT:help HOPE (God you:SG)  
 ‘Oh, I hope that (God) may help (you)!’

The dubitative *xān* denotes the speaker’s doubt with reference to the predication.

*ni nihi xān*  
 COM rumble DOUBT  
 ‘It maybe rumbled.’

*ndīkó xān (rah)*  
 CON:cool DOUBT (it:LIQ)  
 ‘Maybe (it) is cooling’

*koho xān (rih tikwī)*  
 POT:drink DOUBT (it:AML water)  
 ‘Maybe (it) will drink (water).’



It is possible to have two or more limiters in one verb phrase, but a treatment of the possible combinations and preferred orders is beyond the scope of this paper.

In sixth postverbal position, repetitive occurs, expressed by the general markers *tuku* 'again' and *tu* 'also'. *tuku* refers to a predication that is repeated by the same subject, and *tu* refers to the same predication repeated by another subject.

*kushi tuku (ra)*  
 POT:eat REP (he)  
 '(He) will eat again.'

*ni shihi tuku (rih tikwī)*  
 COM COM:drink REP (it:AML water)  
 '(It) drank (water) again.'

*ni taan tu*  
 COM quake also  
 'There was also an earthquake.'

*kwashi tu (ah)*  
 CON:come also (she)  
 '(She) is also coming.'

(See also 7.9.)

In seventh postverbal position, nominal occurs, expressed by either the known-object marker or a body-part noun. The known-object marker *ñahāh* refers to third person human direct objects of either sex or any number, and it occurs instead of a free object pronoun elsewhere in the sentence. It is used when the referent is clear from the context.

*ni kani ñahāh (ra)*  
 COM hit KNO (he)  
 '(He) hit him/her/them.'

*chindyēh ñahāh (nya)*  
 POT:help KNO (they)  
 '(They) will help him/her/them.'

(See also 7.25.)

Various nouns referring to body parts combine with an intransitive verb to form idioms which are similar to verb-plus-noun nuclei, except that the two parts of the former are potentially separated by other postverbal elements. (Note that body-part nouns also occur in some verb-plus-noun nuclei.)

*kwaku ini (ra)*  
 POT:cry insides (he)  
 '(He) will grieve.'

*ndahni nīmá (ra)*  
 POT:be:satisfied heart (he)  
 '(He) will be satisfied (Sp. *ánima*).' (with food)

*ni kahan nūuh (ra)*  
 COM blush face (he)  
 '(He) blushed.'

(See also 7.21.)

Postverbal elements cannot be questioned.

**2.1.4 Combinations of elements.** The cooccurrence restrictions among preverbal elements are the following. The hortatory marker *na* does not occur with near time, the intensifier *sha*, or negative. The intensifier *sha* does not occur with co-involvement, self-determinative, or directional. Near time also does not occur with co-involvement or self-determinative. Negative does not occur with directional. When the near-time marker *sha* immediately precedes the nearly homophonous intensifier, there is a pause between the two.

*sha kūn kūsu (rih)*  
 already POT:DIR POT:sleep (it:AML)  
 '(It) right now will go (somewhere) to sleep.'

*kwīē īngāh kwān koho (rih tikwī)*  
 slow same:time CON:DIR POT:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(They) are going (somewhere) each to drink (water) slowly at the same time.'

*na kīhīh mīh tuhun (ra kūhu)*  
 HORT quickly SPEC POT:pull (he weeds)  
 'Let (him) pull (the weeds) quickly and haphazardly!'

*na sīē mīh kūn koho (ah tikwī)*  
 HORT little SPEC POT:DIR POT:drink (she water)  
 'Let (her) go (somewhere) to do a little haphazard drinking (of water)!'

*sha / sha ni . chihi (ra nduchīh)*  
 already oh:very COM plant (he bean)  
 'Oh, (he) just did a lot of planting (of beans)!'

*nā sāchuūnh (ndōhó tyāan)*  
 OBL NEG:POT:WORK (YOU:PL:EMPH tomorrow)  
 '(You) must not work (tomorrow)!'

The cooccurrence restrictions among postverbal elements are the following: reflexive does not occur with nominal; and self-determinative does not occur with *va* 'very' or *vih* 'excessive'. Furthermore, it is rare for speakers to use more than four elements in a single verb phrase.

*sukah yohōh tāhānh mīh (ra)*  
 POT:strike vine each:other SPEC (he)  
 '(They) will strike each other with a rope for no reason.'

*ndāsīh ndyeēh shūnh tāhānh īngāh (ra)*  
 CON:hate strong with each:other same:time (he)  
 'At the same time (they) are deeply hating each other.'

*ndāsīh shūnh tāhānh va xān (ra)*  
 CON:hate with each:other INTS DOUBT (he)  
 'Maybe (they) are hating each other a lot.'

*ni kāhan vīe shūnh mīh va (ra)*  
 COM speak heavy with SPEC INTS (he)  
 '(He) spoke very seriously to himself.'

*kāhán tīhēh shūnh mīh mīh (ra)*  
 CON:speak hard with SPEC SPEC (he)  
 '(They) are shouting to themselves for no reason.'

*kāhan kwīē shinaha kwitih ka (ra)*  
 POT:speak slow really just ADD (he)  
 '(He) will still just speak really methodically.'

*ni kāhan kwitih ka vih xān (ra shūnh ra)*  
 COM speak just ADD excessive DOUBT (he with him)  
 'Maybe (he) still just spoke excessively (to him).'

*ni kāhan vih na xān tu (ra shūnh ra)*  
 COM speak excessive HOPE DOUBT also (he with him)  
 'Maybe, I hope, (he) also spoke excessively (to him)!'

*ni kāhan va ni xān nīmá (ra shāhah a)*  
 COM speak INTS LIM DOUBT heart (he foot its:INAN)  
 'Maybe (he) only longed very much (for it).'

*ni kani ūhvi chuun xān tuku ñahāh (ra)*  
 COM hit painful intentionally DOUBT REP KNO (he)  
 '(He) may have hit him/her/them hard again intentionally.'

Cooccurrence restrictions between preverbal and postverbal elements are as follows: *sha* 'oh! very' does not occur with *kwitih* 'just', *vih* 'excessive', or *ni* 'only'; and preverbal *ingāh* 'same time' does not occur with postverbal *ingāh*. All other combinations of preverbal and postverbal elements are possible.

*na kwīē ingāh kūn sukuh yohōh tāhānh*  
 HORT slow same:time POT:DIR POT:strike vine each:other  
 'Let (them) go (somewhere) to slowly strike each

(*ra*)

(*he*)

other at the same time with a rope!'

*na miuh kāhan tihēh shūnh miuh miuh (ra)*  
 HORT SPEC POT:speak hard with SPEC SPEC (he)  
 'Let (him) haphazardly shout to himself for no reason!'

*nāhnūh ni shān kuun yūuh shīhé na*  
 occasionally COM COM:DIR POT:pelt stone CON:be:angry HOPE  
 'I hope maybe (he) returned from occasionally angrily

*xān tu ñahāh (ra)*  
 DOUBT also KNO (he)  
 stoning him/her/them!'

*sha ni shān sukuh yohōh shūnh mīh na*  
 already COM COM:DIR POT:strike vine with SPEC HOPE  
 'I hope maybe (he) also just now returned from

*xān tu (ra)*  
 DOUBT also (he)  
 striking himself with a rope.'

*sē ni kāhan va ni xān nīmá (ra shāhah a)*  
 little COM speak INTS LIM DOUBT heart (he foot its:INAN)  
 'Maybe (he) was only longing very much for a little time (for it).'

*sha / sha shīshīh īngāh sākā xān tuku (ra)*  
 already oh:very CON:eat same:time in:vain DOUBT REP (he)  
 'Oh, maybe (they) are just now again eating together a lot, in vain!'

(See also 7.5 and 7.41.)

**2.1.5 Focus permutations.** In appropriate discourse contexts, any one of the following preverbal elements may be focused by permuting it to a position preceding the verb phrase: manner, the co-involvement marker *īngāh* 'same time', and the self-determinative marker *mīh* 'haphazardly'. Frequently no other preverbal element cooccurs to syntactically reveal that the sentence-initial preverbal element is focused, in which case the initial element is stressed to indicate that it is focused. (Stress is expressed phonetically by a combination of length and throat stricture on the first syllable of the stressed word; stressed words are in boldface type in the following examples.)

*ndyāā na kāhan (ra shūnh ah)*  
 rarely HORT POT:speak (he with her)  
 'RARELY, let (him) speak (to her)!'

cf. *ndyāā kāhan (ra shūnh ah)*  
 rarely POT:speak (he with her)  
 (He) RARELY speaks (to her).'

*īngāh sha ni shitu (ra)*  
 same:time already COM COM:weed (he)  
 'AT THE SAME TIME (they) just now weeded.'

cf. *īngāh shitu (ra)*  
 same:time COM:weed (he)  
 'AT THE SAME TIME (they) weeded.'

*mīh sha shīhīh (ra iikwī)*  
 SPEC already CON:drink (he water)  
 '(He) right now is drinking (water) RECKLESSLY.'

cf. *mīh shīhīh (ra iikwī)*  
 SPEC CON:drink (he water)  
 '(He) is drinking (water) RECKLESSLY.'

Postverbal elements cannot be focused. Some of the markers that occur as postverbal elements may, however, occur in preverbal position as a constituent of a stative verb phrase or adverb phrase expressing manner (see 2.3 or 4.2).

## 2.2 Equative Verb Phrases

Equative verb phrases are based on the two basic equative verbs *kunduu* 'to be equal' and *kunanīh* 'to be named'. Neither of these verbs enters into the formation of complex nuclei.

The verb *kunduu* occurs freely with preverbal elements, except that it does not occur with the habitual directional, and preverbal manner is limited to adverbs of frequency.

*kūn kunduu (ra sūtu)*  
 POT:DIR POT:be:equal (he priest)  
 '(He) is going (somewhere) to be (a priest).'

*ni ndūu (ra te vaha)*  
 COM COM:be:equal (he he good)  
 '(He) was (a good man).'

*mīh kunduu (ra vāchō)*  
 SPEC POT:be:equal (he soldier)  
 '(He) will recklessly be (a soldier [reg. Sp. *guacho*]).'

*īngāh ndūu (ra te meē)*  
 same:time COM:be:equal (he he ?)  
 '(They) were (messengers) at the same time.'

*ndyāā ndūūh (ra te chūūnh)*  
 rarely CON:be:equal (he he worklike)  
 '(He) is rarely (president).'

*nī nduū (ra te kwīhnah)*  
 NEG:COM COM:be:equal (he he thieving)  
 '(He) wasn't (a thief).'

*sha ndūu (ra vāchō)*  
 already COM:be:equal (he soldier)  
 '(He) just now was (a soldier).'

*na kunduu (ra te meē)*  
 HORT POT:be:equal (he he ?)  
 'Let (him) be (a messenger)!'.

*nā kunduu (ra te chūūnh)*  
 OBL POT:be:equal (he he worklike)  
 '(He) must become (the president).'

The verb *kunduu* occurs with all postverbal elements except reflexive and nominal, but the intensifier *va* 'very' does not express limiter.

*kunduu vaha (ra sūtu)*  
 POT:be:equal good (he priest)  
 '(He) will be good (as a priest).'

*ndūūh īngāh (ra te meē)*  
 CON:be:equal same:time (he he ?)  
 '(They) are jointly (messengers).'

*ni ndūu mīh (ra te tātú)*  
 COM COM:be:equal SPEC (he he hired)  
 '(He) was (a hired man) for no reason.'

*ndūūh kwitih (ra vāchō)*  
 CON:be:equal just (he soldier)  
 '(He) is just (a soldier).'

*kunduu*            *ka*    (*ra te meē*)  
 POT:be:equal    ADD (he he ?)  
 '(He) will still be (a messenger).'

*ndūu*                *vih*            (*ra te chūūnh*)  
 COM:be:equal    excessive (he he worklike)  
 '(He) was unnecessarily (president).'

*ndūūh*            *ni*    (*ra te vaha*)  
 CON:be:equal    LIM (he he good)  
 '(He) is mainly (a good man).'

*kunduu*            *na*    (*ra sūtu*)  
 POT:be:equal    HOPE (he priest)  
 'I hope (he) will be (a priest)!'

*ndūu*                *xān*           (*ra te chūūnh*)  
 COM:be:equal    DOUBT (he he worklike)  
 'Maybe (he) was (president).'

*kunduu*            *tu*    (*ra vāchō*)  
 POT:be:equal    also (he soldier)  
 '(He) will also be (a soldier).'

*ndūūh*            *tuku* (*ra te meē*)  
 CON:be:equal    REP (he he ?)  
 '(He) is (a messenger) again.'

The following sentences show *kunduu* with various combinations of preverbal and postverbal elements.

*mūh kunduu yāchi īngāh mūh*  
 SPEC POT:be:equal quickly same:time SPEC  
 'Quickly for no reason, (they) will recklessly be

(*ra te tātū*)  
 (he he hired)  
 a joint group of (hired men).'

*nāhnūh īngāh kunduu mūh ndivaha*  
 occasionally same:time POT:be:equal SPEC inappropriate  
 'Occasionally, for no reason, (they) will indiscreetly



(*ra te tātú*)  
 (he he hired)  
 be (hired men) at the same time.'

*ni shān kunduu ka ni na (ra te chūūnh)*  
 COM COM:DIR POT:be:equal ADD LIM HOPE (he he worklike)  
 'I hope, (he) returned from still mainly being (president)!''

*kwān kunduu ka vih tuku (ra te chūūnh)*  
 CON:DIR POT:be:equal ADD excessive REP (he he worklike)  
 '(He) is going (somewhere) to continue again to unnecessarily be (president).'

The verb *kunanīh* 'to be named' occurs with all preverbal elements except self-determinative and preverbal manner.

*kwān kunanīh (ra te chūūnh)*  
 CON:DIR POT:be:named (he he worklike)  
 '(He) is going (somewhere) to be proclaimed (president).'

*ni nanīh (ah marīā)*  
 COM be:named (she Mary)  
 '(She) was named (Mary).'

*īngāh nanīh (rih mēkō)*  
 same:time CON:be:named (it:AML Streaky)  
 '(They) are each named (Streaky [reg. Sp. *meco*]).'

*nī nanīh (ikūh kwāshah)*  
 NEG:COM be:named (mountain Kwashah)  
 '(The mountain) wasn't named (Kwashah).'

*sha nanīh (ra pēgrū)*  
 already CON:be:named (he Peter)  
 '(He) right now is being named (Peter).'

*na kunanīh (ra ikwān)*  
 HORT POT:be:named (he John)  
 'Let (him) be named (John)!''

*nā kunanīh (ra kīvih yūhu)*  
 OBL POT:be:named (he day my:EMPH)  
 '(He) must be named my name.'

*kunanīh* 'to be named' occurs with all postverbal elements except reflexive, co-involvement, and nominal, but the intensifier *va* 'very' and additive *ka* 'more' do not express limiter.

*kunanīh kīhīh (ra ikwān)*  
 POT:be:named quickly (he John)  
 '(He) quickly will be named (John).'

*nanīh miīh (ra nūuh shīhé)*  
 CON:be:named SPEC (he face CON:be:angry)  
 '(He) is unjustifiably called (poker face).'

*ni nanīh shachīh (ah nā sūshānh)*  
 COM be:named always (she she lazy)  
 'Always, (she) was called (lazy one)!'

*ni nanīh kwitīh (ra pēgrū)*  
 COM be:named just (he Peter)  
 '(He) was just named (Peter).'

*nanīh vih (ra tyoho nūu)*  
 CON:be:named excessive (he root town)  
 '(He) inappropriately is being considered (the town father).'

*ni nanīh ni (ah mānā)*  
 COM be:named LIM (she Mary)  
 '(She) was only called (Mary).'

*kunanīh na (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:be:named HOPE (he Peter)  
 'I hope (he) will be named (Peter)!'

*nanīh xān (ra māī)*  
 CON:be:named DOUBT (he Martin)  
 'Maybe (he) is being called Martin (Sp. *Martín*).'

*nanīh tu (ra matī)*  
 CON:be:named also (he Martin)  
 ‘(He) is also being called Martin.’

*kunanīh tuku (ra te chūūnh)*  
 POT:be:named REP (he he worklike)  
 ‘(He) will be named as (president) again.’

The following sentences show *kunanīh* with various combinations of preverbal and postverbal elements.

*sha kunanīh sūh mīh sākā ni (ra kwātē)*  
 already POT:be:named humorous SPEC in:vain LIM (he twin)  
 ‘In jest, (he) right now will only be called Twin (Sp. *cuate*) for no reason.’

*na īngāh kūn kunanīh na tu*  
 HORT same:time POT:DIR POT:be:named HOPE also  
 ‘I hope (they) will go (somewhere) also to be named

*(ra te chūūnh)*  
 (he he worklike)  
 (president) at the same time!’

*sha ni nanīh vih xān tuku*  
 already COM be:named excessive DOUBT REP  
 ‘Maybe (he) just now inappropriately was again called

*(ra nūuh shīhé)*  
 (he face CON:be:angry)  
 (poker face).’

### 2.3 Stative Verb Phrases

Stative verb phrases consist of a stative verb plus various preverbal and postverbal modifiers. They occur both in the predicate of stative sentences (see 1.1.6), either alone or together with a small set of bleached content verbs, and as preverbal or postverbal manner in content verb phrases.

When stative verbs occur as the predicate of stative sentences in the absence of an equative verb or a bleached content verb, they occur with preverbal co-involvement, preverbal manner, expressed only by a few general quantifiers and the intensifier, near time, and negative (which is

usually expressed by replacing the tones of the following word by a mid-low-mid pattern [see 5.9]).

*īngāh ndyeēh (ra)*  
 same:time strong (he)  
 '(They) are strong at the same time.'

*sīē vīshāh (tōto)*  
 little wet (cloth)  
 'A small portion (of the cloth) is wet.'

*vāvāah vīshāh (tōto)*  
 slightly wet (cloth)  
 '(The cloth) is damp.'

*vūshāh (tōto)*  
 NEG:wet (cloth)  
 '(The cloth) is not wet.'

*sha kūtuh (yohōh)*  
 oh:very tight (vine)  
 'Oh, (the rope) is very tight!'

*sha kūtuh (yohōh)*  
 already tight (vine)  
 'Right now (the rope) is tight.'

Stative verbs that do not occur together with an equative or content verb occur with all postverbal elements except reflexive. Postverbal manner is limited to stative verbs, general adverbs, and adverbs denoting degree; and nominal is limited to body-part nouns, which form idioms.

With postverbal manner:

*kūtuh sūh (yohōh)*  
 tight humorous (vine)  
 '(The rope) is ridiculously tight.'

*kūtuh ndyāā (yohōh)*  
 tight rarely (vine)  
 '(The rope) is rarely tight.'

*vīshāh yāha (tōto)*  
 wet surpassing (cloth)  
 ‘(The cloth) is extremely wet.’

*vīshāh mbahla (tōto)*  
 wet watery (cloth)  
 ‘(The cloth) is sopping wet.’

With body-part nouns:

*vīe ini (ra)*  
 heavy insides (he)  
 ‘(He) is lethargic.’

*kūtuḥ nīmá (ra)*  
 tight heart (he)  
 ‘(He) is selfish.’

*shisha nūuh (ra)*  
 old face (he)  
 ‘(He) is shameless.’

*kama ndahāh (ra)*  
 fast hand (he)  
 ‘(He) is light-fingered.’

*tīhēh shīnih (ra)*  
 hard head (he)  
 ‘(He) is dull witted.’

With other postverbal elements:

*nyahā īngāh (ra)*  
 evil same:time (he)  
 ‘(They) are unitedly evil.’

*kūtuḥ miīh (yohōh)*  
 tight SPEC (vine)  
 ‘(The rope) is tight for no reason.’

*ndatunh kwitih (sahmāh)*  
 pretty just (tortilla:cloth)  
 '(The cloth) is just pretty.'

*āsinh va (māngō)*  
 delicious INTS (mango)  
 '(The mango) is very delicious.'

*vīshāh ka (tōto)*  
 wet ADD (cloth)  
 '(The cloth) continues to be wet.'

*kūtuḥ vih (yohōh)*  
 tight excessive (vine)  
 '(The rope) is excessively tight.'

*kwāān ni (saa)*  
 yellow LIM (bird)  
 '(The bird) is only yellow.'

*ndatunh na (sahmāh)*  
 pretty HOPE (tortilla:cloth)  
 'I hope (the tortilla cloth) is pretty.'

*āsinh xān (māngō)*  
 delicious DOUBT (mango)  
 'Maybe (the mango) is delicious.'

*kūtuḥ tu (yohōh)*  
 tight also (vine).  
 '(The rope) is also tight.'

*vīshāh tuku (a)*  
 wet REP it:INAN  
 '(It) is wet again.'

(See also 7.23 and 7.24.)

The following sentences show stative verb phrases with various combinations of preverbal and postverbal elements.

*īngāh nyahā miīh (ra)*  
 same:time evil SPEC (he)  
 '(They) are simultaneously evil for no reason.'

*sha vīshāh shinaha kwūtih ka ni (tōto)*  
 already wet really just ADD LIM (cloth)  
 'Right now, (the cloth) really is only still just wet.'

*sīē īngāh vīshāh tūvīh vih (tōto)*  
 little same:time wet visibly excessive (cloth)  
 'Visibly, small portions (of the cloths) simultaneously are unnecessarily wet.'

*sha / sha vīshāh va na xān tu (tōto)*  
 already oh:very wet INTS HOPE DOUBT also (cloth)  
 'Oh, I hope maybe (the cloth) is right now also very wet!'

*vīē va ni na xān ini (ra)*  
 heavy INTS LIM HOPE DOUBT insides (he)  
 'I hope maybe (he) is only very lethargic!'

*vūē va na ini (ra)*  
 NEG:heavy INTS HOPE insides (he)  
 'I hope (he) is not very lethargic!'

When stative verbs precede a bleached content verb to form a stative sentence, the stative verb takes only manner, co-involvement, near time, and negative as preverbal elements, but it takes all postverbal elements except reflexive, co-involvement, and nominal. The bleached content verb in this construction takes only preverbal directional, completive, and hortatory; and it does not take any postverbal elements. When hortatory is present, it precedes the stative verb phrase. In the following sentences, the subject is enclosed in parentheses, and the bleached content verb and its modifiers in square brackets.

*vīshāh yāha vih tu [koo] (tōto)*  
 wet surpassing excessive also [POT:exist] (cloth)  
 '(The cloth) [will] also [be] extremely wet to an excess.'

*īngāh ndāhvī va xān [ni shān koo] (ra)*  
 same:time poor INTS DOUBT [COM COM:DIR POT:exist] (he)  
 'Maybe (they) both [were going to be] very poorly dressed.'

*[na] sīē kwīē kwitih ni [kau] (ra)*  
 [HORT] little slow just LIM [POT:be:inherently] (he)  
 ‘[May] (he) [be] only just a little prudent!’

*sha ndyerī sākā [ni kau] (ra)*  
 already violent in:vain [COM be:inherently] (he)  
 ‘(He) just now [was] uselessly violent.’

*sha kwāhah nūnūh mūh tuku [kūnī] (ah)*  
 oh:very much proud SPEC REP [CON:appear] (she)  
 ‘Oh, (she) [appears] extensively proud again without reason!’

*kwūhē ka tuku [ni kūnī] (te lūlū)*  
 NEG:thin ADD REP [COM appear] (he small:sg)  
 ‘(The boy) didn’t [appear] thinner again.’

*nāhnūh shavaha na [ūnh] (rih)*  
 big:PL amazing HOPE [CON:appear:PL] (it:AML)  
 ‘(They) [are] hopefully very large.’

*āsīnh yāha shavaha [ūnh] (māngō)*  
 delicious surpassing amazing [CON:appear:PL] (mango)  
 ‘(The mangos) [are apparently] exceedingly amazingly delicious.’

*kwāān vāvāh ka [ni kāa] (marīā)*  
 yellow slightly ADD [COM COM:appear:sg] (Mary)  
 ‘(Mary) [was] slightly fairer.’

*ndatunh shavaha [ni kāa] (ah)*  
 pretty amazing [COM COM:appear:sg] (she)  
 ‘(She) [was apparently] amazingly pretty.’

(See also 7.22.)

When stative verbs occur in the preverbal manner position of a content verb phrase, the stative verb phrase is unrestricted in its expansion possibilities. All preverbal elements occur with the stative verb except for directional, completive, negative, and hortatory, which occur with the content verb. When hortatory is present, it precedes the stative verb phrase. Postverbal elements occur with both the stative verb and the content verb. When the same postverbal element occurs with both the stative verb and the content verb, a pause must follow the stative verb



phrase. The following sentences show stative verb phrases modifying content verb phrases.

[*na*] *sīē ndyeēh kwitih* [*kūn kuu na*] (*ra*)  
 [HORT] little strong just [POT:DIR POT:weed HOPE] (he)  
 ‘[Let] (him), [I hope, go to weed] in a way that involves just a little effort!’

*sīē tūhēh ka* [*kāhan na*] (*ah*)  
 little NEG:hard ADD [POT:speak HOPE] (she)  
 ‘(She) [I hope will speak] not a little louder.’

*mūh nyahā xān* [*shikāh ni tu*] (*ra*)  
 SPEC evil DOUBT [CON:walk LIM also] (he)  
 ‘(He) [is also only walking] in a way that is haphazardly possibly evil.’

*vaha ka na* [*shāchuūnh sūh tuku*] (*ra*)  
 good ADD HOPE [NEG:CON:work humorous REP] (he)  
 ‘(He) [is not working for fun again] in an expected better way.’

*sīē ndyeēh chuun na* [*ni shitu kwitih*] (*ra*)  
 little strong intentionally HOPE [COM COM:weed just] (he)  
 ‘(He) [just weeded] in a way that involves an expected bit of intentional effort.’

*īngāh vīē na* / [*kāhan ndivaha na*] (*ra*)  
 same:time heavy HOPE [POT:speak inappropriate HOPE] (he)  
 ‘(They), [I hope, will speak inappropriately], speaking at the same time in a way that is expectedly trying.’

*sha vāvāah kini chuun ka xān* /  
 already slightly awful intentionally ADD DOUBT  
 ‘(He) [is still eating] in a way that right now maybe is

[*shīshīh ka*] (*ra*)  
 [CON:eat ADD] (he)  
 intentionally still slightly awful.’

In one specialized construction containing a stative verb phrase as preverbal manner, the content verb is a compound formed by combining one of the verbs *kuu* ‘to be (inherently)’, *nduu* ‘to be equal’, or *nanduu* ‘to

be transformed' with a stative verb (see 5.1.1). This kind of derived content verb refers to a process. In this construction, the stative verb that serves as the nucleus of the stative verb phrase in the preverbal manner position is identical to the stative verb in the compound. The content verb permits no preverbal elements other than the preverbal manner phrase except hortatory and completive. This redundant construction allows the speaker to focus certain modifiers by placing them in the stative verb phrase, rather than in the content verb phrase.

*sīe vīshāh tuku [ni ku-vīshāh kwitih] (tōto)*  
 little wet REP [COM be:inherently-wet just] (cloth)  
 'A SMALL PORTION AGAIN (of the cloth) [became just wet].'

*īngāh kūtuh shinaha [ku-kūtuh*  
 same:time tight really [POT:be:inherently-tight  
 'AT THE SAME TIME (the ropes) [also will] REALLY [become

*vih tu] (yohōh)*  
 excessive also] (vine)  
 excessively tight].'

*sha / sha ndyeni [kū-ndyeni*  
 already oh:very violent [CON:be:inherently-violent  
 'OH , [I hope] (it) [is] JUST NOW [becoming

*yāha na] (rih)*  
 surpassing HOPE] (it:AML)  
 extremely violent]!'

*vīshāh mīh ni [ni ndu-vīshāh xān] (tōto)*  
 wet SPEC LIM [COM be:equal-wet DOUBT] (cloth)  
 '[Maybe] (the cloth) ONLY [got completely wet] WITHOUT A REASON.'

*[na] kūtuh na [ndu-kūtuh shinaha va] (yohōh)*  
 [HORT] tight HOPE [POT:be:equal-tight really INTS] (vine)  
 '[May] (the rope), 1 HOPE, [really get very tight]!'

*ndyeni vāvāah xān [ndū-ndyeni tuku] (rih)*  
 violent slightly DOUBT [CON:be:equal-violent REP] (it:AML)  
 'MAYBE (it) [is getting] SLIGHTLY [violent again].'

*vīshāh vih [ni nandu-vīshāh ka] (tōto)*  
 wet excessive [COM be:transformed-wet ADD] (cloth)  
 ‘(The cloth) [has been transformed into being] EXCESSIVELY  
 [wetter].’

*kūtuḥ kwitih [nandu-kūtuḥ mīh] (yohōh)*  
 tight just [POT:be:transformed-tight SPEC] (vine)  
 ‘(The rope) JUST [will be transformed into being tight without a  
 reason].’

*ndyenī va [nāndū-ndyenī ni] (rih)*  
 violent INTS [CON:be:transformed-violent LIM] (it:AML)  
 ‘(It) [only is being transformed into being] VERY [violent].’

When stative verb phrases occur in the postverbal manner position of content verb phrases, they may contain only a nucleus and one or more intensifying elements expressing the postverbal manner position within the stative verb phrase. Further study is needed to determine the specific elements that can occur, their possible orderings, and the precise syntactic relation among them.

*[rihi] ndyeēh yāha*  
 [POT:rumble] strong surpassing  
 ‘[It will rumble] surpassingly powerfully.’

*[kāshī] kini shavaha (ra)*  
 [CON:sleep] awful amazing (he)  
 ‘(He) [is sleeping] amazingly fretfully.’

*[ni satah] yahvi yāha shavaha (ra a)*  
 [COM buy] expensive surpassing amazing (he it:INAN)  
 ‘(He) amazingly surpassingly expensively [bought] (it).’

*[koo] mānih yāha (ra)*  
 [POT:exist] peaceful surpassing (he)  
 ‘(He) [is living] surpassingly peacefully.’

[*kāūh*]                      *nyahā shavaha (ra)*  
 [CON:be:inherently]    evil    amazing    (he)  
 '(He) [is behaving] amazingly evilly.'<sup>2</sup>

## 2.4 Continuous Verb Phrases

Continuous verb phrases involve doubling the verb nucleus, including its word-level aspect. All nonmomentary verbs enter into this construction: for content and equative verbs, it signifies continuation of predication; and for stative verbs, it intensifies the state. The object of a transitive verb is optionally unexpressed in this construction.

*nih*                      *nih*  
 POT:rumble    POT:rumble  
 'It is going to keep on rumbling.'

*kwashi kwashi (ah)*  
 CON:come    CON:come    (she)  
 '(She) keeps on coming.'

*shihi shihi (rih)*  
 COM:drink    COM:drink    (it:AML)  
 '(It) used to keep on drinking.'

*ndūūh ndūūh (ra te nyahā)*  
 CON:be:equal    CON:be:equal    (he he evil)  
 '(He) keeps on being (an evil person).'

*nyahā nyahā (ra)*  
 evil    evil    (he)  
 '(He) is very evil.'

(See also 7.8.)

---

<sup>2</sup>Even though both *koo* 'to exist' and *kuu* 'to be (inherently)' occur as bleached content verbs in stative sentences, in the two sentences above they are functioning as full content verbs. They carry a full lexical meaning, rather than a mere copulative function, and the stative verb phrase associated with them follows, rather than precedes, them. Compare these sentences with sentences containing the same two verbs in 1.1.6.

Some complex verb nuclei double only the verb constituent in this construction, with a single instance of the modifying word following the second verb.

*tiin tiin kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:hold POT:hold sin (he Peter)  
 '(He) is going to keep on blaming (Peter).'

*yōō yōō ndishi (a)*  
 CON:exist CON:exist POT:be:covered (it:INAN)  
 '(It) is highly decorated.'

*shahndya shahndya chūūnh (ra)*  
 COM:cut COM:cut worklike (he)  
 '(He) used to administrate continuously.'

*shūtōh shūtōh ndyaa (ra)*  
 CON:look CON:look adheringly (he)  
 '(He) keeps on examining.'

A few complex verb nuclei, often, though not necessarily, involving an instrument noun or an indeterminate element as the modifying word, double both parts of the nucleus.

*kūūnh māngō kūūnh māngō (ra)*  
 CON:pelt mango CON:pelt mango (he)  
 '(He) is keeping on pelting with mangos.'

*ndasi ihru ndasi ihru (ra)*  
 POT:close outside POT:close outside (he)  
 '(He) is going to keep on enclosing.'

*kuni shāhānh kuni shāhānh (ra)*  
 POT:sense ? POT:sense ? (he)  
 '(He) is going to keep on deceiving.'

Preverbal elements precede the repeated nucleus, and postverbal elements follow it.

*ni nihi nihi vih xān tuku*  
 COM rumble rumble excessive DOUBT REP  
 'Maybe it used to excessively keep on rumbling again.'

*mūh shini shāhānh shini shāhānh sākā (ra)*  
 SPEC COM:sense ? COM:sense ? in:vain (he)  
 '(He) recklessly kept on deceiving in vain.'

*sha / sha kwashi kwashi kwīē tu (ah)*  
 already oh:very CON:come CON:come slow also (she)  
 'Oh, right now (she) also really keeps on methodically coming!'

*na kūn koho koho ka ni (rih)*  
 HORT POT:DIR POT:drink POT:drink ADD LIM (it:AML)  
 'Let (it) go (somewhere) to still only keep on drinking!'

*sha ndūūh ndūūh mūh na (ra te vaha)*  
 oh:very CON:be:equal CON:be:equal SPEC HOPE (he he good)  
 'Oh, I hope, (he) keeps on really being (a good person) for no reason!'

*mūh tūnh tūnh kwachi shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 SPEC CON:hold CON:hold sin with each:other (he)  
 '(They) recklessly keep on blaming each other.'

*īngāh shito shito ndyaa shūnh mūh (ra)*  
 same:time COM:look COM:look adheringly with SPEC (he)  
 '(They) used to continuously examine themselves at the same time.'

*ndyeēh sūkūh sūkūh yohōh ñahāh (ra)*  
 strong CON:strike CON:strike vine KNO (he)  
 '(He) keeps on striking (him/her/them) hard with a rope.'

*shān ndahni ndahni ka vih*  
 COM:DIR POT:be:satisfied POT:be:satisfied ADD excessive  
 '(He) returned from still continuously being excessively

*nīmá (ra)*  
 heart (he)  
 full.'

When this phrase type is used in commands, it indicates that the speaker expects the addressee to start an action and to continue its execution.

*kutu*            *kutu*            (*unh*)  
 POT:weed    POT:weed    (you:SG)  
 'Weed and keep at it!'

## 2.5 Imminent Verb Phrases

As in continuous verb phrases, imminent verb phrases involve doubling; the first part contains a verb nucleus, and the second part contains the same verb nucleus plus the negative marker (see 5.9). This construction is limited to content verbs in potential and completive aspects. When it occurs with verbs in potential aspect, it indicates that the subject repeatedly approaches the point of executing or participating in the predication.

*nihi*            *nūhī*  
 POT:rumble    NEG:POT:rumble  
 'It is almost rumbling.'

*kūhun*    *kūuhūn*            (*ra*)  
 POT:go    NEG:POT:go    (he)  
 '(He) is almost going.'

*ndikāhnu*    *ndikahnū*            (*ruh*)  
 POT:sink    NEG:POT:sink    (it:WOD)  
 '(It) is almost sinking.'

*koho*            *kōohōh*            (*rih*    *tikwī*)  
 POT:drink    NEG:POT:drink    (it:AML    water)  
 '(It) is almost drinking (water).'

When imminent verb phrases occur with verbs in completive aspect, the completive aspect marker *ni* must occur before both verbs unless the verb has a distinct spelling in completive aspect, in which case *ni* is optional before the first verb, but obligatory before the second one. The motion verbs *kūhun* 'to go' and *kishi* 'to come' do not occur in completive aspect in this construction. Imminent verb phrases in completive aspect mean that the predication was about to occur or barely occurred.

*ni*    *nihi*            *nī*            *nīhī*  
 COM rumble    NEG:COM    rumble  
 'It barely rumbled.'

*ni kandishāh nī kandishāh (ra)*  
 COM obey NEG:COM obey (he)  
 '(He) hardly obeyed.'

*shihī nī shihīh (rih tikwī)*  
 COM:drink NEG:COM COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) hardly drank any (water).'

*ni shihī nī shihīh (rih tikwī)*  
 COM COM:drink NEG:COM COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) hardly drank any (water).'

As in continuous verb phrases, usually only the verb constituent of a complex nucleus is doubled, with the modifying word following the second repetition; but the same complex nuclei that are exceptions with the continuous verb phrase are also exceptions here.

With only the verb repeated:

*tīn tīūnh kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:hold NEG:POT:hold sin (he Peter)  
 '(He) is almost blaming (Peter).'

*kahndya kāandyā chūūnh (ra)*  
 POT:cut NEG:POT:cut worklike (he)  
 '(He) is almost administrating.'

*ni tīn nī tīūnh kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 COM hold NEG:COM hold sin (he Peter)  
 '(He) barely blamed (Peter).'

*shahndya nī shahndyā chūūnh (ra)*  
 COM:cut NEG:COM COM:cut worklike (he)  
 '(He) hardly administrated.'

With both parts of the nucleus repeated:

*kuun māngō kūūūnh māngō (ra rih)*  
 POT:pelt mango NEG:POT:pelt mango (he it:AML)  
 '(He) is about to pelt (it) with mangos.'



*ndasi ihnu ndāasī ihnu (ra nuh)*  
 POT:close outside NEG:POT:close outside (he it:WOD)  
 '(He) is about to enclose (it).'

*kuni shāhānh kūunī shāhānh (ra)*  
 POT:sense ? NEG:POT:sense ? (he)  
 '(He) is almost deceiving.'

*ni kuun māngō nī kuūnh māngō (ra rih)*  
 COM pelt mango NEG:COM pelt mango (he it:AML)  
 '(He) was about to pelt (it) with mangos.'

*ni ndasi ihnu nī ndasī ihnu (ra nuh)*  
 COM close outside NEG:COM close outside (he it:WOD)  
 '(He) was about to enclose (it).'

*ni shini shāhānh nī shinī shāhānh (ra)*  
 COM COM:sense ? NEG:COM COM:sense ? (he)  
 '(He) deceived a little bit.'

Preverbal elements are greatly restricted in this phrase type. When the verbs are in potential aspect, only the near-time marker *sha* occurs; it precedes each part of the nucleus. When the verbs are in completive aspect, only *ni* 'completive' occurs, as described above. All postverbal elements occur in this phrase type except that the limiter is not expressed by *va* 'very' or *vih* 'excessive'. Postverbal elements follow the second occurrence of the verb nucleus.

*sha nihi sha nūhī xān tuku*  
 already POT:rumble already NEG:POT:rumble DOUBT REP  
 'Maybe right now it is about to rumble again.'

*koho kōohōh ka ni (rih)*  
 POT:drink NEG:POT:drink ADD LIM (it:AML)  
 '(It) is about to still only drink again.'

*shini shāhānh nī shinī shāhānh sākā*  
 COM:sense ? NEG:COM COM:sense ? in:vain  
 'In vain (they) deceived each other'

*shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 with each:other (he)  
 a little.'

*tiin tūinh kwachi na ñahāh (ra)*  
 POT:hold NEG:POT:hold sin HOPE KNO (he)  
 'I hope (he) is about to blame him/her/them!'

*ni shito nī shitōh ndyaa shūnh miih*  
 COM COM:look NEG:COM COM:look adheringly with SPEC  
 'For no reason, (he) hardly examined

*miih (ra)*  
 SPEC (he)  
 himself.'

*sha sukuh sha sūukāh yohōh*  
 already POT:strike already NEG:POT:strike vine  
 'Right now (they) are about to jointly strike

*īngāh ñahāh (ra)*  
 same:time KNO (he)  
 him/her/them with a rope.'

*ni ndahnī nī ndahnī tuku nīmá (ra)*  
 COM be:satisfied NEG:COM be:satisfied REP heart (he)  
 '(He) was barely full again.'

When this phrase type is used in commands, it indicates that the speaker expects the addressee to barely execute the predication.

*kāhan kāahān (unh)*  
 POT:speak NEG:POT:speak (you:SG)  
 'Say as little as possible!'

*kushi kūushih (ndoh)*  
 POT:eat NEG:POT:eat (you:PL)  
 'Eat as little as possible!'

## 2.6 Iterative Verb Phrases

Like the previous two types, iterative verb phrases involve doubling the nucleus, but they differ in that the conjunction *te* 'and' links the two repetitions in this type. The iterative verb phrase is limited to nonstative verbs. In potential aspect, it may mean either repetition or a strong affirmation of the predication.

*nihi te nihi*  
 POT:rumble and POT:rumble.  
 'It will rumble repeatedly.' or 'It is certainly going to rumble!'

*kāhan te kāhan (i)*  
 POT:speak and POT:speak (I)  
 '(I) am really going to say my piece!'

*kani te kani (ra rih)*  
 POT:hit and POT:hit (he it:AML)  
 '(He) will really strike (it).'

In continuative and completive aspects, it refers only to repeated instances of the predication.

*kwashi te kwashi (ah)*  
 CON:come and CON:come (she)  
 '(She) comes habitually.'

*shihi te shihi (rih tikwī)*  
 COM:drink and COM:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) habitually drinks (water).'

*ndūūh te ndūūh (ra te meē)*  
 CON:be:equal and CON:be:equal (he he ?)  
 '(He) repeatedly is (a messenger).'

If the verb nucleus is complex, the whole complex nucleus is repeated.

*tiin kwachi te tiin kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:hold sin and POT:hold sin (he Peter)  
 '(He) will repeatedly blame Peter.' or '(He) certainly will blame (Peter).'

*shahndya chūūnh te shahndya chūūnh (ra)*  
 COM:cut worklike and COM:cut worklike (he)  
 '(He) used to repeatedly administrate.'

*shūōh ndyaa te shūōh ndyaa (ra tutu)*  
 CON:look adheringly and CON:look adheringly (he paper)  
 '(He) is repeatedly examining (the paper).'

All preverbal elements except near time occur in this type, except that the intensifier does not express manner, and no more than two preverbal elements occur in any one phrase. Preverbal elements are repeated preceding each verb nucleus. Various postverbal elements may follow the second of the two verb nuclei.

*ni nihi te ni nihi vih xān tuku*  
 COM rumble and COM rumble excessive DOUBT REP  
 'Maybe it used to repeatedly excessively rumble again.'

*na kūn koho te na kūn koho ni*  
 HORT POT:DIR POT:drink and HORT POT:DIR POT:drink LIM  
 'Let (it) go only to habitually drink

*(rih iikwī)*  
 (it:AML water)  
 (water)!'

*mūh tūnh kwachi te mūh tūnh kwachi*  
 SPEC CON:hold sin and SPEC CON:hold sin  
 'Repeatedly, (they) are recklessly blaming

*shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 with each:other (he)  
 each other.'

*īngāh shito ndyaa te īngāh shito*  
 same:time COM:look adheringly and same:time COM:look  
 'Repeatedly, (they) used to examine themselves at the

*ndyaa shūnh mūh (ra)*  
 adheringly with SPEC (he)  
 same time.'

*ndyeēh sūkuh yohōh te ndyeēh sūkuh yohōh*  
 strong CON:strike vine and strong CON:strike vine  
 '(He) repeatedly is striking him/her/them hard

*ñahāh (ra)*  
 KNO (he)  
 with a rope.'

*shān ndahni te shān ndahni*  
 COM:DIR POT:be:satisfied and COM:DIR POT:be:satisfied  
 '(He) returned from still repeatedly being

*ka vih nīmá (ra)*  
 ADD excessive heart (he)  
 excessively full.'

This phrase type does not occur in commands.

## 2.7 Extended Verb Phrases

Like the previous three types, extended verb phrases involve doubling the nucleus; the two repetitions are linked by the conjunction *nāā* 'as'. This construction expresses a comparison between two aspects of the verb; it creates a complex aspect that expresses mainly phasal information. The first verb is the head of the construction. It may be in potential, continuative, or completive aspect, and it expresses the time of the action relative to the time of speaking. The second verb, which follows *nāā* 'as', shows the time it is being compared to. The limitations on aspect of the second verb vary according to the aspect of the first verb, but the second verb never expresses an action subsequent to the first one.

Future extension of predication:

*nihī nāā nihī*  
 POT:rumble as POT:rumble  
 'It will rumble continuously.' (lit. 'It will rumble as will rumble.')

*koho nāā shīhīh (rih)*  
 POT:drink as CON:drink (it:AML)  
 '(It) will keep on drinking.' (lit. 'It will drink as drinks.')

*kūhun nāā shāhán (ra)*  
 POT:go as HAB:go (he)  
 ‘(He) will keep on habitually going.’ (lit. ‘He will go as habitually goes.’)

*satah nāā ni satah (ra)*  
 POT:buy as COM buy (he)  
 ‘(He) bought and will buy again.’ (lit. ‘He will buy as bought.’)

Present extension of predication:

*ndūūh nāā ndūūh (ra te nyahā)*  
 CON:be:equal as CON:be:equal (he he evil)  
 ‘(He) continues to be (an evil man).’ (lit. ‘He is an evil man as is.’)

*kwāhan nāā shāhán (ra)*  
 CON:go as HAB:go (he)  
 ‘(He) continues to habitually go.’ (lit. ‘He is going as customarily goes.’)

*shīshīh nāā shīshī (ra)*  
 CON:eat as COM:eat (he)  
 ‘(He) resumes eating.’ (lit. ‘He is eating as ate.’)

Past extension of predication:

*shāhan nāā shāhán (ra)*  
 COM:go as HAB:go (he)  
 ‘(He) went as he has been in the habit of doing.’ (lit. ‘He went and returned as customarily goes.’)

*shitu nāā shitu (ra)*  
 COM:weed as COM:weed (he)  
 ‘(He) weeded again.’ (lit. ‘He weeded as weeded.’)

As in continuous and imminent verb phrases, only the verb constituent of most complex nuclei is doubled, with the modifying word following the second repetition, but the same complex nuclei that are exceptions with these two types are also exceptions here.

With only the verb repeated:

*tiin nāā tiin kwachi (ra pēgrū)*  
 POT:hold as POT:hold sin (he Peter)  
 ‘(He) will blame (Peter) continuously.’ (lit. ‘He will blame Peter as will blame.’)

*koo nāā yōō vaha (ra)*  
 POT:exist as CON:exist good (he)  
 ‘(He) will keep on being healthy.’ (lit. ‘He will be healthy as is being healthy.’)

*shāhndyā nāā shāhndyā chūūnh (ra)*  
 CON:cut as CON:cut worklike (he)  
 ‘(He) continues to administrate.’ (lit. ‘He is administrating as administrates.’)

*shito nāā shito ndyaa (ra)*  
 COM:look as COM:look adheringly (he)  
 ‘(He) examined again.’ (lit. ‘He examined as examined.’)

With the entire complex nucleus repeated:

*ndasi ihnu nāā ndasi ihnu (ra)*  
 POT:close outside as POT:close outside (he)  
 ‘(He) will continuously enclose.’ (lit. ‘He will enclose as will enclose.’)

*kūūnh māngō nāā ni kuun māngō (ra)*  
 CON:pelt mango as COM pelt mango (he)  
 ‘(He) resumes pelting with mangos.’ (lit. ‘He is pelting with mangos as pelted with mangos.’)

*ni shini shāhānh nāā shīnī shāhānh (ra)*  
 COM:sense ? as HAB:sense ? (he)  
 ‘(He) continues to habitually deceive.’ (lit. ‘He deceived as habitually deceives.’)

Preverbal elements occur before the first verb in the phrase except that directionals and completive occur before each verb. All postverbal elements follow the second verb in the phrase.

*ni nihi nāā ni nihi vih xān tuku*  
 COM rumble as COM rumble excessive DOUBT REP  
 'Maybe it excessively rumbled again.'

*sha / sha kwashi nāā kwashi kwīē tu (ah)*  
 already oh:very CON:come as CON:come slow also (she)  
 'Oh, right now (she) continues also to habitually methodically come a lot!'

*na kān koho nāā kān koho ka ni (rih)*  
 HORT POT:DIR POT:drink as POT:DIR POT:drink ADD LIM (it:AM)  
 'Let (it) go to still only continuously drink!'

*mūh shini shāhānh nāā shini shāhānh*  
 SPEC COM:sense ? as COM:sense ?  
 'In vain, (he) recklessly deceived

*sākā (ra)*  
 in:vain (he)  
 again.'

*sha ndūūh nāā ndūū mūh na (ra te vaha)*  
 oh:very CON:be:equal as COM:be:equal SPEC HOPE (he he good)  
 'Oh, I hope (he) resumes being (a good person) for no reason!'

*mūh tūnh nāā ni tūn kwachi shūnh tāhānh (ra)*  
 SPEC CON:hold as COM hold sin with each:other (he)  
 '(They) recklessly resume blaming each other.'

*īngāh shito nāā shūtōh ndyaa shūnh mūh (ra)*  
 same:time COM:look as HAB:look adheringly with SPEC (he)  
 'Simultaneously (they) examined themselves as they have been in the habit of doing.'

*ndyeēh sūkuh nāā sūkuh yohōh ñahāh (ra)*  
 strong CON:strike as HAB:strike vine KNO (he)  
 '(He) continues to habitually strike him/her/them hard with a rope.'

*shān ndahni nāā shān ndahni ka*  
 COM:DIR POT:be:satisfied as COM:DIR POT:be:satisfied ADD  
 '(He) was still excessively



*vih*        *nīmá*    (*ra*)  
 excessive heart    (he)  
 more filled.'

When this phrase type is used in commands, it indicates that the speaker expects the addressee to extend the predication beyond a previous execution of that same predication.

*kutu*        *nāā*    *kutu*        (*unh*)  
 POT:weed    as    POT:weed    (you:SG)  
 'Weed and keep at it!' (lit. 'Weed as will weed!')

*kutu*        *nāā*    *shūūh*       (*ndoh*)  
 POT:weed    as    CON:weed    (you:PL)  
 'Keep on weeding!' (lit. 'Weed as weeds!')

*kutu*        *nāā*    *shūūh*       (*ndoh*)  
 POT:weed    as    HAB:weed    (you:PL)  
 'Keep on habitually weeding!' (lit. 'Weed as habitually are weeding!')

*kutu*        *nāā*    *shitu*        (*unh*)  
 POT:weed    as    COM:weed    (you:SG)  
 'Weed again!' (lit. 'Weed as weeded!')



## 3

# Noun Phrases

### 3.1 Basic Noun Phrases

Basic noun phrases consist of a noun or pronoun nucleus, two optional prenominal elements, and four optional postnominal elements.

**3.1.1 Noun nuclei.** Both simple and complex noun nuclei occur. A simple nucleus comprises only a noun or pronoun.

<i>tyāa</i>	‘man’
<i>shishi</i>	‘aunt’
<i>nāyah</i>	‘dog’
<i>itūnh</i>	‘tree’
<i>ikūh</i>	‘mountain’
<i>shāhah</i>	‘foot’
<i>pēgrū</i>	‘Peter’
<i>kwīya</i>	‘year’
<i>ndōhó</i>	‘YOU:PL:EMPH’
<i>yōhó</i>	‘YOU:SG:EMPH’

A complex nucleus is a lexical unit that comprises a noun or prestressed pronoun (see 5.4) followed by a frozen modifier, which may be a noun, a numeral, a stative verb, or an indeterminate element.

## Noun plus noun:

*yohōh kaa*  
vine metal  
'wire'

*yūuh kaka*  
stone lime  
'limestone'

*nduchīh nūuh*  
bean face  
'eye'

*ndahāh yosōh*  
hand metate  
'cylindrical stone used to grind with'

*ndokōh iñuh*  
Annona thorn  
'soursop' (fruit)

(See also 7.1 and 7.35.)

## Noun plus numeral:

*kaa kumīh*  
metal four  
'four o'clock' (lit. 'fourth metal')

## Noun plus stative verb:

*sīhe ndāhvī*  
child poor  
'orphan'

*ñuhūh kīshīnh*  
earth sticky  
'clay'

*shūtah*    *vaha*  
 tortilla    good  
 'bread'

(See also 7.21.)

Noun plus indeterminate element:

*te*    *yīvih*  
 he    ?  
 'man'

(See also 7.1.)

**3.1.2 Prenominal elements.** There are two elements that precede the nucleus: specifier and quantifier.

The specifier comprises three general markers: *inga* 'another (of same kind)', the repetitive *tuku* 'again', used in noun phrases to mean 'another (of different kind)', and the specifier *mūh* 'self', which occurs only with nouns that have a human referent.

*inga*            *kitīh*  
 other:same    animal  
 'another animal of the same species'

*tuku*    *kitīh*  
 REP    animal  
 'another animal of a different species'

*mūh*    *pēgrū*  
 SPEC    Peter  
 'Peter alone'

The quantifier comprises both numerals and general quantifiers; the former are usually embedded in an aggregative numeral phrase (see 4.1.3).

Numerals:

*iin*    *ndaah*            *tēi*  
 one of:group:sg    chair  
 'one chair'

*ūvi tāhān itūnh*  
 two of:group:PL tree  
 'two trees'

General quantifiers:

*kwāhah kitih*  
 many animal  
 'many animals'

*ndyāhvīh yūuh*  
 few stone  
 'a few stones'

*kīhīnh kīvih*  
 several day  
 'several days'

(See also 7.1.)

The numeral *iin* 'one' is also used alone as an indefinite article, and the numeral *uvi* 'two' is used alone to mean 'a few'.

*iin sahmāh*  
 one tortilla:cloth  
 'a tortilla cloth'

(See also 7.1, 7.3, and 7.18.)

*ūvi tēi*  
 two chair  
 'a few chairs'

**3.1.3 Postnominal elements.** Four elements follow the nucleus: deprecatative, deictic, limiter, and relative clause.

Deprecative is expressed by the general marker *soho* 'only (lack)'; it denotes that the nucleus is in some way inadequate.

*tīkwī soho*  
 water only:lack  
 'only water'

*shuhūnh*    *soho*  
 money      only:lack  
 ‘only money’

Four elements function as deictics: the nominal marker *xaanh* ‘that (previously noted)’, and three locative adverbs, *yōhōh* ‘here’, *ñāah* ‘there (near)’, and *kāah* ‘there (far)’. These adverbs are used in noun phrases to mean ‘this’, ‘that (near)’, and ‘that (far)’, respectively.

*tyāh*      *xaanh*  
 it:LIQ    that:noted  
 ‘that aforementioned liquid’

*vihe*    *yōhōh*  
 house    this  
 ‘this house’

*itūnh*    *ñāah*  
 tree      that:near  
 ‘that tree’

*te*      *kāah*  
 he      that:far  
 ‘that man’

(See also 7.5, 7.6, 7.14, and several others.)

Limiters is expressed by five general markers: *kwitih* ‘just’, *vih* ‘excessive’, *ni* ‘only’, *na* ‘hope’, and *xān* ‘doubt’. Sometimes two or more occur in a single noun phrase, in which case they show internal ordering. *kwitih* and *vih* occur in first position following the nucleus or deictic, *ni* in second position, *na* in third position, and *xan* in fourth position; *vih* and *ni* do not cooccur.

Single limiters:

*shuhūnh*    *kwitih*  
 money      just  
 ‘just money’

*shuhūnh vih*  
 money excessive  
 ‘too much money’

*shuhūnh ni*  
 money LIM  
 ‘money (nothing else)’

*shuhūnh na*  
 money HOPE  
 ‘desired money’

*shuhūnh xān*  
 money DOUBT  
 ‘doubted money’

Combinations of limiters:

*shuhūnh kwitih ni*  
 money just LIM  
 ‘just money (nothing else)’

*shuhūnh vih na*  
 money excessive HOPE  
 ‘desired too much money’

*shuhūnh ni na*  
 money LIM HOPE  
 ‘desired money (nothing else)’

*shuhūnh kwitih ni na xān*  
 money just LIM HOPE DOUBT  
 ‘just desired doubted money (nothing else)’

There are two kinds of relative clauses, restrictive and nonrestrictive. Restrictive relative clauses are those that follow a prestressed pronoun nucleus (see 5.4) or the interrogative adverb *mūh* ‘where?’ (see 5.5); nonrestrictive relative clauses are those that follow a noun nucleus. In order to express a restrictive relative clause with a noun nucleus, an appositional construction must be employed (see 3.6). In this construction the first noun phrase contains the noun nucleus, and the second one



contains the appropriate prestressed pronoun or *mūh* followed by the relative clause.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative clauses are marked as such only by their distribution following nouns, prestressed pronouns, or *mūh*; and by the absence of a noun phrase that is logically supplied by the noun nucleus. There is otherwise no change in the order of constituents within relative clauses.

Sentences with content verbs may become relative clauses based on the subject or object.

With subject as head:

*ñā satah nūnih*  
 she POT:buy corn:kernel  
 'she who will buy corn'

*ñahāh satah nūnih*  
 woman POT:buy corn:kernel  
 'the woman, who will buy corn'

*te kama shikāh*  
 he fast CON:walk  
 'he who is walking rapidly'

*te ngōoh / te kama shikāh*  
 he Spanish he fast CON:walk  
 'the Spaniard who is walking rapidly'

*te ngōoh kama shikāh*  
 he Spanish fast CON:walk  
 'the Spaniard, who is walking rapidly'

*ña ni nava*  
 it:INAN COM fall:SG  
 'it which dropped'

*yashīnh / ña ni nava*  
 gourd:bowl it:INAN COM fall:SG  
 'the gourd bowl which fell'

*yashīnh ni nava*  
 gourd:bowl COM fall:SG  
 'the gourd bowl, which fell'

With object as head:

*tyāh ni shihi ra*  
 it:LIQ COM COM:drink he  
 'it which he drank'

*tikwī ni shihi ra*  
 water COM COM:drink he  
 'water, which he drank'

*mbūrū / tīh kani ra*  
 donkey it:AML POT:hit he  
 'the donkey (Sp. *burro*) which he will strike'

*mbūrū kani ra*  
 donkey POT:hit he  
 'the burro, which he will strike'

(See also 7.15.)

Sentences with content verbs may also become relative clauses based on any adjunct except associative or on a peripheral element. When an adjunct or peripheral element is expressed by an adverbial possessive noun phrase (see 3.5) or by a prepositional phrase, and when the possessor or object serves as the head noun, the locative noun or preposition remains in its original position.

With adjunct as head:

*ne tāshīh ah tātanh ndahāh*  
 they CON:give she medicine hand  
 'the people to whom she is giving the medicine'

*ne yīvih tāshīh ah tātanh ndahāh*  
 they ? CON:give she medicine hand  
 'the people, to whom she is giving the medicine'

*mēsā / tūnh kāndūhuh tutu nūuh*  
 table it:WOD CON:be:lying:SG paper face  
 ‘the table (Sp. *mesa*) on which paper is lying’

*mēsā kāndūhuh tutu nūuh*  
 table CON:be:lying:SG paper face  
 ‘the table, on which paper lies’

(See also 7.33.)

*te ni shahnih ra kīni shāhah*  
 he COM COM:kill he pig foot  
 ‘the man for whom he killed the pig’

*te yīvih ni shahnih ra kīni shāhah*  
 he ? COM COM:kill he pig foot  
 ‘the man, for whom he killed the pig’

*nūnih / ña ni kihin ra shuhūnh shāhah*  
 corn:kernel it:INAN COM get he money foot  
 ‘the corn for which he received money’

*nūnih ni kihin ra shuhūnh shāhah*  
 corn:kernel COM get he money foot  
 ‘the corn, for which he received money’

*yāchā / ña ni ndatāh ra tutūnh shūnh*  
 ax it:INAN COM split he firewood with  
 ‘the ax (Sp. *hacha*) with which he split the firewood’

*yāchā ni ndatāh ra tutūnh shūnh*  
 ax COM split he firewood with  
 ‘the ax, with which he split the firewood’

(See also 7.27 and 7.32.)

With peripheral element as head:

*yukūnh / ña ni shīhi sūtu*  
 church it:INAN COM COM:die priest  
 ‘the church the priest died at’

*yukūnh ni shīhi sūtu*  
 church COM COM:die priest  
 'the church, which the priest died at'

*kīvih sāvró / űa ni shāa pēgrū*  
 day Saturday it:INAN COM COM:arrive:SG Peter  
 'the Saturday (Sp. *sábado*) on which Peter arrived'

*kīvih sāvró ni shāa pēgrū*  
 day Saturday COM COM:arrive:SG Peter  
 'Saturday, on which Peter arrived'

When, however, the head noun of the relative clause is preceded by a locative noun because of its function in the main sentence, and the same locative noun serves to mark its function in the relative clause, the locative noun is omitted from the relative clause, as seen in the following sentence.

*shāhah nūnih ni kihin ra shuhūnh (ndī /*  
 foot corn:kernel COM get he money (TOPIC  
 '(He is speaking) ABOUT THE CORN THAT HE GOT

*kāhán ra)*  
 CON:speak he)  
 MONEY (FOR).'

Sentences with equative or stative verbs may also become relative clauses with the subject functioning as the head noun. In relative clauses, but not in main sentences, numerals function like stative verbs to express ordinals.

With equative verbs:

*te ngōoh / te kunduu sūtu*  
 he ? he POT:be:equal priest  
 'the Spaniard who will be the priest'

*te ngōoh kunduu sūtu*  
 he ? POT:be:equal priest  
 'the Spaniard, who will be a priest'

*marīā / ñā ni ndūu ñā sīhī ra*  
 Mary she COM COM:be:equal she female his  
 ‘the Mary who was his wife’

*marīā ni ndūu ñā sīhī ra*  
 Mary COM COM:be:equal she female his  
 ‘Mary, who was his wife’

*te yīvih / te nanīh ikwān*  
 he ? he CON:be:named John  
 ‘the man who is named John’

*te yīvih nanīh ikwān*  
 he ? CON:be:named John  
 ‘the man, who is named John’

With stative verbs:

*tōto / ña vīshāh*  
 cloth it:INAN wet  
 ‘the cloth which is wet’

*tōto vīshāh*  
 cloth wet  
 ‘the wet cloth’ or ‘the cloth, which is wet’

*marīā / ñā ndatunh koo*  
 Mary she pretty POT:exist  
 ‘the Mary who will will be beautifully dressed’

*marīā ndatunh koo*  
 Mary pretty POT:exist  
 ‘Mary, who will be beautifully dressed’

*sūtu / te ndāhvī kūūh*  
 priest he poor CON:be:inherently  
 ‘the priest who is humble’

*sūtu ndāhvī kūūh*  
 priest poor CON:be:inherently  
 ‘the priest, who is humble’

*tōto / ña vīshāh ni kuni*  
 cloth it:INAN wet COM appear  
 ‘cloth which appeared to be wet’

*tōto vīshāh ni kuni*  
 cloth wet COM appear  
 ‘cloth, which appeared to be wet’

*māngō / ña āsinh ūnh*  
 mango it:INAN delicious CON:appear:PL  
 ‘mangos which are apparently delicious’

*māngō āsinh ūnh*  
 mango delicious CON:appear:PL  
 ‘mangos, which are apparently delicious’

*marīā / ñā vaha kāāh*  
 Mary she good CON:appear:SG  
 ‘the Mary who is apparently pretty’

*marīā vaha kāāh*  
 Mary good CON:appear:SG  
 ‘Mary, who is apparently pretty’

(See also 7.22.)

With numerals functioning like stative verbs:

*īchi / ña ūni*  
 machete it:INAN three  
 ‘the machete which is third’

*īchi ūni*  
 machete three  
 ‘the third machete’ or ‘the machete, which is third’

*kwēi / tīh ūvi*  
 horse it:AML two  
 ‘the horse (Sp. *caballo*) which is second’

*kwēi ūvi*  
 horse two  
 ‘the second horse’ or ‘the horse, which is second’

Sentences with equative or stative verbs may also become relative clauses based on a peripheral time element.

*kīvih / ña kunduu ra sūtu*  
 day it:INAN POT:be:equal he priest  
 ‘the day which he will become a priest’

*kīvih kunduu ra sūtu*  
 day POT:be:equal he priest  
 ‘the day, which he will become a priest’

*kīvih / ña ni kuu vishin*  
 day it:INAN COM be:inherently cold  
 ‘the day which had become cold’

*kīvih ni kuu vishin*  
 day COM be:inherently cold  
 ‘the day, which had become cold’

**3.1.4 Combinations of elements.** All possible combinations of the six nonnuclear elements occur, except for some restrictions involving relative clauses and the other postnuclear elements.

*kīhīnh miīh sūtu*  
 several SPEC priest  
 ‘several priests by themselves’

*ūni tāhān itin soho*  
 three of:group:PL sack only:lack  
 ‘only three empty sacks’

*iin tōto yōhōh*  
 one cloth this  
 ‘this one cloth’

*ūvi nāyah kwitih*  
 two dog just  
 ‘just a few dogs’

*tuku nāyah soho kwitih ni xān*  
 REP dog only:lack just LIM DOUBT  
 'maybe just a different kind of good-for-nothing dog (nothing else)'

*inga te yīvih soho / te ni kīshi*  
 other:same he ? only:lack he COM COM:sleep  
 'other plain ordinary men of the same race who slept'

*ūni tāhān ne yīvih tāshīh ah tātanh ndahāh*  
 three of:group:PL they ? CON:give she medicine hand  
 'three persons, to whom she is giving medicine'

*ndyāhvīh te yīvih / te ni ndūu te chūūnh*  
 few he ? he COM COM:be:equal he worklike  
 'a few men who were president'

*mūh te yīvih nāah / te ni ndūu te chūūnh*  
 SPEC he ? that:near he COM COM:be:equal he worklike  
 'that very man by you who was president'

*iin tōto vīshāh*  
 one cloth wet  
 'a wet cloth' or 'a cloth, which is wet'

*iin tōto soho nāah na*  
 one cloth only:lack that:near HOPE  
 'nothing more, one of those desired cloths near you'

*ūvi te yīvih soho ni ni kīshi*  
 two he ? only:lack LIM COM sleep  
 'a few plain ordinary men, who were sleeping (no one else)'

(See also 7.15 and 7.22.)

A deictic cannot occur together with a relative clause in the same basic noun phrase, nor can certain markers in the limiter position. It is possible, however, to use an appositional construction with a prestressed pronoun followed by a restrictive relative clause in the second part.

*yāchā xaanh / nā ni ndatāh ra tutūnh shūnh*  
 ax that:noted it:INAN COM split he firewood with  
 'that ax we are talking about with which he cut the firewood'



*kāhīnh mēsā kāah / tūnh kändūhuh tutu nūuh*  
 several table that:far it:WOD CON:be:lying:SG paper face  
 ‘those several tables over there on which the paper is lying’

*kwēi kāah kwūih / tīh ūni*  
 horse that:far just it:AML three  
 ‘just that third horse over there’

*kwāhah tuku tōto yōhōh kwūih xān / ña kwīih*  
 many REP cloth this just DOUBT it:INAN green  
 ‘maybe just these many different cloths which are green’

### 3.2 Measurement Noun Phrases

Measurement noun phrases have a noun expressing a unit of measurement as their nucleus, and they contain an obligatory quantifier. They optionally include various markers in the limiter position, including the additive *ka* ‘more’, and certain restricted kinds of relative clauses, but not deictics. Relative clauses in measurement noun phrases are limited to those based on stative verbs and those containing either of the content verbs *yōsoh* ‘to be mounted on’ or *kanūh* ‘to be upon (singular)’. When used with numerals, these verbs mean ‘to be in addition to’, and they are used to link a fraction or other smaller quantity to a quantity already expressed. Relative clauses that contain one of these two verbs may follow either the nucleus of the measurement noun phrase or the nucleus of the higher noun phrase that contains the measurement noun phrase. Measurement noun phrases occur only as quantifiers in other noun phrases, and in the following examples, the higher noun is enclosed in parentheses.

With no fractions:

*iin kiīh (tutūnh)*  
 one animal (firewood)  
 ‘an animal-load (of firewood)’

*kīhīnh kīlō (arō)*  
 many kilogram (rice)  
 ‘many kilograms (Sp. *kilo*) (of rice [Sp. *arroz*])’

*ndyāhvīh kuhva nāhnūh (nduchīh)*  
 few measure big:PL (bean)  
 ‘a few big measures (of beans)’

*kumīh tāhān lītō ka (shahan)*  
 four of:group:PL liter ADD (oil)  
 ‘four more liters (Sp. *litro*) (of oil)’

*iin ndaah nēgā kwitih (niih)*  
 one of:group:SG group:of:960 just (corn:ear)  
 ‘just one group of 960 (Sp. *fanega*) (ears of corn)’

*kumīh tāhān kwārtā ni na xān (tōto)*  
 four of:group:PL span LIM HOPE DOUBT (cloth)  
 ‘maybe the desired four spans (Sp. *cuarta*) (of cloth) (nothing else)’

With a fraction:

*iin ndahāh yōsoh sava (yohōh)*  
 one hand CON:be:mounted:on half (vine)  
 ‘one and a half fathoms (of rope)’

*iin ndahāh (yohōh) yōsoh sava*  
 one hand (vine) CON:be:mounted:on half  
 ‘one fathom (of rope) and a half’

*ūvi tāhān kīlō kānūh iin kwārtō*  
 two of:group:PL kilogram CON:be:upon:SG one quarter  
 ‘two and a quarter (Sp. *cuarto*) kilograms

*(yuchīh pāān)*  
 (powder bread)  
 (of bread [Sp. *pan*] flour)’

*ūvi tāhān kīlō (yuchīh pāān)*  
 two of:group:PL kilogram (powder bread)  
 ‘two kilograms (of bread flour)

*kānūh iin kwārtō*  
 CON:be:upon:SGone quarter  
 and a quarter’

With two or more fractions:

*iin ndaah nēgā kānūh*  
 one of:group:SG group:of:960 CON:be:upon:SG  
 'one group of 960,

*ūhun tāhān yarmū kānūh*  
 five of:group:PL group:of:forty:eight CON:be:upon:SG  
 five groups of forty-eight (Sp. *almud*),

*ūsha tāhān tehī (niih)*  
 seven of:group:PL group:of:four (corn:ear)  
 and seven groups of four (ears of corn)'

*ūni tāhān yūtu (palā) kānūh*  
 three of:group:PL cluster (unrefined:sugar) CON:be:upon:SG  
 'three and a half packets of sixteen loaves (of unrefined

*iin tāhnū kānūh ūvi tāhān tīnduh*  
 one broken:half CON:be:upon:SG two of:group:PL ball  
 sugar [reg. Sp. *panela*] and two groups of two loaves

*kānūh iin ndaah vīshīnh*  
 CON:be:upon:SG one of:group:SG cake  
 and one loaf'

### 3.3 Possessive Noun Phrases

Possessive noun phrases have a noun as their nucleus followed by an obligatory possessor. A quantifier may precede the nucleus, and a non-restrictive relative clause based on a stative verb, or *kwitih* 'just' may come between the nucleus and the possessor. *kwitih* follows the relative clause if both occur. Nuclei of possessive noun phrases are limited to those that represent concepts that are considered capable of being possessed. Some nouns, primarily kinship terms and body parts, are inherently possessed and occur mainly as nuclei of possessive noun phrases. The possessor is a full noun phrase with no special genitive marking.

## With inherently possessed nouns:

*shītāanh ikwān*  
 grandmother John  
 ‘John’s grandmother’

*ndahāh te lūlū*  
 hand he small:SG  
 ‘the boy’s hand’

*ūvi tāhān shāhah rih*  
 two of:group:PL foot its:AML  
 ‘two of its feet’

*ndahāh itin ra*  
 hand left his  
 ‘his left hand’

*ndahāh kwaḥa kīhīnh te yīvih*  
 hand right several his ?  
 ‘the right hand of several men’

*ndahāh itin ūvi tāhān te ni kie tutyōoh*  
 hand left two of:group:PL his COM leave:PL Ayutla  
 ‘the left hands of the two men who left Ayutla (town)’

(See also 7.8, 7.9, 7.10, 7.12, 7.16, 7.21, 7.27, 7.32, 7.34, 7.35, 7.37,  
 and 7.41.)

## With optionally possessed nouns:

*īchi ikwān*  
 machete John  
 ‘John’s machete’

*ūvi tāhān īchi ikwān*  
 two of:group:PL machete John  
 ‘two of John’s machetes’

*īchi kwitih ikwān*  
 machete just John  
 ‘just John’s machete’

*īchi shaāh ikwān*  
 machete new John  
 'John's new machete'

*īchi shaāh kwitih ikwān*  
 machete new just John  
 'just John's new machete'

*ūvi īchi manē*  
 two machete Emmanuel  
 'a few of Emmanuel's (Sp. *Manuel*) machetes'

(See also 7.14 and 7.32.)

When a deictic follows a noun possessor, the noun phrase is ambiguous between a reading in which the deictic modifies the nucleus and one in which it modifies the possessor.

*tunshū bētō yōhōh*  
 rifle Bob this  
 'this rifle of Bob's' or 'the rifle of this Bob'

*tunshū vāchō ñāah*  
 rifle soldier that:near  
 'that rifle of the soldier (reg. Sp. *guacho*)' or 'that soldier's rifle'

When, however, the possessor is a pronoun, there is no ambiguity. If the possessor is a poststressed pronoun, the deictic modifies the nucleus; but if the possessor is a prestressed pronoun, the deictic modifies the possessor.

With poststressed pronoun:

*īchi unh kāah*  
 machete your:SG that:far  
 'that machete of yours'

*īchi ra kāah*  
 machete his that:far  
 'that machete of his'

With prestressed pronoun:

*īchi*        *te*    *kāah*  
 machete    his    that:far  
 'the machete of that man'

When a relative clause follows the noun possessor of a possessive noun phrase, it may modify either the nucleus or the possessor. In order to avoid ambiguity in this construction, it is possible to use an appositional structure in which the second part has a prestressed pronoun as its head. This pronoun often helps to clarify the antecedent, as seen in the following sets of examples.

*īchi*        *bētō*    *chīe*  
 machete    Bob    big:SG  
 'Bob's machete, which is big' or 'the machete of Bob, who is big'

cf. *īchi*        *bētō* / *ñā*    *chīe*  
 machete    Bob    it:INAN    big:SG  
 'Bob's machete which is big'

and *īchi*        *bētō* / *te*    *chīe*  
 machete    Bob        he    big:SG  
 'the machete of the Bob who is big'

*īchi*        *bētō*    *kāndūhuh*    *nūuh*    *yivih*  
 machete    Bob    CON:be:lying:SG    face    palm:mat  
 'Bob's machete, which is lying on the palm mat' or 'the machete of Bob, who is lying on the palm mat'

cf. *īchi*        *bētō* / *ñā*    *kāndūhuh*    *nūuh*    *yivih*  
 machete    Bob    it:INAN    CON:be:lying:SG    face    palm:mat  
 'Bob's machete which is lying on the palm mat'

and *īchi*        *bētō* / *te*    *kāndūhuh*    *nūuh*    *yivih*  
 machete    Bob    he    CON:be:lying:SG    face    palm:mat  
 'the machete of the Bob who is lying on the palm mat'

A possessive noun phrase may occur as the possessor in another possessive noun phrase.

*tunshū shīto yuvāh ra*  
 rifle uncle father his  
 ‘the rifle of his father’s uncle’

### 3.4 Interrogative Noun Phrases

Interrogative noun phrases are formed with any one of the following: interrogative numeral phrases (see 4.1.9); the nominal marker *ndēē* ‘which?’; the interrogative pronoun *yoo* ‘who?’, used in this construction to mean ‘whose?’; and the complex interrogative adverb *saa kūūh* ‘how much?’. The interrogative is usually initial in its noun phrase, and the interrogative noun phrase always occurs in focus position in its sentence (see 1.1.8 and 1.2.2).

With interrogative numeral phrases:

*saa tāhān tēi*  
 how of:group:PL chair  
 ‘how many chairs?’

*saa tāhān ra*  
 how of:group:PL he  
 ‘how many men?’

With other interrogative forms:

*ndēē yosōh*  
 which metate  
 ‘which metate? (Sp. *metate*)’

*ndēē tīh*  
 which it:AML  
 ‘which animal?’

*yoo kīni*  
 who pig  
 ‘whose pig?’

*yoo sīhe*  
 who child  
 ‘whose child?’

*yoo ñaha*  
 who thing  
 'whose thing?'

*saa kūūh ishānh*  
 how CON:be:inherently corn:dough  
 'how much dough?'

*saa kūūh shuhūnh*  
 how CON:be:inherently money  
 'how much money?'

When a possessor is questioned by an interrogative noun phrase rather than simply by *yoo* 'who?', the phrase follows the possessed noun. Note that in this construction the interrogative word is not initial in the sentence.

*kitīh ndēē tyāa*  
 animal which man  
 'the animal of which man?'

*ishīh ndēē tīh*  
 hair which it:AML  
 'the hair of which animal?'

Some interrogative noun phrases have acquired idiomatic meanings; they are used to question adjuncts (see 1.2.2). These phrases are:

*yoo ndahāh*  
 who hand  
 'to/from whom?'

*yoo nūuh*  
 who face  
 'to/from whom?'

*yoo shāhah*  
 who foot  
 'for whom?'



*ndēē shāhah*  
 which foot  
 'why?'

### 3.5 Adverbial Noun Phrases

Adverbial noun phrases are either basic or possessive. The first subtype consists of a basic noun phrase with either a locative or a temporal noun nucleus. They are used as locative adjuncts and as location or time peripheral elements (see 1.1.4 and 1.1.7).

*ichīh kāhnūh*  
 trail important  
 'main trail' or 'road'

*ñuu kwālīh*  
 town small:PL  
 'small towns'

*kīvih kāhnūh*  
 day important  
 'holiday'

*kīvih ūh*  
 day touchy  
 'holy day'

(See also 7.13 and 7.19.)

Adverbial possessive noun phrases consist of a possessive noun phrase with an inherently possessed locative noun as nucleus. Most of these are body-part nouns; they are often used with extended meanings. Adverbial possessive noun phrases are used mainly as adjuncts and as peripheral elements.

*shāhah ikūh*  
 foot mountain  
 'foot of the mountain'

*tokōh ikūh*  
 waist mountain  
 'middle of the mountain'

*shīnih ikūh*  
 head mountain  
 ‘top of the mountain’

*nūuh mēsā*  
 face table  
 ‘table top’

*tishin mēsā*  
 stomach table  
 ‘under the table’

*nūuh lāpī*  
 face pencil  
 ‘tip of the pencil (Sp. *lápiz*)’

*ini lāpī*  
 insides pencil  
 ‘core of the pencil’

*tishin vihe*  
 stomach house  
 ‘inside the house’

*shāhah yōoh*  
 foot month  
 ‘beginning of the month’

*shāhah shīmānā*  
 foot week  
 ‘beginning of the week (Sp. *semana*)’

*tokōh shīmānā*  
 waist week  
 ‘middle of the week’

*shūnih shīmānā*  
 head week  
 ‘end of the week’

(See also 7.16, 7.27, and 7.29.)

A few locative nouns are extended to more abstract concepts and are translated into English by prepositions. These locative nouns are used conventionally to signal certain adjuncts.

*ndahāh ah*  
hand her  
'to her' or 'from her'

*nūuh pēgrū*  
face Peter  
'to Peter' or 'from Peter'

*nūuh rih*  
face its:AML  
'to it' or 'from it'

*shāhah ra*  
foot his  
'for him'

*shāhah nūnih*  
foot corn:kernel  
'about corn'

*kwētā te chūūnh*  
account his worklike  
'on behalf of (Sp. *cuenta*) the president'

### 3.6 Appositional Noun Phrases

Appositional noun phrases consist of two or more coreferential noun phrases in the same structural position joined without a conjunction. They occur in any noun-phrase position within the sentence.

*kuhva i / chikā*  
sister:ME my Fran  
'my sister, Fran (Sp. *Chica*)'

*ikwān / te meē*  
John he ?  
'John, the messenger'

*bētō* / *te chūūnh*  
 Bob he worklike  
 'Bob, the mayor'

*yashīnh* / *ñā ni nava*  
 gourd:bowl it:INAN COM fall:SG  
 'the gourd bowl, the thing that fell'

*mbūrū* / *tīh kani ra*  
 donkey it:AML POT:hit he  
 'the donkey, the one which he will strike'

Appositional noun phrases have several specific functions. The first of these is to express restrictive relative clauses modifying a noun head, as described in 3.1.3 above. The second function is to express the possessor of an animal. Because nouns referring to specific animals cannot occur as the nucleus of a possessive noun phrase, an appositional construction is used in which a possessive noun phrase with the inherently possessed noun *sāna* 'domestic animal' as its nucleus follows a basic noun phrase with the name of the specific animal as its nucleus.

*nāyah* / *sāna ra*  
 dog domestic:animal his  
 'his dog'

*kiūh* / *sāna nya*  
 animal domestic:animal their  
 'their animals'

The third specific function is to disambiguate constructions in which a deictic modifies the nucleus of a possessive noun phrase. The deictic cannot occur between the nucleus and the possessor, and it is often ambiguous in reference when it follows the possessor, as described in 3.3. In such appositional constructions the second noun phrase is separated from the first by a pause, and it consists of a prestressed pronoun agreeing in gender with the nucleus of the first noun phrase, followed by the deictic. This construction makes it clear that the deictic refers to the nucleus. Compare the following two phrases, the second of which is an appositional construction.

*īchi*        *bētō*    *kāah*  
 machete    Bob    that:far  
 'that machete of Bob's' or 'that Bob's machete'

*īchi*        *bētō*    /    *ñā*        *kāah*  
 machete    Bob        it:INAN    that:far  
 'that machete of Bob's'

### 3.7 Additive Noun Phrases

There are no simple additive noun phrases in Ayutla Mixtec. All sequences in which *shūnh* 'with' occurs between two noun phrases are best analyzed as a single noun phrase followed by an associative adjunct (see 1.1.4). There are, however, three special kinds of additive noun phrase used to express ownership. The first use identifies the owner with reference to a possessible item. It has the following structure: the owner is expressed by a prestressed pronoun, and this is followed by *shūnh* and a noun that refers to the possessible item.

*ñā*    *shūnh*    *ñuhūh*  
 she    with    earth  
 'she who owns land'

*te*    *shūnh*    *sīhe*  
 he    with    child  
 'he who has a child'

*tīh*    *shūnh*    *lēchīn*  
 it:AML with    milk  
 'the animal which has milk (Sp. *leche*)'

(See also 7.13.)

If a noun is used to refer to the owner, it precedes the above construction and is in apposition with it.

*marīā* /    *ñā*    *shūnh*    *ñuhūh*  
 Mary        she    with    earth  
 'the Mary who owns land'

*te yīvih / te shūnh sīhe*  
 he ? he with child  
 ‘the man who has a child’

*sindīkih / tīh shūnh lēchīn*  
 cow it:AML with milk  
 ‘the cow which has milk’

The second use is similar to the first in that it contains a prestressed pronoun referring to a possessor, followed by *shūnh* ‘with’ and a noun that refers to a possessible item. As in the above construction, a noun may precede the prestressed pronoun and be in apposition with the phrase. It differs from the first construction, however, in that the prestressed pronoun refers to a person who has either borrowed the item or usurped ownership of it in some way, i.e., it does not refer to the legitimate possessor. The legitimate possessor is expressed by a noun phrase at the end of the construction.

*ñā shūnh ñuhūh ra*  
 she with earth he  
 ‘the woman who owns his land’

*sūtu / te shūnh sāna mbūrū bētō*  
 priest he with domestic:animal donkey Bob  
 ‘the priest who owns Bob’s donkey’

*lālū / te shūnh sīhe ah*  
 Larry he with child she  
 ‘the Larry who fathered her child’

The third use reverses the polarity of the others because it identifies a possessible item with reference to its owner. It has the following structure: the possessible item is expressed by a prestressed pronoun, and this is followed by *shūnh* and a possessive noun phrase in which the nucleus also refers to the possessed item.

*ñā shūnh ñaha ah*  
 it:INAN with thing her  
 ‘it which she owns’

*tūnh shūnh ñaha bētō*  
 it:WOD with thing Bob  
 'it which Bob owns'

*te shūnh ñani ra*  
 he with brother:ME his  
 'he who is his brother'

As in the two constructions described above, if a noun is used to refer to the possessed item, it precedes the prestressed pronoun and is in apposition with the phrase.

*vihe / ña shūnh ñaha ah*  
 house it:INAN with thing her  
 'the house which she owns'

*tunshū / tūnh shūnh ñaha bētō*  
 rifle it:WOD with thing Bob  
 'the rifle which Bob owns'

*pēgrū / te shūnh ñani ra*  
 Peter he with brother:ME his  
 'the Peter who is his brother'

### 3.8 Distributive Noun Phrases

Distributive noun phrases are formed by repeating an entire noun phrase containing the limiter *ni* 'only' to indicate either spatial or temporal continuance. If the noun phrase contains only a noun nucleus, however, *ni* occurs only once, at the end.

*vihe kwālīh ni vihe kwālīh ni*  
 house small:PL LIM house small:PL LIM  
 'from little houses to little houses'

*vihe ni ra vihe ni ra*  
 house LIM his house LIM his  
 'again (and) again just his house'

*vihe vihe ni*  
 house house LIM  
 'from house to house'

*kwīya kwīya ni*  
 year year LIM  
 'from year to year'

*kīvih kāhnūh kīvih kāhnūh ni*  
 day important day important LIM  
 'from holiday to holiday'

### 3.9 Indefinite Noun Phrases

Indefinite noun phrases contain an interrogative word or phrase followed immediately by the additive *ka* 'more'. They are of two types. In the first type any of four interrogative words serves as the nucleus of the phrase. These phrases are:

*yoo ka*  
 who ADD  
 'whoever' or 'anyone'

*ama ka*  
 when ADD  
 'whenever' or 'at any time'

*mūh ka*  
 where ADD  
 'wherever' or 'anywhere'

*saa ka*  
 how ADD  
 'however' or 'in any way'

In the second type the interrogative word or phrase does not serve as the nucleus, and so a noun or pronoun must follow the *ka*. The nominal marker *ndēē* 'which?' falls into this type, and also the interrogative numeral phrase *saa tāhān* 'how many?' (see 4.1.9); *tāhān* follows the *ka*.

*ndēē ka shūtah*  
 which ADD tortilla  
 'whatever tortilla (Sp. *torilla*—a flat corn cake)'



*ndēē ka ñaha*  
 which ADD thing  
 ‘whatever thing’ or ‘anything’

*saa ka tāhān ra*  
 how ADD of:group:PL he  
 ‘however many of them’

Both types may include various modifiers, including relative clauses.

*yoo ka na ndūhuh ikānh*  
 who ADD HOPE CON:be:located:SG over:there  
 ‘(with interest) whoever lives there’

*yoo ka xān sachūūnh*  
 who ADD DOUBT POT:work  
 ‘(with doubt) whoever may work’

*yoo ka ndūūh ne ni ndyee ñuu*  
 who ADD CON:be:equal they COM COM:be:located:PL town  
 ‘whoever are those who live in the town’

*ndēē ka ña kūnī unh*  
 which ADD it:INAN CON:want you:SG  
 ‘whatever you want’

*ama ka xān kūhun ra*  
 when ADD DOUBT POT:go he  
 ‘(with doubt) whenever he may go’

*ama ka na kūnī unh*  
 when ADD HOPE POT:want you:SG  
 ‘(with interest) whenever you like’

*mūh ka ni shīka rih*  
 where ADD COM COM:walk it:AML  
 ‘wherever it lived’

*saa ka kāāh a*  
 how ADD CON:appear:SG it:INAN  
 ‘however it looks’

*saa ka kāhán nīmá unh*  
 how ADD CON:speak:SG heart you:SG  
 'however you desire (Sp. *ánima*)'

*saa ka tāhān te kāah*  
 how ADD of:group:PL he that:far  
 'however many of those men'

*saa ka tāhān ña nāá tishin kaa*  
 how ADD of:group:PL it:INAN CON:be:inside:SG stomach metal  
 'however many that may be inside the tin'

## 4

# Other Phrases

### 4.1 Quantifier Phrases

**4.1.1 Additive numeral phrases.** There are two kinds of additive numeral phrases: simple phrases and those with *kanūh* 'to be upon (singular)'. In both kinds the larger numeral always occurs first.

In simple additive numeral phrases simple numerals combine to form the numerals eleven through fourteen, sixteen through nineteen, twenty-one through thirty, thirty-five, and certain combinations involving hundred and thousand. The order of these numerals is fixed, and they form a close-knit unit.

*ūshi iin*  
ten one  
'eleven'

*ūshi kumīh*  
ten four  
'fourteen'

*shāhun ūni*  
fifteen three  
'eighteen'

*ōko shāhun*  
twenty fifteen  
'thirty-five'

*syēntō*      *ōko*  
 hundred    twenty  
 ‘one hundred (Sp. *ciento*) twenty’

Additive numeral phrases may contain more than two elements to form the numerals thirty-one through thirty-four, thirty-six through thirty-nine, and other larger numerals.

*ōko*      *ūshi* *ūn*  
 twenty    ten    one  
 ‘thirty-one’

*ōko*      *shāhun*    *kumīh*  
 twenty    fifteen    four  
 ‘thirty-nine’

*syēntō*      *ōko*      *shāhun*    *ūvi*  
 hundred    twenty    fifteen    two  
 ‘one hundred thirty-seven’

Additive numeral phrases with the position verb *kanūh* ‘to be upon (singular)’, which is used in this construction to mean ‘to be in addition to’, are used to relate numerals of less than one thousand to those that are greater. *kanūh* together with the numeral that follows it forms a relative clause modifying the numeral that precedes. (This pattern is also used for fractions; see 3.2 and 4.1.4.)

*mū*      *kānūh*      *ōko*  
 thousand    CON:be:upon:SG    twenty  
 ‘one thousand (Sp. *mil*) twenty’

*mū*      *kānūh*      *syēntō*  
 thousand    CON:be:upon:SG    hundred  
 ‘one thousand one hundred’

Additive phrases without the connector may combine with additive phrases with the connector.

*mū*      *kānūh*      *ōko*    *shāhun*    *ūni*  
 thousand    CON:be:upon:SG    twenty    fifteen    three  
 ‘one thousand thirty-eight’

**4.1.2 Attributive numeral phrases.** Multiples of twenty, one hundred, and one thousand are expressed by attributive numeral phrases, which have two parts in a quantifier-nucleus relationship. The larger numeral occurs second. A suppletive form of twenty, *shiko*, is used as the nucleus of attributive numeral phrases.

*ūvi shiko*  
two twenty  
'forty'

*ūni shiko*  
three twenty  
'sixty'

*kumīh shiko*  
four twenty  
'eighty'

*ūsha syēntō*  
seven hundred  
'seven hundred'

*ūvi mī*  
two thousand  
'two thousand'

Attributive numeral phrases combine with additive numeral phrases to form all the remaining nonsimple numerals.

*ūvi shiko shāhun ün*  
two twenty fifteen one  
'fifty-six'

*kumīh mī kārūh ūni syēntō*  
four thousand CON:be:upon:SG three hundred  
'four thousand three hundred and'

*ūni shiko shāhun ūvi*  
three twenty fifteen two  
'seventy-seven'

**4.1.3 Aggregative numeral phrases.** A numeral or numeral phrase and a numerical marker that functions as a numeral classifier combine to form aggregative numeral phrases. The numerical markers are *ndaah* ‘of group (singular)’, which immediately follows the numeral *iin* ‘one’; and *tāhān* ‘of group (plural)’ or *saāh* ‘all of group’, one of which immediately follows a numeral greater than one. Numerical markers define the numeral which they follow as an aggregate or member of a set of items, and this phrase type is the usual way to express an exact number in a noun phrase. It does not occur, however, when counting in a series (except before the last item), when referring to a quantity of money (pesos) or a linear measure,<sup>1</sup> or when the numerals one and two are used to mean ‘a’ and ‘a few’ (see 3.1.2). In the following examples an entire noun phrase is given with the parts outside the numeral phrase enclosed in parentheses.

*iin ndaah (nāyah)*  
 one of:group:SG (dog)  
 ‘one (dog) of a group’

*ūvi tāhān (vihe)*  
 two of:group:PL (house)  
 ‘two (houses) of a group’

*īn saāh (tēi)*  
 nine all:of:group (chair)  
 ‘all nine (chairs) of a group’

(See also 7.10 and 7.37.)

---

<sup>1</sup>The following examples illustrate various contexts where numerical markers do not occur.

*iin / ūvi / ūni / . . . ūshi / ūshi iin tāhān (tēi)*  
 one two three . . . ten ten one of:group:PL (chair)  
 ‘one, two, three, . . . ten, eleven (chairs)’

*ūsha (pēsū)*  
 seven (peso)  
 ‘seven (pesos [Sp.]’

*shāhun iin (ndahāh)*  
 fifteen one (hand)  
 ‘sixteen (fathoms)’

**4.1.4 Expanded numeral phrases.** An aggregative numeral phrase serves as the nucleus of expanded numeral phrases. These phrases also include two optional prenuclear elements and four optional postnuclear elements.

The prenuclear elements, ordered from the nucleus, consist of specifier, expressed by the general markers *inga* ‘another (of same kind)’ and *tuku* ‘again’, used in quantifier phrases to mean ‘another (of different kind)’, and reality, expressed by the general adverb *yāit̃nh* ‘nearly’, the general marker *tēeh* ‘probably’, and an idiom, *sava ni* ‘exactly’.

*inga*        *ūvi* *syēntō*    *tāhān*        (*sindīkih*)  
 other:same two hundred of:group:PL (cattle)  
 ‘another two hundred (cattle)’

*tuku* *ūni*        *tāhān*        (*vihe*)  
 REP three of:group:PL (house)  
 ‘another three (houses)’

*yāit̃nh* *ōko*        *tāhān*        (*tēi*)  
 nearly twenty of:group:PL (chair)  
 ‘nearly twenty (chairs)’

*tēeh*        *ūhun* *syēntō*    *tāhān*        (*niih*)  
 probably five hundred of:group:PL (corn:ear)  
 ‘probably five hundred (ears of corn)’

*sava ni*    *kumīh* *shiko*    *shāhun*    *ūni*        (*niih*)  
 half LIM four twenty fifteen three (corn:ear)  
 ‘exactly ninety-eight (ears of corn)’

Prenuclear elements may cooccur in any combination except that *sava ni* ‘exactly’ does not occur with the specifier.

*yāit̃nh* *inga*        *ūvi* *syēntō*    *tāhān*        (*sindīkih*)  
 nearly other:same two hundred of:group:PL (cattle)  
 ‘nearly another two hundred (cattle)’

*tēeh*        *inga*        *ōko*        *tāhān*        (*chītya*)  
 probably other:same twenty of:group:PL (banana)  
 ‘probably another twenty (bananas)’

The four postnuclear elements are: deprecative, limiter, repetitive, and fraction. Many of the items that express these postnuclear elements are general markers which also occur as postnuclear elements in the verb phrase and the basic noun phrase (see 2.1.3 and 3.1.3).

The deprecative is expressed by the general marker *soho* ‘only (lack)’, and by the numerical marker *tīluh* ‘only (final)’.

*iin ndaah soho (sīhe i)*  
 one of:group:SG only:lack (child my)  
 ‘(my) one only living (child)’

*iin ndaah tīluh (sīhe i)*  
 one of:group:SG only:final (child my)  
 ‘resigned to (my) one and only (child)’

The limiter is expressed by the general markers *kwitih* ‘just’, the additive *ka* ‘more’, *vih* ‘excessive’, the limiter *ni* ‘only’, *na* ‘hope’, and *xān* ‘doubt’.

*ūshi tāhān kwitih (kiūh)*  
 ten of:group:PL just (animal)  
 ‘just ten (animals)’

*ūvi tāhān ka (sindīkih)*  
 two of:group:PL ADD (cattle)  
 ‘two more (cattle)’

*ūvi shiko tāhān vih (nduyu)*  
 two twenty of:group:PL excessive (post)  
 ‘an excessive quantity of forty (posts)’

*ūnya tāhān ni (tichīh)*  
 eight of:group:PL LIM (avocado)  
 ‘enough with just eight (avocados)’

*īñu tāhān na (te tātú)*  
 six of:group:PL HOPE (he hired)  
 ‘a desired number of six (hired men)’

*ūvi shiko ūshi tāhān xān (ndushīh)*  
 two twenty ten of:group:PL DOUBT (hen)  
 ‘a doubtful number of fifty (hens)’



More than one of these markers can occur in a single phrase. *kwitih* usually occurs first, followed by *ka*, *vih*, *ni*, and *na* or *xān*.

*ūshi tāhān kwitih ka xān (kītīh)*  
 ten of:group:PL just ADD DOUBT (animal)  
 'a doubtful number of just ten more (animals)'

*iin ndaah kwitih ni na (te tātú)*  
 one of:group:SG just LIM HOPE (he hired)  
 'resignedly expecting only just one (hired man)'

*ōko tāhān ka vih na (kītīh)*  
 twenty of:group:PL ADD excessive HOPE (animal)  
 'an expected excessive number of twenty more (animals)'

The third postnuclear element, repetitive, is expressed by the general markers *tuku* 'again' and *tu* 'also'. *tuku* refers to a quantity that is repeated with reference to the same item, and *tu* refers to a quantity that is repeated with reference to different items.

*kumīh tāhān tuku (nīih)*  
 four of:group:PL REP (corn:ear)  
 'four (corn ears) again'

*kumīh tāhān tu (tichīh)*  
 four of:group:PL also (avocado)  
 'also four (avocados)'

The fourth postnuclear element, fraction, is expressed by a limited set of relative clauses that follow the nucleus of the noun phrase; when fraction occurs, the quantifier phrase is discontinuous. One kind of relative clause contains the position verb *yōsoh* 'to be mounted on', usually followed by the general quantifier *sava* 'half'. The other kind of relative clause contains the position verb *kanūh* 'to be upon (singular)' usually followed by the idiom *iin tāhvīh sava* 'one half'. (A similar construction occurs to express fraction in measurement noun phrases; see 3.2.)

*iin ndaah (shūtah) yōsoh sava*  
 one of:group:SG (tortilla) CON:be:mounted:on half  
 'one and a half (tortillas)'

*ūvi tāhān (shītah) kānūh iin tāhvīh sava*  
 two of:group:PL (tortilla) CON:be:upon:SG one portion half  
 'two (tortillas) and a half'

Restrictions of occurrence between postnuclear elements are as follows: the limiter *ni* 'only' does not occur with deprecativ unless *kwitih* 'just' intervenes, and fraction does not occur with *tīluh* 'only (final)'.

*ūni tāhān soho xān tuku (shītah)*  
 three of:group:PL only:lack DOUBT REP (tortilla)  
 'again a discouraging doubtful number of three (tortillas)'

*ūvi shiko tāhān vih na tu (nduyu)*  
 two twenty of:group:PL excessive HOPE also (post)  
 'also an expected excessive number of forty (posts)'

*ūnya tāhān ka ni xān tu (tichīh)*  
 eight of:group:PL ADD LIM DOUBT also (avocado)  
 'also just enough of a doubtful number of eight more (avocados)'

*iin ndaah tīluh kwitih ni na (te tātú)*  
 one of:group:SG only:final just LIM HOPE (he hired)  
 'resignedly expecting only just just one (hired man)'

*ūni tāhān soho kwitih ka (shītah)*  
 three of:group:PL only:lack just ADD (tortilla)  
 'only just a discouraging number of three and a half'

*yōsoh sava*  
 CON:be:mounted:on half  
 more (tortillas)'

*ōko tāhān ka xān (chīya) kānūh*  
 twenty of:group:PL ADD DOUBT (banana) CON:be:upon:SG  
 'a doubtful number of twenty and'

*iin tāhvīh sava*  
 one portion half  
 a half (bananas)'

Restrictions of occurrence between prenuclear and postnuclear elements are as follows: *tēh* 'probably' does not occur with *vih* 'excessive' or *xān*

'doubt'; *yātīnh* 'nearly' does not occur with *soho* 'only (lack)', *tīluh* 'only (final)', *kwitīh* 'just', or *ni* 'only'; *inga* 'another (of same kind)' does not occur with *tu* 'also'; and *sava ni* 'exactly' does not occur with *xān* 'doubt'.

*inga ūvi syēntō tāhān kwitīh na (sindīkih)*  
 other:same two hundred of:group:PL just HOPE (cattle)  
 'just another expected number of two hundred (cattle)'

*tuku ūni tāhān ka ni (vihe)*  
 REP three of:group:PL ADD LIM (house)  
 'just enough of another number of three more (houses)'

*inga ūsha tāhān vih (chūya)*  
 other:same seven of:group:PL excessive (banana)  
 'another excessive number of seven and

*kānūh iin tāhvīh sava*  
 CON:be:upon:SG one portion half  
 a half (bananas)'

*tuku ūni tāhān tīluh xān*  
 REP three of:group:PL only:final DOUBT  
 'resigned to another doubtful number of three

*(te tātú)*  
 (he hired)  
 (hired men)'

*tēeh ūhun syēntō tāhān tu (niih)*  
 probably five hundred of:group:PL also (corn:ear)  
 'probably also five hundred (ears of corn)'

*yātīnh ūnya tāhān soho tuku (nduyu)*  
 nearly eight of:group:PL only:lack REP (post)  
 'again nearly a discouraging number of only eight (posts)'

*sava ni shāhun ūni tāhān ka (shūtah)*  
 half LIM fifteen three of:group:PL ADD (tortilla)  
 'exactly eighteen and a half

*kānūh*            *iin*    *tāhvīh*    *sava*  
 con:be:upon:sg    one    portion    half  
 more (tortillas)'

**4.1.5 General quantifier phrases.** Approximate quantities may be expressed by general quantifier phrases, which are similar in structure to expanded numeral phrases. They consist of a nucleus, which is expressed by a general quantifier or by the numeral *ūvi* 'two', used in this construction to mean 'a few'; two optional prenuclear elements; and three optional postnuclear elements.

The prenuclear element nearer to the nucleus is expressed by the general markers *inga* 'another (of same kind)', *tuku* 'again', meaning 'another (of different kind)', and the specifier *miīh* 'self'. The position immediately preceding this is expressed by the general adverb *yātīnh* 'nearly'; the general marker *tēeh* 'probably'. *yātīnh* 'nearly' occurs only when the nucleus is expressed by *kwāhah* 'much' or 'many' or by *sakūūh* 'all'.

*inga*            *kwāhah*    (*ishānh*)  
 other:same    much        (corn:dough)  
 'another quantity of much (dough)'

*tuku*    *ndyāhvīh*    (*niīh*)  
 REP    few        (corn:ear)  
 'a few other (ears of corn)'

*yātīnh*    *sakūūh*    (*te*    *tātú*)  
 nearly    all        (he    hired)  
 'nearly all (the hired men)'

*tēeh*            *nūh*        (*nduvīh*)  
 probably    whole    (daytime)  
 'probably (the) whole (day)'

*tēeh*        *inga*            *kwāhah*    (*chītya*)  
 probably    other:same    many        (banana)  
 'probably many other (bananas)'

(See also 7.3.)

The postnuclear elements are: manner, limiter, and repetitive. Manner is expressed only by the intensifying adverbs *ndivaha* 'inappropriately', *yāha*

'surpassing', and *shavaha* 'amazingly'. These words increase the quantity referred to by *kwāhah* 'much' or 'many' but decrease the quantity referred to by many other general quantifiers. They do not occur with the general quantifier *sakūūh* 'all'.

*kwāhah ndivaha* (*shahan*)  
 much inappropriate (oil)  
 'inappropriately much (oil)'

*ūvi yāha* (*te tātú*)  
 two surpassing (he hired)  
 'exceedingly few (hired men)'

*sē shavaha* (*ishānh*)  
 little amazing (tortilla:dough)  
 'amazingly little (dough)'

Intensifying adverbs occur together in various combinations to heighten the intensification.

*kwāhah ndivaha yāha* (*shahan*)  
 much inappropriate surpassing (oil)  
 'exceedingly inappropriately much (oil)'

*ūvi yāha shavaha* (*te tātú*)  
 two surpassing amazing (he hired)  
 'amazingly exceedingly few (hired men)'

*sē shavaha yāha* (*ishānh*)  
 little amazing surpassing (tortilla:dough)  
 'exceedingly amazingly little (dough)'

The limiter is expressed by the same general markers which occur as postnuclear elements in the expanded numeral phrase, plus the intensifier *va* 'very'. They are: *kwitih* 'just', *ka* 'more', *va* 'very', *vih* 'excessive', *ni* 'only', *na* 'hope', and *xān* 'doubt'. *kwitih* and *ni* do not occur with the general quantifier *kwāhah* 'much' or 'many'; *vih* does not occur with the general quantifier *sē* 'little' or with *ūvi* 'two' or 'a few'; and *vih* is the only postnuclear element that occurs with the general quantifier *sakūūh* 'all'.

*sīē kwitih (shahan)*  
 little just (oil)  
 'just a little (oil)'

*sīē ka (nūnih)*  
 little ADD (corn:kernel)  
 'a little more (corn)'

*ndyāhvīh va (ndīvih)*  
 several INTS (egg)  
 'less than several (eggs)'

*sava vih (ishānh)*  
 half excessive (tortilla:dough)  
 'an excessive amount of about half (the dough)'

*sava ni (nduyu)*  
 half LIM (post)  
 'just enough of about half (the posts)'

*ūvi na (chūya)*  
 two HOPE (banana)  
 'an expected few (bananas)'

*kwāhah xān (ūinh)*  
 much DOUBT (salt)  
 'a doubtful quantity of much (salt)'

Sometimes more than one limiter occurs in a single phrase.

*sīē kwūih ni ka (shahan)*  
 little just LIM ADD (oil)  
 'only just enough more (oil)'

The repetitive is expressed by *tuku* 'again' and *tu* 'also'.

*kwāhah tuku (te tātú)*  
 many REP (he hired)  
 'again a large number (of hired men)'

*sava tu (nduchih)*  
 half also (bean)  
 'also a quantity of about half (the beans)'

The following examples show various combinations of postnuclear elements.

*sava vih xān tu (ishānh)*  
 half excessive DOUBT also (tortilla:dough)  
 'also a doubtful excessive quantity of about half (the dough)'

*kwāhah yāha shavaha va (te tātú)*  
 many surpassing amazing INTS (he hired)  
 'a very amazing surpassing number of many (hired men)'

*ūvi kwitih na tuku (chītya)*  
 few just HOPE REP (banana)  
 'again an expected quantity of just a few (bananas)'

(See also 7.33.)

**4.1.6 Distributive numeral phrases.** A repeated simple numeral or aggregative numeral phrase followed by the limiter *ni* constitutes a distributive numeral phrase. There are no prenuclear elements or other postnuclear elements. These phrases indicate the size of a group. (Note the similarity between this construction and the distributive noun phrase, described in 3.8.)

*ūvi ūvi ni*  
 two two LIM  
 'two by two'

*kumih kumih ni*  
 four four LIM  
 'four by four'

*ōko ōko ni*  
 twenty twenty LIM  
 'twenty by twenty'

*iin ndaah*      *iin ndaah*      *ni*  
 one of:group:SG    one of:group:SG    LIM  
 ‘one by one’

*ūvi tāhān*      *ūvi tāhān*      *ni*  
 two of:group:PL    two of:group:PL    LIM  
 ‘two by two’

*kumih tāhān*      *kumih tāhān*      *ni*  
 four of:group:PL    four of:group:PL    LIM  
 ‘four by four’

*ōko tāhān*      *ōko tāhān*      *ni*  
 twenty of:group:PL    twenty of:group:PL    LIM  
 ‘twenty by twenty’

The following phrase appears to be a reduced form of *iin iin ni*.

*ihin*      *ni*  
 one:one    LIM  
 ‘each’

**4.1.7 Alternative numeral phrases.** Two simple numerals, with the numeral of lower value occurring first, combine to form alternative numeral phrases. The construction expresses an approximation and occurs only in the three examples listed below.

*iin ūvi*  
 one two  
 ‘one or two’ (one to four)

*ūni kumih*  
 three four  
 ‘three or four’ (two to six)

*ūsha ūnya*  
 seven eight  
 ‘seven or eight’ (five to ten)

**4.1.8 Emphatic numeral phrases.** A repeated aggregative numeral phrase constitutes an emphatic numeral phrase. There are no prenuclear or postnuclear elements. These phrases emphasize the numeral. (Note



the similarity between this construction and the continuous verb phrase, described in 2.4.)

*iin ndaah*            *iin ndaah*            (*te tātú*)  
 one of:group:SG    one of:group:SG    (he hired)  
 ‘one (hired man)’

*ūshi tāhān*            *ūshi tāhān*            (*nduyu*)  
 ten of:group:PL    ten of:group:PL    (post)  
 ‘ten (posts)’

*shāhun ūni tāhān*            *shāhun ūni tāhān*            (*rih*)  
 fifteen three of:group:PL    fifteen three of:group:PL (it:AML)  
 ‘eighteen (animals)’

*ūvi shiko shāhun ūvi tāhān*            *ūvi shiko shāhun ūvi*  
 two twenty fifteen two of:group:PL two twenty fifteen two  
 ‘fifty-seven (ears

*tāhān*            (*nüh*)  
 of:group:PL    (corn:ear)  
 of corn)’

**4.1.9 Interrogative numeral phrases.** The interrogative adverb *saa* ‘how?’ followed by the numerical marker *tāhān* ‘of group (plural)’ serves as the nucleus of interrogative numeral phrases. These phrases have one optional prenuclear element and two optional postnuclear elements. The prenuclear element, reality, is expressed by the general adverb *yāīnh* ‘nearly’. The postnuclear elements are limiter, expressed by *kwitih* ‘just’, *ka* ‘more’, *vih* ‘excessive’, *ni* ‘only’, and *na* ‘hope’; and repetitive, expressed by *tuku* ‘again’ and *tu* ‘also’. Interrogative numeral phrases occur in interrogative noun phrases (see 3.4).

*saa tāhān*            (*sindīkih*)  
 how of:group:PL    (cattle)  
 ‘how many (cattle)?’

*yāīnh saa tāhān*            (*tēi*)  
 nearly how of:group:PL    (chair)  
 ‘nearly how many (chairs)?’

*saa tāhān kwitih (kiīh)*  
 how of:group:PL just (animal)  
 ‘just how many (animals)?’

*saa tāhān vih (nduyu)*  
 how of:group:PL excessive (post)  
 ‘how many excessive (posts)?’

*saa tāhān ka (nūih)*  
 how of:group:PL ADD (corn:ear)  
 ‘how many more (ears of corn)?’

*saa tāhān ni (tichīh)*  
 how of:group:PL LIM (avocado)  
 ‘just enough of how many (avocados)?’

*saa tāhān na (te tātū)*  
 how of:group:PL HOPE (he hired)  
 ‘how many expected (hired men)?’

*saa tāhān tuku (chīya)*  
 how of:group:PL REP (banana)  
 ‘how many (bananas) again?’

*saa tāhān tu (nāyah)*  
 how of:group:PL also (dog)  
 ‘how many (dogs) also?’

## 4.2 Adverb Phrases

**4.2.1 Basic adverb phrases.** A nucleus, an optional prenuclear element, and six optional postnuclear elements combine to form basic adverb phrases. The nucleus is expressed by a locative, temporal, or general adverb. The prenuclear element is reality, expressed by the general adverb *yāīnh* ‘nearly’, which occurs only with locative adverbs. The postnuclear elements are manner, expressed by the intensifying adverbs *ndivaha* ‘inappropriate’, *yāha* ‘surpassing’, or *shavaha* ‘amazing’; limiter, expressed by the general markers *kwitih* ‘just’, *ka* ‘more’, *va* ‘very’, *vih* ‘excessive’, *ni* ‘only’, *na* ‘hope’, and *xān* ‘doubt’; and repetitive, expressed by the general markers *tuku* ‘again’, and *tu* ‘also’. Other cooccurrence restrictions between specific nuclei and prenuclear and postnuclear elements are beyond the scope of this paper.

With locative adverbs:

*shīkāh shavaha vih*  
 far amazing excessive  
 ‘an amazing distance excessively far away’

*yātīnh ikānh na tu*  
 nearly over:there HOPE also  
 ‘also near by an expected point over there’

*nīnu kwitih ka*  
 upwards just ADD  
 ‘just more upwards’

*nīnu ni xān*  
 downwards LIM DOUBT  
 ‘maybe only downwards’

With temporal adverbs:

*vitin kwitih ka*  
 now just ADD  
 ‘right now still’

*iku xān tu*  
 yesterday DOUBT also  
 ‘also maybe yesterday’

*nūnūh ni na tuku*  
 later:today LIM HOPE REP  
 ‘again an expected time just later on today’

*mityūhūnh vih xān tu*  
 little:while:ago excessive DOUBT also  
 ‘also maybe excessive time of a little while ago’

With general adverbs:

*yāchi ka ni tuku*  
 quickly ADD LIM REP  
 ‘just more quickly again’

*sakānh ni tuku*  
 thus LIM REP  
 ‘again only like that’

(See also 7.10 and 7.38.)

**4.2.2 Appositional adverb phrases.** Any two of the following structures may be juxtaposed to form appositional adverb phrases: adverbs, adverb phrases, adverbial noun phrases, or prepositional phrases.

*yātīnh ikānh kwitih tu / nīnu*  
 nearly over:there just- also downwards  
 ‘also just over there nearby, below’

*mīyūhūnh yāha ni / shakwāah*  
 little:while:ago surpassing LIM afternoon  
 ‘just a prolonged little while ago, this afternoon’

*ndyakānh va xān / shāhah ikūh*  
 away:over:there INTS DOUBT foot mountain  
 ‘maybe very far over there, at the foot of the mountain’

*īsā na / shāhah shīmānā*  
 day:after:tomorrow HOPE foot week  
 ‘hopefully the day after tomorrow, the beginning of the week (Sp. *semana*)’

*nīnu ka ni / mahih űuu*  
 downwards ADD LIM in:middle:of town  
 ‘just more downwards, in the middle of the town’

*ikuűuu vih tuku / mahih shīmānā*  
 day:before:yesterday excessive REP in:middle:of week  
 ‘again excessively the day before yesterday, the middle of the week’

**4.2.3 Additive adverb phrases.** There are two ways to form additive adverb phrases. In the first way, which is relatively uncommon, two noncoreferential adverbs, short adverb phrases, or adverbial noun phrases are simply juxtaposed.

*nduvīh niñu*  
 daytime nighttime  
 ‘all day and all night’

In the second way, the two conjuncts, which are often antonyms, are linked by the preposition *shūnh* ‘with’.

*vitin shūnh tyāan*  
 today with tomorrow  
 ‘today and tomorrow’

*tyāan shūnh isā*  
 tomorrow with day:after:tomorrow  
 ‘tomorrow and the day after’

*nīnu shūnh nīnu*  
 downwards with upwards  
 ‘downwards and upwards’

*yōhōh shūnh ikānh*  
 here with over:there  
 ‘here and there’

The last example in the block above refers to only two locations; it contrasts with *yōkānh*, which is a fusion of *yōhōh* ‘here’ and *ikānh* ‘over there’, and refers to several scattered locations. This fused phrase appears to be another example of the subtype with no linking element.

Additive adverb phrases with *shūnh* look very much like a combination that includes an associative adjunct (see 1.1.4). They differ, however, in that they contain adverbs, rather than noun phrases, and in that they contain conventionally paired elements, both of which seem to be equally prominent.

**4.2.4 Repetitive adverb phrases.** There are two kinds of repetitive adverb phrases. The first kind consists of the simple repetition of the adverb without any pause, followed by the limiter *ni* ‘only’; it intensifies the meaning.

*yatin yatin ni*  
 near near LIM  
 ‘very near’

*vitin vitin ni*  
 now now LIM  
 'right now'

*chīto chīto ni*  
 close close LIM  
 'very close'

The second kind consists of the repetition of a short basic adverb phrase, separated by a pause; it emphasizes the meaning. Each adverb phrase permits at most one prenuclear and one postnuclear modifier.

*ninu / ninu*  
 upwards upwards  
 'upwards'

*yātīnh ikānh / yātīnh ikānh*  
 nearly over:there nearly over:there  
 'near by over there'

*vitin na / vitin na*  
 NOW HOPE NOW HOPE  
 'now, hopefully'

*sakānh ni / sakānh ni*  
 thus LIM thus LIM  
 'just like that'

Note the similarity among repetitive adverb phrases, continuous verb phrases (see 2.4), and emphatic numeral phrases (see 4.1.8).

**4.2.5 Distributive adverb phrases.** The repetition of a temporal adverb, followed by the limiter *ni* 'only', constitutes a distributive adverb phrase. These phrases indicate temporal continuance. Only one example has been found to date.

*tyāan tyāan ni*  
 tomorrow tomorrow LIM  
 'from day to day'

Note the similarity in form and meaning among distributive adverb phrases, distributive noun phrases (see 3.8), and distributive numeral

phrases (see 4.1.6). Note also that the distributive adverb phrase has the same form as one kind of repetitive adverb phrase, but differs from it in structural meaning. The two constructions can be distinguished by the kinds of adverbs that occur in each: the adverbs that occur in repetitive adverb phrases are more akin to stative verbs, and *tyāan* 'tomorrow', which occurs in distributive adverb phrases, is more akin to nouns.

**4.2.6 Interval adverb phrases.** An adverbial noun phrase containing a quantifier expressing a period of time, followed by either *vitin* 'now' or 'today' or *tyāan* 'tomorrow', constitutes an interval adverb phrase. The phrase signals a future time counting from the day of the speech act or the next day. These phrases usually occur in focus position in the sentence, and they are followed by *te* 'and' (see 1.1.8).

*iin shīmānā vitin (te)*  
 one week now (and)  
 'a week from now'

*iin shīmānā tyāan (te)*  
 one week tomorrow (and)  
 'a week from tomorrow'

*shāhun kīvih vitin (te)*  
 fifteen day now (and)  
 'fifteen days from now'

*shāhun kīvih tyāan (te)*  
 fifteen day tomorrow (and)  
 'fifteen days from tomorrow'

### 4.3 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases consist of an optional prenuclear element, expressed by the general marker *tēeh* 'probably', and a preposition followed by its object. The object is expressed by a noun phrase, by an adverb or adverb phrase, or occasionally by a prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases occur mainly as adjuncts and as peripheral elements. The set of prepositions is small because prepositional function is carried largely by locative nouns (see 5.3.2 and 3.5). There are five simple prepositions: *shūnh* 'with', *māhīh* 'in the middle of' or 'in the center of', *tein* 'between' or 'among', *ndēē* 'until (end)', and *ndee* '(from) until'.

With noun phrase as object:

*shūnh nāmah*  
with soap  
'with soap'

*shūnh sūtu ra*  
with priest his  
'with his priest'

*tēh shūnh nāmah*  
probably with soap  
'maybe with soap'

*mahīh ñuu*  
in:middle:of town  
'in the center of town'

*tēh mahīh shīmānā*  
probably in:middle:of week  
'maybe in the middle of the week'

*tein vihe*  
between house  
'between the houses'

*ndēē ūhun tāhān rih*  
until:end five of:group:PL it:AML  
'until the last five animals'

*tēh ndēē yuhūh itya*  
probably until:end mouth river  
'maybe terminating at the edge of the river'

*ndee yuhūh itya*  
from:until mouth river  
'until the edge of the river' or 'from the edge of the river'

*ndee tuku sava arō*  
from:until REP half rice  
'even to another half (of the rice [Sp. arroz])' or 'even from another half (of the rice)'



(See also 7.3, 7.5, 7.8, 7.10, 7.14, 7.18, 7.19, 7.22, 7.23, 7.24, 7.27, 7.30, and 7.32.)

With adverb or adverb phrase as object:

*shūnh nūnūh*  
with later:today  
'along with later on today'

*shūnh shīkāh*  
with far  
'along with far away'

*ndēē yatin*  
until:end near  
'until ending nearby'

*ndēē vitin*  
until:end now  
'up to, and ending now'

*ndee shīkāh*  
from:until far  
'even to far away' or 'even from far away'

*ndee iku*  
from:until yesterday  
'even to yesterday' or 'even from yesterday'

*tēeh ndēē yatin ni*  
probably until:end near LIM  
'maybe until ending just nearby'

*ndee iku xān tu*  
from:until yesterday DOUBT also  
'also maybe even to yesterday' or 'also maybe even from yesterday'

With prepositional phrase as object:

*tēeh shūnh tein itu*  
probably with between corn:plant  
'maybe along with among the corn stocks'

*shūnh mahīh shīmānā*  
 with in:middle:of week  
 ‘along with the middle of the week’

*tēh mahīh tein ne yīvih*  
 probably in:middle:of between them ?  
 ‘maybe in the middle among the people’

*ndēē mahīh itya*  
 until:end in:middle:of river  
 ‘up to, and terminating at the middle of the river’

*ndee tein vihe*  
 from:until between house  
 ‘from between the houses’ *or* ‘until between the houses’

*ndee mahīh tein itu*  
 from:until in:middle:of between corn:plant  
 ‘from in the middle among the corn stocks’ *or* ‘until in the middle  
 among the corn stocks’

Prepositional phrases, except those containing *shūnh* ‘with’, may be repeated like repetitive adverb phrases (see 4.2.4). They either have no pause and end with the limiter *ni* ‘only’, or they have a pause between the two instances.

*mahīh itu mahīh itu ni*  
 in:middle:of corn:plant in:middle:of corn:plant LIM  
 ‘in the very middle of the corn field’

*mahīh shīmānā / mahīh shīmānā*  
 in:middle:of week in:middle:of week  
 ‘in the middle of the week’

*tein ne yīvih tein ne yīvih ni*  
 between them ? between them ? LIM  
 ‘precisely among the people’

*tein vihe kāah / tein vihe kāah*  
 between house that:far between house that:far  
 ‘between those houses’

*ndēē yuhūh itya ndēē yuhūh itya ni*  
 until:end mouth river until:end mouth river LIM  
 ‘up to the very edge of the river’

*ndēē vitin / ndēē vitin*  
 until:end now until:end now  
 ‘up to and terminating now’

*ndee mityūhūnh / ndee mityūhūnh*  
 from:until little:while:ago from:until little:while:ago  
 ‘even to a little while ago’ or ‘even from a little while ago’

Phrases containing *ndēē* ‘until (end)’ and *ndee* ‘(from) until’ show a broader distribution than phrases containing the other prepositions. For example, they frequently occur in subjects and objects, whereas phrases containing the others occur almost exclusively in adjunct and peripheral elements. Also, *ndēē* and *ndee* are more likely to have an adverb or prepositional phrase as object than the others. The broader distribution of these two prepositions probably results from the fact that they are used to mean ‘even’ as well as ‘until’, and when they have the meaning ‘even’, they are similar in function to specifiers (see 3.1.2).

There is also a complex preposition *nii ndee* ‘not even’ (Sp. *ni* ‘nor’), which occurs only in prepositional phrases which are in focus position in the sentence (see 1.1.8). The verb phrase of the sentence must contain the negative marker (see 2.1.2 and 5.9).

*nii ndee bētō (kīshī)*  
 nor from:until Bob (NEG:CON:sleep)  
 ‘EVEN BOB (is not sleeping).’

*nii ndee iin ndaah yahāh (nī satāh ra)*  
 nor from:until one of:group:SG chili (NEG:COM buy he)  
 ‘(He didn’t buy) EVEN ONE CHILI.’

*nii ndee ndahāh bēto (kīhīnh ra a)*  
 nor from:until hand Bob (NEG:POT:get he it:INAN)  
 ‘(He will not get it) FROM EVEN BOB.’

*nii ndee shāhah ña sīē (ndātuhūnh ra)*  
 nor from:until foot its:INAN little (NEG:POT:chat he)  
 ‘(He will not chat) EVEN ABOUT SOMETHING UNIMPORTANT.’

*nii ndee te meē (ndūūh ra)*  
 nor from:until he ? (NEG:CON:be:equal he)  
 '(He isn't) EVEN A MESSENGER.'

When a quantifier occurs in the noun phrase, *ndee* alone, rather than *nii ndee*, is sometimes used to mean 'not even'.

*ndee iin ndaah te tātú*  
 from:until one of:group:SG him hired  
 'not even one hired man'

The locative adverb *yatin* 'near' also sometimes functions as a preposition.

*yatin vihe*  
 near house  
 'near the house'

*yatin yuhūh itya*  
 near mouth river  
 'near the edge of the river'

*yatin mahīh ichīh*  
 near in:middle:of path  
 'near the middle of the path' or 'near the middle of the trip'

*yatin tein itūnh*  
 near between tree  
 'near between the trees'

The object of all prepositional phrases, except those containing *ndēē* 'until (end)' and *ndee* '(from) until', may be questioned. When the object is questioned, the interrogative noun phrase follows the preposition.

*shūnh ndēē tyāa*  
 with which man  
 'with which man?'

*shūnh ndēē nā*  
 with which it:INAN  
 'with which thing?'

*mahih ndēē ña*  
 in:middle:of which it:INAN  
 'in the middle of which thing?'

*tein ndēē ña*  
 between which it:INAN  
 'between which things?'

However, when a numeral phrase is object of the prepositions *ndēē* or *ndee*, and quantity is questioned, the interrogative numeral phrase *saa tāhān* 'how many?' follows the preposition.

*ndēē saa tāhān*  
 until:end how of:group:PL  
 'up to a final how many?'

*ndee saa tāhān*  
 from:until how of:group:PL  
 'up to how many?'

One conventionally established prepositional phrase is used to question an adjunct.

*yoo shūnh*  
 who with  
 'with whom?'



# 5

## Parts of Speech

### 5.1 Content and Equative Verbs

**5.1.1 Derivation.** Content and equative verbs are either basic, derived from other verbs by means of prefixes, or compound. In addition some pairs of verbs that show little or no phonological similarity are related by transitivity or by the number of the subject or object.

Basic content and equative verbs are simple roots. (I cite these verbs in their potential aspect form, which sometimes contains the prefix *ku-*.)

Basic content verbs:

*kūsu*  
POR:sleep  
'will sleep'

*nahi*  
POR:take:SG  
'will take'

*kahmi*  
POR:burn  
'will burn'

Basic equative verbs:

*ku-nduu*  
POR-be:equal  
'will be'

*ku-nanih*

POT-be:named  
 'will be named'

Derived content and equative verbs are formed by adding one or more of eight derivational prefixes to the verb roots. These prefixes are: *ku-* 'process one', *ndu-* 'process two', *ka-* 'causative one', *chi-* 'causative two', *sa-* 'causative three', *sha-* 'causative four', *na-* 'repetitive', and *shi-* 'habitual'. As is common with derivational affixes, neither the existence of a derived stem nor its meaning can be predicted; all derived stems must therefore be listed in the lexicon.

The process one prefix *ku-* occurs with most stative verbs and some nouns and adverbs to denote a process that evolves naturally without animate agency. It is historically related to the intransitive content verb *kuu* 'to be (inherently)' or 'to behave'. This prefix is homophonous with the potential aspect prefix.

With stative verbs:

*ku-ndoo*

POT:PROCI-clean  
 'will become clean'

*ku-vīshi*

POT:PROCI-sweet  
 'will become sweet'

*ku-nyahā*

POT:PROCI-evil  
 'will become evil'

*ku-kwīhē*

POT:PROCI-weak  
 'will become weak'

With nouns:

*ku-ndohyo*

POT:PROCI-marsh  
 'will become a marsh'



*ku-yūuh*

POT:PROC1-stone

‘will become hard’

*ku-kihīh*

POT:PROC1-hook

‘will become bowed over’

*ku-sāvīh*

POT:PROC1-rainy:season

‘will become the rainy season’

With an adverb:

*ku-yatin*

POT:PROC1-near

‘will approach’

(See also 7.20.)

The process two prefix *ndu-* occurs with most stative verbs, a few nouns, and one general quantifier to denote a process that involves animate agency. It is probably historically related to the equative verb *nduu* ‘to be equal’.

With stative verbs:

*ndu-ndoo*

POT:PROC2-clean

‘will (be made to) become clean’

*ndu-vīshi*

POT:PROC2-sweet

‘will (be made to) become sweet’

*ndu-nyahā*

POT:PROC2-evil

‘will (be made to) become evil’

*ndu-kwīhē*

POT:PROC2-weak

‘will (be made to) become weak’

(See also 7.2 and 7.33.)

With nouns:

*ndu-ndyohyo*

POT:PROC2-marsh

‘will (be made to) become muddy’

*ndu-yūkun*

POT:PROC2-row

‘will (be made to) become a row’

*ndu-ikāh*

POT:PROC2-mountain

‘will become heathen’

With a general quantifier:

*ndu-nūh*

POT:PROC2-whole

‘will (be made to) become whole’

The causative one prefix *ka-* occurs with a few content verbs and a few elements whose identity cannot be determined.

With content verbs:

*ka-ndeta*

POT:CAUS1-appear

‘will jump’

*ka-ñuu*

POT:CAUS1-be:dragged

‘will drag (something)’

*ka-tāvi*

POT:CAUS1-be:pushed:down

‘will push down’

*ka-tuvi*

POT:CAUS1-poke

‘will hobble (with cane)’

With an indeterminate element:

*ka-nduu*  
 POT:CAUS1-?  
 'will pass beyond'

*ka-kihi*  
 POT:CAUS1-?  
 'will trip'

*ka-ndishāh*  
 POT:CAUS1-?  
 'will believe'

The causative two prefix *chi-* occurs with nouns, stative verbs, and nonagentive content verbs to form agentive content verbs. It is historically related to the verb *chihi* 'to plant'.<sup>1</sup>

With nouns:

*chi-nduku*  
 POT:CAUS2-stick  
 'will skewer'

*chi-kōndo*  
 POT:CAUS2-knee  
 'will kneel'

*chi-kihīh*  
 POT:CAUS2-hook  
 'will hook into'

*chi-tikū*  
 POT:CAUS2-needle  
 'will insert needle into'

(See also 7.8 and 7.9.)

---

<sup>1</sup>Planting is done by thrusting a stick into the soil and then tossing the seeds into the hole made by the stick. The concept of thrusting and impingement is retained when *chi-* combines with nouns. However, it is not as strong when *chi-* combines with content verbs and is virtually lost when it combines with stative verbs.

With stative verbs:

*chi-taya*

POT:CAUS2-loose  
'will loosen'

*chi-ndyeēh*

POT:CAUS2-strong  
'will help'

*chi-sihē*

POT:CAUS2-hidden  
'will hide'

With nonagentive content verbs:

*chi-nāa*

POT:CAUS2-be:inside:SG  
'will put inside'

*chi-ndohni*

POT:CAUS2-be:mixed  
'will mix'

The causative three prefix *sa-* occurs with content verbs, a few stative verbs, and one noun. It is historically related to the verb *saa* 'to do'.

With content verbs:

*sa-kāndā*

POT:CAUS3-be:vibrating  
'will make vibrate'

*sa-kwāhnūh*

POT:CAUS3-be:growing  
'will raise (children, animals, plants)'

*sa-kānūh*

POT:CAUS3-hit  
'will make hit'

*sa-kāhán*  
 POT:CAUS3-speak  
 'will make tell'

*sa-tānū*  
 POT:CAUS3-borrow  
 'will lend'

*sa-nyāhá*  
 POT:CAUS3-show  
 'will teach'

(See also 7.16.)

With stative verbs:

*sa-yaa*  
 POT:CAUS3-white  
 'will whiten'

*sa-ndiih*  
 POT:CAUS3-smooth  
 'will smooth (something)'

*sa-ndiká*  
 POT:CAUS3-wide  
 'will widen'

*sa-kwiyōh*  
 POT:CAUS3-twisted  
 'will twist (something)'

*sa-shātu*  
 POT:CAUS3-spicy  
 'will make spicy'

With a noun:

*sa-shuhūnh*  
 POT:CAUS3-money  
 'will exchange for money'

The causative four prefix *sha-* occurs with some nouns, one general quantifier, and most stative verbs to form content verbs.<sup>2</sup> Like *sa-*, it is historically related to the verb *saa* 'to do'.

With nouns:

*sa-kwachi*

POT:CAUS4-sin

'will accuse'

*sa-kwihe*

POT:CAUS4-sickness

'will trouble'

*sa-mihih*

POT:CAUS4-trash

'will mess'

With a general quantifier:

*sa-nūh*

POT:CAUS4-whole

'will make whole'

With stative verbs:

*sa-ndoo*

POT:CAUS4-clean

'will clean'

---

<sup>2</sup>The causative three prefix *sa-* and the causative four prefix *sha-* are etymologically related. They have the same form in potential aspect, but differ in form in continuative and completive aspect as follows:

<i>sa-</i>	'POT:CAUS3'	<i>sa-</i>	'POT:CAUS4'
<i>sā-</i>	'CON:CAUS3'	<i>shā-</i>	'CON:CAUS4'
<i>ni sa-</i>	'COM:CAUS3'	<i>ni sha-</i>	'COM:CAUS4'

The causative three prefix *sa-* occurs mainly with content verbs, and it occurs in combination with other derivational prefixes. The causative four prefix *sha-* occurs mainly with stative verbs; it never occurs with content verbs. These two prefixes are historically related to the verb *saa* 'to do', which has the following forms: *saa* 'POT:do', *shāāh* 'CON:do', and *ni shaa* 'COM COM:do'.

*sa-vīshi*  
 POT:CAUS4-sweet  
 'will sweeten'

*sa-nyahā*  
 POT:CAUS4-evil  
 'will do evil'

*sa-kwīhē*  
 POT:CAUS4-weak  
 'will weaken'

(See also 7.14.)

The repetitive prefix *na-* occurs with content verbs.

*na-kaya*  
 POT:REP1-gather  
 'will regather'

*na-tavi*  
 POT:REP1-roast  
 'will be reroasting'

*na-kuchi*  
 POT:REP1-bathe  
 'will be confirmed (in church)'

*na-kahānh*  
 POT:REP1-think  
 'will remember, will think again'

*na-vīkoh*  
 POT:REP1-be:carried  
 'will be retransported'

*na-chahvi*  
 POT:REP1-pay  
 'will repay'

(See also 7.24, 7.28, and 7.41.)

The habitual prefix *shi-* occurs with many content verbs to denote habitual action.<sup>3</sup>

*shī-kīshī*

CON:HAB-sleep  
'habitually sleep'

*shī-kāhndī*

CON:HAB-bang  
'habitually cause evil'

*shī-ndīkō*

CON:HAB-grind  
'habitually grind'

*shī-yōsoh*

CON:HAB-be:mounted:on  
'habitually be mounted on'

*shī-nākūn*

CON:HAB-take:ROOT  
'habitually take root well'

*shī-yōó*

CON:HAB-exist  
'habitually exist'

Sometimes a word contains two or three derivational prefixes. In such words, the repetitive prefix *na-* or the causative three prefix *sa-* must be the first element. When a derived verb containing the causative three prefix *sa-* or the causative four prefix *sha-* and a stative verb, noun, or general quantifier is preceded by *na-*, two changes occur: *sha-* is replaced by *sa-*, and a variant form *nda-* occurs in place of *na-*.

---

<sup>3</sup>It is not altogether clear if this prefix should be considered derivational or inflectional. In favor of a derivational analysis for *shi-* are the following factors: its occurrence with a verb cannot be predicted and it occasionally changes the meaning of the verb or changes its own meaning according to the verbs with which it combines. In favor of an inflectional analysis are the following factors: it is usually regular in meaning and its meaning is clearly aspectual, it does not combine freely with the three basic aspects (as a derivational prefix would be expected to do), and it seems to be related historically to stem alternations in the continuative and completive aspects of certain verbs.



*nda-sa-yaa*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-white  
'will rewhiten'*nda-sa-ndüih*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-smooth  
'will resmooth'*nda-sa-shātu*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-spicy  
'will respice (something)'*nda-sa-shāhndyāh*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-flat  
'will reflatten (something)'*nda-sa-kwiyōh*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-twisted  
'will retwist (something)'*nda-sa-ndiká*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-wide  
'will widen'*nda-sa-shuhūnh*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-money  
'will reexchange for money'*nda-sa-kwachi*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-sin  
'will reaccuse'*nda-sa-kwīhe*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-sickness  
'will retribe'*nda-sa-mihih*POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-trash  
'will mess again'

*nda-sa-nūh*

POT:REP2-POT:CAUS3-whole  
 ‘will make whole again’

The following examples show other combinations of two derivational prefixes with *na-* as the first element.

*na-ndu-ndoo*

POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-clean  
 ‘will become cleaner’

*na-ndu-nyahā*

POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-evil  
 ‘will become more evil’

*na-ndu-ikūh*

POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-mountain  
 ‘will become more heathen’

*na-ndu-nūh*

POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-whole  
 ‘will become more whole’

*na-ka-ndeta*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS1-appear  
 ‘will rejump’

*na-ka-ñuu*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS1-be:dragged  
 ‘will redrag (something)’

*na-ka-tāvi*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS1-be:pushed:down  
 ‘will repush down’

*na-chi-kōndo*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS2-knee  
 ‘will reknee, will re-elbow’

*na-chi-kihīh*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS2-hook  
 ‘will rehook into’

*na-chi-nāa*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS2-be:inside:SG  
 ‘will reput inside’

*na-chi-ndikun*

POT:REP1-POT:CAUS2-follow:SG  
 ‘will refollow’

The following examples show combinations of two derivational prefixes with *sa-* as the first element.

*sa-ndu-ndoo*

POT:CAUS3-POT:PROC2-clean  
 ‘will cause to become clean’

*sa-ndu-nyahā*

POT:CAUS3-POT:PROC2-evil  
 ‘will cause to become evil’

*sa-ndu-ikūh*

POT:CAUS3-POT:PROC2-mountain  
 ‘will cause to become a heathen’

*sa-ndu-nūh*

POT:CAUS3-POT:PROC2-whole  
 ‘will make whole’

*sa-ka-ndeta*

POT:CAUS3-POT:CAUS1-appear  
 ‘will bounce (something)’

*sa-ka-ñuu*

POT:CAUS3-POT:CAUS1-be:dragged  
 ‘will drag (something)’

*sa-na-kwāhā*

POT:CAUS3-POT:REP1-be:made  
 ‘will betray’ (cf. *na-kwaha* ‘will [lick, wipe] clean’)

*sa-na-kātāh*

POT:CAUS3-POT:REP1-place:standing:PL

‘will be in agreement with (someone)’ (cf. *na-kata* ‘will restand [something] up’)

*sa-na-kahānh*

POT:CAUS3-POT:REP1-think

‘will remind’ (cf. *na-kahānh* ‘will think again’)

*sa-na-nduu*

POT:CAUS3-POT:REP1-be:equal

‘will cause to be transformed’ (cf. *na-nduu* ‘will be transformed’)

(See also 7.32.)

Two combinations of three prefixes occur: *sa-* plus *na-* plus *ndu-*, and *sa-* plus *na-* plus *ka-*. In such words the sequence *sana-* reduces to *sna-*.

*s-na-ndu-ndoo*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-clean

‘will cause to become cleaner’

*s-na-ndu-nyahā*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-evil

‘will cause to become more evil’

*s-na-ndu-ndiká*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-wide

‘will cause to become wider’

*s-na-ndu-ikūh*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-mountain

‘will cause to become more heathen’

*s-na-ndu-nūh*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-whole

‘will cause to become more whole’

*s-na-ka-ndeta*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-appear

‘will cause to rejump’

*s-na-ka-ñuu*

CAUS3-POT:REP1-POT:PROC2-be:dragged  
'will make redrag (something)'

Compound verbs are formed by the fusion of complex verb nuclei (see 2.1.1); it is frequently impossible to identify the first element.<sup>4</sup>

*ka-vīshi* 'will falsely accuse' (cf. *kāhan* 'will speak', *vīshi* 'clean')

*ke-ndōsoh* 'will cut in two' (cf. *kie* 'will leave [PL]', *ndōsoh* 'is upon [PL]')

*ka-ndūhuh* 'will be lying (singular)' (cf. *kava* 'will be lying [PL]', *kundūhuh* 'will be located [SG]')

*nda-tūhunh* 'will question' (cf. *tuhun* 'language')

*ta-shāhāh* 'will dance' (cf. *shāhah* 'foot')

Several agentive transitive content verbs have a corresponding nonagentive intransitive content verb that is formed by means of a tone change.

Transitive	Intransitive
<i>kaan</i> 'will dig'	<i>kāan</i> 'will be dug'
<i>koyo</i> 'will pour'	<i>kōyo</i> 'will be poured'
<i>ndatāh</i> 'will split'	<i>ndātah</i> 'will be split'
<i>katuh</i> 'will pat'	<i>kātu</i> 'will be patted'

Other verb pairs related by transitivity show little or no morphological relation between the two forms.

Transitive	Intransitive
<i>katya</i> 'will throw out'	<i>kwūtya</i> 'will be thrown out'
<i>shikoh</i> 'will sell'	<i>kyāhvi</i> 'will be sold'
<i>kahmi</i> 'will burn'	<i>koko</i> 'will be burned'
<i>tavi</i> 'will roast'	<i>yatan</i> 'will be roasted'

<sup>4</sup>The mechanism by which compounds were formed is probably the same as that by which most causative verbs were formed. In both cases, the first part of the derived verb was originally a separate verb. I have, however, chosen to treat certain fused verbs as derivational prefixes because they are fairly common and regular in meaning, but to treat the uncommon ones as the first part of compounds.

Certain verbs group into singular-plural pairs. The members of these groups show no morphological relation to each other, but have a close semantic tie. The choice between them is determined for intransitive verbs solely by the number of the subject, and for transitive verbs solely by the number of the direct object. The verbs in this group usually express position or placement.

Intransitive verbs:

	Singular Subject	Plural Subject
will be located	<i>ku-ndūhuh</i>	<i>ku-ndyee</i>
will be lying (an subj)	<i>ka-ndūhuh</i>	<i>ku-ndyee</i>
will be lying (inan subj)	<i>ka-ndūhuh</i>	<i>kava</i>
will be inside	<i>ku-nāa</i>	<i>kuhun</i>
will be standing	<i>ku-iin</i>	<i>ku-ita</i>
will be hanging	<i>ku-ndīkun</i>	<i>ku-ndondya</i>
will be upon	<i>kanūh</i>	<i>ku-ndosoh</i>
will enter	<i>kēta</i>	<i>kīe</i>
will enter by force	<i>skohnūh</i>	<i>kohni</i>
will arrive	<i>shāa</i>	<i>nde-kwie</i>
will leave	<i>keta</i>	<i>kie</i>
will scream	<i>ndāhi</i>	<i>kwaāh</i>
will run	<i>ndava</i>	<i>tash-tāhānh</i>
appears	<i>kāāh</i>	<i>ūnh</i>
will fall	<i>nava</i>	<i>kōyo</i>
will enter	<i>kīhvi</i>	<i>kohni</i>

Transitive verbs:

	Singular Object	Plural Object
will put down	<i>chi-ndūhuh</i>	<i>ta-ndyee</i>
will lay down	<i>chi-ka-ndūhuh</i>	<i>ta-ndyee</i>
will put inside	<i>chi-nāa</i>	<i>taanh</i>
will place standing	<i>kani</i>	<i>kata</i>
will hang (something)	<i>chi-ndīkun</i>	<i>chi-ndondya</i>
will take	<i>nahi</i>	<i>na-chūih</i>
will take out	<i>sh-tahrūh</i>	<i>tavah</i>

**5.1.2 Inflection.** Most basic content verbs and the two basic equative verbs are inflected for three aspects: potential, continuative, and completive. Aspect is marked by tone replacement and frequently also by a potential prefix and/or stem alternation. A few basic content verbs have two distinct completive aspect forms, which have contrastive meanings. The potential aspect form is considered to be the basic form.

Regular verbs have the same form in potential and completive aspects; completive aspect is distinguished from potential by the use of the preverbal element *ni* in completive (see 2.1.2). Continuative aspect is marked by a tone change and sometimes by the addition of a final *h* (glottal stop). These verbs fall into six classes, depending on the tone of the potential form and the replacement that marks continuative.<sup>5</sup> In Class VI, the continuative aspect pattern has three tones, two of which fall on the first syllable, which is written with a double vowel. These classes are:

	POT		CON		COM	
I	low	low	mid	mid	low	low
II	low	low	mid	mid + h	low	low
III	low	mid + h	mid	mid + h	low	mid + h
IV	low	low	mid	low	low	low
V	mid	low	mid	high	mid	low
VI	low	low	mid-low	mid	low	low

Class I verbs:

	POT	CON	COM
dig	<i>kaan</i>	<i>kāān</i>	<i>ni kaan</i>
plaster	<i>kehi</i>	<i>kēhī</i>	<i>ni kehi</i>
be satisfied			
(with food)	<i>ndahni</i>	<i>ndāhñī</i>	<i>ni ndahni</i>
blow	<i>tivi</i>	<i>tīvī</i>	<i>ni tivi</i>

Class II verbs:

embroider	<i>isa</i>	<i>īsāh</i>	<i>ni isa</i>
blush	<i>kahan</i>	<i>kāhānh</i>	<i>ni kahan</i>

<sup>5</sup>The approximate percentage of verbs in each class is: Class I, 10%; Class II, 30%; Class III, 10%; Class IV, 10%; Class V, 30%; and Class VI, 1%.

make fire	<i>nahmi</i>	<i>nāhmīh</i>	<i>ni nahmi</i>
be roasted	<i>yatan</i>	<i>yātānh</i>	<i>ni yatan</i>

## Class III verbs:

scratch	<i>ihīnh</i>	<i>ihīnh</i>	<i>ni ihīnh</i>
begin	<i>shahāh</i>	<i>shāhāh</i>	<i>ni shahāh</i>
mend	<i>nahmāh</i>	<i>nāhmāh</i>	<i>ni nahmāh</i>
open	<i>nunyāh</i>	<i>nūnyāh</i>	<i>ni nunyāh</i>

## Class IV verbs:

be late	<i>kwaah</i>	<i>kwāah</i>	<i>ni kwaah</i>
leak	<i>shihin</i>	<i>shīhin</i>	<i>ni shihin</i>
ache	<i>tahviḥ</i>	<i>tāhvih</i>	<i>ni tahvih</i>
surround	<i>kati</i>	<i>kāti</i>	<i>ni kati</i>

## Class V verbs:

drip	<i>tōo</i>	<i>tōó</i>	<i>ni tōo</i>
pass	<i>yāha</i>	<i>yāhá</i>	<i>ni yāha</i>
be slapped	<i>sāhndyah</i>	<i>sāhndyáh</i>	<i>ni sāhndyah</i>
be shot	<i>kīnih</i>	<i>kīnūh</i>	<i>ni kīnih</i>

## Class VI verbs:

offer incense	<i>chuhmā</i>	<i>chūuhmā</i>	<i>ni chuhmā</i>
rot	<i>tivīh</i>	<i>tīvīh</i>	<i>ni tivīh</i>
dream	<i>shanī</i>	<i>shāani</i>	<i>ni shanī</i>
be tired	<i>shavī</i>	<i>shāavī</i>	<i>ni shavī</i>

There are also various kinds of irregular verbs, all of which show segmental changes, usually in addition to tone changes. In the simplest kind, the potential aspect form takes the prefix *ku-* or *ko-*, and the continuative aspect undergoes a tone replacement, as in Classes I through V.



	POT	CON	COM	
hurry	<i>ku-tyani</i>	<i>tyānī</i>	<i>ni tyani</i>	I
suffer	<i>ku-ndoho</i>	<i>ndōhōh</i>	<i>ni ndoho</i>	II
be upon (PL)	<i>ku-ndosoh</i>	<i>ndōsoh</i>	<i>ni ndosoh</i>	IV
be tangled	<i>ku-tyāka</i>	<i>tyāká</i>	<i>ni tyāka</i>	V
be held, be stuck	<i>ko-tūin</i>	<i>tūin</i>	<i>ni tūin</i>	V
be illuminated	<i>ko-tūun</i>	<i>tūun</i>	<i>ni tūun</i>	V

The equative verb *kunanīh* ‘to be named’ and one content verb have an identical stem in all aspects, i.e., they show no tone changes. Potential aspect is signalled by the *ku-* prefix, continuative aspect is signaled by the stem alone, and completive aspect is signaled by the preverbal element *ni*. These verbs are:

	POT	CON	COM
be named	<i>ku-nanīh</i>	<i>nanīh</i>	<i>ni nanīh</i>
be located (SG)	<i>ku-ndūhuh</i>	<i>ndūhuh</i>	<i>ni ndūhuh</i>

Many irregular basic content verbs mark aspect with stem alternation in addition to one of the tone replacement patterns. In the most common pattern, the potential aspect form begins with *k*, *kw*, or *v*, and the continuative and completive forms replace the first syllable of the potential by *shi*, *sha*, *chi*, or *cha*.

	POT	CON	COM	
sense	<i>kuni</i>	<i>shīnī</i>	<i>ni shini</i>	I
cut	<i>kahndya</i>	<i>shāhndyā</i>	<i>ni shahndya</i>	I
look	<i>koto</i>	<i>shūtōh</i>	<i>ni shito</i>	II
bathe	<i>kuchi</i>	<i>chīchīh</i>	<i>ni chichi</i>	II
be full	<i>kutūh</i>	<i>chūtūh</i>	<i>ni chitūh</i>	III
kill	<i>kahnih</i>	<i>shāhnih</i>	<i>ni shahnih</i>	IV
desire	<i>kākan</i>	<i>shākán</i>	<i>ni shākan</i>	V
growl	<i>kwīña</i>	<i>shīñā</i>	<i>ni shiñā</i>	I
cut in pieces	<i>kwachi</i>	<i>chāchīh</i>	<i>ni chachi</i>	II
make bubbling sound	<i>kwīso</i>	<i>chīsó</i>	<i>ni chīso</i>	V

grow	<i>kwahnu</i>	<i>shāhnūh</i>	<i>ni shahnu</i>	II
carry	<i>vikōh</i>	<i>shikōh</i>	<i>ni shikōh</i>	III

The verb *kuni* 'to sense' is partially homophonous with two other verbs, *kuni* 'to know' and *kuni* 'to appear'. All three verbs probably developed from what was originally a single irregular Class I verb. They are similar in form to the Class V verb *kūni* 'to want' or 'to lack' but are probably not related to it; *kūni* appears to be a compound of *kuu* 'to be (inherently)' and *ini* 'insides'. These four verbs are:

	POT	CON	COM	
sense	<i>kuni</i>	<i>shīnī</i>	<i>ni shini</i>	I irreg.
know	<i>kuni</i>	<i>shīnī</i>	<i>ni shini</i>	irreg.
appear	<i>kuni</i>	<i>kūnī</i>	<i>ni kuni</i>	I
want, lack	<i>kūni</i>	<i>kūnī</i>	<i>ni kūni</i>	V

Some irregular verbs show other segmental changes; they are:

	POT	CON	COM	
do	<i>saa</i>	<i>shāāh</i>	<i>ni shaa</i>	II
be mounted on	<i>kosoh</i>	<i>yōsoh</i>	<i>ni yosoh</i>	IV
sleep	<i>kāsu</i>	<i>kīshī</i>	<i>ni kīshi</i>	V

A number of irregular verbs, some taking the *ku-* prefix in potential aspect and others showing various segmental changes, mark potential aspect with a low low tone sequence, continuative aspect with a mid mid tone sequence plus a final glottal stop, and completive aspect with a mid low tone sequence. These verbs are considered to belong to Class VII.

	POT	CON	COM
be equal	<i>ku-nduu</i>	<i>ndūūh</i>	<i>ni ndūu</i>
be standing (SG)	<i>ku-iin</i>	<i>ūnh</i>	<i>ni iin</i>
walk	<i>kaka</i>	<i>shīkāh</i>	<i>ni shīka</i>
dress	<i>kwihnu</i>	<i>nūhnūh</i>	<i>ni nūhnu</i>
carry on back	<i>kwiso</i>	<i>ndīsōh</i>	<i>ni ndīso</i>

Some irregular verbs show irregular tone patterns and stem alternation; these verbs are:

	POT	CON	COM
be lying (PL)	<i>kava</i>	<i>kāāh</i>	<i>ni kāa</i>
burn	<i>koko</i>	<i>shīshí</i>	<i>ni shīshi</i>
be angry	<i>ka-sīhe</i>	<i>shīhé</i>	<i>ni shīhe</i>
exist	<i>koo</i>	<i>yōō</i>	<i>ni yōo</i>
scrape	<i>ku-ndyāah</i>	<i>shī-ndyāah</i>	<i>ni shi-ndyāah</i>
drink	<i>koho</i>	<i>shīhīh</i>	<i>ni shihi</i>

A few verbs make a distinction between two completive aspect forms. The completive one form is marked by a low low tone sequence and signifies that the predication has been completed but is still in effect. The completive two form is marked by a mid low tone sequence and signifies that the predication has been completed but is no longer in effect. These verbs are:

	POT	CON	COM 1	COM 2	
kindle	<i>ndatin</i>	<i>ndāūinh</i>	<i>ni ndatin</i>	<i>ni ndātin</i>	II
swell	<i>nei</i>	<i>nēih</i>	<i>ni nei</i>	<i>ni nēi</i>	II
be worried	<i>ku-ndihni</i>	<i>ndīhni</i>	<i>ni ndihni</i>	<i>ni ndīhni</i>	IV
arrive (SG)	<i>shāa</i>	<i>shāā</i>	<i>ni shaa</i>	<i>ni shāa</i>	V

For example, the completive one form of *ndatin* ‘to kindle’ means that the flame is still burning, and the completive two form means that it is no longer burning.

The motion verbs *kishi* ‘to come’ and *kūhun* ‘to go’ are each inflected for four aspects: potential, continuative, habitual, and completive.

	POT	CON	HAB	COM
come	<i>kishi</i>	<i>kwashi</i>	<i>kīshīh</i>	<i>ni kishi</i>
go	<i>kūhun</i>	<i>kwāhan</i>	<i>shāhán</i>	<i>ni shāhan</i>

These two verbs also have special imperative forms (see 1.3).

*nyaha*  
IMP:COME  
‘come!’

*kwāhān*IMP:GO  
'go!'*tōhoh*IMP:GO:IN  
'let's go'

Verbs containing derivational prefixes are also inflected to show the three basic aspects. All derivational prefixes have a low tone, which is replaced by mid in continuative aspect. Sometimes the tone of the stem also changes in continuative aspect. A full description of the tone changes in derived verbs is beyond the scope of this sketch. The following table shows verbs with various patterns.

	POT	CON	COM
become pretty	<i>ku-ndatunh</i>	<i>kū-ndātunh</i>	<i>ni ku-ndatunh</i>
become tight	<i>ndu-kūtuh</i>	<i>ndū-kūtuh</i>	<i>ni ndu-kūtuh</i>
push down	<i>ka-tāvi</i>	<i>kā-tāví</i>	<i>ni ka-tāvi</i>
hook	<i>chi-kihīh</i>	<i>chī-kihīh</i>	<i>ni chi-kihīh</i>
make spicy	<i>sa-shātu</i>	<i>sā-shātú</i>	<i>ni sa-shātu</i>
make whole	<i>sa-nūh</i>	<i>shā-nūh</i>	<i>ni sha-nūh</i>
remember	<i>na-kahānh</i>	<i>nā-kāhānh</i>	<i>ni na-kahānh</i>
rewiden	<i>nda-sa-ndiká</i>	<i>ndā-sā-ndiká</i>	<i>ni nda-sa-ndiká</i>

## 5.2 Stative Verbs

Unlike content and equative verbs, stative verbs are not inflected for aspect. Stative verbs are either basic or derived. Some are derived from nouns by means of a tone change and the addition of a final glottal stop, and others show no change.

Basic stative verbs:

<i>āsinh</i>	'delicious'
<i>vaha</i>	'good'
<i>vīshāh</i>	'wet'
<i>vīe</i>	'heavy'
<i>ihnīh</i>	'hot'

<i>ndāhvī</i>	‘poor’
<i>kwāān</i>	‘yellow’

Derived stative verbs with a tone change and final glottal stop:

Stative Verb		Noun	
<i>chūūnh</i>	‘worklike’	<i>chuun</i>	‘work’
<i>yūūh</i>	‘mature’	<i>yūuh</i>	‘stone’
<i>yūhūh</i>	‘insolent’	<i>yuhūh</i>	‘mouth’
<i>shīnīh</i>	‘intelligent’	<i>shīnih</i>	‘head’
<i>tātānh</i>	‘restorative’	<i>tātanh</i>	‘medicine’
<i>tīkōhndōh</i>	‘lumpy’	<i>tīkohndo</i>	‘lump’
<i>shūūh</i>	‘intestine like’	<i>shiti</i>	‘intestine’
<i>sīkīh</i>	‘treacherous’	<i>sīkih</i>	‘neck’

Derived stative verbs not involving any change:

Stative Verb		Noun	
<i>itūnh</i>	‘rigid’	<i>itūnh</i>	‘tree’
<i>vīkoh</i>	‘cloudy’	<i>vīkoh</i>	‘cloud’
<i>ndēhi</i>	‘muddy, dirty’	<i>ndēhi</i>	‘mud’
<i>isu</i>	‘jumpy’	<i>isu</i>	‘deer’
<i>kāvīh</i>	‘lucky’	<i>kāvīh</i>	‘day’
<i>iñuh</i>	‘thorny’	<i>iñuh</i>	‘thorn’
<i>tīshin</i>	‘potbellied’	<i>tīshin</i>	‘stomach’
<i>yūuh</i>	‘stony’	<i>yūuh</i>	‘stone’

Four stative verbs with meanings related to roundness have as their first syllable *ti-*, which is probably the same prefix that occurs in many nouns referring to round or spherical objects (see 5.3.1).

<i>tīlūh</i>	‘spherical’
<i>tīkōoh</i>	‘cylindrical’ (cf. <i>kōoh</i> ‘snake’)
<i>tīkwītyā</i>	‘round (on outside)’
<i>tīkātyā</i>	‘round (on inside)’

Three stative verbs have distinct forms for singular or plural referents; they are:

	SG	PL
big	<i>chīe</i>	<i>nāhnūh</i>
long	<i>kānih</i>	<i>nānih</i>
small	<i>lūlū</i>	<i>kwāchih, kwālih</i>

### 5.3 Nouns

**5.3.1 Derivation.** Although there are no regular processes for deriving nouns from other parts of speech, there are many compound nouns formed by fusion of complex noun nuclei (see 3.1.1) into single words. Many nouns that refer to animals or insects, objects that are either round, cylindrical, or spherical, liquids, and trees or wooden objects consist of a prefix derived from either a generic noun or a prestressed pronoun (see 5.4) plus some other root.

Animal and insect names often contain the prefixes *ti-*, *ndi-*, or *si-*, which are derived from either the generic noun *kiūh* ‘animal’ or the prestressed pronoun *tīh* ‘it (animal)’. A few nouns have lost the vowel before *y*.

<i>ti-kāhanh</i>	‘praying mantis’ (cf. <i>kāhan</i> ‘will speak’)
<i>ti-shii</i>	‘tick’ (cf. <i>shii</i> ‘tough’)
<i>ti-ndukuh</i>	‘walking stick’ (cf. <i>nduku</i> ‘twig’)
<i>ti-sūhma</i>	‘scorpion’ (cf. <i>sūhma</i> ‘tail’)
<i>ti-shūhuh</i>	‘goat’ (cf. <i>ishih</i> ‘hair’, <i>yuhuh</i> ‘mouth’)
<i>ndi-kaha</i>	‘lion’
<i>ndi-kama</i>	‘housefly’ (cf. <i>kama</i> ‘fast’)
<i>ndi-kuhun</i>	‘toad’
<i>si-ndikih</i>	‘cow, cattle’ (cf. <i>ndikih</i> ‘horn’)
<i>si-kūnh</i>	‘basilisk’
<i>si-ndōkoh</i>	‘black ant’
<i>t-yakāh</i>	‘fish’
<i>t-yohōh</i>	‘flea’
<i>nd-yoho</i>	‘hummingbird’

The names of most spherical fruit consist of the prefix *ti-* followed by an indeterminate element.

<i>ti-kavāh</i>	‘plum’
<i>ti-kumi</i>	‘onion’
<i>ti-kwāah</i>	‘guava’
<i>ti-nanah</i>	‘tomato’
<i>ti-chīh</i>	‘avocado’

The names of many round or cylindrically shaped objects also consist of the prefix *ti-* followed by what is frequently an indeterminate element.

<i>tīvi</i>	‘circle, wheel’
<i>ti-kāsun</i>	‘thin toasted tortilla’ (cf. <i>kasun</i> ‘will crackle’)
<i>ti-kuhni</i>	‘bundle’
<i>ti-kāchih</i>	‘dust devil’
<i>ti-ndūhuh</i>	‘large tree trunk’
<i>ti-kisi</i>	‘chrysalis’ (cf. <i>kisi</i> ‘clay pot’)

Names for some liquids contain the prefix *tyā-*, which is derived from the prestressed pronoun *tyāh*. If the root begins with *i*, *ñ*, or *y*, the prefix often reduces to *te-* or *t-*.

<i>tyā-shānh</i>	‘corn dough slop’ (cf. <i>ishānh</i> ‘corn dough’)
<i>tyā-sihī</i>	‘saliva’
<i>tē-yāh</i>	‘gastric juice’ (cf. <i>īyāh</i> ‘sour’)
<i>tē-hnīh</i>	‘liquor’ (cf. <i>ihnīh</i> ‘hot’)
<i>te-ñūhuh</i>	‘muddy flood waters’ (cf. <i>ñuhūh</i> ‘earth’)
<i>te-yahāh</i>	‘chili sauce’ (cf. <i>yahāh</i> ‘chili’)
<i>t-yahāh</i>	‘chili flavored meat broth’ (cf. <i>yahāh</i> ‘chili’)

The last two examples above are derived from the same combination of elements; one shows a greater degree of fusion than the other.

A few nouns that refer to trees or wooden objects contain the prefix *tun-*, which is derived either from the generic noun *itūnh* or the prestressed pronoun *tūnh* ‘it (wood)’.

<i>tun-shāh</i>	‘pine tree’ (cf. <i>susha</i> ‘resin’)
<i>tun-tāhnūh</i>	‘airplane’ (cf. <i>tāhnūh</i> ‘is flying’)
<i>tun-shūi</i>	‘rifle’ (cf. <i>shīhi</i> ‘died’)

**5.3.2 Classification.** Nouns fall into several cross-cutting classifications; they may be divided according to gender, possessibility, distribution, and countability.

Nouns fall into six gender classes according to the third person pronouns that refer to them: masculine, feminine, animal or spherical fruit, wood, liquid, and general inanimate. These classes are for the most part based on natural gender. For example, the animal pronoun is used, rather than the masculine pronoun, for the personified animal characters in the text in chapter 7 (see, for example, 7.11, 7.18, and 7.20). Sometimes, however, there are exceptions. For example, *yōoh* ‘moon’ is classified as an animal noun.

Masculine nouns:

<i>tyāa</i>	‘man’
<i>sūtu</i>	‘priest’
<i>shūto</i>	‘uncle’
<i>ñani</i>	‘brother (of male)’

Feminine nouns:

<i>ñahāh</i>	‘woman’
<i>shishi</i>	‘aunt’
<i>shīku</i>	‘niece’

Animal/spherical fruit nouns:

<i>kūih</i>	‘animal’
<i>nāyah</i>	‘dog’
<i>saa</i>	‘bird’
<i>yōoh</i>	‘moon’
<i>tyūunh</i>	‘star’
<i>tikumi</i>	‘onion’
<i>tinanah</i>	‘tomato’
<i>tichih</i>	‘avocado, iguana’



## Wood nouns:

<i>itūnh</i>	'tree'
<i>tēi</i>	'chair'
<i>kārō</i>	'truck (Sp. <i>carro</i> )'
<i>tutūnh</i>	'firewood'
<i>tunshūi</i>	'rifle'

## Liquid nouns:

<i>tikwī</i>	'water'
<i>tutya</i>	'drink made from corn dough'
<i>teyahāh</i>	'chili sauce'
<i>tēhnih</i>	'liquor'

## General inanimate nouns:

<i>ñaha</i>	'thing'
<i>vihe</i>	'house'
<i>yūuh</i>	'stone'
<i>chūtya</i>	'banana'
<i>kwīya</i>	'year'

Nouns may also be divided into those that can be possessed and those that cannot. Nouns that cannot be possessed are proper names, names of wild animals, and nouns that refer to topographical and meteorological phenomena.

<i>pēgrū</i>	'Peter'
<i>timāhá</i>	'raccoon'
<i>ikūh</i>	'mountain'
<i>tyūunh</i>	'star'
<i>ndivih</i>	'sky'
<i>sāvih</i>	'rain'

Some nouns in the above category have more than one sense discrimination, and certain ones can be possessed, while others cannot.

<i>tāchih</i>	'wind, air' (not possessible); 'voice' (always possessed)
---------------	---

Nouns that can be possessed are those that occur as the nucleus of a possessive noun phrase (see 3.3). They are either inherently possessed or optionally possessed. Inherently possessed nouns are usually kinship terms or body parts. If such nouns are elicited without a specific possessor, they are usually given with an inclusive clitic pronoun (see 5.4) as possessor.

<i>yuvāh</i>	‘father’
<i>iih</i>	‘husband’
<i>sūhmah</i>	‘tail’
<i>ndahāh</i>	‘hand’
<i>sāna</i>	‘domestic animal’

Optionally possessed nouns comprise all others.

<i>vihe</i>	‘house’
<i>ñuhūh</i>	‘earth, land’
<i>yohōh</i>	‘vine’
<i>sahmāh</i>	‘tortilla cloth’
<i>itu</i>	‘corn plant’
<i>īchi</i>	‘machete’

The distribution classes of nouns include vocatives, proper nouns, locative nouns, temporal nouns, measurement nouns, and common nouns. Some nouns fall into more than one class.

Vocatives occur as independent utterances, or loosely connected to sentences (see 1.4). They include personal names, certain kinship terms, and terms of social relation.

Proper nouns:

<i>pēgrū</i>	‘Peter’
<i>ikwān</i>	‘John’
<i>marā</i>	‘Mary’

Kinship terms:

<i>tātā</i>	‘Daddy’
<i>nānā</i>	‘Mommy’
<i>shito</i>	‘Uncle’

*shishi* 'Aunt'

Other terms of social relation:

*taa* 'sir'

*naa* 'ma'am'

*pehē* 'child'

There are also four special tone patterns that replace the basic tone pattern of names and kinship terms, each with a special use. To express urgency or excitement, a high mid mid tone pattern is used; to express begging or pleading, a low mid high tone pattern is used; to get someone's attention, a low mid low tone pattern is used; and to call someone, a mid mid low tone pattern is used. If the noun contains only two syllables, the last two tones fall on the final syllable, the vowel of which is lengthened slightly. The following table shows these special patterns.

	Basic	Urgency	Begging	Attention	Calling
John	<i>ikwān</i>	<i>ikwāān</i>	<i>ikwāān</i>	<i>ikwāan</i>	<i>ikwāan</i>
Peter	<i>pēgrū</i>	<i>pēgrūū</i>	<i>pegrūú</i>	<i>pegrūu</i>	<i>pēgrūu</i>
Daddy	<i>tātā</i>	<i>tātāā</i>	<i>tatāá</i>	<i>tatāa</i>	<i>tātāa</i>
Mommy	<i>nānā</i>	<i>nānāā</i>	<i>nanāá</i>	<i>nanāa</i>	<i>nānāa</i>
sir	<i>tākwihē</i>	<i>tākwihē</i>	<i>takwihé</i>	<i>takwīhe</i>	<i>tākwīhe</i>

Proper nouns include personal and place names.

*bētō* 'Bob'

*marīā* 'Mary'

*tutyōoh* 'Ayutla'

*yihēh* 'Acapulco'

*kwāshah* 'name of local mountain peak'

Locative nouns occur as the nucleus of adverbial noun phrases (see 3.5). They fall into two categories: those that occur in the basic subtype, and those that occur in the possessive sub type. The first category includes place names, names of topographical features, and a few other nouns.

<i>tutyōoh</i>	‘Ayutla’
<i>itya</i>	‘river’
<i>ichīh</i>	‘path’
<i>yahvi</i>	‘market’
<i>vihe</i>	‘house’

The second category includes mainly certain body-part nouns which are used in extended senses. The most common ones are:

*shīnih*

head

‘at the top of’

*nūuh*

face

‘in front of, on, to, from’

*ndahāh*

hand

‘to, from’

*shāhah*

foot

‘at the base of, on behalf of’

*shātah*

back

‘in back of, behind’

*ini*

insides

‘inside of, center of, heart of’

*tishin*

stomach

‘inside, under’

*yuhūh*

mouth

‘edge of’

*sīhndi*  
 buttocks  
 ‘outside bottom of, under’

*kwēntā*  
 account  
 ‘on behalf of (Sp. *cuenta*)’

Temporal nouns are also divided into these two categories. The first category includes names for units of time and calendric sequences.

*kīvih*      ‘day’  
*yōoh*       ‘month’  
*kwīya*      ‘year’  
*sāvīh*       ‘rainy season’  
*ñumīh*      ‘dry season’  
*nduvīh*      ‘daytime’  
*ñuū*        ‘nighttime’  
*shāhāh*     ‘short time’

The second category includes only a few body-part nouns which are extended in a temporal sense; they are:

*shāhah*  
 foot  
 ‘beginning of’

*tishin*  
 stomach  
 ‘middle of’

*tokōh*  
 waist  
 ‘middle of’

*nūuh*  
 face  
 ‘end of’

*shīnih*  
head  
'end of'

Measurement nouns express units of weight or measurement; they occur as the nucleus of measurement noun phrases (see 3.2).

*naha* 'pair'  
*kuhva* 'measure'  
*too* 'distance from tip of pointer finger to tip of thumb'  
*tehī* 'four ears of corn'  
*ndahāh* 'fathom, hand'  
*litrō* 'liter (Sp. *litro*)'  
*kālō* 'kilogram (Sp. *kilo*)'  
*tāhvīh* 'portion, side' (cf. *tahvīh* 'will break, will split, will divide in two')

Common nouns are all those not included in any of the above categories.

*nāyah* 'dog'  
*itya* 'grass'  
*tutūnh* 'firewood'  
*isu* 'deer'  
*itūnh* 'tree'

Nouns may also be classified as either mass or count. Mass nouns do not permit a numeral or numeral phrase as quantifier, whereas count nouns do.

Mass nouns:

*tikwī* 'water'  
*ishānh* 'corn dough'  
*kaka* 'lime'  
*yuchīh* 'powder, flour'

## Count nouns:

<i>shūtah</i>	‘tortilla’
<i>tyāa</i>	‘man’
<i>kisi</i>	‘clay pot’
<i>tutu</i>	‘(sheet of) paper’
<i>kitīh</i>	‘animal’

## 5.4 Pronouns

Personal pronouns for first and second person show a contrast in number, and also a distinction between free and postclitic forms. The free pronouns are:

	SG	PL
first EX	<i>yūhu</i>	<i>ndūhu</i>
first IN	—	<i>yōōh</i>
second	<i>yōhó</i>	<i>ndōhó</i>

The corresponding clitic pronouns are:

	SG	PL
first EX	<i>i</i>	<i>nduh</i>
first IN	—	<i>eh</i>
second	<i>unh</i>	<i>ndoh</i>

The first person exclusive and second person plural free pronouns appear to be a fusion of *ndihi* ‘all’ with the corresponding singular forms.

The first person plural inclusive pronouns are used in soliloquy to refer to oneself, as seen in 7.11.

The free pronouns show no distributional restrictions: they occur as subject, object of verb, object of preposition, and possessor of noun. In all syntactic functions except object of verb, however, they are emphatic, and they are so glossed. The clitic pronouns, on the other hand, occur commonly as subject, object of preposition, and possessor of noun. Only the free forms occur in focus position.

Personal pronouns for third person are either poststressed or pre-stressed; there are no free forms. Except for one plural pronoun that is

used to refer to groups of women or to mixed groups, number is not distinguished; a single form serves for either singular or plural. Number can, however, be distinguished by the presence of a quantifier (see 3.1.2) or by the use of a content verb or stative verb with inherent number (see 5.1.1 and 5.2). Third person pronouns distinguish six gender classes. Masculine pronouns and the feminine poststressed pronoun also show a contrast between respect and familiar forms; respect forms are more highly marked and are glossed as respect; familiar forms are simply glossed as third person. Most third person pronouns are reduced forms of common nouns. The third person pronouns are:

	Poststressed	Prestressed	Source noun
masculine			
familiar	<i>ra</i>	<i>te</i>	<i>tyāa</i> 'man'
respect	<i>a</i>	<i>ñā</i>	
feminine			
familiar	<i>ah</i>	<i>ñā</i>	<i>ñahāh</i> 'woman'
respect	<i>chi</i>	—	
animal, spherical	<i>rih</i>	<i>tīh</i>	<i>kitīh</i> 'animal'
wood	<i>nuh</i>	<i>tūnh</i>	<i>itūnh</i> 'tree'
liquid <sup>6</sup>	<i>rah</i>	<i>tyāh</i>	
general inanimate	<i>a</i>	<i>ñā</i>	<i>ñaha</i> 'thing'
human plural	<i>nya</i>	<i>ne</i>	

Poststressed pronouns occur in all syntactic positions except that *ah* 'she' does not occur as object of the verb. In this situation, the object is expressed by the known-object marker *ñahāh*, which occurs in the verb phrase (see 2.1.3); an example is found in 7.25.

Prestressed pronouns occur in noun phrases when they are followed by some other element in the same noun phrase, usually a relative clause (see 3.1.3). The inanimate pronoun *ñā* also functions as a complementizer (see 1.1.9), and in this use it is glossed 'complementizer', rather than 'it (in-

---

<sup>6</sup>The source noun for the liquid pronouns is probably a form like *\*ndutyāh*, which corresponds to the word for water in many other Mixtec languages. The present word for water in Ayutla Mixtec is *tikwī*, which probably is a reduction of *tyāh* 'it (liquid)' and *kwī* 'watery'.



animate)'. This pronoun also occurs as a constituent of complex conjunctions (see 6.2).

There are two interrogative pronouns:

<i>yoo</i>	'who?'
<i>indā</i>	'what?'

### 5.5 Adverbs

Adverbs are locative, temporal, general, intensifying, and interrogative.

Locative adverbs include all locational words that are not nouns.

<i>yōhōh</i>	'here'
<i>ñāah</i>	'there (near)'
<i>kāah</i>	'there (far)'
<i>ikānh</i>	'over there (out of sight)'
<i>ndyakānh</i>	'far away over there' (cf. <i>ndee</i> '[from] until', <i>ikānh</i> 'over there')
<i>yatin</i>	'near'
<i>shikāh</i>	'far'
<i>nīnu</i>	'upwards'
<i>nūnu</i>	'downwards'
<i>kīhe</i>	'outside'

The first three adverbs in the above list have an additional function as deictics in noun phrases (see 3.1.3). In this use they are glossed 'this' and 'that', rather than 'here' and 'there'. The locative adverb *yatin* 'near' has an additional function as a preposition (see 4.3).

Temporal adverbs include all temporal words that are not nouns.

<i>shtahānh</i>	'long ago'
<i>ava</i>	'about a year ago'
<i>saāh</i>	'many days ago'
<i>iku</i>	'yesterday'
<i>ndiheh</i>	'earlier today, for a short time'
<i>nūūh</i>	'short time'
<i>viūn</i>	'now'

<i>nūnūh</i>	‘later today’
<i>tyāan</i>	‘tomorrow’
<i>īsā</i>	‘day after tomorrow’

General adverbs include all manner words that are not stative verbs.

<i>sakānh</i>	‘thus’
<i>ndyāā</i>	‘rarely’
<i>nāhnūh</i>	‘occasionally’ (cf. <i>nāhnūh</i> ‘big [PL]’)
<i>yāchi</i>	‘quickly’
<i>yātīnh</i>	‘nearly’ (cf. <i>yātīn</i> ‘near’)

Intensifying adverbs most commonly occur as manner in content verb phrases (see 2.1.3), stative verb phrases (see 2.3), general quantifier phrases (see 4.1.5), and adverb phrases (see 4.2.1). They are:

<i>shavaha</i>	‘amazingly’ (cf. <i>sha</i> ‘oh! very’, <i>vaha</i> ‘good’)
<i>ndivaha</i>	‘inappropriate’ (cf. <i>vaha</i> ‘good’)
<i>yāha</i>	‘surpassing’ (cf. <i>yāha</i> ‘will pass’)

Interrogative adverbs include four simple forms and one complex form.

Simple:

<i>mūh</i>	‘where?’
<i>ama</i>	‘when?’
<i>saa</i>	‘how?’
<i>ndichūn</i>	‘why?’

Complex:

<i>saa</i>	<i>kūūh</i>
how	CON:be:inherently
‘how much (is)?’	

The interrogative adverb *mūh* ‘where?’ has an additional function as the nucleus of a noun phrase; it introduces a relative clause, and it means ‘the place where’. An example of this use is found in 7.27.

## 5.6 Quantifiers

Quantifiers include both numerals and general quantifiers. These elements commonly occur as quantifiers in noun phrases (see 3.1.2 and 3.2), as nuclei in quantifier phrases (see 4.1), and occasionally as manner in verb phrases (see 2.1.2 and 2.1.3) and ordinals in relative clauses (see 3.1.3). Sometimes a quantifier occurs with no noun nucleus following, in which case the quantifier appears to function like a noun.

The simple numerals are:

<i>iin</i>	‘one, a’
<i>ūvi</i>	‘two, a few’
<i>ūni</i>	‘three’
<i>kumih</i>	‘four’
<i>ūhunh</i>	‘five’
<i>iñu</i>	‘six’
<i>ūsha</i>	‘seven’
<i>ūnya</i>	‘eight’
<i>iin</i>	‘nine’
<i>ūshi</i>	‘ten’
<i>shāhun</i>	‘fifteen’
<i>ōko</i>	‘twenty’
<i>shiko</i>	‘twenty’ (as the nucleus of an attributive numeral phrase)
<i>syēntō</i>	‘hundred (Sp. <i>ciento</i> )’
<i>mū</i>	‘thousand (Sp. <i>mil</i> )’

Other numerals are expressed by phrases, as described in 4.1.1 and 4.1.2.

General quantifiers include a number of less precise quantifying words. They may be classified as mass, count, or common, according to whether they occur only with mass nouns, only with count nouns, or with either (see 5.3.2).

Mass:

<i>sīē</i>	‘little’
<i>nūh</i>	‘whole’

Count:

<i>ndyāhvīh</i>	‘few’
<i>kīhīnh</i>	‘several’
<i>sakūūh</i>	‘all’

Common:

<i>shakuh</i>	‘little bit, few’
<i>kwāhah</i>	‘much, many’
<i>ndihi</i>	‘all’
<i>sava</i>	‘some, half’

(See also 7.3.)

At least two general quantifiers, *sīē* ‘little’ and *sava* ‘some’ or ‘half’, sometimes function as stative verbs.

### 5.7 Prepositions

There are five simple prepositions and one complex preposition.

Simple:

<i>shūnh</i>	‘with’ (cf. <i>shīnh</i> ‘side’)
<i>mahīh</i>	‘in the middle of, in the center of’
<i>tein</i>	‘between, among’
<i>ndēē</i>	‘until (end)’
<i>ndee</i>	‘(from) until’

Complex:

<i>nü</i>	<i>ndee</i>
nor	from:until
‘not even’	

Prepositions are used mainly as the nucleus of prepositional phrases (see 4.3), but *shūnh* ‘with’ also occurs in additive noun phrases and additive adverb phrases (see 3.7 and 4.2.3), and *ndee* ‘(from) until’ also functions

as a temporal conjunction meaning ‘until’ or ‘since’ (see 6.2). Many prepositional functions are carried by locative nouns; see 1.1.4, 1.1.7, 3.5, and 5.3.2.

### 5.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are coordinate or subordinate and simple or complex.

Simple coordinate conjunctions:

<i>te</i>	‘and’
<i>ndīsu</i>	‘but’
<i>ūūn</i>	‘or’

Complex coordinate conjunctions:

<i>te</i>	<i>ndū</i>			
and	TOPIC			
‘but (weak)’				
<i>ndee</i>	<i>saa</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>ndū</i>
from:until	how	ADD	LIM	TOPIC
‘but (emphatic)’				

Simple subordinate conjunctions:

<i>nāāh</i>	‘if’
<i>nāā</i>	‘as’
<i>koto</i>	‘lest’ (cf. <i>koto</i> ‘will look’)
<i>kūh</i>	‘when’ (cf. <i>kāvih</i> ‘day’)

Complex subordinate conjunctions:

<i>ñā</i>	<i>kāah</i>	<i>nā</i>
it:INAN	that:far	OBL
‘with the result that’		
<i>ñā</i>	<i>xaanh</i>	<i>nā</i>
it:INAN	that:noted	OBL
‘with the result that’		

*sakānh nā*  
 thus OBL  
 ‘with the result that’

*ñā kāah nā kwūh*  
 it:INAN that:far OBL ?  
 ‘with the definitive result that’

*ñā xāanh nā kwūh*  
 it:INAN that:noted OBL ?  
 ‘with the definitive result that’

*sakānh nā kwūh*  
 thus OBL ?  
 ‘with the definitive result that’

*sakānh ñā*  
 thus it:INAN  
 ‘because’

*shāhah a ñā*  
 foot its:INAN it:INAN  
 ‘because’

*tēeh ndēē*  
 probably until:end  
 ‘although’

*koto ka*  
 lest ADD  
 ‘lest’

*te sakānh*  
 and thus  
 ‘than, and so’

## 5.9 Markers

Markers include all words that form parts of sentences or phrases but are not included in the parts of speech already described. Markers are verbal, nominal, numerical, general, or sentential.

Verbal markers occur as preverbal and postverbal elements in verb phrases (see 2.1.2 and 2.1.3); they are:

<i>kūn</i>	‘will go’
<i>kwān</i>	‘went (and hasn’t come back)’
<i>shán, shān</i>	‘goes (habitual)’
<i>shān</i>	‘went’
<i>ni</i>	‘completive aspect’
<i>īngāh</i>	‘same time’ (cf. <i>inga</i> ‘another of same kind’)
<i>sha</i>	‘oh! very’
<i>sha</i>	‘already’
<i>na</i>	‘hortatory’
<i>nā</i>	‘obligation’
<i>tāhānh</i>	‘each other’ (cf. <i>tāhanh</i> ‘relative’)
<i>ñahāh</i>	‘known-object’

Nominal markers occur as prenominal and postnominal elements in noun phrases (see 3.2.3, 3.4, and 3.9); they are:

<i>xaanh</i>	‘that (previously noted)’
<i>ndēē</i>	‘which?’

Numerical markers occur in aggregative, expanded, and interrogative numeral phrases (see 4.1.3, 4.1.4, and 4.1.9); they are:

<i>ndaah</i>	‘of group (SG)’
<i>tāhān</i>	‘of group (PL)’ (cf. <i>tāhanh</i> ‘relative’)
<i>saāh</i>	‘all of group’
<i>tīluh</i>	‘only (final)’

General markers occur in more than one major phrase type; they are:

<i>ni</i>	‘only’
<i>ka</i>	‘more’
<i>tuku</i>	‘again, another (of different kind)’
<i>kwitih</i>	‘just’ (cf. <i>kwūī</i> ‘short’)
<i>vih</i>	‘excessive’

<i>na</i>	‘hope’ (cf. <i>na</i> ‘hortatory’)
<i>xān</i>	‘doubt’
<i>tu</i>	‘also’
<i>va</i>	‘very’
<i>tēh</i>	‘probably’
<i>mūh</i>	‘self’
<i>inga</i>	‘another (of same kind)’ (cf. <i>iin</i> ‘one’, <i>ka</i> ‘more’)
<i>soho</i>	‘only (lack)’
<i>ndū</i>	‘topic’

There is one other general marker which means ‘negative’; it occurs in content verb phrases, equative verb phrases, and stative verb phrases. It can, however, be attached to only one constituent of a sentence, and the negated constituent must be within the verb phrase. A verb phrase containing a negated constituent must be sentence initial except that a prepositional phrase with *nū ndee* ‘not even’ can precede it. Negative is a clitic that is usually expressed simply by replacing the tone pattern of the following word by mid-low-mid. If the word has only two syllables, the first two tones fall on the first syllable, the vowel of which is doubled.

<i>tūvī</i>	‘will not blow’ (cf. <i>tivi</i> ‘will blow’)
<i>ndūuūh</i>	‘is not equal’ (cf. <i>ndūūh</i> ‘is equal’)
<i>āasīnh</i>	‘not delicious’ (cf. <i>āsīnh</i> ‘delicious’)
<i>ndāakū</i>	‘not straight’ (cf. <i>ndakū</i> ‘straight’)
<i>shūkāh</i>	‘not far’ (cf. <i>shūkāh</i> ‘far’)
<i>nāahnūh</i>	‘not occasionally’ (cf. <i>nāhnūh</i> ‘occasionally’)
<i>mūīh</i>	‘not haphazardly’ (cf. <i>mīh</i> ‘haphazardly’)
<i>ūngāh</i>	‘not contemporaneously’ (cf. <i>īngāh</i> ‘same time’)
<i>sūē</i>	‘not little’ (cf. <i>sē</i> ‘little’)
<i>kīhīnh</i>	‘not several’ (cf. <i>kihīnh</i> ‘several’)

(See also 7.5, 7.21, and 7.23.)

If the following word has three syllables, or if it is the completive aspect marker *nī* followed by a two-syllable verb, one tone falls on each syllable.



<i>kūnanīh</i>	‘won’t be named’ (cf. <i>kunanīh</i> ‘will be named’)
<i>nī tivī</i>	‘didn’t blow’ (cf. <i>ni tivī</i> ‘blew’)

In content verbs of Class II and in a few stative verbs, a final glottal stop is added to the negative form, and in content verbs of Class VII, a final glottal stop is added only in potential aspect.

<i>kāhānh</i>	‘will not blush’ (cf. <i>kahan</i> ‘will blush’)
<i>nī kahānh</i>	‘didn’t blush’ (cf. <i>ni kahan</i> ‘blushed’)
<i>vāhāh</i>	‘not good’ (cf. <i>vaha</i> ‘good’)
<i>ndīishāh</i>	‘not true’ (cf. <i>ndisha</i> ‘true’)
<i>kūnduūh</i>	‘will not be equal’ (cf. <i>kunduu</i> ‘will be equal’)
<i>kāakāh</i>	‘will not walk’ (cf. <i>kaka</i> ‘will walk’)

In content verbs of Class VI, the replacement pattern is mid-low mid-low, with doubling of the final vowel to accommodate the last two tones.

<i>tūvūh</i>	‘will not rot’ (cf. <i>tivīh</i> ‘will rot’)
<i>shāanū</i>	‘is not dreaming’ (cf. <i>shāanī</i> ‘is dreaming’)
<i>nī shavū</i>	‘was not tired’ (cf. <i>ni shavī</i> ‘was tired’)

There are a few further irregularities in negative forms, which are beyond the scope of this paper. There are also two specialized negative constructions, which are restricted to completive aspect. These are described in 2.1.2.

Sentential markers fall into three groups. The first group occurs at the beginning of the sentence and affects its mood or truth value, as described in 1.2.1 and 1.5. They are simple or complex.

Simple:

<i>ñāā</i>	‘YES/NO question’
<i>āān</i>	‘YES/NO question’
<i>āchi</i>	‘supplication’
<i>suu</i>	‘certainly’
<i>kwāīnh</i>	‘maybe’

## Complex:

*suu ndisha*  
 certainly true  
 'certainly true'

*kwāinh ndisha*  
 maybe true  
 'maybe true'

*tēeh ndisha*  
 probably true  
 'probably true'

There is another YES/NO question marker, which is a clitic expressed by raising the tone at the beginning of the sentence. Usually the first syllable of the first word is raised one level. A basic high tone is replaced by extra high, shown in the last example by underlining>.

*tāan*  
 INT:POT:quake  
 'Will there be an earthquake?' (cf. *taan* 'POT:quake')

*ñá lūlū ndūūh ah*  
 INT:she little:SG CON:be:equal she  
 'Is she a girl?' (cf. *ñā* 'she')

*shan kinh ra rih*  
 INT:HAB:DIR POT:shoot he it:AML  
 'Does he habitually go to shoot it?' (cf. *shán* 'HAB:DIR')

The second group of sentential markers occurs at the end of statements, YES/NO questions, and commands and refers to the type of decision involved, as described in 1.5. They are:

*ni* 'suggested' (cf *ni* 'only')  
*choh* 'modifiable'  
*ndi* 'contrary'  
*tih* 'urgent'  
*va* 'factual' (cf. *va* 'very')

*ranh* 'logical'  
*ndoh* 'assertive'

The third group occurs at the beginning of the sentence and relates it to its discourse context, as described in 6.4. They are simple or complex.

Simple:

*xūhun* 'by the way'

Complex:

*ama ndū*  
 when TOPIC  
 'main discourse topic'

*sakānh te*  
 thus and  
 'then'

*ikānh te*  
 over:there and  
 'at that point'

*kwachi ndū*  
 ? TOPIC  
 'for (explanation)' (cf. *kwachi* 'sin, blame')

*shāhah a kāah nā*  
 foot its:INAN that:far OBL  
 'for that reason'

*shāhah a xāanh nā*  
 foot its:INAN that:noted OBL  
 'for that reason'

*āxan te*  
 ? and  
 'now back to the point'

### 5.10 Interjections

Interjections are used to express emotion. They occur either outside of sentences or loosely attached at the beginning of the sentence, as described in 1.5. Some common interjections are:

<i>áán</i>	‘surprise’
<i>ūta</i>	‘negative surprise’
<i>tāa</i>	‘negative surprise’
<i>xanh</i>	‘displeasure’
<i>āxih</i>	‘disgust’
<i>xāán</i>	‘inquisitiveness’
<i>ūūxūun</i>	‘sadness’
<i>aii</i>	‘pain, deep sorrow’

There is another interjection, *ūhxūn*, which serves as a hesitation marker. It occurs when the speaker pauses to consider what to say next.

*nī tashi i shuhūnh ndahāh ūhxūn / pēgrū*  
 COM give I money hand HESITATION Peter  
 ‘I gave the money to . . . aah Peter.’

*kwāhan ra ūhxūn / űuu mexico*  
 CON:go he HESITATION town Mexico  
 ‘He is going to . . . aah Mexico (Sp. *México*) City.’

If the hesitation precedes the subject, the verb is repeated, and if it precedes the object or nominal complement, both verb and subject are repeated.

*sātah ūhxūn / ikwān sātah nūnih*  
 CON:buy HESITATION John CON:buy corn:kernel  
 ‘Is buying . . . aah JOHN is buying corn.’

*sātah ikwān ūhxūn / nūnih sātah ra*  
 CON:buy John HESITATION corn:kernel CON:buy he  
 ‘John is buying . . . aah he is buying CORN.’

*ni ndūu marīā ūhxūn / nā sīhī ra*  
 COM COM:be:equal Mary HESITATION she female his  
 'Mary was . . . aah she was HIS

*ni ndūu ah*  
 COM COM:be:equal she  
 WIFE.'



## 6

# Intersentential Relations

### 6.1 Coordinate Relations

Some combinations of sentences are connected by a conjunction, and some are not.

**6.1.1 Coordinate relations with conjunctions.** Coordinate relations between two sentences are expressed by *te* ‘and’, *ndīsu* ‘but’, *te ndū* ‘but (weak)’, *ndee saa ka ni ndū* ‘but (emphatic)’, and *ūūn* ‘or’.

The coordinate conjunction *te* ‘and’ expresses general coordination.

*sachūūnh yūhu / te sachūūnh tu yōhó*  
POT:work I:EMPH and POT:work also you:SG:EMPH  
‘I will work, and you will also work.’

*ni shāhan ra tutyōoh / te ni shāhan ra yīhēh*  
COM COM:go he Ayutla and COM COM:go he Acapulco  
‘He went to Ayutla, and he went to Acapulco.’

(See also 7.7, 7.8, 7.9, 7.12, 7.16, 7.18, 7.20, 7.23, 7.27, 7.28, 7.29, and 7.30.)

One of the semantic relations commonly expressed by this construction is simultaneous action.

*shīshīh ra / te ndātūhūnh ra*  
CON:eat he and CON:chat he  
‘He is eating and talking at the same time.’

*ndyēēh*                    *ne kwāchīh* / *te sāsīkih*    *nya*  
 CON:be:located:PL they small:PL and CON:play they  
 'The children are sitting playing.'

The coordinate conjunction is also used to express a series of items that form a list. If the items in the list serve as the subject of the sentence, the verb is stated before each item in the series, and *te* precedes all but the first occurrence of the verb.

*ni shūta*                    *shūnih* / *te ni shūta*                    *īchi* /  
 COM COM:be:lost hat and COM COM:be:lost machete  
 'The hat, machete, and hoe

*te ni shūta*                    *yātah*  
 and COM COM:be:lost hand:hoe  
 were lost.'

If the items listed serve as object, the verb and subject are repeated before each item in the series, and *te* precedes all but the first occurrence of the verb.

*sātah*    *ra nduchīh* / *te sātah*    *ra ūnh* /  
 CON:buy he bean and CON:buy he salt  
 'He is buying beans, salt,

*te sātah*    *ra nūnih*  
 and CON:buy he corn:kernel  
 and corn.'

If the items listed serve as an adjunct, the verb, subject, and object are repeated before each item in the series; *te* precedes all but the first occurrence of the verb. Locative nouns occurring as part of the adjunct precede each item in the list. (This construction does not occur with the associative adjunct.)

*tashi*    *ra shuhūnh ndahāh*    *ikwān* / *te tashi*    *ra*  
 POT:give he money hand John and POT:give he  
 'He will give money to John,

*shuhūnh*    *ndahāh pēgrū* / *te tashi*    *ra*  
 money hand Peter and POT:give he  
 Peter,



*shuhūnh ndahāh bētō*  
 money hand Bob  
 and Bob.'

If the items listed serve as either subject or object of the sentence, and if an adjunct or peripheral element occurs, the adjunct appears only with the first occurrence of the verb.

*ndūhuh yashīnh nūuh mēsā /*  
 CON:be:located:SG gourd:bowl face table  
 'The bowl, machete,

*te ndūhuh īchi /*  
 and CON:be:located:SG machete  
 and cloth are

*te ndūhuh tōto*  
 and CON:be:located:SG cloth  
 on the table (Sp. *mesa*).'

*kihīn ra ūnh yahvi / te kihīn ra yahāh /*  
 POT:get he salt market and POT:get he chili  
 'He will get salt, chilies, and beans

*te kihīn ra nduchūh*  
 and POT:get he bean  
 at the market.'

If the items listed form a complete list, the last occurrence of the verb is followed by postverbal *tu* 'also'.

*ni shūta shīnih / te ni shūta īchi /*  
 COM COM:be:lost hat and COM COM:be:lost machete  
 'A hat, machete, and hoe

*te ni shūta tu yātah*  
 and COM COM:be:lost also hand:hoe  
 were lost.'

The coordinate conjunction *te* is also used to express destination with verbs that take only source, and source with verbs that take only destination (see 1.1.4). *te* follows the first sentence containing a verb that takes

source and precedes the second sentence containing a verb that takes destination. Both source and destination can be specified, or one can be left implicit.

With source and destination specified:

*ni keta pēgrū tepāngō / te kwashi ra yahvi*  
 COM leave:SG Peter Tepango and CON:come he market  
 'Peter left Tepango (Sp. *Tepango*) and is coming to market.'

*ni shinu ra ñuu ra / te kwāhan ra tutyōoh*  
 COM COM:flee he town his and CON:go he Ayutla  
 'He fled from his town, and he is going to Ayutla.'

With only source specified:

*ni keta ah tepango / te ni shaa ah*  
 COM leave:SG she Tepango and COM COM:arrive:SG she  
 'She left Tepango, and she arrived.'

*shinūh ra ñuu ra / te kwāhan ra*  
 CON:flee he town his and CON:go he  
 'He is fleeing his town, and he is going.'

With only destination specified:

*kie nya / te kishi nya vihe i*  
 POT:leave:PL they and POT:come they house my  
 'They will leave, and they will come to my house.'

*ni shinu ra / te kwāhan ra yīhēh*  
 COM COM:flee he and CON:go he Acapulco  
 'He fled, and he is going to Acapulco.' or 'He fled to Acapulco.'

The antithetical conjunctions *ndīsu* 'but', *te ndū* 'but (weak)', and *ndee saa ka ni ndū* 'but (emphatic)' connect two sentences that express contrast; the last two are followed by pause. The contrasting sentences may turn on the use of a negative in one sentence but not in the other, or on a pair of antonyms.

With *ndīsu*:

*ni shashih mīshūn tātanh / ndīsu nī shihī rih*  
 COM COM:eat cat medicine but NEG:COM COM:die it:AML  
 ‘The cat (Old Sp. *mistón*) ate the poison, but it didn’t die.’

*vaha kāāh ah / ndīsu nyahā ah*  
 good CON:appear:SG she but evil she  
 ‘She looks pretty, but she is evil.’

With *te ndī*:

*kūnī tundāhah ra shūnh ah / te ndī /*  
 CON:want POT:marry he with her and TOPIC  
 ‘He wants to marry her, but she will

*tūndahāh ah*  
 NEG:POT:marry she  
 not get married.’

*ni kūni kivi ra / te ndī / ni shachūūnh ra*  
 COM want POT:die he and TOPIC COM COM:work he  
 ‘He was sick, but he worked.’

With *ndee saa ka ni ndī*:

*ni kutūnh ra / ndee saa ka ni ndī /*  
 COM be:punished he from:until how ADD LIM TOPIC  
 ‘He was punished, but

*kōōh kwachi ra*  
 NEG:CON:exist sin his  
 he is not guilty.’

*shīshīh ra / ndee saa ka ni ndī /*  
 CON:eat he from:until how ADD LIM TOPIC  
 ‘He is eating, but

*ndāahnī ra*  
 NEG:CON:be:satisfied he  
 he isn’t being satisfied.’

The conjunction *ūūn* ‘or’ expresses disjunction involving two or more alternatives; it precedes all but the first part.

*ndīkōh ah shūtah / ūūn ndīkōh ah sīhva*  
 CON:grind she tortilla or CON:grind she cacao:bean  
 ‘She is grinding tortilla dough, or she is grinding chocolate.’

*sachūūnh eh shāhah ña tata /*  
 POT:work we:IN foot it:INAN seed  
 ‘We will all work in the orchard,

*ūūn sachūūnh eh shāhah itu /*  
 or POT:work we:IN foot corn:plant  
 we will all work in the cornfield,

*ūūn sachūūnh eh nūuh ñuu*  
 or POT:work we:IN face town  
 or we will work for the town.’

Disjunctive questions are formed from disjunctive statements by placing the interrogative clitic at the beginning of each part (see 1.2.1 and 5.9).

*ndīkōh ah shūtah / ūūn ndīkōh*  
 INT:CON:grind she tortilla or INT:CON:grind  
 ‘Is she grinding tortilla dough, or is she grinding

*ah sīhva*  
 she cacao:bean  
 chocolate?’

*sāchūūnh eh shāhah ña tata /*  
 INT:POT:work we:IN foot it:INAN seed  
 ‘Will we work in the orchard,

*ūūn sāchūūnh eh shāhah itu /*  
 or INT:POT:work we:IN foot corn:plant  
 will we work in the cornfield,

*ūūn sāchūūnh eh nūuh ñuu*  
 or INT:POT:work we:IN face town  
 or will we work for the town?’

When, however, a disjunctive question is embedded within another sentence as an indirect question, the two alternatives are linked by *ũũn* 'or', but no interrogative marker occurs. The matrix sentence must contain a negative clitic, and the indirect question is introduced by *nāāh* 'if' (see 1.2.3).

*shūnī ah nāāh koho sīhe ah tātanh /*  
 NEG:CON:know she if POT:drink child her medicine  
 'She doesn't know whether her child will drink

*ũũn kōohōh ra*  
 or NEG:POT:drink he  
 the medicine or not.'

*nī kahān ra nāāh ni kishi sūtu vihe ra /*  
 NEG:COM speak he if COM come priest house his  
 'He didn't say whether the priest came to his house

*ũũn nī kishīh a*  
 or NEG:COM come he:RES  
 or not.'

Disjunctive commands are formed by placing *ũũn* before two alternatives, each of which is a polite command (see 1.3).

*ũũn ndiko unh shūtah / ũũn ndiko unh*  
 or POT:grind you:SG tortilla or POT:grind you:SG  
 'Please, either grind tortilla dough, or grind

*sīhva*  
 cacao:bean  
 the chocolate!'

*ũũn sachūũnh unh shāhah ña tata /*  
 or POT:work you:SG foot it:INAN seed  
 'Please, either work in the orchard,

*ũũn sachūũnh unh shāhah iuu*  
 or POT:work you:SG foot corn:plant  
 or work in the cornfield!'

One common construction consists of a disjunctive statement that serves as the first part of an antithetical construction. The disjunctive statement consists of two alternatives, each preceded by *ūūn*; they are frequently in a positive-negative relationship. This is followed by either *ndīsu* ‘but’ or *ndee saa ka ni ndū* ‘but (emphatic)’ and the third sentence. This sentence type carries the meaning that the choice between the alternatives is of little consequence, while the predication expressed by the third sentence is significant.

*ūūn vikōh eh tutūnh / ūūn vikōh eh*  
 or POT:carry we:IN firewood or POT:carry we:IN  
 ‘It matters little whether we carry firewood or we carry

*ndōoh / ndīsu chuun vīe ndūūh a*  
 sugarcane but work heavy CON:be:equal it:INAN  
 sugarcane, but the work is heavy.’

*ūūn kwāhan unh yahvi / ūūn kwāhān unh /*  
 or CON:go you:SG market or NEG:CON:go you:SG  
 ‘It matters little whether you are going to market or not,

*ndīsu kāhan i shūnh yuvāh eh*  
 but POT:speak I with father our:IN  
 but I will tell father.’

*ūūn ni tahvīh ah shāhā / ūūn ni ndyakōh*  
 or COM divide she soaked:corn or COM grind:fine  
 ‘It matters little whether she has broken up

*ah ishānh / ndee saa ka ni ndū /*  
 she corn:dough from:until how ADD LIM TOPIC  
 the soaked corn or finely ground the dough, but

*nī tyaāh ah*  
 NEG:COM pat:tortilla she  
 she has not patted out the tortillas.’

*ūūn ni shishi ra / ūūn nī shishīh ra /*  
 or COM COM:eat he or NEG:COM COM:eat he  
 ‘It matters little whether he has eaten or not,

*ndee saa ka ni ndū / ndāhā ra*  
 from:until how ADD LIM TOPIC CON:be:healed he  
 'but he is getting better.'

**6.1.2 Coordinate relations without conjunctions.** It is possible to simply juxtapose two independent sentences, often with a slight pause at the seam. This construction can be used to express several different semantic relations.

One important use of juxtaposition is to express the direction of a predication relative to the speaker. The second sentence contains either the motion verb *kūhun* 'to go', indicating that the predication is moving away from the speaker, or *kishi* 'to come', indicating that the predication is moving towards the speaker. The subjects of the two sentences are coreferential, and the possible aspect combinations are potential with potential, continuative with continuative, and completive with either continuative or completive.

*tutih ikwān / kishi ra*  
 POT:whistle John POT:come he  
 'John will come whistling.'

*ndāvāh ra / kwāhan ra yuhūh itya*  
 CON:run:SG he CON:go he mouth river  
 'He is running going to the edge of the river.'

*ni kihin nya ichīh / kwāhan nya*  
 COM get they path CON:go they  
 'They took the path and are going away.'

*ni ndyāka ra mbūrū / ni kishi ra vihe*  
 COM COM:lead he donkey COM come he house  
 'He led the donkey (Sp. *burro*) and came to the house.'

A position-event relation may be expressed by juxtaposing two sentences with coreferential subjects. The first sentence contains a position verb, usually requiring a locative adjunct, and the second sentence states the event taking place while the subject is in that position.

*kuhun nduchih tishin kisi / chōhoh a*  
 POT:be:inside:PL bean stomach pot POT:boil it:INAN  
 'The beans will be boiling inside the pot.'

*kānūh tōto shātah yūuh / chūh a*  
 CON:be:upon:SG cloth back rock CON:get:wet it:INAN  
 ‘The cloth is lying on the rock getting wet.’

*ni kandūhuh ra / shishi ra*  
 COM be:lying:SG he COM:eat he  
 ‘He ate lying down.’

*tāāh chūya / chīchī a*  
 CON:be:hanging banana CON:get:ripe it:INAN  
 ‘The bananas are hanging getting ripe.’

*kundyee ne kwāchīh kihe / kusīkīh nya*  
 POT:be:located:PL they small:PL outside POT:play they  
 ‘The children will be outside playing.’

Two sentences, the first containing the negative continuative form of the verb *koo* ‘to exist’, and the second containing a positive form of the same verb, may be juxtaposed in a coordinate relationship and have a shared noun phrase occurring between them. In the following examples, the solidus that signals the break between the two parts is arbitrarily placed after the shared noun phrase.

*kōōh sīhe ah / yōō*  
 NEG:CON:exist child her CON:exist  
 ‘She is not able to have children.’

*kōōh vihe / koo*  
 NEG:CON:exist house POT:exist  
 ‘There will be no houses.’

*kōōh māngō / ni yōō*  
 NEG:CON:exist mango COM COM:exist  
 ‘There were no mangos.’

## 6.2 Subordinate Relations

Subordinate relations are expressed using conjunctions; these relations include cause, result, condition, concession, purpose, negative purpose, time, and comparison.



Cause sentences are introduced by the complex conjunctions *sakānh ña* or *shāhah a ña*, which mean ‘because’. Cause sentences introduced by *sakānh ña* denote general cause.

*shākūh ra / sakānh ña sūchīh ini ra*  
 CON:cry he thus it:INAN CON:be:sad insides he  
 ‘He is crying because he is depressed.’

*ni ndaa tikwī itya / sakānh ña ni kuun sāvih*  
 COM rise water river thus it:INAN COM pelt rain  
 ‘The river rose because it rained.’

*vāahāh sachūūnh eh vitin / sakānh ña*  
 NEG:good POT:work we:IN now thus it:INAN  
 ‘It is not good for us to work today because

*kīvih kāhnūh ndūūh a*  
 day important CON:be:equal it:INAN  
 it is a holiday.’

(See also 7.23 and 7.24.)

Sentences introduced by *shāhah a ña* denote root cause; they may precede or follow the main sentence. When they precede, a result conjunction (either *sakānh nā* or *ña xaanh nā*) must introduce the main sentence.

*shāhah a ña ni shīhi ñā sīhī ra /*  
 foot its:INAN it:INAN COM COM:die she female his  
 ‘Because his wife died,

*sakānh nā shākūh ra*  
 thus OBL CON:cry he  
 (with the result that) he is crying.’

*shāhah a ña ni kuun sāvih /*  
 foot its:INAN it:INAN COM pelt rain  
 ‘Because it rained,

*ña xaanh nā ni ndaa tikwī itya*  
 it:INAN that:noted OBL COM rise water river  
 (with the result that) the river rose.’

Result sentences are introduced by the complex conjunctions *ñā kāah nā*, *ñā xaanh nā*, or *sakānh nā*, all of which mean ‘with the result that’; they follow the main sentence. *ñā kāah nā* is used when one physically points to the result.

*nī sasīkih unh shūnh ichi /*  
 COM COM:play you:SG with machete  
 ‘You played with the machete

*ñā kāah nā nī shahndya unh shāhah unh*  
 it:INAN that:far OBL COM COM:cut you:SG foot your:SG  
 (pointing to the cut) with the result that you cut your foot.’

*ñā xaanh nā* refers to nonspecific result.

*kwāhah nī shishi ra / ñā xaanh nā*  
 much COM COM:eat he it:INAN that:noted OBL  
 ‘He ate a lot with the result that his stomach

*kūhvī tishin ra*  
 CON:hurt stomach his  
 hurts.’

*nī kuun sāvih / ñā xaanh nā nī ndaa tikwī itya*  
 COM pelt rain it:INAN that:noted OBL COM rise water river  
 ‘It rained with the result that the river rose.’

*sakānh nā* refers to specific result.

*sūchih ini ra / sakānh nā shīhīh ra*  
 CON:be:sad insides he thus OBL CON:drink he  
 ‘He is depressed with the result that he drinks.’

*koo te tātú ra / sakānh nā satah ra ñā*  
 POT:exist he hired his thus OBL POT:buy he it:INAN  
 ‘He will have hired men with the result that he will

*shāshih*  
 CON:eat  
 buy food.’

All three of these conjunctions may be followed by *kwūh*, which denotes definitive result.

*ni sasīkih unh shūnh īchi / ña kāah nā kwūh*  
 COM COM:play you:SG with machete it:INAN that:far OBL ?  
 'You played with the machete (pointing to the cut) with

*ni shahndya unh shāhah unh*  
 COM COM:cut you:SG foot your:SG  
 the result that you cut your foot.'

*ni kuun sāvih / ña xaanh nā kwūh*  
 COM pelt rain it:INAN that:noted OBL ?  
 'It rained with the result

*ni ndaa tikwī itya*  
 COM rise water river  
 that the river rose.'

*sūchīh ini ra / sakānh nā kwūh shīhīh ra*  
 CON:be:sad insides he thus OBL ? CON:drink he  
 'He is depressed with the result that he drinks.'

Simple condition sentences are introduced by the conjunction *nāāh* 'if'. The subordinate sentence may follow or precede the main sentence. When it precedes, the topic marker *ndū* occurs at the end of the subordinate sentence; this marker is always followed by a pause.

*kushi ra / nāāh shīhī ra soko*  
 POT:eat he if CON:die he hunger  
 'He will eat if he is hungry.'

*koo niyh / nāāh tūhūnh ra kūhu*  
 POT:exist corn:ear if CON:pull he weeds  
 'There will be corn if he weeds.'

*nāāh tūhūnh ra kūhu ndū / koo niyh*  
 if CON:weed he weeds TOPIC POT:exist corn:ear  
 'If he weeds, there will be corn.'

*nāāh shīhí ra soko ndū / kushi ra*  
 if CON:die he hunger TOPIC POT:eat he  
 'If he is hungry, he will eat.'

(See also 7.25 and 7.28.)

To express a hypothetical condition, the conjunction *nāāh* is followed by the idiom *saa eh kwēntā* 'let's suppose' (literally, 'let's do an account [Sp. *cuental*]').

*chahvi unh ūvi syēntō pēsū /*  
 POT:pay you:SG two hundred peso  
 'You would pay two hundred (Sp. *ciento*) pesos (Sp. *peso*)

*nāāh saa eh kwēntā satah unh a*  
 if POT:do we:IN account POT:buy you:SG it:INAN  
 if you were to buy it.'

*nāāh saa eh kwēntā satah unh a ndū /*  
 if POT:do we:IN account POT:buy you:SG it:INAN TOPIC  
 'If you were to buy it,

*chahvi unh ūvi syēntō pēsū*  
 POT:pay you:SG two hundred peso  
 you would pay two hundred pesos.'

To express a contrafactual condition, the verb of the conditional sentence must be in resigned negative form and in completive aspect (see 2.1.2). The meaning of the conditional sentence is, however, not negative, in spite of the negative form that occurs there.

*sha ni chahvi i yōhó /*  
 already COM pay I you:SG  
 'I just now would have paid you

*nāāh nī kāhán unh*  
 if RSN:NEG:COM CON:speak you:SG  
 if you had spoken.'

*tyākū ra vitin /*  
 CON:live he now  
 'He would be living today

*nāāh nī shīhīh ra tātanh*  
 if RSN:NEG:COM CON:drink he medicine  
 'if he had drunk the medicine.'

*nāāh nī kāhán unh ndū /*  
 if RSN:NEG:COM CON:speak you:SG TOPIC  
 'If you had spoken,

*sha ni chahvi i yōhó*  
 already COM pay I you:SG,  
 'I just now would have paid you.'

*nāāh nī shīhīh ra tātanh ndū /*  
 if RSN:NEG:COM CON:drink he medicine TOPIC  
 'If he had drunk the medicine,

*tyākū ra vitin*  
 CON:live he now  
 'he would be living today.'

Concession sentences are introduced by the complex conjunction *tēeh ndēē* 'although'. The subordinate sentence can follow or precede the main sentence; when it precedes, it is followed by the topic marker *ndū*.

*kīshí ra / tēeh ndēē ni kaa űuhu*  
 CON:sleep he probably until:end COM rise sun  
 'He is sleeping although the sun has risen.'

*tēeh ndēē ni kaa űuhu ndū / kīshí ra*  
 probably until:end COM rise sun TOPIC CON:sleep he  
 'Although the sun has risen, he is sleeping.'

Purpose sentences are introduced by the coordinate conjunction *te* 'and', and they require a verb in potential aspect. They must follow the main sentence. Purpose constructions are identical in form to coordinate constructions (see 6.1.1) with potential aspect on the verb in the second part, and the ambiguity can be resolved only by the context.

*kōso ra tūnh yahāh / te kwahnu nuh*  
 POT:water he it:WOD chili and POT:grow it:WOD  
 'He will water the chili plants so that they will grow.' or 'He will water the chili plants, and they will grow.'

*shāhndyā ra māngō / te shikoh ra a*  
 CON:cut he mango and POT:sell he it:INAN  
 'He is picking the mangos in order to sell them.' or 'He is picking  
 the mangos, and he will sell them.'

In the text in chapter 7, sentence 7.17 contains a purpose sentence, and 7.5 contains two purpose sentences, with the second one embedded within the first. Sentence 7.27, however, is considered to be a simple coordinate sentence, even though it has potential aspect in the second part.

Negative purpose sentences are introduced by the subordinate conjunctions *koto* or *koto ka*, which mean 'lest', and they require a verb in potential aspect. They must follow the main sentence.

*koto unh / koto kahndya unh ndahāh unh*  
 POT:look you:SG lest POT:cut you:SG hand your:SG  
 'Take care lest you cut your hand.'

*nūhīh ra shuhūnh / koto kūni a nūuh ra*  
 CON:carry he money lest POT:lack it:INAN face his  
 'He is taking money lest it should run out on him.'

*ni shikōh ah tikwī / koto ka kasīhe sihīh ah*  
 COM COM:carry she water lest ADD POT:be:angry mother her  
 'She got the water lest her mother be angry

*nūuh ah*  
 face her  
 with her.'

*kuni soho unh kwētō i / koto ka kundoho unh*  
 POT:sense ear you:SG word my lest ADD POT:suffer you:SG  
 'Listen to my words (Sp. *cuento*) lest you suffer.'

Simultaneous action sentences are introduced by the conjunction *kūh* 'when'. They may follow or precede the main sentence; when they precede, they are followed by the topic marker *ndī*.

*kūhun i űuu / kūh koo vikōh*  
 POT:go I town when POT:exist fiesta  
 'I will go to town when there is a fiesta.'

*sāsīkih ne kwāchīh / kūh nātyāh sihīh nya*  
 CON:play they small:PL when CON:wash mother their  
 ‘The children are playing when their mothers are washing.’

*ni ndaa tikwī itya / kūh ni kuun sāvih*  
 COM rise water river when COM pelt rain  
 ‘The river rose when it rained.’

*kūh koo vikōh ndū / kūhun i űuu*  
 when POT:exist fiesta TOPIC POT:go I town  
 ‘When there is a fiesta, I will go.’

*kūh nātyāh sihīh nya ndū / sāsīkih ne kwāchīh*  
 when CON:wash mother their TOPIC CON:play they small:PL  
 ‘When their mothers are washing, the children are playing.’

*kūh ni kuun sāvih ndū / ni ndaa tikwī itya*  
 when COM pelt rain TOPIC COM rise water river  
 ‘When it rained, the river rose.’

(See also 7.2, 7.14, 7.32, and 7.33.)

Other subordinate time sentences are introduced by the preposition *ndee* ‘(from) until’, which also functions as a conjunction meaning either ‘until’ or ‘since’. They follow the main sentence.

*ndyātūh ra / ndee shāa yuvāh ra*  
 CON:wait he from:until POT:arrive:SG father his  
 ‘He is waiting until his father arrives.’

*shāchūūnh ra / ndee ni kuun sāvih*  
 CON:work he from:until COM pelt rain  
 ‘He is working since it rained.’ or ‘He was working until it rained.’

*ni tuhun ra kūhu / ndee ni shavī ra*  
 COM pull he weeds from:until COM be:tired he  
 ‘He weeded until he got tired.’ or ‘He weeded from when he got tired.’

Comparison of likeness sentences are introduced by the conjunction *nāā* ‘as’ and must have the same verb as the main sentence. The subordinate

sentence can either follow or precede the main sentence; when it precedes, the main sentence optionally begins with *sakānh* ‘thus’.

*ni kāhan ra vitin / nāā ni kāhan ra iku*  
 COM speak he now as COM speak he yesterday  
 ‘He spoke today as he spoke yesterday.’

*nāā kāāh kīni / sāna i /*  
 as CON:appear:SG pig domestic:animal my  
 ‘As my pig looks,

*kāāh rih*  
 CON:appear:SG it:AML  
 it looks.’

*nāā saa ra / sakānh shāāh eh*  
 as POT:do he thus CON:do we:IN  
 ‘As he is doing, so we are doing.’

(See also 7.4.)

Comparison of degree is introduced by *te sakānh* ‘than’, followed by the subject. No verb phrase occurs in the subordinate sentence, but it is always understood to contain the same verb as the main sentence. The verb phrase of the main sentence must contain *ka* ‘more’.

*chīe ka ra / te sakānh yūhu*  
 big:SG ADD he and thus I:EMPH  
 ‘He is bigger than I.’

*kwītī ka nuh / te sakānh tūnh kāah*  
 short ADD it:WOD and thus it:WOD that:far  
 ‘It is shorter than that one.’

*kama ka ndāvāh ikwān / te sakānh bētō*  
 fast ADD CON:run:SG John and thus Bob  
 ‘John runs faster than Bob.’

*kīshī ka mīshītūn / te sakānh nāyah*  
 CON:sleep ADD cat and thus dog  
 ‘Cats sleep more than dogs.’

(See also 7.24.)



## 6.3 Direct Quotations

Direct quotations consist of three elements: the quotation introducer, the quotation, and the quotation closer. The quotation is obligatory and consists of one or more sentences. The quotation closer consists of a verb of speaking or thinking, usually *kāchi* ‘to say’, its subject, and often an addressee, expressed as an associative adjunct. The quotation introducer often contains other verbs, is frequently expressed by more complex constructions than the quotation closer, and is separated from the quotation by the topic marker *ndū*. The quotation closer usually occurs, but it is possible, for dramatic effect, to omit the quotation introducer.

With simple introducers:

*kāhán ah ndū / vāhāh a / kāchī ah*  
 CON:speak she TOPIC NEG:goodit:INAN CON:say she  
 ‘She says, “It is bad,” she says.’

*kāhán yuvāh ra shūnh ra ndū / yōō kwāhah*  
 CON:speak father his with him TOPIC CON:exist much  
 ‘His father says to him, “There is a lot of

*chuun nūuh eh / kāchī ra shūnh ra*  
 work face our:IN CON:say he with him  
 work before us,” he said to him.’

*ni kāhán ikwān ndū / ūni tāhān*  
 COM speak John TOPIC three of:group:PL  
 ‘John said, “There are three

*kūuh rih / ni kāchī ra*  
 CON:be:inherently it:AML COM say he  
 animals,” he said.’

(See also 7.11, 7.21–24, 7.25–26, and 7.27.)

With complex introducers:

*kūh ni shini ah ni kuyatin ah ndū /*  
 when COM COM:sense she COM become:near she TOPIC  
 ‘When she saw that she had gotten close,

*ni kāhan ah shūnh ah ndū /*  
 COM speak she with her TOPIC  
 she spoke to her,

*chindyeēh unh yūhu / pehē / ni kāchi ah shūnh ah*  
 POT:help you:SG me dear COM say she with her  
 “Please help me, dear!” she said to her.’

*ndāvāh ra / kwāhan ra shāhah ndōoh /*  
 CON:run:SG he CON:go he foot sugarcane  
 ‘He was running going to the sugarcane field,

*te ni kāhan tūhēh ra ndū /*  
 and COM speak hard he TOPIC  
 and he shouted,

*shīshī ndōoh / ni kāchi ra*  
 CON:burn sugarcane COM say he  
 “The sugarcane is burning!” he said.’

(See also 7.14–15, 7.18–19, 7.28, and 7.32.)

Without introducer:

*yōho ndū / nū shāchūūnh unh/*  
 YOU:SG:EMPH TOPIC CEX:NEG:COM CON:work you:SG  
 “As for you, you didn’t work!”

*ni kāchi ikwān shūnh nīani ra*  
 COM say John with brother:ME his  
 said John to his brother.’

*ndīshāh kāhán unh / ni kāchi nīani ra*  
 NEG:true CON:speak you:SG COM say brother:ME his  
 “What you are saying IS NOT TRUE!” said his brother.’

(See also 7.20.)

#### 6.4 Relations Across Sentence Boundaries

There is a set of elements that occur in initial position in the sentence and link it to the preceding discourse context.

These expressions include the coordinate conjunctions *te* ‘and’, *ndīsu* ‘but’, and *ndee saa ka ni ndī* ‘but (emphatic)’. The last two are followed by a pause.

*sh̄tahānh ndī / ni sh̄ka iin te yivih*  
 long:ago TOPIC COM COM:walk one he ?  
 ‘Long ago there lived a man

*ni nanih ikwān // te ni yōo*  
 COM COM:be:named John and COM COM:exist  
 named John. And he had

*ñā sīhī ra*  
 she female his  
 a wife.’

(See also 7.2, 7.5, 7.14, 7.24, 7.26, 7.39, and 7.40.)

*ni kāhan ra shūnh te chūūnh / te kwāhan ra //*  
 COM speak he with him worklike and CON:go he  
 ‘He spoke to the president and was going away.

*ndīsu / shūnī i mūh kwāhan ra*  
 but NEG:CON:know I where CON:go he  
 But I do not know where he was going.’

(See also 7.12, 7.23, and 7.34.)

*chīshē nih tāhma / mūh kini kāāh //*  
 CON:hide it:AML ravine where awful CON:appear:SG  
 ‘It is hiding in the ravine where it is very rugged.

*ndee saa ka ni ndī / nahi i rih*  
 from:until how ADD LIM TOPIC POT:take:SG I it:AML  
 But I will get it.’

The conjunction *te* ‘and’ is followed by the general adverb *sakānh* ‘thus’ to express a result.

*kwāhan ah ichih // te sakānh ni shini ah*  
 CON:go she path and thus COM COM:sense she  
 ‘She was going along the path. And so she saw

*kīēh shiko nūhu shīnih vihe ah*  
 CON:leave:PL flame fire head house her  
 flames of fire leaving the roof of her house.'

These expressions also include the subordinate conjunctions *ñā kāah nā*, *ñā xāanh nā*, and *sakānh nā*, 'with the result that', used in this position to mean 'therefore'.

*koto unh saa ndōhōh ikwān //*  
 POT:look you:SG how CON:suffer John  
 'Look how John is suffering!

*ñā kāah nā kunī soho unh*  
 it:INAN that:far OBL POT:sense ear you:SG  
 (pointing at John) Therefore listen!'

*sakānh ni kāhan ra shūnh i // vaha //*  
 thus COM speak he with me good  
 'He spoke to me like like that. Good.

*ñā xāanh nā koto shūnh miūh i*  
 it:INAN that:noted OBL POT:look with SPEC me  
 Therefore I will be careful.'

*ni shishi rih / te ni ndahni va rih //*  
 COM COM:eat it:AML and COM be:satisfied INTS it:AML  
 It ate, and it was very full.

*sakānh nā ni ndushan rih*  
 thus OBL COM vomit it:AML  
 Therefore it vomited.'

The topic marker *ndū* introduces a comment that relates to the previous discourse; this marker is always followed by a pause.

*ni shāhan i vikōh shūnh shito i //*  
 COM COM:go I fiesta with uncle my  
 'I went to the fiesta with my uncle.

*ndū / shūnī i ndichūn ndīhni unh*  
 TOPIC NEG:CON:know I why CON:be:worried you:SG  
 Well, I don't know why you are worried

*shāhah i*  
 foot my  
 about me.'

*kwān sachūūnh ra // ndū / kāah ndūhuh*  
 CON:DIR POT:work he TOPIC there:far CON:be:located:SG  
 'He has gone to work. Well, the machete is over

*īchi*  
 machete  
 there.'

(See also 7.41.)

The complex sentential marker *ama ndū* introduces the main topic of the discourse.

*ichīh nāá ra / kwāhan ra //*  
 path CON:be:inside:SG he CON:go he  
 'He is going along the trail.

*ama ndū / ikānh ndyēēh te ndāsīh*  
 when TOPIC over:there CON:be:located:PL he CON:hate  
 His enemies were located

*tāhānh shūnh ra*  
 each:other with him  
 THERE.'

(See also 7.6.)

The next sequential event of the discourse is introduced by the complex sentential marker *sakānh te* 'then'.

*sakūūh a kāah ni shaa ra //*  
 all it:INAN that:far COM COM:do he  
 'He did all that.

*sakānh te ni kīshi ra*  
 thus and COM COM:sleep he  
 Then he slept.'

(See also 7.3, 7.9, 7.11, 7.16, 7.17, 7.18, 7.21, 7.25, 7.27, 7.28, 7.29, and 7.36.)

An event that interrupts the discourse is introduced by the complex sentential marker *ikānh te* ‘at that point’.

*ndātūhūnh ra shūnh yuvāh ra //*  
 CON:chat he with father his  
 ‘He was chatting with his father.’

*ikānh te ni kahndi*  
 over:there and COM bang  
 At that moment a shot rang out.’

An explanation is introduced by the complex sentential marker *kwachi ndū* ‘for (explanation)’.

*kwāhān űuu/ pehē //*  
 IMP:go town dear  
 ‘Go to town, dear.’

*kwachi ndū / chindyēēh i shito unh*  
 ? TOPIC POT:help I uncle your:SG  
 For I will help your uncle.’

Reason is introduced by the complex sentential markers *shāhah a kāah nā* and *shāhah a xāanh nā* ‘for that reason’; the first is accompanied by a gesture.

*ni tashi ra iin tumānih ndahāh i //*  
 COM give he one gift hand my  
 ‘He gave a gift to me.’

*shāhah a kāah nā vaha kūnī i*  
 foot its:INAN that:far OBL good CON:appear I  
 (pointing to the gift) Therefore I am happy.’

*ni kāhan vaha unh shūnh ra //*  
 COM speak good you:SG with him  
 ‘You spoke well to him.’

*shāhah a xāanh nā kūndihni unh*  
 foot its:INAN that:noted OBL NEG:POT:be:worried you:SG  
 For that reason do not worry.’

The start, flow, and termination of formal conversation is signalled by a number of sentential markers. When a speaker initiates his utterance, in starting a conversation, interrupting another conversation, or interjecting background information or a personal comment into a narrative, he begins it with *xūhun* followed by a pause.

*xūhun / yōō iin chuun sē kwashi i //*  
 ? CON:exist one work little CON:come I  
 ‘Well, there is an errand for which I have come.’

*ndyēēh te yīvih / ndātūhūnh ra //*  
 CON:be:located:PL he ? CON:chat he  
 ‘The men were sitting chatting.’

*ikānh te ni kāhan ah ndū / xūhun / nyaha*  
 over:there and COM speak she TOPIC ? IMP:come  
 At that point she said, “Come

*ndoh / te kushi ndoh / taa / ni kāchi ah*  
 you:PL and POT:eat you:PL sir COM say she  
 to eat, sirs,” she said.’

*te sakānh ni sutyāh ra itya //*  
 and thus COM swim he river  
 ‘And so he swam in the river.’

*xūhun / shūnī i nāāh kūvī sūtyaāh ra*  
 ? NEG:CON:know I if CON:be:able CON:swim he  
 I didn’t know if he could swim.’

When a speaker responds to another speaker, or when he changes theme in the midst of his discourse, he often begins his utterance with the stative verb *vaha* ‘good’ followed by the appropriate vocative.

*vaha / taa // vaha ni kāhan unh*  
 good sir good COM speak you:SG  
 ‘Okay, sir. You spoke well.’

*ñā xaanh ni ndōho nduh kūh ni shāhan*  
 it:INAN that:known COM COM:suffer we:EX when COM COM:go  
 ‘We experienced THAT when we went to the fiesta.’

*nduh vikōh // vaha / taa // yōō iin chuun*  
 we:EX fiesta good sir CON:exist one work  
 Okay sirs. There is an errand

*kwashi i*  
 CON:come I  
 on which I have come.'

When a speaker has finished speaking, he often ends his utterance with the assertive sentential marker *ndoh* followed by the appropriate vocative.

*shāhah a kāah kwashi i ndoh / shishi*  
 foot its:INAN that:far CON:come I ASSERTIVE aunt  
 'For that reason I come, Aunt.'

When a speaker narrating has finished a personal comment, he returns to the main theme of the discourse by starting the next sentence with *āxan te* followed by a pause.

*sakānh ni shanini i / kūh ni shaa ra*  
 thus COM COM:think I when COM COM:do he  
 'I thought like that when he did

*ñā xaanh // āxan te / ni kihin ra*  
 it:INAN that:noted ? and COM get he  
 that thing. Well then, he took to

*ichih / kwāhan ra*  
 path CON:go he  
 the path and went away.'



# 7

## Text

- 7.1 *ūntāh ni chihi iin te yīvih kwāhah tūnh yahāh*  
 once COM plant one he ? many it:WOD chili  
 ‘Once a man planted many chili plants.’
- 7.2 *te kīih ndūndaturh nuh ndū /*  
 and when CON:become:pretty it:WOD TOPIC  
 ‘And when the plants were becoming lush.
- shahāh kitīh shāshih nih nuh*  
 COM:begin animal CON:eat it:AML it:WOD  
 animals began eating them.’
- 7.3 *sakānh te ni shaha ra iin ñaha*  
 thus and COM COM:make he one thing  
 ‘Then he made a thing
- shūnh mīh ndihi ñūmah*  
 with SPEC all wax  
 with pure wax.’
- 7.4 *nāā kāāh te yīvih / kāāh a*  
 as CON:appear:SG he ? CON:appear:SG it:INAN  
 ‘As appears a man, it appeared.’
- 7.5 *te ni shani ra ñaha xaanh*  
 and COM COM:stand he thing that:noted  
 ‘And he stood that thing up

*mahīh tūnh yahāh /*  
 in:middle:of it:WOD chili  
 in the middle of the chili plants

*te kuyihvī kiīh /*  
 and POT:be:afraid animal  
 so that the animal would be afraid

*te kāashīh ka rih tūnh yahāh*  
 and NEG:POT:eat ADD it:AML it:WOD chili  
 in order that it would not eat the chili plants any more.'

7.6 *ama ndū / kiīh xaanh ndū/*  
 when TOPIC animal that:noted TOPIC  
 'Now, as for that animal,

*iso ndūūh rih*  
 rabbit CON:be:equal it:AML  
 it was THE RABBIT!'

7.7 *naā űuū ni kīhvi iso / te ni*  
 ? night COM enter:SG rabbit and COM  
 'AT MIDNIGHT the rabbit gained entrance,<sup>1</sup>

*shini rih tūnh űaha xaanh*  
 COM:sense it:AML CON:be:standing:SG thing that:noted  
 and it saw that thing standing.'

7.8 *kwīē kwīē shaa rih /*  
 slow slow COM:arrive:SG it:AML  
 'It arrived VERY CAREFULLY,

*te ni chindahāh rih űaha xaanh*  
 and COM push it:AML thing that:noted  
 and it pushed that thing

*shūnh ndahāh kwaha rih / te ni tūn a*  
 with hand right its:AML and COM COM:be:stuck it:INAN  
 with its right paw, and it got stuck.'

<sup>1</sup>The expression *naā űuū* is an idiom meaning 'at midnight'.

- 7.9 *sakānh te ni chihni rih inga ndahāh*  
 thus and COM thrust:in it:AML other:same hand  
 ‘Then it thrust in its other

*rih / te iin kāchī ni tūn tu a*  
 its:AML and one ? COM COM:be:stuck also it:INAN  
 paw, and in the same way it also got stuck.’<sup>2</sup>

- 7.10 *sakānh tu shaa rih shūnh ūvi sāah*  
 thus also COM:do it:AML with two all:of:group  
 ‘It also did the same with both

*shāhah rih*  
 foot its:AML  
 its feet.’

- 7.11 *sakānh te ni shanini rih ndū /*  
 thus and COM COM:think it:AML TOPIC  
 ‘Then it thought,

*vitin te kashih ihīh eh a / ni shanini rih*  
 now and POT:eat raw we:IN it:INAN COM COM:think it:AML  
 ‘Right now I will eat it raw,’ it thought.’

- 7.12 *ndīsu / iin kāchī ni tiin a sakūūh nuhu rih /*  
 but one ? COM hold it:INAN all tooth its:AML  
 ‘But, in the same way it (the wax figure) grabbed hold of

*te ikānh ni ndōo rih*  
 and over:there COM stay it:AML  
 all its (the rabbit’s) teeth, and THERE it (the rabbit) stayed.’

- 7.13 *tuku kīvih ni shaa te shūnh nāha tūnh yahāh*  
 REP day COM COM:arrive:SG he with thing it:WOD chili  
 ‘ANOTHER DAY, the owner arrived at the chili plants.’

- 7.14 *te kūh shini ra*  
 and when COM:sense he  
 ‘And when he saw

<sup>2</sup>The expression *iin kāchī* is an idiom meaning ‘in the same way’.

*ndyaa ndūhuh iso xaanh ndū /*  
 adheringly CON:be:located:SG rabbit that:note<sub>d</sub> TOPIC  
 that rabbit stuck (there),

*ni kāhan ra shūnh rih ndū /*  
 COM speak he with it:AML TOPIC  
 he spoke to it,

*áán / yóhó shāndūh*  
 SURPRISE YOU:SG:EMPH CON:trouble  
 ‘Oh, you are troubling

*shūnh tūnh yahāh i*  
 with it:WOD chili my  
 my chili plants!’

7.15 *vitin te chahvi unh sakūūh*  
 now and POT:pay you:SG all  
 ‘Right now you will pay for all

*ñā ni shaa unh / ni kāchi ra*  
 it:INAN COM COM:do you:SG COM say he  
 that you did,’ he said.’

7.16 *sakānh te ni skohnūh ra iso tishin ndāah /*  
 thus and COM place:in he rabbit stomach sack  
 ‘Then he placed the rabbit into the sack,

*te ni satūn vaha ra yuhūh ndāah /*  
 and COM tie good he mouth sack  
 and he securely tied the mouth of the sack,

*te kwān nūhu ra*  
 and CON:DIR POT:go:home he  
 and he went home.’

7.17 *sakānh te shanini iso saa saa rih /*  
 thus and COM:think rabbit how POT:do it:AML  
 ‘Then the rabbit thought what it would do,

*te kāku rih*  
 and POT:be:rescued it:AML  
 in order to be rescued.'

- 7.18 *sakānh te ni shkāhndya iin ingwi*  
 thus and COM pass:by one fox  
 'Then a fox passed by,

*te ni kāhan rih shūnh ingwi ndū /*  
 and COM speak it:AML with fox TOPIC  
 and it spoke to the fox,

*kishi ndyaha unh / ñani rōō i*  
 POT:come short:distance you:SG brother:ME dear my  
 "Come a little closer, my dear friend!"

- 7.19 *kānī ndatūhūnh i shūnh unh iin shāhāh /*  
 CON:want POT:chat I with you:SG one short:time  
 'I want to chat with you for a second,"

*ni kāchi iso*  
 COM say rabbit  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.20 *vaha / ni kāchi ingwi / te ni kuyatin rih*  
 good COM say fox and COM approach it:AML  
 "Okay," said the fox, and it approached.'

- 7.21 *sakānh te ni kāhan iso ndū /*  
 thus and COM speak rabbit TOPIC  
 "Then the rabbit spoke,

*ñāā kāahān nīmá unh koo*  
 INT NEG:CON:speak heart you:SG POT:exist  
 "You are not desiring (Sp. *ánima*) to have

*ñā sīhī unh*  
 she female your:SG  
 a wife, are you?'

7.22 *yūhu ndū / ni kie vaha i*  
 I:EMPH TOPIC COM leave:PL good I  
 ‘As for me, I was lucky<sup>3</sup>

*shūnh iin nalui vaha va kāāh*  
 with one girl good INTS CON:appear:SG  
 with a girl, who is very beautiful.’

7.23 *ndīsu / kūunī tundāhah i shūnh ah /*  
 but NEG:CON:want POT:marry I with her  
 ‘But I don’t want to marry her

*sakānh ña chīe va ah /*  
 thus it:INAN big:SG INTS she  
 because she is very big,

*te yūhu ndū / lūlū va i*  
 and I:EMPH TOPIC small:SG INTS I  
 and, as for me, I am very little.’

7.24 *te shūnh yōhó ndū / kuvi*  
 and with you:SG:EMPH TOPIC POT:be:able  
 ‘And with you, on the other hand, she is able

*nakwīta ah / sakānh ña chīe ka*  
 POT:be:compatible she thus it:INAN big:SG ADD  
 to be compatible because you are bigger

*unh / te sakānh yūhu / ni kāchi iso*  
 you:SG and thus I:EMPH COM say rabbit  
 than I,” said the rabbit.’

7.25 *sakānh te ni kāhan ingwi ndū /*  
 thus and COM speak fox TOPIC  
 ‘Then the fox spoke,

*nāāh ndisha va sakānh ndūūh a ndū /*  
 if true INTS thus CON:be:equal it:INAN TOPIC  
 “If that is really true,

<sup>3</sup>The idiom *kie vaha* ‘to be lucky’ contains a plural verb, but it occurs with both singular and plural subjects.

*kihīn ñahāh yūhu*  
 POT:get KNO I:EMPH  
 'I will get her.'

7.26 *te saa saa i / ni kāchi ingwi*  
 And how POT:do I COM say fox  
 'And what shall I do?' said the fox.'

7.27 *sakānh te ni kāhan iso ndū /*  
 thus and COM speak rabbit TOPIC  
 'Then the rabbit spoke,

*vitin te kīhvi unh tishin ndāah /*  
 now and POT:enter:SG you:SG stomach sack  
 "Right now get into the sack,

*te kundyaka yuvāh nalui yōhó*  
 and POT:lead father girl you:SG  
 and the girl's father will take you

*ndee mūh ndūhuh nalui xaanh /*  
 from:until where CON:be:located:SG girl that:noted  
 to where the girl lives,"

*ni kāchi iso*  
 COM say rabbit  
 said the rabbit.'

7.28 *sakānh te nākwātyāh ingwi / te ni kāhan rih*  
 thus and CON:be:happy fox and COM speak it:AML  
 'Then the fox was very happy, and it said,

*ndū / na koo a / nāāh shāāh unh*  
 TOPIC HORT POT:exist it:INAN if CON:do you:SG  
 "Let it happen if you are doing

*ña vaha / ni kāchi ingwi*  
 it:INAN good COM say fox  
 the favor," said the fox.'

- 7.29 *sakānh te ni keta iso /*  
 thus and COM leave:SG rabbit,  
 ‘Then the rabbit got out,  
*te ni nakoo rih ingwi tishin ndāah*  
 and COM abandon it:AML fox stomach sack  
 and it left the fox inside the sack.’
- 7.30 *nūūh va te shaa te yīvih xaanh /*  
 short:time INTS and COM:arrive:SG he ? that:noted  
 ‘IN A VERY SHORT TIME, the man arrived,  
*te ni nahi ra ndāah shūnh ingwi*  
 and COM take:SG he sack with fox  
 and he took the sack with the fox.’
- 7.31 *nū shīnī ra nāāh ingwi nāā*  
 CEX:NEG:COM CON:sense he if fox CON:be:inside:SG  
 ‘He didn’t realize (as he should have) that the fox was inside.’
- 7.32 *kūh ni shaa ra vihe ra ndū /*  
 when COM COM:arrive:SG he house his TOPIC  
 ‘When he arrived at his house,  
*ni kāhan ra shūnh sīhe ra ndū /*  
 COM speak he with child his TOPIC  
 he spoke to his child,  
*vitin te sanasāah unh kaa /*  
 now and POT:reheat you:SG metal  
 ‘Right now reheat the spit  
*ñā tāvīh eh ndeih shūnh / ni kāchi ra*  
 it:INAN CON:roast we:IN meat with COM say he  
 which we roast meat with,” he said.’
- 7.33 *kūh ni nduihnīh kaa xaanh ndū /*  
 when COM become:hot metal that:noted TOPIC  
 ‘When that spit became hot,



*ni kahānh ra tuvi ra a*  
 COM think he POT:poke he it:INAN  
 he thought he would poke it

*sava ni tisīhndi kīē kitīh xaanh*  
 half LIM anus CON:defecate animal that:noted  
 exactly in the anus,<sup>4</sup> which that animal defecates (from).’

7.34 *ndīsu / nū kīhīnh a tisīhndi rih*  
 but CEX:NEG:COM CON:get it:INAN anus its:AML  
 ‘But it didn’t get its anus (as it should have).’

7.35 *ndūuh sīhndi rih ni kihin a*  
 fruit buttocks its:AML COM get it:INAN  
 ‘It got ITS TESTICLE.’

7.36 *sakānh te ni ndāhi nyahā ingwi*  
 thus and COM scream:SG evil fox  
 ‘Then the fox screamed horribly.’

7.37 *ni shīshi shachīh iin ndaah*  
 COM COM:burn always one of:group:SG  
 ‘One of its testicles was completely

*ndūuh sīhndi rih*  
 fruit buttocks its:AML  
 burnt.’

7.38 *sakānh vih ni shini te yīvih ndū /*  
 thus excessive COM COM:know he ? TOPIC  
 ‘So at long last the man knew

*sūuh iso ndūūh rih*  
 NEG:certainly rabbit COM:be:equal it:AML  
 that it certainly was not A RABBIT.’

7.39 *te ni sañāh ra rih*  
 and COM COM:release he it:AML  
 ‘And he released it.’

---

<sup>4</sup>The noun *tisīhndi* ‘anus’ is a vulgar term referring only to animals and introduces humor.

7.40 *te ni ndava ingwi*  
 and COM run:SG fox  
 'And the fox ran.'

7.41 *ndū / nū nākāhānh ka chíē kwaha*  
 TOPIC CEX:NEG:COM CON:remember ADD male dear  
 'WELL, the poor male never more thought (as he should have)

*koo ñā sīhī rih*  
 POT:exist she female its:AML  
 about having a wife.'

**A Syntactic Sketch of  
Coatzospan Mixtec**

**Priscilla C. Small**



# Contents

## INTRODUCTION

0.1 Orientation . . . . .	267
0.2 Phonology . . . . .	268
0.3 Bibliography . . . . .	269

## 1 BASIC SENTENCES . . . . . 271

1.1 Statements . . . . .	271
1.1.1 Impersonal sentences . . . . .	271
1.1.2 Intransitive sentences . . . . .	272
1.1.3 Transitive sentences . . . . .	273
1.1.4 Sentences with adjuncts . . . . .	275
1.1.5 Equative sentences . . . . .	283
1.1.6 Stative sentences . . . . .	284
1.1.7 Peripheral elements . . . . .	287
1.1.8 Focus permutations . . . . .	288
1.1.9 Sentential complements . . . . .	292
1.2 Questions . . . . .	295
1.2.1 YES/NO questions . . . . .	295
1.2.2 WH questions . . . . .	297

1.2.3 Indirect questions . . . . .	301
1.3 Commands . . . . .	302
1.4 Vocatives . . . . .	304
1.5 Sentential Markers . . . . .	306
2 VERB PHRASES . . . . .	309
2.1 Content Verb Phrases . . . . .	309
2.1.1 Verb nuclei . . . . .	309
2.1.2 Preverbal elements . . . . .	314
2.1.3 Postverbal elements . . . . .	324
2.1.4 Combinations of elements . . . . .	328
2.2 Equative Verb Phrases . . . . .	330
2.3 Stative Verb Phrases . . . . .	334
2.4 Repetitive Verb Phrases . . . . .	336
2.5 Additive Verb Phrases . . . . .	337
3 NOUN PHRASES . . . . .	339
3.1 Basic Noun Phrases . . . . .	339
3.1.1 Noun nuclei . . . . .	339
3.1.2 Prenominal elements . . . . .	343
3.1.3 Postnominal elements . . . . .	345
3.1.4 Combinations of elements . . . . .	352
3.2 Measurement Noun Phrases . . . . .	353
3.3 Possessive Noun Phrases . . . . .	354
3.4 Interrogative Noun Phrases . . . . .	357
3.5 Negative Noun Phrases . . . . .	360
3.6 Adverbial Noun Phrases . . . . .	362
3.7 Appositional Noun Phrases . . . . .	364
3.8 Additive Noun Phrases . . . . .	367

3.9 Distributive Noun Phrases . . . . .	369
3.10 Partitive Noun Phrases . . . . .	369
3.11 Indefinite Noun Phrases . . . . .	370
4 OTHER PHRASES . . . . .	373
4.1 Quantifier Phrases . . . . .	373
4.1.1 Additive numeral phrases . . . . .	373
4.1.2 Attributive numeral phrases . . . . .	374
4.1.3 Expanded numeral phrases . . . . .	375
4.1.4 General quantifier phrases . . . . .	378
4.1.5 Distributive numeral phrases . . . . .	379
4.1.6 Alternative numeral phrases . . . . .	380
4.1.7 Negative quantifier phrases . . . . .	380
4.2 Adverb Phrases . . . . .	381
4.2.1 Basic adverb phrases . . . . .	381
4.2.2 Appositional adverb phrases . . . . .	384
4.2.3 Alternative adverb phrases . . . . .	385
4.2.4 Distributive adverb phrases . . . . .	385
4.2.5 Negative adverb phrases . . . . .	385
4.3 Prepositional Phrases . . . . .	387
5 PARTS OF SPEECH . . . . .	391
5.1 Content and Equative Verbs . . . . .	391
5.1.1 Derivation . . . . .	391
5.1.2 Inflection . . . . .	398
5.2 Stative Verbs . . . . .	404
5.3 Nouns . . . . .	405
5.3.1 Derivation . . . . .	405
5.3.2 Classification . . . . .	407

5.4 Pronouns . . . . .	414
5.5 Adverbs . . . . .	417
5.6 Quantifiers . . . . .	420
5.7 Prepositions . . . . .	421
5.8 Conjunctions . . . . .	422
5.9 Markers . . . . .	424
5.10 Interjections . . . . .	426
<b>6 INTERSENTENTIAL RELATIONS . . . . .</b>	<b>427</b>
6.1 Coordinate Relations . . . . .	427
6.1.1 Coordinate relations <b>with</b> conjunctions . . . . .	427
6.1.2 Coordinate relations <b>without</b> conjunctions . . . . .	429
6.2 Subordinate Relations . . . . .	431
6.2.1 Subordinate relations <b>with</b> conjunctions . . . . .	432
6.2.2 Subordinate relations <b>without</b> conjunctions . . . . .	440
6.3 Direct Quotations . . . . .	441
6.4 Relations Across Sentence <b>Boundaries</b> . . . . .	442
<b>7 TEXT . . . . .</b>	<b>447</b>



# Introduction

## 0.1 Orientation

Coatzospan Mixtec is spoken by approximately 2,000 people living in the municipal center of San Juan Coatzospan, in the district of Teotitlán de Flores Magón, Oaxaca, Mexico. This group speaks the northernmost Mixtec dialect and forms a small linguistic island surrounded by Mazatecs and Cuicatecs. The Mixtec dialect geographically closest to Coatzospan, that of Santa Ana Cuauhtémoc, is closely related linguistically (see Eglan 1978:25–37) but is separated by a deep river gorge and a day's journey on foot.

Within Coatzospan Mixtec the greatest degree of internal variation is found between men's and women's speech. It is expressed phonologically as palatalization of *t* and *nd* before front vowels in women's speech and lexically in the use of different terms for some concepts, particularly in the choice of pronoun to refer to a young male and in greetings and leave-takings. Unless otherwise stated, examples in this sketch are cited in men's speech. There is also slight dialectal variation between those living in San Juan and those living in outlying settlements, reflected mainly in the choice of motion/direction and position verbs. This study is based on the variety spoken in San Juan.

Up until 1978 Coatzospan could be reached only by mule or on foot. Now there is an unpaved road running through town, giving access by truck from Huautla de Jiménez and Teotitlán to the west and Jalapa de Díaz and Tuxtepec to the east. There has also been a notable increase in the level of education available in the local schools and in the degree of bilingualism with Spanish. In 1963 the town had only one schoolteacher, and he taught only first grade. There are now teachers for all six primary grades teaching both in San Juan and in outlying settlements under the

auspices of the National Indian Institute. A few of the teachers are local Mixtecs, but the language of the classroom is basically Spanish. Except in rare cases, however, Mixtec is still the language of the home and is used to carry on most business in the town hall.

There has been some intermarriage with Mazatecs from the surrounding area, and a few Mixtecs have learned Mazatec, mainly for the purpose of trade in the nearby Mazatec market towns. Although there are numerous loanwords from Spanish into Mixtec, which have undergone various degrees of assimilation, only one Mazatec loanword has been recorded to date.

The present study is based on data gathered by the author and her colleague, Janet Turner, during fieldwork in San Juan beginning in 1963. Most of the examples included here were provided in 1978 by José Pacheco Castro, who also wrote down the text in chapter 7 and then dictated it onto tape. At that time he was twenty-four years old. (This text has been published previously in Small [1979a].) Additional data were provided up through 1985 by Dolores Acosta de Campanela, who was at that time thirty-eight years old. Both language associates are natives of San Juan.

Research was aided considerably through the use of a concordance compiled by computer in 1972 at the University of Oklahoma Research Institute, supported by Grant R1032701 of the National Science Foundation.

## 0.2 Phonology

Coatzospan Mixtec has the following phonological units: voiceless stops and affricates *p* (rare) *t ts ch k kw*, prenasalized stops and affricates *mb nd ndz nj ng ngw*, voiceless fricatives *s sh*, voiced fricatives *v d dy*, nasals *m n ñ*, lateral *l*, flap *r*, laryngeal *h* (glottal stop), oral vowels *i e ï a u o*, nasalized vowels *in en in an un*. (In addition to these, voiceless fricatives *f x*, voiced fricative *g*, and semivowels *y* and *w* have entered through Spanish loanwords.) There are three tone accents: high (written with acute accent), low (written with macron), and a rare high-low glide (written with circumflex). Unaccented syllables do not carry contrastive tone; they assimilate to the tone of the following syllable. Tone is not marked on such syllables in this sketch. Extensive tone sandhi, both progressive and regressive, is a feature of this variety of Mixtec; the tones written in this sketch show the result of the sandhi rules, not the underlying tones.

The shape of a stem varies according to its position in the phonological phrase. Full forms occur only in the nucleus of the phrase. In nonnuclear positions, stems are unstressed and undergo various reductions. In

prenuclear position, the first member of a geminate vowel cluster is lost and frequently there is fusion of unlike vowels. Glottal stops are also lost in this position, and this sometimes causes the loss of a syllable. In postnuclear position, words are reduced to one syllable, sometimes by regular, though complex, rules and sometimes arbitrarily.

The phonology of Coatzospan Mixtec, including special emphasis on the tone system, is described more fully in Pike and Small (1974).

### 0.3 Bibliography

#### Descriptions of Coatzospan Mixtec:

Pike, Eunice V., and Priscilla Small. 1974. Downstepping Terrace Tone in Coatzospan Mixtec, in *Advances in Tagmemics*, edited by Ruth M. Brend, pp. 105–34. North Holland Linguistic Series, Number 9. Amsterdam: North Holland.

Small, Priscilla. 1974. Coatzospan Mixtec Pronouns, *S.I.L.-Mexico Workpapers* 1:9–14.

———. 1979a. Coatzospan Mixtec: Frog and Deer Story, Orange Tree Story, Rabbit and Coyote Story, in *Discourse Studies in Mesoamerican Languages*, Volume 2: *Texts*, edited by Linda K. Jones, pp. 29–63. Summer Institute of Linguistics Publications in Linguistics, Number 58. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics and University of Texas at Arlington.

———. 1979b. Prominence and Dominance in Coatzospan Mixtec Narrative, in *Discourse Studies in Mesoamerican Languages*, Volume 1: *Discussion*, edited by Linda K. Jones, pp. 353–72. Summer Institute of Linguistics Publications in Linguistics, Number 58. Dallas: Summer Institute of Linguistics and University of Texas at Arlington.

Turner, Janet, and Priscilla Small. 1981. Coatzospan Mixtec Kinship Terms, in *Proto Otomanguan Kinship*, edited by William R. Merrifield, pp. 159–61. International Museum of Cultures, Publication 11. Dallas: International Museum of Cultures.

#### Other works cited in this study:

Egland, Steven. 1978. *La Intelligibilidad Interdialectal en México: Resultados de Algunos Sondeos*. Mexico City: Instituto Lingüístico de Verano.

- Kuiper, Albertha, and William R. Merrifield. 1975. Diuxi Mixtec Verbs of Motion and Arrival, *International Journal of American Linguistics* 41:32–45.
- Macaulay, Monica. 1982. Verbs of Motion and Arrival in Mixtec, *Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society*, pp. 414–26.
- . 1985. The Semantics of ‘Come,’ ‘Go,’ and ‘Arrive’ in Otomanguean Languages, *Kansas Working Papers in Linguistics* 10(2):36–84.

# 1

## Basic Sentences

### 1.1 Statements

Verbs fall into three classes—content, equative, and stative—which serve to define sentence types. Sentences with content verbs are impersonal, intransitive, or transitive; transitive and intransitive sentences optionally take various kinds of adjuncts. Equative sentences link a subject to a nominal complement either by an equative verb or without a verb. Stative sentences link a subject to a stative verb. Each of these sentence types may take a peripheral location or time element. They may also have any element within them fronted to indicate focus. In addition, each of these types may be used as a sentential complement within another sentence.

**1.1.1 Impersonal sentences.** The minimal form of an impersonal sentence consists of an impersonal verb with neither subject nor object. Such verbs are limited to a small set and usually express meteorological and related concepts.

*katáan*

CON:quake

‘There is an earthquake.’

*túvī*

POT:dawn

‘It will dawn.’

*tánī*

COM:landslide

‘There was a landslide.’

*kūnéé*

COM:become:dark

‘It got dark.’

*kashihí*

CON:shine

‘There is light.’

*kakunjokō*

CON:become:sultry

‘It is getting sultry.’

*kakatsín*

CON:cut

‘It is thundering.’

(See also 7.44.)

**1.1.2 Intransitive sentences.** The minimal form of an intransitive sentence consists of an intransitive verb followed by its subject.

*kaka*      *ú*

POT:walk    I

‘I will walk.’

*kidī-n*

COM:sleep-you:SG

‘You slept.’

*véshhī*      *tún*

INC:come    she

‘She is coming.’

*kakūn*      *davi*

CON:fall    rain

‘Rain is falling.’

*kaeku*      *ihshá*

CON:cry    child

‘A child is crying.’

(See also 7.43, 7.55, 7.82, 7.102, 7.106, 7.118, 7.121, 7.122, and various others.)

A pronoun subject referring to a child or an inanimate object is expressed by the zero form of the unspecified pronoun (see 5.4); this form is indicated in examples by  $\emptyset$ .

*kweku*     $\emptyset$   
 POT:cry    UN  
 'It (child) will cry.'

*idō*             $\emptyset$   
 COM:boil    UN  
 'It (water) boiled.'

(See also 7.7, 7.24, 7.25, 7.55, 7.64, 7.102, and 7.106.)

With an arbitrary set of verbs a nonagentive personal pronoun subject is expressed by an object pronoun (see 5.4).

*kakakīn*    *kó*  
 CON:hunger    me  
 'I am hungry.'

*kandoho*    *i*  
 CON:suffer    UN  
 'It (child) is suffering.'

*kutúhve*                    *o*  
 POT:become:prepared    you:SG  
 'You will become educated.'

**1.1.3 Transitive sentences.** The minimal form of a transitive sentence consists of a transitive verb, its subject, and its object. A pronoun object referring to a child is expressed by the unspecified pronoun *i*, and one referring to an inanimate object is expressed by the zero form of this pronoun (see 5.4).

*kashihi*    *it̃*    *ndute*  
 CON:drink    it:AML    water  
 'It (animal) is drinking water.'

*kadikō*    *xwaan*    *túun*  
 CON:sell    John    charcoal  
 'John (Sp. *Juan*) sells charcoal.'

*nū*            *tún* *nuni*  
 COM:buy she corn  
 ‘She bought corn.’

*iní*            *u* *o*  
 CON:know I you:SG  
 ‘I know you.’

*kaeshí*  $\emptyset$  *ita*  
 CON:eat UN tortilla  
 ‘It (child) eats tortillas.’

*ēhní*        *na* *i*  
 COM:hit he UN  
 ‘He hit it (child).’

*nū*            *tún*  $\emptyset$   
 COM:buy she UN  
 ‘She bought it (e.g., corn).’

(See also 7.5, 7.32, 7.51, 7.63, 7.66, and various others.)

As in the case of intransitive sentences, with an arbitrary set of verbs a nonagentive personal pronoun subject is expressed by an object pronoun.

*ndio*        *kó* *ndika*  
 CON:want me banana  
 ‘I want a banana.’

*kūnaá*            *īnī*        *ko* *nā*  
 COM:become:lost insides us:IN him  
 ‘We forgot him.’

(See also 7.4, 7.40, 7.45, 7.46, 7.86, and 7.116.)

To express a reflexive direct object, the possessed noun *kūñū* ‘flesh’ or ‘body’ is used, followed by a possessor which is coreferential with the subject.

*ēhní*        *u* *kūñū* *ko*  
 COM:hit I body me  
 ‘I hit myself.’

(See also 7.103.)



**1.1.4 Sentences with adjuncts.** Both intransitive and transitive sentences may take the following adjuncts: locative, associative, instrument, and referent. The presence or absence of a particular adjunct in a sentence is largely determined by the verb. Adjuncts frequently are expressed by an adverbial noun phrase (see 3.6) or by a prepositional phrase (see 4.3). The specific locative noun or preposition used depends on both the kind of adjunct and the specific verb. Adjuncts normally follow the subject of an intransitive verb and the object of a transitive verb.

The locative adjunct expresses source, destination, or location, depending on the meaning of the verb. (In this analysis, indirect object is classified as an animate source or destination, rather than as a separate adjunct.) This adjunct occurs mainly with verbs that express change of possession, change of location, placement, and position; with most of these it must occur unless it is understood from the context.

With transitive verbs that express change of possession, the locative adjunct normally follows the object. With some of these verbs, no locative possessed noun or preposition signals the adjunct; in such cases, the adjunct occurs between subject and object when it is expressed as a poststressed pronoun.

*ndáhvi ú dyuhún xwaan*  
 COM:pay I money John  
 'I paid money to John.'

*shéhe nā tutú ihshá*  
 COM:give he paper child  
 'He gave paper to a child.'

*shéhe nā i tutú*  
 COM:give he UN paper  
 'He gave it (child) paper.'

Other verbs usually require the locative noun *ndaha* 'hand' to signal a locative adjunct. With such verbs, however, it is also possible for a pronominal locative adjunct to precede the object, in which case *ndaha* does not occur.

*tash nūu ú tutú ndaha tūn*  
 COM:give face I paper hand her  
 'I sent a letter to her.'

*íkan nā dyuhun ndá uva nā*  
 COM:beg he money hand father him  
 'He asked his father for money.'

*íkān tún ko dyuhún*  
 COM:beg she me money  
 'She asked me for money.'

With intransitive verbs that express change of location (motion verbs) and intransitive verbs that express position, the locative adjunct follows the subject. A wide variety of locative expressions occurs, from simple nouns or pronouns to complex phrases. The most frequently occurring locative possessed noun is *nuu* 'face'.

*kañehe ná skwela*  
 CON:go he school  
 'He goes to school (Sp. *escuela*).'

*ñéhē tún kuchaña*  
 COM:go she Tehuacán  
 'She went to Tehuacán.'

*īnu tún ko*  
 COM:run she me  
 'She ran away from me.'

*ndekú koho núu i*  
 CON:be:on:SG dish face UN  
 'A dish is on top of it (e.g., table).'

*kihshi na nú vihi kó*  
 POT:come he face house me  
 'He will come to my house.'

*shée tūtú ndaha tún*  
 COM:arrive paper hand her  
 'A letter came to her.'

(See also 7.25, 7.64, 7.102, 7.103, 7.109, and 7.118.)

Generally the direction of movement is implied in the verb, as seen in the above examples, but with a few verbs it is ambiguous. In order to help

distinguish between source and destination, locative phrases commonly terminate in a poststressed locative adverb *a* 'here' or *kān* 'there' (see 5.5); however, these do not ordinarily occur with specific place names.

*káhvi tĩ má vihi ā*  
COM:enter it:AML under house here  
'It (animal) came inside.'

*ndaa o nĩnú kān*  
POT:REP:go:up we:IN above there  
'Let's go up above.'

*ñe níhi na tĩ nu uku kan*  
COM:go with he it:AML face mountain there  
'He took it (animal) to the mountain.'

*vėsh níhi na tĩ nú ndute kān*  
INC:come with he it:AML face water there  
'He is bringing it (animal) from the river.'

*vėshĩ tũn kuchaña*  
INC:come she Tehuacán  
'She is coming to Tehuacán.' or 'She has come from Tehuacán.'

(See also 7.27, 7.75, and 7.103.)

With transitive verbs that express placement, the locative adjunct usually follows the object. In such sentences, the adjunct is signaled by a variety of locative possessed nouns or prepositions, the choice of which is governed by the verb.

*shndėkú tun koho nú mėsa*  
COM:place:on:SG she dish face table  
'She put a dish on the table (Sp. *mesa*).'

*tsũhun na dyuhún ini etun*  
COM:put:in:PL he money insides box  
'He put money into a box.'

*kashnĩhni u tĩ má ětun*  
CON:place:under:SG I it:AML under box  
'I am putting it (animal) underneath a box.'

*shnīhrí na tutú ndaha kó*  
 COM:place:under:sg he paper hand me  
 'He tucked paper into my hand.'

(See also 7.5, 7.28, and 7.105.)

In 7.101, however, a locative adjunct precedes a direct object, possibly because the verb nucleus contains *núū* 'face' (see 2.1.1 and the description of the instrument adjunct below).

The associative adjunct is expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition *nihī* or *nī* 'with'. This adjunct has the function of adding an additional participant to some other element of the sentence, most commonly the subject. It normally follows subject, object, and locative adjuncts, but can also occur immediately following the element it expands.

*kaika xwaán nī ihshá na*  
 CON:walk John with child him  
 'John is walking with his child.'

*ñéhe na kūchaña nī ihshá na*  
 COM:go he Tehuacán with child him  
 'He went to Tehuacán with his child.'

*ñéhe na nī ihshā ná kuchaña*  
 COM:go he with child him Tehuacán  
 'He went with his child to Tehuacán.'

*kakahán tun nī tāhan tún*  
 CON:speak she with sister her  
 'She is talking with her sister.'

*kakahán tun rkotúun nī tún*  
 CON:speak she Spanish with her  
 'She speaks Spanish with her.'

*kahshi o úta nī ñā*  
 POT:eat we:IN tortilla with person  
 'Let's eat tortillas with them.'

*kaehshí na ndutsi nī shāha*  
 CON:eat he bean with chili  
 'He is eating beans with chilies.'

(See also 7.11, 7.34, 7.37, and 7.85.)

In 7.123, *nihī* is used to add an additional possessor within a noun phrase.

Sometimes an associative adjunct could be considered an instrument, but in that there is a distinct way to express an instrument, as described below, I have chosen to consider adjuncts introduced by *nihī* 'with' to be associative.

*kakahán tun ni tēléfono*  
 CON:speak she with telephone  
 'She is talking on (with) the telephone (Sp. *teléfono*).'

*nadīkē xwaan ni pīlota*  
 COM:REP:play John with ball  
 'John played with a ball (Sp. *pelota*).'

*kaeshī na ndivi ni ita na*  
 CON:eat he egg with tortilla him  
 'He eats eggs with his tortillas.'

The preposition *nihī* is optionally incorporated into the verb nucleus (see 2.1.1), in which case the rest of the associative adjunct directly follows the subject, even when an object is present. The following five pairs of sentences show these alternative constructions.

*kakan nihī tun tahan tūn*  
 CON:speak with she sister her  
 'She is talking with her sister.'

*kakahán tun ni tāhan tūn*  
 CON:speak she with sister her  
 'She is talking with her sister.'

*kanarkē nihī ihshá ko pīlota*  
 CON:REP:play with child me ball  
 'My child is playing with a ball.'

*kanadīkē ihshá ko ni pīlota*  
 CON:REP:play child me with ball  
 'My child is playing with a ball.'

*kaesh nihī na shaha ndutsi*  
 CON:eat with he chili bean  
 'He eats beans with chilies.'

*kaeshí na ndutsi ní shāha*  
 CON:eat he bean with chili  
 'He eats beans with chilies.'

*kakan nihí tun ko*  
 CON:speak with she me  
 'She is talking with me.'

*kakahán tun nī kó*  
 CON:speak she with me  
 'She is talking with me.'<sup>1</sup>

*kakan nihí tun tún rkotúun*  
 CON:speak with she her Spanish  
 'She speaks Spanish with her.'

*kakahán tun rkotúun nī tún*  
 CON:speak she Spanish with her  
 'She speaks Spanish with her.'

(See also 7.36 and 7.42.)

Sometimes a verb plus incorporated *nihí* forms a complex nucleus with an idiomatic meaning.

*ñe nihí na ishā ná kuchaña*  
 COM:go with he child him Tehuacán  
 'He took his child to Tehuacán.'

(See also 7.27.)

The instrument adjunct normally follows subject, object, and adjuncts other than referent. Instruments are always inanimate, and they are never signaled by a locative possessed noun or preposition in the adjunct itself.

---

<sup>1</sup>The case of the pronouns in this example provides evidence for the analysis of *nihí* as a preposition rather than as a conjunction that creates additive noun phrases (see 3.8). If this sentence had an additive noun phrase as the subject, i.e., if it meant 'she and I speak', then the subject pronoun *ú* 'I' would occur rather than the object pronoun *kó* 'me' (see 5.4).

*tádīn                    tīnā kó karniūun*  
 COM:be:squashed dog me bus  
 'My dog was squashed by a bus (Sp. *camión*).'

*kañehé tun kuchaña kárniūun*  
 CON:go she Tehuacán bus  
 'She goes to Tehuacán by bus.'

*kakahán tun ni tāhan tūn teléfono*  
 CON:speak she with sister her telephone  
 'She talks with her sister by telephone.'

*ēhndé tun ndaha tun káā*  
 COM:cut she hand her metal  
 'She cut her hand with a machete.'

It is possible, however, to incorporate the locative possessed noun *núū* 'face' into the verb nucleus to signal an anticipated instrument. The occurrence of *núū* is largely conditioned by the verb; some verbs require it, others permit it, and still others do not take it. When *núū* occurs, the instrument may either occur in its usual final position, or it may directly follow the subject, even when an object is present, as in the case of the associative and pronominal locative adjuncts. The first two sentences below show the two possible orders.

*ēndé nuu tūn ndaha tun káā*  
 COM:cut face she hand her metal  
 'She cut her hand with a machete.'

*ēndé nuu tun káa ndāha tūn*  
 COM:cut face she metal hand her  
 'She cut her hand with a machete.'

*kaesh núū tūn kutsara*  
 CON:eat face she spoon  
 'She eats with a spoon (Sp. *cuchara*).'

(See also 7.44 and 7.45.)

The referent adjunct, which expresses a wide range of relationships, such as benefactive, delegative, and general reference, follows subject, object, and other adjuncts. It is usually marked by the locative possessed noun *īñā*

'thing', or by prepositions *kwenda* 'by' (Sp. *cuenta* 'account'), *kwenda iña* 'on behalf of', 'about', or 'in place of', or *náá* 'in place of'. With certain verbs, inanimate referents occur with no locative possessed noun or preposition.

*kadiko na nūni iña uva na*  
 CON:sell he corn thing father him  
 'He sells corn for his father.'

*nū na shaha iña dihi na*  
 COM:buy he chili thing mother him  
 'He bought chilies for his mother.'

*kakahan ná iña vihi ndo*  
 CON:speak he thing house you:PL  
 'He is talking about your house.'

*kañehe na kwenda vite*  
 CON:go he account week  
 'He goes by the week.'

*ikān tūn dyuhun kwenda iña uvá tun*  
 COM:beg she money account thing father her  
 'She asked for money on behalf of her father.'

*kakahan ná naa uva na*  
 CON:speak he in:place:of father him  
 'He is speaking in place of his father.'

*shéhē tūn dyuhún chohó tun*  
 COM:give she money herb her  
 'She gave money in exchange for her medicine.'

(See also 7.1, 7.35, 7.39, 7.41, and 7.123.)

With certain verbs, a human referent may be semantically ambiguous between two of these meanings, for example, between a benefactive and a general referent.



*kakahán xwaan iña ení na*  
 CON:speak John thing brother:ME him  
 'John is speaking for his brother.' or 'John is talking about his brother.'

*tsishehē tún kwenda iñá xwaan*  
 COM:ask she account thing Juan  
 'She asked on behalf of John.' or 'She asked concerning John.'

**1.1.5 Equative sentences.** Equative sentences occur both with an equative verb and without a verb. Sentences without a verb consist of a nominal complement followed by a subject; a pronoun subject referring to a child or inanimate object is expressed by the zero form of the unspecified pronoun (see 5.4). Such sentences are continuative in meaning.

*duú xwaan*  
 priest John  
 'John is a priest.'

*xwaan na*  
 John he  
 'He is John.'

*tahan kó tun*  
 sister me she  
 'She is my sister.'

*ihshá ko ∅*  
 child me UN  
 'It is my child.'

*tīná tí*  
 dog it:AML  
 'It is a dog.'

*túūn ∅*  
 charcoal UN  
 'It is charcoal.'

To express other aspects, it is necessary to employ the equative verb *kuvi* 'to become', or its repetitive form *nduvi* 'to turn into'. The normal sen-

tence order is verb—subject—nominal complement; however, if the nominal complement is a possessive noun phrase based on a kinship term (see 3.3), it often occurs between the verb and the subject. The first two sentences below show the two possible orders.

*kuvi tún ihshá ko*  
 POT:become she child me  
 'She will become my child.'

*kuvi ihshá ko tún*  
 POT:become child me she  
 'She will become my child.'

*ndūvi na kiti*  
 COM:REP:become he animal  
 'He turned into an animal.'

(See also 7.7.)

There is one other equative verb, *nani* 'to be named', which occurs only in the unmarked continuative aspect. The usual order in sentences with *nani* is nominal complement—verb—subject; in other sentence types this order indicates object focus (see 1.1.8).

*xwaan nani ení ko*  
 John CON:be:named brother:ME me  
 'My brother is named John.'

*maria nani u*  
 Mary CON:be:named I  
 'My name is Mary (Sp. *María*).'

**1.1.6 Stative sentences.** The minimal form of a stative sentence consists of a stative verb followed by its subject; a pronoun subject that refers to a child or an inanimate object is expressed by the zero form of the unspecified pronoun (see 5.4). Such sentences are continuative in meaning.

*váhā xwaan*  
 good John  
 'John is good.'

*ata ñā*  
old person  
'They are old.'

*kahnu tūn*  
big:SG she  
'She is big.'

*kwetsi tī*  
small:PL it:AML  
'They (animals) are small.'

*ihni ndūte*  
hot water  
'The water is hot.'

*vidē ∅*  
wet UN  
'It (e.g., cloth) is wet.'

*nduhu ∅*  
fat UN  
'It (child) is fat.'

(See also 7.26, 7.42, and 7.98.)

Occasionally a stative verb is used as the predicate of an impersonal sentence (see 1.1.1), in which case no subject occurs.

*neé*  
dark  
'It is dark.'

*njokō*  
sultry  
'It is sultry.'

Sometimes a stative verb and its subject are linked by a content verb in unmarked continuative aspect that expresses sensory perception or state of being.

*váha ēhshi kúñū*  
 good CON:eat meat  
 'Meat tastes good.'

*kini ito tí*  
 ugly CON:look it:AML  
 'It (animal) looks ugly.'

*kidin tindahā ∅*  
 sticky CON:touch UN  
 'It (e.g., paper) feels sticky.'

*shó ñēhé ∅*  
 putrid CON:smell UN  
 'It smells awful.'

*ndāhvi kaa na*  
 poor CON:be:SG he  
 'He seems pitiful.'

*váhā ó itsi*  
 good CON:exist trail  
 'The road is good.'

(See also 7.80.)

Stative sentences of the above types show no aspect inflection, even when they refer to times other than the present, as shown by the presence of a time peripheral element in the following examples.

*váhā tún iku*  
 good she yesterday  
 'She was okay yesterday.'

*váhā ó itsi kidaa*  
 good CON:exist trail then  
 'The trail was good then.' or 'The trail will be good then.'

It is sometimes possible, however, to express completive or potential aspect by a fairly productive morphological process in which the prefix *ku-*, a reduced form of *kuvi* 'to become', precedes a stative verb (see 5.1.1).

**1.1.7 Peripheral elements.** All sentence types may indicate time and location, although these are rare in equative and stative sentences. Peripheral location sets the scene of the entire sentence, and so it is distinct from locative adjuncts, which complete the meaning of some verbs. Peripheral elements may be adverbs, adverb phrases (see 4.2), adverbial noun phrases (see 3.6), prepositional phrases (see 4.3), or subordinate sentences (see 6.2.1). Peripheral elements normally follow subject, object, and adjuncts. When time and location cooccur, time follows location.

*káhshi ña veví*  
 POT:come person today  
 'They will come today.'

*ēhní na kó iku*  
 COM:hit he me yesterday  
 'He hit me yesterday.'

*kadiko na tūun kúchaña*  
 CON:sell he charcoal Tehuacán  
 'He sells charcoal in Tehuacán.'

*ñéhē ú skwela ñúkohsho*  
 COM:go I school Mexico:City  
 'I went to school in Mexico City.'

*shíhi ñaha itsi kan ĩku*  
 COM:die person trail there yesterday  
 'Someone died on the trail yesterday.'

*káhān ú nī tūn teléfono ūtén*  
 POT:speak I with her telephone tomorrow  
 'I'll talk with her on the telephone tomorrow.'

(See also 7.1, 7.24, 7.47, 7.48, 7.107, 7.111, and 7.122.)

It is also possible for a peripheral element to precede an associative, instrument, or referent adjunct.

*kaeshí na ita nú mēsa ni ihshá na*  
 CON:eat he tortilla face table with child him  
 'He is eating tortillas at the table with his child.'

*nākate nuu tun ñáhā vevii ndute ihri*  
 COM:REP:wash face she dish:PL today water hot  
 'She washed dishes today with hot water.'

*ñū na tsúhūn nú āhví kan iña dihi na*  
 COM:buy he chicken face market there thing mother him  
 'He bought a chicken at the market for his mother.'

**1.1.8 Focus permutations.** In appropriate discourse contexts, any one element (subject, object, adjunct, or peripheral element) may be focused by fronting it to preverbal position. The fronted element is optionally followed by the prestressed pronoun *é* 'unspecified third person' (see 5.4), which also functions as a complementizer (see 1.1.9) and as a relative pronoun (see 3.1.3). Whenever this word is used in a nonreferential way, it is glossed 'complementizer'. If the subject is fronted, a poststressed pronoun copy occurs in the usual subject position.

*tíná shihi tí*  
 dog COM:die it:AML  
 'A DOG died.'

*dávi kakūn ∅*  
 rain CON:fall UN  
 'RAIN is falling.'

*xwaan kadíko na tūun*  
 John CON:sell he charcoal  
 'JOHN sells charcoal.'

*maria kuví tun ihshá ko*  
 Mary POT:become she child me  
 'MARY will become my child.'

*shoho kaka o ūtén*  
 we POT:walk we tomorrow  
 'WE will walk tomorrow.'

*xwaan é kākahan ná*  
 John CMP CON:speak he  
 'It is JOHN that is speaking.'

(See also 7.42.)

In stative and equative sentences that contain no content or equative verb, subject focus requires the complementizer *é*.

*xwaan é dūtu na*  
John CMP priest he  
'It is JOHN that is a priest.'

*ení ko é xwaan nani ná*  
brother:ME me CMP John CON:be:named he  
'It is MY BROTHER that is named John.'

*maria é kahnu tūn*  
Mary CMP big:SG she  
'It is MARY that is big.'

(See also 7.61 and 7.86.)

If the object is fronted, no pronoun copy occurs.

*tsūhun ñūi na*  
chicken COM:buy he  
'He bought A CHICKEN.'

*xwaan éhni tūn*  
John COM:hit she  
'She hit JOHN.'

*ndika kahshi ú*  
banana POT:eat I  
'I'll eat A BANANA.'

*shohō ndio tūn*  
us CON:want her  
'She wants US.'

*tūūn é kadiko nā*  
charcoal CMP CON:sell he  
'It is CHARCOAL that he sells.'

(See also 7.78, 7.90, and 7.94.)

If an adjunct is fronted, any preposition or locative possessed noun associated with it is retained in its normal position, followed by the appropriate pronoun copy.

## Locative:

*kuchañá ñehé u*  
Tehuacán COM:go I  
'I went TO TEHUACÁN.'

*maría shehé na dyuhún*  
Mary COM:give he money  
'He gave money TO MARY.'

*uvā tún ikán tun dyuhun ndáha ña*  
father her COM:beg she money hand person  
'She asked HER FATHER for money.'

(See also 7.12, 7.13, 7.16, 7.29, 7.72, 7.74, 7.109, and various others.)

## Associative:

*xwaan káhshi ú ni nā*  
John POT:eat I with him  
'I'll eat with JOHN.'

*shuhú kakahan tún nī kó*  
me CON:speak she with me  
'She is talking with ME.'

## Instrument:

*kwihí shihi ña*  
sickness COM:die person  
'They died OF AN ILLNESS.'

*kāa éni nuu na ñ*  
metal COM:hit face he it:AML  
'He killed it (animal) WITH A MACHETE.'

(See also 7.40.)



## Referent:

*xwaan kakáhān ná naa na*  
 John CON:speak he in:place:of him  
 'He is speaking in place of JOHN.'

*maria é kākahan ná iñá tun*  
 Mary CMP CON:speak he thing her  
 'It is MARY that he is talking about.'

Peripheral elements are focused by fronting the entire element to preverbal position.

## Time:

*vevíi kahán u nī tūn*  
 today POT:speak I with her  
 'I'll talk with her NOW.'

(See also 7.51, 7.86, 7.92, 7.106, and 7.116.)

## Location:

*nú āhví kān ñī na tsúhūn*  
 face market there COM:buy he chicken  
 'He bought a chicken AT THE MARKET.'

*itsi kuchaña é ini ú na*  
 trail Tehuacán CMP COM:see I him  
 'It was ON THE ROAD TO TEHUACÁN that I saw him.'

(See also 7.99, 7.122, and 7.123.)

A stronger form of focus, which may be termed sentence topic, is indicated by postposing the conjunction *ne* 'and' to a preverbal focused element, with pause following. An appropriate pronoun copy of a focused noun phrase follows the verb in normal position.

*xwaán ne / kadiko na tūun*  
 John and CON:sell he charcoal  
 'As for John, he sells charcoal.'

*shuhú ne / maria naní u*  
 I and Mary CON:be:named I  
 'As for me, my name is Mary.'

*tīná ko ne / vide tĩ*  
 dog me and wet it:AML  
 'As for my dog, it's wet.'

*ndévi ne / kaehshí tun Ø*  
 egg and CON:eat she UN  
 'As for eggs, she eats them.'

*mariá ne / shée tūtú ndaha tūn*  
 Mary and COM:arrive paper hand her  
 'As for Mary, a letter came to her.'

*veví ne / kakidi na*  
 today and CON:sleep he  
 'Now, he's sleeping.'

(See also 7.2, 7.10, 7.48, 7.107, and 7.115.)

Both sentence topic and ordinary focus can occur in the same sentence.

*xwaán ne / túun kadiko nā*  
 John and charcoal CON:sell he  
 'As for John, he sells CHARCOAL.'

*iku ne / kuchañá ñehé tun*  
 yesterday and Tehuacán COM:go she  
 'Yesterday, she went to TEHUACÁN.'

(See also 7.34.)

**1.1.9 Sentential complements.** All of the basic sentence types, including those with one element in focus position, may occur as subject or object in another sentence. The order is the same as that of the basic sentence types.

Subject complements occur with intransitive verbs such as *kwiñindúhū* 'to begin', *kuví* 'to finish', and *kuví* 'to be able'. The main verb and the complement verb normally agree in aspect, and the complement immediately follows the main verb, with no intervening complementizer.

*kwiñindúhu tāan*  
 POT:begin POT:quake  
 'It will begin to quake.'

*kaiñinduhu kakñn davi*  
 CON:begin CON:fall rain  
 'It is beginning to rain.'

*kūvi dé váha na etun*  
 COM:finish COM:do good he box  
 'He finished making a box.'

*kuvi kahshi o ∅*  
 POT:be:able POT:eat WE:IN UN  
 'We will be permitted to eat it.'

Subject complements also occur in stative sentences that contain a stative verb or adverb and a reduced form of the content verb *koo* 'to exist'. In such sentences the complementizer *é* sometimes occurs. Sentences with the complementizer differ in meaning from those without it, as seen in the following examples.

*kwān ko kahan na*  
 thus POT:exist POT:speak he  
 'He will speak thus.'

*váhā ó kakahan ná*  
 good CON:exist CON:speak he  
 'He speaks well.' or 'His speaking is good.'

*váhā o é kñshi na*  
 good CON:exist CMP COM:come he  
 'It is good that he came.'

(See also 7.6, 7.29, 7.33, 7.47, 7.56, 7.73, and 7.115.)

Object complements show varying degrees of restriction, depending on the nature of the main verb.

A phasal verb, such as *kaninduhū* 'to begin', requires that the complement sentence have a subject coreferential with that of the matrix sentence; whereas other verbs, such as *ndio* 'to want', may have noncoreferen-

tial subjects. If the subjects of the two verbs are not coreferential, the complement is introduced by the complementizer *é*.

*kaninduhū tūn kahshí tun ita*  
 POT:begin she POT:eat she tortilla  
 'She will begin to eat tortillas.'

*eninduhu nā kaika na*  
 COM:begin he CON:walk he  
 'He began walking.'

*ndio tūn kīhín tun*  
 CON:want her POT:go she  
 'She wants to go.'

*ndio ko é kīhín tun*  
 CON:want me CMP POT:go she  
 'I wanted her to go.'

Some main verbs impose aspect restrictions on the complement verb. A full study of these restrictions is, however, beyond the scope of this paper.

Another type of verb that takes object complements has the function of reporting and includes verbs such as *iní* 'to know', *kāhān* 'to speak' or 'to say', and *kwini* 'to feel' or 'to think'. Object complements that follow such verbs are introduced by either *é* or, more frequently, by the conjunction *tsí* 'because' (see 6.2.1). There are no restrictions of person or aspect between the matrix sentence and the complement.

*iní u é maria naní tun*  
 CON:know I CMP Mary CON:be:named she  
 'I know that she is named Mary.'

*iní u tsí xwaan kīhín na*  
 CON:know I because John POT:go he  
 'I know that John will go.'

*kakahan na tsí kīhín na*  
 CON:speak he because POT:go he  
 'He says that he will go.'

(See also 7.36, 7.40, 7.42, and 7.45.)

With the verb *kwini*, the complement is normally fronted, followed by pause, with no complementizer. The verb *káhān* has a fronted complement when it occurs in the unmarked continuative aspect to express an opinion. With other verbs, the complement is not normally fronted.

*kāhīn xwaan / kwini kó*  
 POT:go John CON:feel me  
 'I think John will go.'

*kāhīn o ni nā / kahān u*  
 POT:go we:IN with him CON:speak I  
 'I say, let's go with him.'

(See also 7.86 and 7.116.)

Even though subject and object complements are the most frequent types, other kinds of complements occasionally occur because the addition of the complementizer *é* at the beginning of any basic sentence allows it to occur in any noun phrase position. In the following example a sentential complement occurs as the nominal complement of an equative sentence, and the subject contains a relative clause (see 3.1.3).

*e kāhīn u ni nā é ndio kó*  
 CMP POT:go I with him UN CON:want me  
 'What I want is to go with him.'

## 1.2 Questions

There are three types of questions: YES/NO questions, WH questions, and indirect questions.

**1.2.1 YES/NO questions.** Any basic sentence may be turned into a YES/NO question by placing the item that is being questioned in initial position and following it directly with the interrogative marker *ndu*.

*katáan ndu*  
 CON:quake INT  
 'Is there an earthquake?'

*kakidi ndu-n*  
 CON:sleep INT-you:SG  
 'Are you sleeping?'

*kōho ndu t̄i ndute*  
 POT:drink INT it:AML water  
 ‘Will it (animal) drink water?’

*xwaan ndú kadíko na t̄iun*  
 John INT CON:sell he charcoal  
 ‘Does JOHN sell charcoal?’

*t̄iun ndu kadíko nā*  
 charcoal INT CON:sell he  
 ‘Does he sell CHARCOAL?’

*dyuhun ndú shehé na xwaan*  
 money INT COM:give he John  
 ‘Did he give MONEY to John?’

*xwaan ndú shehé na dyuhún*  
 John INT COM:give he money  
 ‘Did JOHN give money?’ or ‘Did he give money TO JOHN?’

*kuchaña ndú ñehe ña*  
 Tehuacán INT COM:go person  
 ‘Did they go TO TEHUACÁN?’

*vevii ndu kihin ña*  
 today INT POT:go person  
 ‘Are they going TODAY?’

*dūtu ndú xwaan*  
 priest INT John  
 ‘Is John A PRIEST?’

*ihshā ndú ña ∅*  
 child INT person UN  
 ‘Is it THEIR CHILD?’

*kāhnu ndu t̄un*  
 big:SG INT she  
 ‘Is she BIG?’

*vāhá ndu ehshí* ∅  
 good INT CON:eat UN  
 'Does it taste GOOD?'

For questioning of elements within the verb phrase, see 2.1.2 and 2.1.3.  
 For questioning of elements within the noun phrase, see 3.4.

**1.2.2 WH questions.** The subject, object, or nominal complement in any of the basic sentence types may be questioned by using an interrogative pronoun or interrogative noun phrase in focus position. The interrogative pronouns are *shoó* 'who?' and *neé* 'what?' or *ne iñá* 'what thing?'; they are used alone or in combination with a specifying noun or pronoun and are normally accompanied by the interrogative marker *ndu* (see 3.4). When a subject is questioned, an appropriate pronoun copy usually follows the verb.

Questioning subject:

*shoó ndu éhni i tún*  
 who INT COM:hit UN her  
 'Who hit her?'

*shoó ndu kadiko i tūún*  
 sho INT CON:sell UN charcoal  
 'Who sells charcoal?'

*shō tahnu ndú káhshi tún*  
 who female INT COM:come she  
 'Which girl came?'

*neé ndu kohshó* ∅  
 what INT COM:fall UN  
 'What fell?'

*ne iñá ndu é vāhá' ∅*  
 what thing INT UN good UN  
 'Which one is good?'

(See also 7.3.)

## Questioning object:

*shoó ndu éhni tún*  
 who INT COM:hit she  
 ‘Whom did she hit?’

*neé ndu kadikō xwaan*  
 what INT CON:sell John  
 ‘What does John sell?’

*ne káti ndu ñii na*  
 what animal INT COM:buy he  
 ‘Which animal did he buy?’

*ne iñá ndu tsiñu kade na*  
 what thing INT work CON:do he  
 ‘What kind of work does he do?’

## Questioning nominal complement:

*shoó ndu é xwaan i*  
 who INT UN John UN  
 ‘Who is John?’ or ‘Which one is John?’

*shó ñaha ndu ña*  
 who person INT person  
 ‘Who are they?’

*neé ndu ndúvi na*  
 what INT COM:REP:become he  
 ‘What did he turn into?’

*ne káti ndu káti tsíkán*  
 what animal INT animal that  
 ‘What kind of animal is that one?’

When an adjunct is questioned, any preposition or locative possessed noun associated with it is usually retained in its normal position, followed by the unspecified pronoun *i*. This is similar to what happens when one element of a sentence is focused (see 1.1.8).



*shoó ndu kakahán tun ni ĩ*  
 who INT CON:speak she with UN  
 ‘To whom is she talking?’

*shó naha ndu kakahan ñá iña i*  
 who boy INT CON:speak person thing UN  
 ‘Which fellow are they talking about?’

When a preposition or locative possessed noun that signals an adjunct is incorporated into the verb nucleus (see 1.1.4 and 2.1.1), however, there is no pronoun copy.

*shoó ndu kakan nihí tun*  
 who INT CON:speak with she?  
 ‘To whom is she talking?’

*neé ndu kandé nuu u kíñũ*  
 what INT POT:cut face I meat  
 ‘What shall I cut meat with?’

If no preposition or locative possessed noun is associated with an adjunct, no pronoun copy occurs.

*né ndu ñuu véhshi tún*  
 what INT town INC:come she  
 ‘What town does she come from?’

*né ndu tsíñu kihshi tún*  
 what INT work COM:come she  
 ‘For what purpose did she come?’

A nonhuman locative adjunct, as well as peripheral location, may be questioned by using the interrogative adverb *míhi* ‘where?’, while peripheral time may be questioned by using the interrogative adverb *amá* ‘when?’, or an interrogative noun phrase containing *né* ‘what?’ plus a temporal noun (see 3.4).

*míhi ndu kíhin ndo*  
 where INT POT:go you:PL  
 ‘Where are you going?’

*míhi ndu kadiko na tūun*  
 where INT CON:sell he charcoal  
 ‘Where does he sell charcoal?’

*amá ndu kihshí ña*  
 when INT POT:come person  
 ‘When will they come?’

*né ura ndú sheé tun*  
 what hour INT COM:arrive she  
 ‘What time (Sp. *hora*) did she arrive?’

(See also 7.69 and 7.114.)

Questions introduced by *míhi ndū* ‘where?’ are often used to express sarcasm. The second sentence in the above block of examples can also mean ‘WHAT DO YOU MEAN he sells charcoal?’ (see also 7.69).

The interrogative marker *ndu* may occur in various positions or be omitted without apparent change of meaning. Note the variations in the following set of examples.

*nē ndúvi kihshi tún*  
 what day POT:come she  
 ‘What day will she come?’

*né ndu nduvi kihshi tún*  
 what INT day POT:come she  
 ‘What day will she come?’

*nē ndúvi ndu kihshi tún*  
 what day INT POT:come she  
 ‘What day will she come?’

(See also 7.44.)

The interrogative adverb *ndé* ‘how?’ is used to question the nominal complement of *nani* ‘to be named’ and some stative predicates.

*ndé nani ó*  
 how CON:be:named you:SG  
 ‘What is your name?’

*ndé ndu ēhshí*       $\emptyset$   
 how INT CON:taste UN  
 'How does it taste?'

*ndé ito tūn*  
 how CON:look she  
 'How does she look?'

*ndé* combines with *koo* 'to exist' or *kwi*, a reduced form of *kuví* 'to happen', in order to question a referent of purpose or cause by asking why. With *koo*, the resulting structure is a stative sentence in which *ndé* functions as a stative verb, *koo* is an accompanying content verb, and the remainder of the sentence is a subject complement.

*ndé koo ndu é kīhshi tūn*  
 how POT:exist INT CMP POT:come she  
 'Why is she coming?' or 'What is she coming for?'

(See also 7.46.)

With *kwi*, the resulting structure is an intransitive sentence, in which *ndé* questions manner in the verb phrase (see 2.1.2) and the rest of the sentence is a subject complement.

*ndé kwi kīhshi ndu tūn*  
 how CON:happen COM:come INT she  
 'Why did she come?' or 'How did she happen to come?'

(See also 7.10, 7.11, 7.15, 7.18, 7.59, 7.76, 7.112, and 7.113.)

**1.2.3 Indirect questions.** A YES/NO question may occur as an object complement; the subordinate conjunction *tē* 'if' serves as a complementizer, and the interrogative marker *ndu* does not occur.

*ñá ni kāhan ná te kāhin ná*  
 NEG CF COM:speak he if POT:go he  
 'He didn't say whether he would go (or not).'

*ñá ĩní u te tūun kadiko nā*  
 NEG CON:know I if charcoal CON:sell he  
 'I don't know if he sells CHARCOAL.'

A WH question may be used as a sentential complement; as in indirect YES/NO questions, *ndu* does not occur.

*iní u sho kishshi i*  
 CON:know I who COM:come UN  
 'I know who came.'

*ñá íní u mí kwēhen tún*  
 NEG CON:know I where INC:go she  
 'I don't know where she went.'

*kakahán tun nī ko né ūra kishshi tún*  
 CON:speak she with me what hour POT:come she  
 'She tells me what time she will come.'

*tsishehē ú ña sho é xwaan i*  
 POT:ask I person who CMP John UN  
 'I'll ask them who John is.'

(See also 7.2, 7.4, 7.40, and 7.68.)

Indirect questions cannot be focused.

### 1.3 Commands

A basic sentence in potential aspect may be used as a command. If the subject excludes the second person, it requires the hortatory *nā* before the verb (see 2.1.2).

*kahshi-n íta o*  
 POT:eat-you:SG tortilla you:SG  
 'Eat your tortillas!'

*káhan ndo nī tún*  
 POT:speak you:PL with her  
 'Speak to her!' or 'Tell her!'

*káhin o kūchaña*  
 POT:go we:IN Tehuacán  
 'Let's go to Tehuacán!'

*na kwēhé u tún dyuhún*  
 HORT POT:give I her money  
 'Let me give her money!'

*na vī tun é ndio tún*  
 HORT POT:do she CMP CON:want she  
 'Let her do what she wants!'

(See also 7.39, 7.60, 7.63, 7.75, 7.79, 7.88, 7.90, 7.93, 7.94, 7.100, 7.119, and 7.120.)

A callous response to a threat is expressed using the hortatory *nā* along with the postverbal element *mī* 'alone' (see 2.1.3 and 2.1.4).

*na kuvī mī ndō*  
 HORT POT:die alone you:PL  
 'Go ahead and die!'

*na koko mī ∅*  
 HORT POT:burn alone UN  
 'Let it go ahead and burn!'

A polite command is expressed using *nā* along with the deprecativ *kūdī* 'merely' (see 2.1.3 and 2.1.4).

*na kīhsi kudī ñá*  
 HORT POT:come merely person  
 'May they please come!'

There are a few forms which are used exclusively as commands; they occur only with a second person subject.

*niht-n a*  
 IMP:come-you:SG here  
 'Come here!'

*kamá-n*  
 IMP:hurry-you:SG  
 'Hurry up!'

*tsíhñu ndō*  
 IMP:precede you:PL  
 'You go ahead!'

*ūhun-n dyuhun o*  
 IMP:take-you:SG money you:SG  
 'Here's your money (take it)!'

*duhshēn-n*  
 bothersome-you:SG  
 'Shut up!'

In the verb 'to go', the potential form *kāhīn* is replaced by *kwēhén* as the second person imperative form (see 5.1.2).

*kwēhén-n ni ñā*  
 IMP:go-you:SG with person  
 'Go with them!'

*kwehēn ndó ma vihi kān*  
 IMP:go you:PL under house there  
 'Go inside!'

*kwēn dáha-n*  
 IMP:go over-you:SG  
 'Move over!'

Rarely, the verb may be omitted entirely.

*kíhí kān*  
 outside there  
 'Out!' (spoken to an animal)

#### 1.4 Vocatives

Vocatives normally occur at the end of a basic sentence or between the parts of a compound sentence, but they can be fronted for focus, or uttered in isolation. They usually consist of a kinship term, proper noun, or second person pronoun; the latter may be preceded by *dī*, a reduced form of the specifier *dīvī*, to show respect. Some nouns have special vocative forms or tone patterns (see 5.3.2).

*kíhìn*    *ú* *dì* / *ũváh*  
 POT:go I also father!  
 'I'm going too, Dad!'

*kava*        *tsi-n* / *lah* / *tsi*        *kwáa*  
 POT:retire LIM-you:SG dear! because CON:be:late  
 'Go to bed, dear, as it's late!'

*ñāâ* / *ndio*        *kó* *ndika*  
 mother! CON:want me banana  
 'Mom, I want a banana!'

*xwaân* / *míhi* *ndu* *kíhìn-n*  
 John! where INT POT:go-you:SG  
 'John, where are you going?'

*shōhón* / *nihí-n*                    *a*  
 you:SG IMP:come-you:SG here  
 'You, come here!'

*koto*        *ndo* / *di*        *ndō*  
 POT:look you:PL same you:PL  
 'Look, you!'

When a vocative is used for calling someone or gaining someone's attention, it is frequently preceded by *ō* or *ō né*; these vocative phrases always occur initially in a sentence.

*ō*    *mária* / *nihí-n*                    *a*  
 oh Mary! IMP:come-you:SG here  
 'Hey, Mary, come here!'

*ō né* / *mastrû* / *ndé* *ko*        *vií*    *u* *ve*  
 oh and teacher! how POT:exist POT:do I now  
 'Hey there, teacher (Sp. *maestro*), what shall I do now?'

Special vocative forms are used in calling animals; these are often repeated.

*lús* / *lús*  
 pup! pup!  
 'Here, puppy!' (cf. *lūsún* 'puppy')

*vitsi* / *vitsi* / *vitsi*  
 kitty! kitty! kitty!  
 'Here, kitty!' (cf. *mishtun* 'cat' [old Sp. *mistón*])

*kuch* / *kuch*  
 piggy! piggy!  
 'Here, piggy!' (cf. *kutsin* 'pig' [Sp. *cochino*])

Some animals are called by imitating their noises: turkeys, by using a voiced bilabial trill ending in a glottal stop, *brrh*; baby chicks, by using voiceless alveolar clicks, *ts* < *ts* < ; and hens, by using voiceless alveopalatal clicks, *t* < *t* < ; these sounds do not otherwise occur in the language.

### 1.5 Sentential Markers

Sentential markers include the interrogative marker *ndu* (see 1.2.1), which occurs noninitial in sentences, as well as sentence-initial markers, which express varying degrees of certainty on the part of the speaker, and sentence-final markers, which add emphasis to a statement or question.

Markers which occur sentence initial include *vá* 'doubtfully', *vata tē* 'seemingly', *á tē* 'probably', and *ñá tē* 'definitely not'. While *vá* is often used with YES/NO questions, the other three are used only with statements.

*vá*                    *kāin*            *davi*  
 doubtfully    POT:fall    rain  
 'It's not likely to rain.'

*vá*                    *kōho*            *ndu* *ú*  $\emptyset$   
 doubtfully    POT:drink    INT    I    UN  
 'Shall I really drink it?'

*vata tē* *ini*                    *ú* *tun*  
 as    if    CON:know    I    her  
 'It seems as if I know her.'

*á*                    *te shēe*            *ná* *vevii*  
 probably    if    POT:arrive    he    today  
 'He will probably arrive today.'

*ñá* *te* *kāhín*            *u*  
 NEG    if    POT:go    I  
 'I am definitely not going.'



*ñá tē* also occurs with nouns, quantifiers, and adverbs to form negative phrases (see 3.5, 4.1.7, and 4.2.5).

The words that occur in sentence-final position include the marker *ní* 'therefore', used with statements and commands, and the general adverb *kwán* 'thus', used with questions in the sense of 'in light of the foregoing'.

*kwéhen ña kūchañá ní*  
 INC:go person Tehuacán therefore  
 'And so they went to Tehuacán.'

*káhin ō ní*  
 POT:go we:IN therefore.  
 'So let's go!'

*ne tsíñu víi u kwán*  
 what work POT:do I thus  
 'So what work shall I do?'

(See also 7.79, 7.88, and 7.90.)



## 2

# Verb Phrases

### 2.1 Content Verb Phrases

Content verb phrases consist of a nucleus, six optional preverbal elements, and eight optional postverbal elements.

**2.1.1 Verb nuclei.** Both simple and complex verb nuclei occur; the latter are usually idioms composed of a verb followed by a modifying word, which may be a noun, a content verb, a stative verb, an adverb, a preposition, or an indeterminate element. In some cases a complex nucleus may in turn be modified, resulting in a complex nucleus of three elements.

A simple nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect. In the examples given in this chapter, each of which is a full sentence, the parts of each sentence outside the verb phrase are enclosed in parentheses.

*kunu* (tún)  
POṚ:run (she)  
'(She) will run.'

*diko* (nā)  
POṚ:sell (he)  
'(He) will sell.'

*iní* (u)  
CON:know (I)  
'(I) know.'

*kashihi* (i)  
 CON:drink (it:AML)  
 '(It) is drinking.'

*kahndé* (o tūtun)  
 POT:cut (we:IN firewood)  
 '(We) will cut (firewood).'

A verb-plus-noun nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect plus a noun, which may be an incorporated object, instrument, or location.

#### Object:

*kada* *tsiñu* (na)  
 POT:do work (he)  
 '(He) will work.'

*kani* *vih* (ña)  
 POT:set:up house (person)  
 '(They) will get married.'

*tsi* *kwétsi* (na kó)  
 COM:put:PL sin (he me)  
 '(He) blamed (me).

(See also 7.30 and 7.34.)

#### Instrument:

*ĩsi* *ndute* (tún)  
 COM:bathe water (she)  
 '(She) got baptized.'

*kwín* *dyuhun* (na ∅)  
 POT:buy money (he UN)  
 '(He) will buy (it) with money.'

*katin* *tsiin* (ú na)  
 CON:grab fingernail (I him)  
 '(I) am pinching (him).

## Location:

*kóshō nuu (na)*  
 COM:fall face (he)  
 '(He) fell in.'

*kakishi iní (ko kihin u)*  
 CON:come insides (me POT:go I)  
 '(I) feel like (going).'

(See also 7.100 and 7.101.)

A verb-plus-content-verb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a content verb in the unmarked continuative aspect.

*she ndikín (nā kó)*  
 COM:arrive CON:follow (he me)  
 '(He) caught up with (me).'

*kídí ndīsí (u)*  
 COM:sleep CON:be:standing:sg (I)  
 '(I) fell asleep on my feet.'

*kakan dána (tún)*  
 CON:speak CON:be:confused (she)  
 '(She) is hallucinating.'

*kaika ndei (∅)*  
 CON:walk CON:be:upside:down (UN)  
 '(It [child]) is crawling.'

(See also 7.120.)

A verb-plus-stative-verb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect plus either a basic stative verb or one derived from a noun (see 5.2).

*kada váha (na ∅)*  
 POT:do good (he UN)  
 '(He) will make (it).'

*kakan ndahví (tun)*  
 CON:speak poor (she)  
 '(She) is praying.'

*ēni ndahví (na kó)*  
 COM:set:up poor (he me)  
 '(He) deceived (me).'

*kade kwīhí (tun)*  
 CON:do sickly (she)  
 '(She) is languishing.' (cf. *kwīhi* 'sickness')

*kade duhshen (nā)*  
 CON:do bothersome (he)  
 '(He) is being a nuisance.' (cf. *duhshēn* 'war')

(See also 7.5, 7.28, 7.92, 7.102, 7.113, and 7.114.)

A verb-plus-adverb nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by an adverb; in the examples found to date, only temporal adverbs occur.

*shí nūu (tún)*  
 COM:die short:time (she)  
 '(She) fainted.'

*ndé naha (∅)*  
 CON:be:against:sg long:time (UN)  
 '(It) is written down.'

A verb-plus-preposition nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a preposition.

*kish nihī (ú ∅)*  
 POT:come with (I UN)  
 '(I) will bring (it).'

*kashku ndée (na)*  
 CON:cry against (he)  
 '(He) is laughing.'

(See also 7.13, 7.27, and 7.90.)

A verb-plus-indeterminate-element nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect followed by a word that occurs only in one or a few frozen phrases. It is therefore not possible to assign the second element to a word class without access to historical or comparative data.

*kaka*        *chuhu*    (*na*)  
 CON:speak ?        (he)  
 '(He) is shouting.'

*inū*            *kava*    (*viko*)  
 COM:arrive ?        (fiesta)  
 '(The fiesta) came to an end.'

A complex nucleus may be modified by one of the aforementioned elements to form a three-element nucleus.

*kadē*    *kwe*            *inī*        (*ko*)  
 CON:do    measurement    insides    (me)  
 '(I) am thinking.'

*kade*    *tsun*    *nihī*    (*ú*  $\emptyset$ )  
 CON:do    work    with    (I UN)  
 '(I) am using (it).'

*kaka*        *chu*    *ndáa*    (*na*)  
 CON:speak ?    straight    (he)  
 '(He) is screaming.'

*kī*            *ndé*        *shio*    (*na*)  
 COM:go:out    against    away    (he)  
 '(He) got away.'

*nakwiko*                    *tūví*        *lundzi*    (*nā*)  
 COM:REP:POT:revolve    CON:sit:SG    top        (he)  
 '(He) somersaulted.'

(See also 7.25 and 7.46.)

The complex nuclei that are not idioms result from the syntactic incorporation of locative possessed nouns and prepositions that signal adjuncts, as described in 1.1.4. These may occur with either a simple or a complex nucleus.

*ēni nuu (na tī utun)*  
 COM:hit face (he it:AML stick)  
 ‘(He) hit (it) with (a stick).’

*kan nihi (ú tun)*  
 POT:speak with (I her)  
 ‘(I) will talk to (her).’

*nā ndée (ñā ko)*  
 COM:fight against (person us:IN)  
 ‘(They) fought over (us).’

(See also 7.36, 7.42, 7.44, and 7.45.)

**2.1.2 Preverbal elements.** There are six orders of optional elements that precede the verb nucleus. Listed from the nucleus out to the beginning of the verb phrase they are: motion auxiliary, nonmotion auxiliary, mode, negative, manner, and temporal. Most preverbal elements are proclitics. They are somewhat restricted in their cooccurrence with each other and with different aspects of the verb.

There are three motion auxiliaries, which are prestressed forms of the motion verbs *kihshi* ‘to come’, *ndihshi* ‘to come back’, and *kāhīn* ‘to go’. Each occurs in a full range of aspect forms (see 5.1.2). These auxiliaries immediately precede a verb nucleus in potential aspect, and they express the notion of motion and direction with purpose. Because the aspect forms of these auxiliaries are irregular, all are listed in the following table, along with their meanings and the fuller forms to which they are related. (Because of the purpose component, it would be possible to expand the gloss of each auxiliary by adding ‘in order to’ at the end.)

Auxiliary	Meaning	Full Form	Gloss
<i>kish</i>	‘will come’	<i>kihshi</i>	POT:COME
<i>kakish</i>	‘comes’	<i>kakihshi</i>	CON:COME
<i>kīsh</i>	‘came (and has left)’	<i>kīhshi</i>	COM:COME
<i>vēsh</i>	‘has come (and is still here)’ or ‘is on the way here’	<i>vēhshī</i>	INC:COME
<i>ndish</i>	‘will come back’	<i>ndihshi</i>	POT:REP:COME
<i>kandish</i>	‘comes back’	<i>kandihshi</i>	CON:REP:COME
<i>ndīsh</i>	‘came back’	<i>ndīhshi</i>	COM:REP:COME



<i>kúndīsh</i>	'has come back' or 'is on the way back here'	<i>kúndīhshi</i>	INC:REP:COME
<i>ká</i> or <i>kí</i>	'will go'	<i>káhīn</i>	POT:go
<i>kaish</i> or <i>kai</i>	'goes'	<i>kañehe</i>	CON:go
<i>ish</i> or <i>i</i>	'went (and has returned)'	<i>ñéhē</i>	COM:go
<i>kú</i>	'has gone (and has not returned)'	<i>kwéhēn</i>	INC:go
<i>kū</i>	'go!'	<i>kwéhén</i>	IMP:go

The following examples show these auxiliaries used in sentences.

*kish kahshí (ñā)*  
POT:come POT:eat (person)  
'(They) will come to eat.'

*kīsh kahshí (tun)*  
COM:come POT:eat (she)  
'(She) came to eat.'

*vésh kōto (ú)*  
INC:come POT:look (I)  
'(I) have come to watch.'

*ndīsh kīhi (na ∅)*  
COM:come:back POT:take (he UN)  
'(He) came back to get (it).'

*ki kwīn (tun nuni)*  
POT:go POT:buy (she corn)  
'(She) will go to buy (corn).'

*kaish duté (na)*  
CON:go POT:swim (he)  
'(He) goes to swim.' or '(He) goes swimming.'

*ish kóho (tí ndūte)*  
 COM:go POT:drink (it:AML water)  
 '(It) went to drink (water).'

*ku kīhi (na tūtun)*  
 INC:go POT:take (he firewood)  
 '(He) has gone to get (firewood).'

*kū koto (ndó ihshá)*  
 IMP:go POT:look (you:PL child)  
 'Go watch (the child)!'.

(See also 7.52, 7.53, 7.60, 7.63, 7.68, 7.71, 7.107, and 7.108.)

Nonmotion auxiliary occurs in second preverbal position and is expressed by prestressed forms of the content verbs *iní* 'to know', *ndio* 'to want', and *kuvi* 'to be able'. *iní* occurs only in unmarked continuative aspect and precedes only verbs in the same aspect. *ndio* and *kuvi* can occur in any aspect, but *ndio* precedes only verbs in potential aspect, whereas *kuvi* precedes verbs in any aspect and usually agrees in aspect with the verb it precedes.

*ini ika (na)*  
 CON:know CON:walk (he)  
 '(He) knows how to walk.' or '(He) is used to walking.'

*ini éhshi (ú ∅)*  
 CON:know CON:eat (I UN)  
 '(I) am used to eating (it).'

*njo kidí (u)*  
 CON:want POT:sleep (I)  
 '(I) want to sleep.' or '(I) am sleepy.'

*njō kwiin (na idú)*  
 COM:want POT:buy (he horse)  
 '(He) wanted to buy (a horse).'

*kuvi vií (u ∅)*  
 POT:be:able POT:do (I UN)  
 '(I) will be able to do (it).'

*kūvi*            *dé*            (*na*    $\emptyset$ )  
 COM:be:able    COM:do    (he    UN)  
 '(He) was able to do (it),' or '(He) succeeded in doing (it),' or  
 '(He) won!'

*kakūvi*        *kaika*        (*tún*)  
 CON:be:able    CON:walk    (she)  
 '(She) is able to walk.'

(See also 7.119.)

When a negative marker (see below) occurs, a verb preceded by *kūvi* must be in potential aspect.

*ñá*    *kakūvi*        *kaka*        (*tún*)  
 NEG    CON:be:able    POT:walk    (she)  
 '(She) is not able to walk.'

*ña*    *ni*    *kūvi*            *kīhin*    (*na*)  
 NEG    CF    COM:be:able    POT:go    (he)  
 '(He) was not able to go.'

The full forms of these three verbs also occur as main verbs that take a sentential complement (see 1.1.9). *ini* and *kūvi* show slightly different meanings when they are used as full verbs and as auxiliaries. In some cases it is difficult to determine whether *kūvi* is functioning as a main verb or as an auxiliary.

Mode occurs in third preverbal position and is expressed by the contrafactual marker *nī* and the hortatory marker *nā*. The contrafactual marker *nī* precedes a verb (nucleus, motion auxiliary, or nonmotion auxiliary) in completive or incompletive aspect in contrafactual conditions (see 6.2.1), or in sentences that contain a negative marker in the verb phrase (see below), either of the complex adverbs *dōkō sá* 'almost' and *dīi sa* 'nearly' in the preverbal manner position (see below), or a negated element in focus position (see 3.5 and 4.2.5).

(*te*)    *nī*    *ñēhé*        (*u*)  
 (if)    CF    COM:go    I  
 '(If [only] I) had gone!'

*ñā ni inu (nā)*  
 NEG CF COM:run (he)  
 '(He) did not run.'

*ñá nī kátūví (tun)*  
 NEG CF INC:sit:SG (she)  
 '(She) did not stay.'

*dókō sá ni shěé (u)*  
 almost only CF COM:arrive (I)  
 '(I) had almost arrived.'

*dū sa ni kōhshó (∅)*  
 bit only CF COM:fall (UN)  
 '(It) nearly fell.'

*(shōshó) ni kūvi vī (i ∅)*  
 (nobody) CF COM:be:able POT:do (UN UN)  
 '(Nobody) was able to do (it).'

*(ñā náha) ni ikā (ú)*  
 (NEG long:time) CF COM:walk (I)  
 '(I) did not walk (long).'

*(ñā te dívi na) ni ehnī (ná ko)*  
 (NEG if same he) CF COM:hit (he me)  
 '(It was not he who) hit (me).'

(See also 7.7, 7.9, 7.71, and 7.96.)

The hortatory marker *nā* directly precedes a verb in potential aspect and usually occurs as the first element in its phrase. The presence of *nā* in a main sentence makes it imperative, though not all imperative sentences contain it (see 1.3).

*na kwūn (tún ∅)*  
 HORT POT:buy (she UN)  
 'Let (her) buy (it)!'

*na kāhin (ñā)*  
 HORT POT:go (person)  
 'May (they) go!'

*nā*    *kí*        *kihí*    (*u*  $\emptyset$ )  
 HORT POT:go POT:take (I UN)  
 'Let (me) go get (it)!'

(See also 7.60, 7.63, 7.90, 7.94, and 7.100.)

Negative occurs in fourth position and is expressed by the markers *ñá* 'not' (the prestressed form of *ñáhā* 'no') and *vátā* 'not yet'. Whereas *vátā* occurs only with verbs in potential aspect, *ñá* occurs with verbs in any aspect but must be followed by the contrafactual marker *nī* when occurring with verbs in completive or incompletive aspect.

*ñá*    *kwūn*    (*ú*  $\emptyset$ )  
 NEG POT:buy (I UN)  
 '(I) will not buy (it).'

*ñá*    *kakādi*    (*na*)  
 NEG CON:sleep (he)  
 '(He) is not sleeping.'

*ñá*    *nī*    *kátuvī*    (*ná*)  
 NEG CF INC:sit:SG (he)  
 '(He) did not stay.'

*vátā*    *shēe*    (*ñā*)  
 not:yet POT:arrive (person)  
 '(They) have not yet arrived.'

(See also 7.2, 7.7, 7.9, 7.36, 7.71, 7.82, 7.96, and 7.97.)

Preverbal manner occurs in fifth preverbal position. There is also a postverbal manner position described in 2.1.3 below. While most preverbal and postverbal elements comprise small, closed classes, the two manner positions are expressed by a large and diverse class of elements, which includes both open and closed classes. Some of these elements occur only in preverbal position, while others occur in either position. Manner adverbs that occur only preverbal include the intensifier *dōó* 'very' or 'much', *dá* 'only', and *dōtó* 'haphazardly'.

*dōo*    *éku*        (*tún*)  
 INTS COM:cry (she)  
 '(She) cried a lot.'

*dōó ndio (kó ∅)*  
 INTS CON:want (me UN)  
 '(I) want (it) very much.'

*dá kakāhán (u)*  
 only CON:speak (I)  
 '(I) am only talking.'

*dōtó kade (na ∅)*  
 haphazardly CON:do (he UN)  
 '(He) is doing (it) haphazardly.'

(See also 7.35, 7.40, 7.46, and 7.68.)

Three common complex adverbs that occur only in preverbal manner position are *dókō sá* 'almost', which occurs with verbs in potential or completive aspect; *dīi sa* 'nearly', which occurs only with verbs in completive aspect; and *dīi ka* 'even more', which occurs with verbs in any aspect. *dókō* and *dīi* are sometimes repeated for emphasis.

*dóko sá kwéku (na)*  
 almost only POT:cry (he)  
 '(He) is about to cry.'

*dīi sa ni shīhí (u)*  
 bit only CF COM:die (I)  
 '(I) nearly died.'

*dīi ka kaeku (na)*  
 bit more CON:cry (he)  
 '(He) is crying even more.'

*dókō dokó sa ni kōhshó (na)*  
 almost almost only CF COM:fall (he)  
 '(He) ALMOST fell!

*dí dí dí dīi sa ni shīhi (ná)*  
 bit bit bit bit only CF COM:die (he)  
 '(He) NEARLY died!'

In addition to these specific items, which are restricted to preverbal position, preverbal manner also contains stative verbs, stative verb phrases,

adverbs, adverb phrases, and numerals and expanded numeral phrases (especially those based on the numeral *uun* 'one', which is used as an intensifier).

*váhā kidi (na)*  
good POT:sleep (he)  
'(He) will sleep well.'

*dōó dushen eku (nā)*  
INTS bothersome COM:cry (he)  
'(He) whined a lot.'

*un ndii tsī kohshó (∅)*  
one strong LIM COM:fall (UN)  
'(It) really fell hard.'

*shio kaito (na)*  
away CON:look (he)  
'(He) is looking away.'

*dadii éhshi (ndí)*  
same COM:eat (we:EX)  
'(We) ate together.'

*kūdii kakáhán (tun)*  
merely CON:speak (she)  
'(She) is only talking.'

*dōó kwū kaika (tún)*  
INTS slowly CON:walk (she)  
'(She) is walking very slowly.'

(See also 7.2, 7.14, 7.35, 7.38, 7.47, 7.65, 7.70, and 7.83.)

Temporal occurs in sixth preverbal position and is expressed by *é* 'already' or *dā ve* 'just now'. Both occur with verbs in any aspect. Their meanings vary slightly with aspect, as seen in the translation of the examples below.

*e káhīn (ú)*  
already POT:go (I)  
'(I) am now about to go.'

*é* *ĩsi* (*ná*)  
 already COM:bathe (he)  
 '(He) already bathed.'

*é* *kakĩdi* (*na*)  
 already CON:sleep (he)  
 '(He) is already asleep.'

*dā* *ve* *véhshi* (*tún*)  
 when now INC:come (she)  
 '(She) is just now coming.'

*dā* *ve* *shihĩ* (*ĩ*)  
 when now COM:die (it:AML)  
 '(It) just now died.'

Occasionally *é* occurs outside the verb phrase at the beginning of the sentence (see 7.54, 7.72, and 7.109).

Certain preverbal elements may be questioned by postposing the interrogative marker *ndu* to them (see 1.2.1); these include the negative markers *ĩá* 'not' and *vátā* 'not yet', the manner adverbs except for *dá* 'only', and the temporal marker *dā ve* 'just now'.

*ĩā* *ndu* *kakáhan* (*na*)  
 NEG INT CON:speak (he)  
 'Isn't (he) talking?'

*ĩā* *ndu* *ni* *ĩéhe* (*na*)  
 NEG INT CF COM:go (he)  
 'Didn't (he) go?'

*vāta* *ndu* *káhshi* (*tún*)  
 not:yet INT POT:eat (she)  
 'Hasn't (she) eaten yet?'

*dóo* *ndu* *ndio* (*o*  $\emptyset$ )  
 INTS INT CON:want (you:SG UN)  
 'Do (you) want (it) very much?'

*dokó* *sa* *ndú* *kihĩn* (*na*)  
 almost only INT POT:go (he)  
 'Is (he) about to go?'



*dii sa ndú ni shíhi (tún)*  
 bit only INT CF COM:die (she)  
 'Did (she) nearly die?'

*dā vé ndu ñii (na Ø)*  
 when now INT COM:buy (he UN)  
 'Did (he) just now buy (it)?'

Frequently preverbal manner is questioned by using a construction in which the interrogative adverb *ndé* 'how?' is followed by a full or reduced form of the verb *koo* 'to exist', which takes a sentence containing a content verb as its subject complement (see 1.1.9). The verb *koo* must be in potential aspect if the complement verb is potential; otherwise it is in unmarked continuative aspect. The interrogative marker *ndu* optionally follows *ndé*, as seen in the following pairs of sentences.

*ndé ko kihin (o)*  
 how POT:exist POT:go (we:IN)  
 'How shall (we) go?'

*ndé ndu ko kihin (o)*  
 how INT POT:exist POT:go (we:IN)  
 'How shall (we) go?'

*ndé ō shihi (ti)*  
 how CON:exist COM:die (it:AML)  
 'How did (it) die?'

*ndé ndu ō shihi (ti)*  
 how INT CON:exist COM:die (it:AML)  
 'How did (it) die?'

(See also 7.6, 7.29, 7.40, 7.56, 7.73, and 7.110.)

In a similar construction, *ndé* is followed by the verb *kaa* 'to be (singular)' in unmarked continuative aspect to question quantity, in which case interrogative *ndu* optionally follows either *ndé* or *kaa*.

*ndé kaa ndáhvi (na)*  
 how CON:be:SG COM:pay (he)  
 'How much did (he) pay?'

*ndé kaa ndu ndáhvi (na)*  
 how CON:be:SG INT COM:pay (he)  
 'How much did (he) pay?'

*ndé ndu kaa ndáhvi (na)*  
 how INT CON:be:SG COM:pay (he)  
 'How much did (he) pay?'

**2.1.3 Postverbal elements.** There are eight orders of elements following the verb nucleus. Listed from the nucleus out to the end of the verb phrase, they are: postverbal manner, personal involvement, verifier, additive, limiter, repetitive, emphatic, and deprecative.

Postverbal manner immediately follows the verb nucleus. It is distinguished from preverbal manner (see 2.1.2) and may cooccur with it. It is expressed by a large and diverse class of modifiers, which include several open classes, such as stative verbs, content verbs (rare), and adverbs. Verb and adverb phrases are, however, rare in postverbal manner position; expanded manner elements usually occur in the preverbal manner position. Most elements that occur in postverbal manner may also occur in preverbal manner; preverbal position adds a degree of focus or intensity to their meanings. The following sentences show postverbal manner.

*kidi váhā (tún)*  
 COM:sleep good (she)  
 '(She) slept well.'

*kunu kandíhi (na)*  
 POT:run CON:hurry (he)  
 '(He) will run quickly.'

*kaika kwī (ñá)*  
 CON:walk slowly (person)  
 '(They) are walking slowly.'

*ishi kwēhen (∅)*  
 COM:burn completely (UN)  
 '(It) burned up completely.'

*kaito shio (na)*  
 CON:look away (he)  
 '(He) is looking away.'

(See also 7.32, 7.71, and 7.104.)

Personal involvement occurs in second postverbal position; it includes three elements: *tahan* 'companion' (reciprocal), which occurs only with transitive verb nuclei; *dadii* 'same' or 'together' (co-involvement); and the specifier *mii* 'alone' or 'self' (self-involvement).

*ito*            *tahan*            (*n̄a*)  
 COM:look    companion    (person)  
 '(They) looked at each other.'

*kashí*    *dadii*    (*ō*)  
 POT:eat    same    (we:IN)  
 '(We) will eat together.'

*kaika*        *mii*        (*n̄a*)  
 CON:walk    alone    (he)  
 '(He) is walking by himself.'

*mii* also occurs within the noun phrase (see 3.1.2), where it serves as an emphatic. Some sentences containing *mii* are ambiguous. For example, the above sentence can also mean 'He himself is walking.'

Verifier occurs in third postverbal position and is expressed by *ndihshe* 'truly' or 'really'.

*kakidi*        *ndihshe*    (*na*)  
 CON:sleep    truly        (he)  
 '(He) really is sleeping.'

(See also 7.13, 7.17, 7.20, 7.41, 7.49, 7.53, 7.85, 7.91, 7.95, 7.101, 7.108, and 7.121.)

Additive occurs in fourth postverbal position and is expressed by *ká* 'more' or 'still' and *sá* 'only', 'so', or 'just a bit more'.

*kakidí*        *ka*        (*na*)  
 CON:sleep    more        (he)  
 '(He) is still sleeping.'

*ika*            *sá*        (*tun*)  
 COM:walk    only        (she)  
 '(She) walked just a bit farther.'

(See also 7.41, 7.64, 7.66, 7.108, 7.109, and 7.121.)

Limiters occur in fifth postverbal position and are expressed by *tsi* 'just'. Within a phonological phrase, *tsi* is normally reduced to *ts* before a vowel and to *sh* before a consonant.

*kakidi tsi (∅)*  
 CON:sleep LIM (UN)  
 '(It [child]) is just sleeping.'

*kāhin ts (ō)*  
 POT:go LIM (we:IN)  
 'Let (us) just go.'

*īnu sh (ti)*  
 COM:run LIM (it:AML)  
 '(It [animal]) just ran.'

(See also 7.41, 7.64, 7.66, and 7.121.)

Repetitive occurs in sixth postverbal position and is expressed by *tuku* 'other' or 'again'.

*kīdi tūku (na)*  
 COM:sleep REP (he)  
 '(He) slept again.'

(See also 7.8, 7.9, 7.23, 7.44, and 7.93.)

Sometimes, however, *tuku* occurs in postverbal manner, in which case it can serve as the nucleus of an adverb phrase, as seen in 7.23.

Emphatic occurs in seventh postverbal position and is expressed by *ku* 'indeed' or 'definitely'.

*shīhi ku (tī)*  
 COM:die EMPH (it:AML)  
 '(It [animal]) did indeed die.'

(See also 7.113.)

Deprecative occurs in eighth postverbal position and is expressed by *kūdiit* 'merely'.

*kakidi kúdií (ná)*  
 CON:sleep merely (he)  
 '(He) is merely sleeping.' or '(He) is sleeping a little bit.'

Note that *kúdií* also occurs in preverbal manner position (see 2.1.2).

Any postverbal element except the emphatic *ku* may be questioned by postposing the interrogative marker *ndu* to it (see 1.2.1). The interrogative marker can itself be followed only by the emphatic *ku* or the deprecativ *kúdií*.

*kidi vahá ndu (na)*  
 COM:sleep good INT (he)  
 'Did (he) sleep well?'

*kashí dadíi ndu (ñá)*  
 POT:eat same INT (person)  
 'Will (they) eat together?'

*shi ndíhshe ndu (tí)*  
 COM:die truly INT (it:AML)  
 'Did (it [animal]) really die?'

*kahshí ka ndú (tun)*  
 POT:eat more INT (she)  
 'Will (she) eat more?' or 'Will (she) keep on eating?'

*kākidi sh ndú (na)*  
 CON:sleep LIM INT (he)  
 'Is (he) just sleeping?'

*kín túku ndu (na)*  
 POT:go REP INT (he)  
 'Will (he) go again?'

*shihi ndú ku (ñá)*  
 COM:die INT EMPH (person)  
 'Did (they) indeed die?'

*kidi kúdií ndú (na)*  
 COM:sleep merely INT (he)  
 'Did (he) sleep a little bit?'

*kidi ndú kudii (ná)*  
 COM:sleep INT merely (he)  
 'Did (he) sleep a little bit?'

(See also 7.85.)

**2.1.4 Combinations of elements.** All preverbal elements cooccur with all other preverbal elements, except that temporal does not occur with negative or mode. There are, however, many restrictions involving specific items that express these elements. For example, certain manner adverbs do not cooccur with negative or mode. Furthermore, a number of preverbal elements and individual items occur only when they are followed by a verb in certain aspects; these restrictions have been described in 2.1.2 above.

*njo kí káhshi (ú)*  
 CON:want POT:go POT:eat (I)  
 '(I) want to go eat.'

*nā kí kihí (u ∅)*  
 HORT POT:go POT:take (I UN)  
 'Let (me) go get (it)!'

*ñá ìni ekú (tun)*  
 NEG CON:know CON:cry (she)  
 '(She) is not a crybaby.'

*ñá ni kish káhshí (na)*  
 NEG CF COM:come POT:eat (he)  
 '(He) did not come to eat.'

*vata kúvi kakā (∅)*  
 not:yet POT:be:able POT:walk (UN)  
 '(It) is not able to walk yet.'

*dḡó njo kihín (u)*  
 INTS CON:want POT:go (I)  
 '(I) want very much to go.'

*dú ka njo kihín (na)*  
 bit more CON:want POT:go (he)  
 '(He) wants to go even more.'

*dii ka ña ni eku (na)*  
 bit more NEG CF COM:cry (he)  
 '(He) cried even less.'

*dókō sá ña ni ñéhe (ú)*  
 almost only NEG CF COM:go (I)  
 '(I) almost didn't go.'

*e dóko sã kidi (ú)*  
 already almost only POT:sleep (I)  
 '(I) am almost asleep already.'

(See also 7.7.)

There are no cooccurrence restrictions among postverbal elements, but ordinarily a verb phrase contains no more than three or four of them.

*kaka kwĩ ts (ó)*  
 POT:walk slowly LIM (we:IN)  
 '(We) will just walk slowly.'

*kakidi sh túku (na)*  
 CON:sleep LIM REP (he)  
 '(He) is just sleeping again.'

*kidi váha ndĩshe ká (tun)*  
 COM:sleep good truly more (she)  
 '(She) really did continue to sleep well.'

*ĩka tuku ku kudii (ná)*  
 COM:walk REP EMPH merely (he)  
 '(He) did indeed walk again just a bit.'

*shi kwéhen ndĩshe sh ku (tì)*  
 COM:die completely truly LIM EMPH (it:AML)  
 '(It) really did indeed just die completely.'

*kaní tahan ndĩshe ká sh (ña)*  
 COM:hit companion truly more LIM (person)  
 '(They) really did just keep on hitting each other.'

(See also 7.13, 7.17, 7.20, 7.41, 7.64, 7.66, 7.101, 7.108, and 7.121.)

There are likewise no cooccurrence restrictions between preverbal and postverbal elements, with the exception that preverbal and postverbal manner rarely cooccur in the same verb phrase. The hortatory mode marker *nā* cooccurs with personal involvement *mīi* to express indifference on the part of the speaker and with deprecative *kūdii* to express a polite command (see 1.3).

*na kuvī mīi (nā)*  
 HORT POT:die alone (he)  
 ‘Let (him) die (for all I care)!’

*na kīhshi kudii (ñá)*  
 HORT POT:come merely (person)  
 ‘May (they) please come!’

*ñá ni ika mīi ká tuku (tún)*  
 NEG CF COM:walk alone more REP (she)  
 ‘(She) did not walk by herself any more.’

*ñá ni eku kwēhen sh kú (na)*  
 NEG CF COM:cry completely LIM EMPH (he)  
 ‘(He) indeed just did not cry at all.’

*vátā kish kāhshí dadii tsi kudii (ñá)*  
 not:yet POT:come POT:eat same LIM merely (person)  
 ‘(They) have merely just not yet come to eat together.’

*e dóko sá shee ndíhshe sh (tún)*  
 already almost only POT:arrive truly LIM (she)  
 ‘(She) is now just really about to arrive.’

*dōó njo kaka mīi sh tuku kudii (u)*  
 INTS CON:want POT:walk alone LIM REP merely (I)  
 ‘(I) want very much to just walk a bit by myself again.’

(See also 7.8, 7.9, 7.71, 7.85, and 7.96.)

## 2.2 Equative Verb Phrases

Equative verb phrases are based on the equative verbs *kuvī* ‘to become’, *nduvi* ‘to turn into’, *naní* ‘to be named’, or in some cases no verb at all. Equative verb phrases show no complex nuclei, although reduced forms of



the equative verbs *kuvi* and *nduvi* combine with stative verbs to form intransitive verbs (see 5.1.1).

Equative verbs rarely occur with preverbal and postverbal elements, but it is possible for *kuvi* and *nduvi* to occur with any of the preverbal and postverbal elements except additive.

With preverbal elements:

*kish kuvi (na ihshá ko)*  
 POT:come POT:become (he child me)  
 '(He) will come to become (my child).'

*njo kuvi (na ihshá ko)*  
 CON:want POT:become (he child me)  
 '(He) wants to become (my child).'

*na ndúvi (na tsídō)*  
 HORT POT:REP:become (he rabbit)  
 'May (he) turn into (a rabbit)!'

*ñā ndúvi (nā tsídō)*  
 NEG POT:REP:become (he rabbit)  
 '(He) will not turn into (a rabbit).'

*dotō ndúvi (nā tsídō)*  
 haphazardly COM:REP:become (he rabbit)  
 '(He) haphazardly turned into (a rabbit).'

*é kúvi (na ihshá ko)*  
 already COM:become (he child me)  
 '(He) has already become (my child).'

(See also 7.7.)

With postverbal elements:

*kuvi kwehen (ná ihshá ko)*  
 POT:become completely (he child me)  
 '(He) will permanently become (my child).'

*ndūvi*                    *dadū* (*ña*    *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become same (person rabbit)  
 '(They) together turned into (rabbits).'

*ndūvi*                    *ndihshe* (*na* *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become truly (he rabbit)  
 '(He) really did turn into (a rabbit).'

*ndūvi*                    *sh* (*na* *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become LIM (he rabbit)  
 '(He) just turned into (a rabbit).'

*ndūvi*                    *tuku* (*na* *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become REP (he rabbit)  
 '(He) turned into (a rabbit) again.'

*ndūvi*                    *ku* (*na* *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become EMPH (he rabbit)  
 '(He) did indeed turn into (a rabbit).'

*ndūvi*                    *kudii* (*na* *tsídō*)  
 COM:REP:become merely (he rabbit)  
 '(He) merely turned into (a rabbit).'

Equative verb phrases based on *nani* 'to be named' do not occur with preverbal elements, but it is possible for *nani* to occur with any postverbal element except manner or additive.

(*pēlu*)    *nani*                    *dadū* (*na*)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named same (he)  
 '(They) are both named (Peter [Sp. *Pedro*]).'

(*pēlu*)    *nani*                    *ndihshe* (*na*)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named truly (he)  
 '(He) really is named (Peter).'

(*pēlu*)    *nani*                    *sh* (*ná*)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named LIM (he)  
 '(He) is just named (Peter).'

(pēlu) nani túku (na)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named REP (he)  
 '(He) is again named (Peter).'

(pēlu) nani ku (ná)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named EMPH (he)  
 '(He) is indeed named (Peter).'

(pēlu) nani kúdii (ná)  
 (Peter) CON:be:named merely (he)  
 '(He) is merely named (Peter).'

It is also possible for the same postverbal elements that occur with *nani* to occur in an equative sentence when no verb is present, in which case they directly follow the nominal complement.'

(dutu) dadii (ña)  
 (priest) same (person)  
 '(They) are both (priests).'

(pēlu) ndihshe (na)  
 (Peter) truly (he)  
 '(He) really is (Peter).'

(tīná) tuku (∅)  
 (dog) REP (UN)  
 '(It) is again (a dog).'

(tīná) ku (∅)  
 (dog) EMPH (UN)  
 '(It) is indeed (a dog).'

(ihshá) kudii (u)  
 (child) merely (I)  
 '(I) am merely (a child).'

(tīná) dadii ndihshe sh tuku ku kudii (∅)  
 (dog) same truly LIM REP EMPH merely (UN)  
 '(It) is indeed likewise merely again just (a dog).'

If, however, the nominal complement is expressed by a possessive noun phrase (see 3.3), the postverbal elements occur between the possessed item and its possessor.

(*tahán*)      *ndihshe* (*kó tun*)  
 (companion) truly (me she)  
 '(She) really is (my sister).'

(*tíná*)    *tsi kudú* (*ko ∅*)  
 (dog) LIM merely (me UN)  
 '(It) is only just (my dog).'

### 2.3 Stative Verb Phrases

Stative verb phrases consist of a stative verb nucleus with optional preverbal and postverbal elements. Preverbal elements include all those described in 2.1.2 except motion and nonmotion auxiliary and mode, while postverbal elements include all those described in 2.1.3.

With preverbal elements:

*ná*    *váhá* (*∅*)  
 NEG good (UN)  
 '(It) is not good.'

*dōó* *kahnu* (*na*)  
 INTS big:SG (he)  
 '(He) is very big.'

*díi* *ka kahnu* (*tún*)  
 bit more big:SG (she)  
 '(She) is bigger.'

*é*      *kāhnu* (*na*)  
 already big:SG (he)  
 '(He) is already big.'

(See also 7.26, 7.42, 7.80, and 7.98.)

With postverbal elements:

*vide kwēhén* (u)  
wet completely (I)  
'(I) am soaking wet.'

*vāhā ndihshe* (∅)  
good truly (UN)  
'(It) really is good.'

*kahnu ká* (∅)  
big:SG more (UN)  
'(It) is bigger.' or '(It) is still big.'

*vide sh tūku* (∅)  
wet LIM REP (UN)  
'(It) is just wet again.'

*kahnu kudii* (vihi ña)  
big:SG merely (house person)  
'(Their house) is kind of big.'

*kahnu ká kudii* (∅)  
big:SG more merely (UN)  
'(It) is only a bit bigger.'

*kahnu kwehen ndihshe sh ku* (tínā kó)  
big:SG completely truly LIM EMPH (dog me)  
'(My dog) really is indeed just extremely big.'

With both preverbal and postverbal elements:

*é dii ka kahnu ndihshe sh ku* (tínā kó)  
already bit more big:SG truly LIM EMPH (dog me)  
'(My dog) just really is indeed already bigger'

*e tína o)*  
CMP dog you:SG)  
(than your dog).'

Manner in stative verb phrases can be questioned by using *ndé kaa* ‘how?’ or ‘how much?’, optionally accompanied by the interrogative marker *ndu*.

*ndé kaa vidē (tún)*  
 how CON:be wet (she)  
 ‘How wet is (she)?’

*ndé kaa ndu vīi (etun)*  
 how CON:be INT heavy (box)  
 ‘How heavy is (the box)?’ or ‘How much does (the box) weigh?’

## 2.4 Repetitive Verb Phrases

Both content and stative verb nuclei may be repeated to indicate continuation of an action or intensification of a state. The aspect is usually continuative, but sometimes potential occurs. Repetitive verb phrases often occur as the first part of juxtaposed coordinate sentences (see 6.1.2). Repetitive stative verb phrases also sometimes express preverbal manner (see 2.1.2).

*ika ika (nā)*  
 CON:walk CON:walk (he)  
 ‘(He) walked and walked.’ or ‘(He) kept on walking.’

*kwishin kwihshin (∅)*  
 white white (UN)  
 ‘(It) is very white.’

Preverbal elements, when present, are usually repeated with the nucleus, while postverbal elements never are.

*da kin dá kihin ts (o)*  
 just POT:go just POT:go LIM (we:IN)  
 ‘(We) will just keep on going.’

*vide vide tsī (∅)*  
 wet wet LIM (UN)  
 ‘(It) is just sopping wet.’

*ndava ndava nuu ká sh (t̥ iní i)*  
 CON:fall CON:fall face more LIM (it:AML insides UN)  
 (It) just kept sliding around (in it).

## 2.5 Additive Verb Phrases

Two content verb nuclei that are related in meaning and that agree in aspect may be juxtaposed to form additive verb phrases. They are relatively rare and appear to be frozen remnants of a formerly productive literary device. Like repetitive content verb phrases, they occur as simple sentences or as the first part of juxtaposed coordinate sentences (see 6.1.2).

*ko kahshi (o)*  
 POT:drink POT:eat (we:IN)  
 '(We) will eat and drink.'

*kashka inu (na)*  
 CON:walk CON:run (he)  
 '(He) is scurrying.'

*kūnu méhñu kūnu dava (ñā ko)*  
 POT:get:in:SG in:middle:of POT:get:in:SG half (person us:IN)  
 '(He [God]) will be with (us).'





## 3

# Noun Phrases

### 3.1 Basic Noun Phrases

Basic noun phrases consist of a noun or pronoun nucleus, two optional prenuclear elements, and three optional postnuclear elements.

**3.1.1 Noun nuclei.** Both simple and complex noun nuclei occur. A simple nucleus comprises only a noun or pronoun.

<i>itā</i>	‘tortilla’
<i>núnī</i>	‘corn’
<i>ndute</i>	‘water’
<i>túhūn</i>	‘word’
<i>ñaha</i>	‘person, they’ <sup>1</sup>
<i>kīi</i>	‘animal, it:AML’

A complex nucleus is a lexical unit that comprises a noun or pronoun followed by a frozen modifier, which may be a noun, a numeral (rare), or a relative clause based on either a stative or a content verb.

Noun plus noun:

<i>ndute</i>	<i>núū</i>
water	face
‘tear’	

---

<sup>1</sup>In Coatzospan Mixtec, third person pronouns are not a fixed set. Instead, many generic noun stems, in full or reduced form, serve as personal pronouns (see 5.4). The stems *ñaha* and *kīi* are in this category, and they are therefore given two glosses.

*a ndútē*  
 child water  
 'godchild'

*ishá dyuhun*  
 child money  
 'interest'

*cho shítñi*  
 medicine rat  
 'rat poison'

*vi utun*  
 house wood  
 'jail'

*tsi kutsin*  
 nose pig  
 'bat (Sp. cochino)'

*shku davi*  
 leaf rain  
 'fern'

*ko ndáhā*  
 snake hand  
 'centipede'

*nda kāá*  
 hand metal  
 'key'

*ta ñúhū*  
 tortilla fire  
 'bread'

(See also 7.5.)

## Noun plus numeral:

*isha uvi*  
 child two  
 'twin'

## Noun plus relative clause:

*ndute veté*  
 water cool  
 'soda pop'

*dyun kwétsī*  
 money small:PL  
 'change'

*ndika kwēhé*  
 banana red  
 'mamey (*Calocarpum sapota*)'

*do shíhi*  
 word CON:die  
 'death'

*ndo íhshi*  
 adobe COM:burn  
 'brick'

*tsi kahnu*  
 trail big:SG  
 'Huatla de Jiménez'

(See also 7.60.)

Sometimes the first or second constituent of a complex nucleus is itself complex.

*sho ka íñū*  
 vine metal thorn  
 'barbed wire'

*tánu kwetsī skwela*  
 female small:PL school  
 ‘schoolgirls (Sp. *escuela*)’

*utsi ta ñúhū*  
 powder tortilla fire  
 ‘bread crumbs’

*kóō rki uhshe*  
 snake head seven  
 ‘seven-headed snake’

*ko tí ndika*  
 snake animal banana  
 ‘intestinal roundworm’

*vi é kaika*  
 house CMP CON:walk  
 ‘train’

Proper names often follow a prestressed pronoun or a generic noun (in either a full or reduced form), creating a construction which is similar to a complex noun-noun nucleus, but which is not idiomatic in meaning.

*ñā xwaan*  
 person John  
 ‘John (Sp. *Juan*)’

*ná pēlu*  
 boy Peter  
 ‘Peter (Sp. *Pedro*)’

*tá m̄aria*  
 girl Mary  
 ‘Mary (Sp. *María*)’

*shtá mastru*  
 sir teacher  
 ‘Teacher (Sp. *maestro*)’

*mastru xwaan*  
 teacher John  
 'Teacher John'

*ñuu núndüvé*  
 town Oaxaca  
 'Oaxaca City'

*ñuuú kanadaa*  
 town Canada  
 'Canada (Sp. *Canadá*)'

**3.1.2 Prenominal elements.** There are two elements that precede the nucleus: quantifier and diminutive.

Quantifiers comprise both numerals and general quantifiers, and the specifiers *mü* 'alone' or 'self' and *divi* 'same'.

With numerals:

*uun doo*  
 one cloth  
 'one cloth'

*kimi ñáhā*  
 four person  
 'four people'

*úhun ütun*  
 five wood  
 'five trees'

(See also 7.90, 7.91, 7.94, and 7.95.)

With general quantifiers:

*títin kiti*  
 many animal  
 'many animals'

*ndehvi ita*  
 few tortilla  
 'few tortillas'

With specifiers:

*mī tūn*  
alone she  
'she herself'

*divī tūn*  
same she  
'the same one (girl)'

(See also 7.37, 7.42, and 7.61.)

The reduced form of the numeral *uun* 'one' is often used simply as an indefinite article.

*un doo*  
one cloth  
'a cloth'

*un ñahā*  
one person  
'a person' or 'someone'

(See also 7.5.)

The diminutive *á* (a reduced form of *ihshá* 'child') occurs immediately preceding the noun nucleus. It denotes either smallness, sympathy, or affection and is sometimes used in discourse to mark the underdog (see Small 1979:360).

*a tīnā*  
DIM dog  
'puppy'

*a shúu*  
DIM rock  
'pebble'

*á ihshá*  
DIM child  
'little child'

*á uvā*  
 DIM father  
 'daddy'

*á xwaan*  
 DIM John  
 'Johnnie'

(See also 7.1, 7.29, and various others.)

**3.1.3 Postnominal elements.** Three elements follow the nucleus: deictic, limiter, and relative clause.

There are two stressed deictics, *sáhā* 'this' and *tsikān* 'that'.

*vi sáhá*  
 house this  
 'this house'

*kwia sahá*  
 year this  
 'this year'

*tīná tsikan*  
 dog that  
 'that dog'

*nduvi tsikan*  
 day that  
 'that day' or 'in those days'

When the noun nucleus rather than the deictic is in focus, the poststressed forms *sá* 'this' and *sán* 'that' are used. They function somewhat like definite articles and usually imply previous mention of the noun. *sán* is also used to mark a thematic participant or prop in discourse (see Small 1979:360).

*ihshá sa*  
 child this  
 'this child' or 'the child'

*vihī sán*  
 house that  
 'that house' or 'the house'

(See also 7.2, 7.8, 7.12, 7.29, 7.60, 7.77, 7.101, 7.118, and various others.)

The limiter is *tsi* 'just', which also occurs in verb phrases (see 2.1.3).

*ihshá tsi*  
child LIM  
'just a child'

*ndute tsi*  
water LIM  
'just water'

(See also 7.54.)

Relative clauses<sup>2</sup> are marked as such by their distribution following nouns or prestressed pronouns, by the absence of a noun phrase that is logically supplied by the head, and in some cases by the presence of a relative pronoun. There are three words that function as relative pronouns: the complementizer *é*,<sup>3</sup> the interrogative adverb *mí* 'where?', and the subordinate conjunction *dā* 'when'. *mí* is used only for inanimate locative adjuncts and location peripheral elements, and *dā* is used only for

---

<sup>2</sup>The distinction made by many linguists between restrictive and nonrestrictive (appositive) relative clauses does not appear to be relevant for Coatzospan Mixtec. Most of the examples given below are translated as restrictive relatives. The translation seems to depend far more on the degree to which the head is already specified in the discourse context than on any formal features of the language. When, however, an appositional construction (see 3.7) is used instead of a relative clause, a nonrestrictive meaning is far more likely.

<sup>3</sup>It is necessary to distinguish between the prestressed pronoun and relative pronoun uses of *é*. The prestressed pronoun can serve as a nucleus that refers to an unspecified or abstract entity to which no other prestressed pronoun properly applies. Because it is prestressed, it must be followed by something else in the same noun phrase, and most often it is followed by a relative clause. *é* in this use is never followed by *é* as a relative pronoun.

*é vāhá*  
UN good  
'that which is good' or 'the good one'

*é káhshi o*  
UN POT:eat we:IN  
'what we eat' or 'food'



time peripheral elements; *é* is used in all other cases. It is required following a noun head in all relative clauses except those based on stative verbs but is optional following a pronoun head. It does not, however, occur when *é* 'it (unspecified)' serves as the nucleus. Only relative clauses based on stative verbs modify a proper noun.

Sentences with content verbs may become relative clauses based on any element within them.

With subject as head:

*isha é kākidi*  
child CMP CON:sleep  
'the child that is sleeping'

*tānū e kishi iku*  
female CMP COM:come yesterday  
'the girl that came yesterday'

*tānū kishi iku*  
female COM:come yesterday  
'the girl that came yesterday'

*ñā kadiko tūún*  
person CON:sell charcoal  
'the person that sells charcoal'

---

In its use as a relative pronoun, on the other hand, *é* comes between a nucleus and a following relative clause. The nucleus may be any noun or prestressed pronoun except *é*, and is not limited to those that refer to unspecified or abstract concepts, thus showing that in such contexts *é* has no referential function and is purely a grammatical marker.

*ñā é nanī xwaan*  
person CMP CON:be:named John  
'the person that is named John'

*tānū é vāhá*  
female CMP good  
'the girl who is good'

If these two functions of *é* are not distinguished, then relative clauses with *é* following some other element could mistakenly be considered to be appositional constructions.

*na ndáhví kó dyuhún*  
 boy COM:pay me money  
 'the boy that paid me money'

*e kóhshō*  
 UN COM:fall  
 'that which fell'

(See also 7.1, 7.44, and 7.47.)

With object as head:<sup>4</sup>

*ndute é kāshihī tī*  
 water CMP CON:drink it:AML  
 'the water that it (animal) is drinking'

*kāī é kahnī ná tevāa*  
 animal CMP POT:kill he morning  
 'the animal that he will kill tomorrow'

*kāī kahnī na tevāa*  
 animal POT:kill he morning  
 'the animal that he will kill tomorrow'

*dyuhun e ndáhví tún xwaan*  
 money CMP COM:pay she John  
 'the money that she paid John'

---

<sup>4</sup>Because nouns and third person personal pronouns do not distinguish case (see 5.4), the head of a relative clause which contains more than one third person animate referent frequently is ambiguous as to whether it is subject, object, or adjunct.

*kāī e éhni ŋa*  
 animal CMP COM:kill person  
 'the animal that killed them' or 'the animal that they killed'

*na iní xwaan*  
 boy COM:see John  
 'the boy that saw John' or 'the boy that John saw'

*na ndáhví tún dyuhún*  
 boy COM:pay she/her money  
 'the boy that paid her money' or 'the boy that she paid money to'

*é kakāhán tun nī kó*  
 UN CON:speak she with me  
 'what she said to me'

(See also 7.60.)

*tānu kākan nihi mária*  
 female CON:speak with Mary  
 'the girl that talked with Mary' or 'the girl that Mary talked with'

With adjunct as head:

*na e ndāhvī ú dyuhún*  
 boy CMP COM:pay I money  
 'the boy that I paid money to'

*na ndāhvī ú dyuhún*  
 boy COM:pay I money  
 'the boy that I paid money to'

*ñuu mí ñehe o*  
 town where COM:go we:IN  
 'the town where we went'

With peripheral element as head:

*ñuu mí kadikō xwaan túun*  
 town where CON:sell John charcoal  
 'the town where John sells charcoal'

*nduvi dá shihí xwaan*  
 day when COM:die John  
 'the day on which John died'

When a preposition or locative noun signals an adjunct, it retains its original position and the deleted noun phrase is represented by the unspecified pronoun *i*.

*tānū tásh nūu na tutú ndaha i*  
 female COM:give face he paper hand UN  
 'the girl he sent a letter to'

*tánu kākahan mária ni i*  
 female CON:speak Mary with UN  
 'the girl that Mary talked with'

*isha é ñehe ñá ni i kūchaña*  
 child CMP COM:go person with UN Tehuacán  
 'the child that they went with to Tehuacán'

*na kakahan tún iña i*  
 boy CON:speak she thing UN  
 'the boy that she is talking about' or 'the boy that she is talking  
 on behalf of'

If, however, the preposition or locative noun is incorporated into the verb nucleus (see 1.1.4 and 2.1.1), no pronoun copy occurs.

*tánu kākan nihí u*  
 female CON:speak with I  
 'the girl that I talked with'

*kutsiu e éni nuu na tīnā*  
 knife CMP COM:kill face he dog  
 'the knife (Sp. *cuchillo*) that he killed a dog with'

Some relative clauses based on content verbs have acquired an idiomatic meaning and form complex noun nuclei (see 3.1.1).

Sentences with equative verbs may become relative clauses based on the subject.

*tánū é nani mária*  
 female CMP CON:be:named Mary  
 'the girl that is named Mary'

*tánu nani mária*  
 female CON:be:named Mary  
 'the girl that is named Mary'

*na é kūvi kádā kó*  
 boy CMP POT:become son:in:law me  
 'the boy that is to become my son-in-law'

*ñā ndúvi kiti*  
 person COM:REP:become animal  
 'the person that turned into an animal'

An equative sentence without a verb may also become a relative clause based on the subject.

*ñā é dūtu*  
 person CMP priest  
 'the person that is a priest'

*ñā dutu*  
 person priest  
 'the person that is a priest'

Ordinals are expressed by means of a relative clause using the equative verb *kuvi* 'to become' (frequently reduced in fast speech to *kwi*), which links the subject and the numeral.

*na é kuvi ūni*  
 boy CMP COM:become three  
 'the boy that is third'

*na kwi ūni*  
 boy COM:become three  
 'the boy that is third'

*é kwi ūhshi*  
 UN COM:become ten  
 'the one that is tenth'

Sentences with stative verbs may become relative clauses based on the subject.

*vi é vāhá*  
 house CMP good  
 'the house that is good'

*vi vāhá*  
 house good  
 'the good house'

*tánū é kāhnu*  
 female CMP big:SG  
 'the girl that is big'

*tānu kāhnu*  
 female big:SG  
 'the big girl'

*xwán kahnu*  
 John big:SG  
 'big John'

*e kwīshīn*  
 UN white  
 'the white one'

(See also 7.40, 7.60, and 7.101.)

**3.1.4 Combinations of elements.** Noun phrases may contain up to four nonnuclear elements, with certain cooccurrence restrictions. Quantifier cooccurs with any of the other elements except limiter. (Limiter may, however, occur within a quantifier phrase [see 4.1.3 and 4.1.4].) A relative clause based on a stative verb may cooccur with deictic or limiter, both of which follow the relative clause. Deictic and limiter may cooccur: limiter precedes the poststressed deictic but follows the stressed deictic. Diminutive has no apparent cooccurrence restrictions.

*tīnā kwīshīn sáhā*  
 dog white this  
 'this white dog'

*isha luhndí tsi sá*  
 child small:SG LIM this  
 'just this little child'

*a tīna tsīkan tsi*  
 DIM dog that LIM  
 'just that puppy'

*á vihi tsi sán*  
 DIM house LIM that  
 'just the little house'

*un á isha é kākidi*  
 one DIM child CMP CON:sleep  
 ‘a little child that is sleeping’

*úvī á vi kwetsī sán*  
 two DIM house small:PL that  
 ‘those two little tiny houses’

(See also 7.101.)

Occasionally a short relative clause based on a content verb may cooccur with a following deictic, as in 7.77 and 7.88.

Two relative clauses may occur in a single noun phrase if both are based on a stative verb.

*tīná kwīshín kwetsī*  
 dog white small:PL  
 ‘little white dogs’

If either relative clause is expanded or is based on a content verb, an appositional construction is required (see 3.7).

### 3.2 Measurement Noun Phrases

Measurement noun phrases have a noun expressing a unit of measurement as their nucleus, and they contain an obligatory quantifier. They occur only as quantifiers in other noun phrases. Depending on the semantics of their nucleus, measurement noun phrases may optionally include a relative clause based on a stative verb. In the following examples of measurement noun phrases, the higher noun is enclosed in parentheses.

*úvi ētun (núni)*  
 two box (corn)  
 ‘two four-liter measures (of corn)’

*īñū métru (dōo)*  
 six meter (cloth)  
 ‘six meters (Sp. *metro*) (of cloth)’

*uun naha (ndīshen)*  
 one pair (sandal)  
 ‘one pair (of sandals)’

*uun t̄in kahnu (shuku)*  
 one pinch big:SG (leaf)  
 ‘one handful (of leaves)’

*úhshi vrōsa nahnu (kaka)*  
 ten bag big:PL (lime)  
 ‘ten big bags (Sp. *bolsa*) (of lime)’

### 3.3 Possessive Noun Phrases

Possessive noun phrases have a possessed noun as their nucleus followed by an obligatory possessor. Nuclei of possessive noun phrases are limited to those considered capable of being possessed. They are either inherently possessed nouns, which are largely body parts and kinship terms, or they are optionally possessed nouns. The possessor is a noun phrase. If it is expressed by a pronoun, the object set (see 5.4) is used.

With inherently possessed nouns:

*nda ihshá*  
 hand child  
 ‘the child’s hand’

*d̄its̄in t̄inā*  
 nose dog  
 ‘the dog’s nose’

*d̄it̄ó xwaan*  
 uncle John  
 ‘John’s uncle’

*ení na*  
 brother:ME him  
 ‘his brother’

*iñā kó*  
 thing me  
 ‘my thing’ or ‘mine’

(See also 7.2, 7.13, 7.14, 7.34, 7.40, 7.41, 7.72, 7.83, 7.102, 7.107, and various others.)



With optionally possessed nouns:

*itú*            *xwaan*  
cornfield    John  
'John's cornfield'

*tīná* *ko*  
dog    me  
'my dog'

*ihshá* *ñā*  
child    person  
'their child'

(See also 7.2, 7.3, 7.5, 7.74, 7.96, and various others.)

There is a small class of nouns which cannot be followed directly by a possessor. These require the insertion of the inherently possessed noun *iñā* 'thing' between the nucleus and its possessor, resulting in a type of appositional construction (see 3.7).

*nduvi* *iñā*    *tun*  
day    thing    her  
'her life'

*kwendu* *iñā*    *tsídō*  
story    thing    rabbit  
'story (Sp. *cuento*) about a rabbit' or 'rabbit story'

(See also 7.1 and 7.123.)

The possessed item occurs as the nucleus of its noun phrase. Quantifier, diminutive, and limiter optionally modify it.

*úvi* *enī*            *ná*  
two    brother:ME    him  
'his two brothers' or 'two of his brothers'

*a*    *tína* *tsī*    *kó*  
DIM    dog    LIM    me  
'just my puppy'

An optionally possessed noun may be directly followed by a simple relative clause based on a stative verb.

*ví kahnu ña*  
house big:SG person  
'their big house'

*isha luhndí ko*  
child small:SG me  
'my little child'

In a few common phrases an inherently possessed noun may also be directly followed by a simple relative clause based on a stative verb, as seen in 7.12 and 7.16. If the relative clause is expanded, however, or is based on a content verb, or usually if the noun is inherently possessed, it must follow the possessor and be introduced by a relative pronoun.

*víhi ña e dóo kahnu*  
house person CMP INTS big:SG  
'their house which is very big' or 'their very big house'

*ihshá ko é kaeku*  
child me CMP CON:CRY  
'my child that is crying' or 'my crying child'

*tahan kó e lúhndí*  
sister me CMP small:SG  
'my sister that is little' or 'my little sister'

The possessed item may be modified by the poststressed deictics *sá* 'this' or *sán* 'that' or 'the', which occur following the possessor. If the possessor is a third person, the construction is ambiguous.

*ihshá ko sá*  
child me this  
'this child of mine'

*tīná tun sán*  
dog her that  
'that dog of hers' or 'that girl's dog'

(See also 7.12, 7.16, 7.19, 7.22, 7.35, and 7.74.)

In order for a stressed deictic to modify a possessed item, an appositional construction is required (see 3.7).

The possessor may itself be a possessive noun phrase.

*ishá tahan shi nāná ko*  
 child sister husband aunt me  
 'my aunt's husband's sister's child'

### 3.4 Interrogative Noun Phrases

Interrogative noun phrases are basic or possessive. Interrogative basic noun phrases are formed by combining one of the following interrogatives with a following noun phrase or pronoun: *shó* 'who?' or *neé* or *ne iñá* 'what?', 'which?', or 'what kind of?'. The interrogative is always initial in its noun phrase, and an interrogative noun phrase always occurs in focus position in its sentence (see 1.1.8 and 1.2.2).

*shó ñaha*  
 who person  
 'which person?' or 'who?'

*shó dutu*  
 who priest  
 'which priest?'

*nē choho*  
 what herb  
 'what medicine?'

*né ihshá*  
 what child  
 'what kind of child?' (i.e., boy or girl)

*ne iñá kití*  
 what thing animal  
 'which animal?' or 'what kind of animal?'

To question a quantity, the interrogative *ndé* 'how?' is used in a special construction that involves the verb *kaa* 'to be (singular)'; see 1.2.2 and 2.1.2 for a discussion of similar constructions.

*ndé kaa dyuhún*  
 how CON:be:SG money  
 'how much money?'

*ndé kaa vihi*  
 how CON:be:SG house  
 'how many houses?'

The noun phrase is not normally expanded, but the interrogative may be expanded by postnuclear elements such as verifier, additive, limiter, repetitive, emphatic, and deprecativ, all of which are described in 2.1.3.

*ne iñá ka sh tuku kiti*  
 what thing more LIM REP animal  
 'just what other kind of animal?'

*ndé kaa ndihshe ku kudii vihi*  
 how CON:be:SG truly EMPH merely house  
 'really indeed merely how many houses?'

Certain frozen interrogative noun phrases introduced by *neé* 'what?' are used as interrogative adverbs.

*nē ndúvi*  
 what day  
 'what day?' or 'when?'

*né ura*  
 what hour  
 'what time (Sp. *hora*)?' or 'when?'

*nē tsíñu*  
 what work  
 'for what purpose?' or 'why?'

(See also 7.68.)

The interrogative marker *ndu*, used to form YES/NO questions (see 1.2.1), optionally occurs in interrogative noun phrases following either the interrogative or the complete noun phrase, as seen in the following three pairs of examples. There does not appear to be any significant meaning difference associated with the presence of *ndu*.

*né ndu choho*  
 what INT herb  
 'which medicine?'

*nē choho ndu*  
 what herb INT  
 'which medicine?'

*ne iñá ndu kiti*  
 what thing INT animal  
 'what kind of animal?'

*ne iñá kiti ndu*  
 what thing animal INT  
 'what kind of animal?'

*ndé kaa ndu dyuhun*  
 how CON:be:SG INT money  
 'how much money?'

*ndé kaa dyuhun ndu*  
 how CON:be:SG money INT  
 'how much money?'

(See also 7.44.)

Interrogative possessive noun phrases consist of the interrogative *shó* 'who?' or an interrogative basic noun phrase introduced by *shó* or *né*, plus a possessed noun, plus the unspecified pronoun *i*.

*shó iñá i*  
 who thing UN  
 'whose thing?'

*shó ñaha doo i*  
 who person cloth UN  
 'whose clothes?'

*né kiti duhme i*  
 what animal tail UN  
 'which animal's tail?'

As in interrogative basic noun phrases, *ndu* may optionally be inserted; it occurs following either the interrogative, the interrogative noun phrase, or the possessed item.

*shó ndu ñaha doo i*  
 who INT person cloth UN  
 'whose clothes?'

*shó ñaha ndu doo i*  
 who person INT cloth UN  
 'whose clothes?'

*shó ñaha doo ndu i*  
 who person cloth INT UN  
 'whose clothes?'

### 3.5 Negative Noun Phrases

Negative noun phrases are formed by preposing the negative sentential marker *ñá tē* to a noun phrase or pronoun. A negative noun phrase always occurs in focus position in its sentence. An equative sentence (see 1.1.5) is negated by using a negative noun phrase as the nominal complement. (Since equative verbs and unspecified third person subject pronouns are unexpressed, all negative noun phrases are therefore ambiguous with independent equative sentences.)

*ñá te ishā vahá*  
 NEG if child good  
 'not a good child'

*ñá te ishā vahá (∅)*  
 NEG if child good (UN)  
 '(It is) not a good child.'

*ñá te shūhú*  
 NEG if I  
 'not I'

*ñá te shūhú (∅)*  
 NEG if I (UN)  
 '(It is) not I.'

*ñá te iñá ko*  
 NEG if thing me  
 'not mine'

*ñá te iñá ko (∅)*  
 NEG if thing me (UN)  
 '(It is) not mine.'

(See also 7.7.)

When a negative noun phrase is questioned, the interrogative *ndu* optionally follows either the negative *ñá* or the entire noun phrase.

*ñá ndu te ishā vahá (∅)*  
 NEG INT if child good (UN)  
 '(Is it) not a good child?'

*ñá te ishā vahá ndu (∅)*  
 NEG if child good INT (UN)  
 '(Is it) not a good child?'

Interrogative words and phrases may be negated with *ñá tē* to form a construction that functions like a negative pronoun or adverb. These phrases are likewise limited to sentence-initial position.

*ñá tē shoó*  
 NEG if who  
 'no one' or 'nobody'

*ñá tē neé*  
 NEG if what  
 'nothing'

*ñá tē ne iñá*  
 NEG if what thing  
 'nothing'

*ñá te nē tsíñu*  
 NEG if what work  
 'for no reason'

*ñá te nē nuu i*  
 NEG if what face UN  
 ‘nothing important’

*ñá tē né kwidadu*  
 NEG if what care  
 ‘nothing to worry about (Sp. *cuidado*)’

*ñá te mihí*  
 NEG if where  
 ‘nowhere’

### 3.6 Adverbial Noun Phrases

Adverbial noun phrases are basic or possessive. Adverbial basic noun phrases differ from ordinary basic noun phrases in two ways. First, the nucleus must be a locative or temporal noun; and second, the deictic may be expressed by a broader range of elements, which includes the post-stressed locative and temporal adverbs *a* ‘here’, *kān* ‘there’, *ve* ‘now’, and (rarely) *dā* ‘then’, as well as the poststressed deictics *sá* ‘this’ and *sān* ‘that’. These phrases are used as locative adjuncts and as location or time peripheral elements.

*itsi kahru*  
 trail big:SG  
 ‘main road’

*ndute ñuhu ā*  
 water land here  
 ‘ocean (here)’

*nduvi ā*  
 day here  
 ‘by day’

*e dúkān kán*  
 UN high there  
 ‘sky (there)’ or ‘heaven (there)’

*kwia ndñhi ko kán*  
 year COM:finish US:IN there  
 ‘last year’



*kwia nákihi o k̄ān*  
 year POT:REP:take we:IN there  
 'next year'

*vité ve*  
 week now  
 'a week from now'

*ñuú kō sá*  
 town us:IN this  
 'our town' or 'our country'

*vi utun sán*  
 house wood that  
 'the jail'

(See also 7.1.)

Adverbial possessive noun phrases consist of a possessive noun phrase with an inherently possessed locative noun as nucleus. Many of these are body-part nouns used with extended meanings (see 5.3.2). Adverbial possessive noun phrases frequently terminate in a poststressed locative adverb or deictic and are used as adjuncts and as peripheral elements.

*nú shūú*  
 face rock  
 'on a rock'

*nda dutú*  
 hand priest  
 'to a priest' or 'before a priest'

*átā kó*  
 back me  
 'behind me'

*ata víhi tún a*  
 back house her here  
 'behind her house (here)'

*rki úku kân*  
 head mountain there  
 'on top of the mountain (there)'

*ini etún san*  
 insides box that  
 'in the box' or 'inside of that box'

(See also 7.3, 7.28, 7.44, 7.72, 7.102, 7.109, 7.118, and 7.122.)

### 3.7 Appositional Noun Phrases

Appositional noun phrases consist of two or more coreferential noun phrases in the same structural position joined without a conjunction. They occur in any noun-phrase position.

*tahan kó / maria*  
 sister me Mary  
 'my sister, Mary'

*tīná / kiti shihi íku*  
 dog animal COM:die yesterday  
 'the dog, the one that died yesterday'

(See also 7.1.)

It is common for the second noun phrase of an appositional construction to contain a third person prestressed pronoun (see 5.4) followed by a relative clause, which may optionally be introduced by the complementizer *é* (see 3.1.3).

*xwaan / ña (é) dūtu*  
 John person (CMP) priest  
 'John, the one who is a priest'

*dutu / ña (é) nanī xwaan*  
 priest person (CMP) CON:be:named John  
 'a priest who is named John'

Appositional noun phrases have several specific functions. One of these is to express additional information about a noun nucleus that is already identified, which is the function filled by nonrestrictive relative clause in

English. Such appositional noun phrases often have a proper noun as the nucleus of the first part.

*xwaan / ña (é) kadiko iūun*  
 John person (CMP) CON:sell charcoal  
 'John, who sells charcoal' or 'John, the one who sells charcoal'

In some cases an appositional construction is the only way to include certain information in a noun phrase. For example, an appositional phrase is usually required in order to express two relative clauses with a single noun nucleus (see 3.1.3), or a stressed deictic with a possessed noun (see 3.3).

*dutu / ñá e dóo vahá*  
 priest person CMP INTS good  
 'a priest, who is very good' or 'a very good priest'

*xwaan / ná e dóo dūkún*  
 John boy CMP INTS tall  
 'John, who is very tall'

*vihí na / e dóo dūkún*  
 house him UN INTS tall  
 'his house, which is very tall'

*tahan kó / taru lúhndī*  
 sister me female small:SG  
 'my sister, who is little' or 'my little sister'

*tīná tun / kiti dóo diin*  
 dog her animal INTS fierce  
 'her dog, which is very fierce' or 'her very fierce dog'

*dutu / ñá sáhá*  
 priest person this  
 'this priest'

*maría / tanú sáhá*  
 Mary female this  
 'this Mary'

*tīná ko / kīti tsīkán*  
 dog me animal that  
 'that dog of mine'

Likewise, an appositional phrase is required in order to express a stressed deictic with a relative clause based on a content verb. The nucleus of the first phrase is repeated as nucleus of the second; either phrase may occur first.

*tánū kīshi iku / tanú tsīkán*  
 female COM:come yesterday female that  
 'the girl who came yesterday, that one' or 'that girl who came  
 yesterday'

*tánu tsīkan / tánū kīshi iku*  
 female that female COM:come yesterday  
 'that girl, the one who came yesterday' or 'that girl who came  
 yesterday'

An appositional phrase is also required in order to express two relative clauses with the same noun nucleus if one of the relative clauses is based on a content verb.

*tánū lúhndi / tánú kaeku*  
 female small:SG female CON:cry  
 'the little girl who is crying'

Several successive phrases may be in apposition.

*vihi na / vi kahnu na / vi vāhá /*  
 house him house big:SG him house good  
 'his house, his big house, the good house,

*vi kwīshín / vi shuu*  
 house white house rock  
 'the white house, the stone house' or 'his nice big white  
 stone house'

In order for a noun that cannot be possessed to occur with a possessor, it must be followed appositionally by a possessive noun phrase based on the inherently possessed noun *īñā* 'thing' (see 3.3). The relation between

the two parts of such a construction is close knit, and there is no pause potential between them.

*nduvi iñá tun*  
 day thing her  
 'her life'

*kwendu iña tsídō*  
 story thing rabbit  
 'story about a rabbit' or 'rabbit story'

*predende iña fúnda*  
 leader thing committee  
 'leader (Sp. *presidente*) of a committee (Sp. *junta*)' or 'committee chairman'

(See also 7.1 and 7.123.)

### 3.8 Additive Noun Phrases

Additive noun phrases are simple coordinate, coordinate with attraction, or disjunctive. In the simple coordinate noun phrase, a pause follows all noun phrases in a list, and the additive marker *dì* 'also' optionally precedes each pause.

*námā / tsumē / túūn*  
 soap candle charcoal  
 'soap, candles, and charcoal'

*ndika dì / t̄tsin / t̄kwē dì*  
 banana also avocado guava also  
 'also bananas, avocados, and also guavas'

*tsídó dì / rkuhú dì / shishí dì / t̄māhá dì*  
 rabbit also deer also coati also raccoon also  
 'also rabbits, deer, coatis, and raccoons'

*átā ko / d̄ikē kó / ndaha kó / d̄ihín ko dì*  
 back me head me hand me foot me also  
 'my back, my head, my hands, and also my feet'

It is also possible to link two noun phrases by using an associative adjunct (see 1.1.4).

Coordinate noun phrases exemplifying attraction consist of two juxtaposed noun phrases with no pause between them. The first noun phrase must contain an expanded numeral phrase (see 4.1.3) containing the general quantifier *ndíhi* 'all'. This quantifier fuses with numerals from two to four (see 5.6). The second noun phrase must permit the interpretation that its referents are included in the referents of the first one.

*nduvi ndi xwaan*  
all:two we:EX John  
'both John and I'

*nduvi ná ení na*  
all:two he brother:ME him  
'both he and his brother'

*nduni ndó tun*  
all:three you:PL she  
'the three of you, including her'

Disjunctive noun phrases consist of two or three parts. Each part is preceded by either *o* 'or' (Sp.) or *ndé* 'nor', except that *o* is optional before the first part. The topic marker *ne* 'and' followed by pause optionally follows each part except the last.

*o vi sáhá o vi tsíkán*  
or house this or house that  
'either this house or that house'

*un shoó ne / o uni víte ne / o kirmi víte*  
one moon and or three week and or four week  
'a month, or three or four weeks'

*nde láā ne / ndé kōó ne / ndé kīi*  
nor bird and nor snake and nor animal  
'neither birds, nor snakes, nor animals'

### 3.9 Distributive Noun Phrases

Distributive noun phrases express the notion of ‘each’ or ‘every’. They are of two types: temporal and locative. In temporal phrases the noun nucleus is simply repeated.

*kwia kwíā*  
 year year  
 ‘every year’ or ‘yearly’

In locative phrases, *tán*, the prestressed form of *tahan* ‘companion’, precedes the nucleus, and the entire phrase is repeated.

*tán vi tán vihi*  
 companion house companion house  
 ‘from house to house’

### 3.10 Partitive Noun Phrases

Partitive noun phrases have a structure and distribution similar to that of measurement noun phrases. They have a noun nucleus, which is either *ñaha* ‘person’ or *díkē* ‘head’, preceded by a quantifier, and they are used to refer to one or more members of a determinate group of persons or animals.

*un ñaha (dūtú)*  
 one person (priest)  
 ‘one (of the priests)’

*úhun ñāha (tún)*  
 five person (she)  
 ‘five (of them [girls])’

*úshi ñāha (ña)*  
 ten person (person)  
 ‘ten (of them [people])’

*úshi díkē (ì)*  
 ten head (it:AML)  
 ‘ten (of them [animals])’

### 3.11 Indefinite Noun Phrases

Indefinite noun phrases are of two kinds, both of which may be used alone or in combination with a following noun phrase. The first kind is formed by using an interrogative as nucleus, preceded by the subordinate conjunction *dā* 'when', in the sense of 'even', and frequently followed by *ká* 'more', the limiter *tsi* 'just', and sometimes the quantifier *ndīhī* 'all'.

*da shōó*  
when who  
'anyone'

*da shōó ka*  
when who more  
'whoever'

*da shōó ka (ñaha)*  
when who more (person)  
'whoever'

*da nēé ka tsi*  
when what more LIM  
'whatever'

*da nēé ka ndīhī*  
when what more all  
'whatever'

*da nēé ka (nduvi)*  
when what more (day)  
'whenever' or 'any (day)'

*dā míhī ká*  
when where more  
'wherever' or 'anywhere'

*dā míhī ká tsi (ñuú)*  
when where more LIM (town)  
'wherever' or 'any (town)'

The second kind is formed by using an interrogative as nucleus, followed by *ndīhī* 'all', or by *ndī ndīhē*.



*shó ndihí (ñaha)*  
who all (person)  
'who-all'

*né ndí ndihí (tsiñu)*  
what all all (work)  
'what-all (jobs)'



## 4

# Other Phrases

### 4.1 Quantifier Phrases

**4.1.1 Additive numeral phrases.** In additive numeral phrases, simple numerals from one to ten, fifteen, and twenty are combined to form the numerals eleven to fourteen, sixteen to nineteen, twenty-one to thirty, and thirty-five. In each case the larger numeral precedes the smaller one. The numeral *uun* 'one' has a suppletive allomorph *#n* following ten.

*úshi #n*  
ten one  
'eleven'

*shéun uvī*  
fifteen two  
'seventeen'

*oko úhshī*  
twenty ten  
'thirty'

An additive numeral phrase containing three numerals is used to form the numerals from thirty-one to thirty-four and from thirty-six to thirty-nine.

*oko ush únī*  
twenty ten three  
'thirty-three'

*oko sheun kāmī*  
 twenty fifteen four  
 ‘thirty-nine’

**4.1.2 Attributive numeral phrases.** Multiples of twenty, one hundred, and one thousand are expressed by attributive numeral phrases, which have two parts in a quantifier—nucleus relationship. The larger numeral occurs second. When the numeral for ‘twenty’ occurs as the nucleus of an attributive phrase, a suppletive allomorph, *dikō*, occurs; this must be preceded by a numeral between two and four.

*kāmi dikō*  
 four twenty  
 ‘eighty’

*un syendu*  
 one hundred  
 ‘one hundred (Sp. *ciento*)’

*ūhūn mīl*  
 five thousand  
 ‘five thousand (Sp. *mil*)’

Attributive numeral phrases combined with additive numeral phrases are used to form all the remaining nonsimple numerals.

*úvi dīko shéun un*  
 two twenty fifteen one  
 ‘fifty-six’

*un syendu oko iñu*  
 one hundred twenty six  
 ‘one hundred twenty-six’

*un mīl ūshe syendu uni dīko una*  
 one thousand seven hundred three twenty eight  
 ‘one thousand seven hundred sixty-eight’

*ñn syendu kāmi dīko ushi ñn mīl*  
 nine hundred four twenty ten one thousand  
 ‘nine hundred ninety-one thousand’

**4.1.3 Expanded numeral phrases.** A simple numeral or an additive or attributive numeral phrase may serve as the nucleus of expanded numeral phrases. These phrases also include one optional prenuclear element and six optional postnuclear elements.

The prenuclear element quantifies the numeral nucleus and is expressed by *dá* 'only', *tē* 'if' (here used in the sense of 'approximately'), or *ndē* (reduced form of *ndīhi* 'all').

*dá*     *ūvi*    (*kīti*)  
only    two    (animal)  
'only two (animals)'

*te*    *ōko*     (*vīhi*)  
if    twenty    (house)  
'about twenty (houses)'

*ndi*    *ūhun*    (*ñáha*)  
all    five     (person)  
'all five (persons)'

*ndē* fuses with numerals two through four (see 5.6).

The six postnuclear elements are: fraction, additive, limiter, repetitive, emphatic, and deprecative. All of these except fraction also occur in content verb phrases (see 2.1.3).

Fraction occurs in first postnuclear position and is expressed only by *nde dáva* 'and a half'; *ndé* is a reduced form of the verb *ndeé* 'to be against (singular)'.

*úni*    *ndē*                            *dáva*    (*itá*)  
three    CON:be:against:SG    half    (tortilla)  
'three and a half (tortillas)'

Additive occurs in second postnuclear position and is expressed by *ká* 'more' or 'still' and *sá* 'only a bit more'.

*kímī*    *ká*     (*ndika*)  
four    more    (banana)  
'four more (bananas)'

*úvī*    *sá*     (*tsiñu*)  
two    only    (work)  
'only two more (jobs)'

(See also 7.94 and 7.95.)

Limiters occur in third postnuclear position and is expressed by *tsi* 'just'.

*úni tsi (vīhi)*  
 three LIM (house)  
 'just three (houses)'

(See also 7.90.)

Repetitive occurs in fourth postnuclear position and is expressed by *tuku* 'other'; it requires the presence of the additive in order to occur in a quantifier phrase.

*uun ká tuku (ihshá)*  
 one more REP (child)  
 'another (child)'

Emphatic occurs in fifth postnuclear position and is expressed by *ku* 'indeed' or 'definitely'.

*īnu ku (īdu)*  
 six EMPH (horse)  
 'definitely six (horses)'

Deprecative occurs in sixth postnuclear position and is expressed by *kūdii* 'merely'.

*uun kudii (ndika)*  
 one merely (banana)  
 'merely one (banana)'

The deprecative can be fronted to focus position before the quantifier.

*kūdii kámi (íta)*  
 merely four (tortilla)  
 'merely four (tortillas)'

All of the prenuclear and postnuclear elements may occur.

*ndi īnú ka sh ku (kítí)*  
 all six more LIM EMPH (animal)  
 'definitely just all six more (animals)'

*te ũvi nde dáva ká tuku kudii (vihi)*  
 if two CON:be:against:SG half more REP merely (house)  
 ‘merely about another two-and-a-half more (houses)’

If the noun nucleus that the expanded numeral phrase modifies is a temporal or measurement noun (see 3.2), it directly follows the numeral nucleus and may be followed by any of the above-mentioned postnuclear elements, thus creating a discontinuous structure.

*uni (kwía) ndē dáva*  
 three (year) CON:be:against:SG half  
 ‘three-and-a-half (years)’

*úni (ndūvi) ká*  
 three (day) more  
 ‘three more (days)’

*un (shoó) sa*  
 one (moon) only  
 ‘only one more (month)’

*kámī (métrū) ká*  
 four (meter) more  
 ‘four more (meters [Sp. *metro*])’

*ñn (kílu) tsī*  
 nine (kilogram) LIM  
 ‘just nine (kilograms [Sp. *kilo*])’

*un (shoó) ka túku*  
 one (moon) more REP  
 ‘another (month)’

*úshi (nāhá) ku*  
 ten (pair) EMPH  
 ‘definitely ten (pairs)’

*úvi (ūra) kádii*  
 two (hour) merely  
 ‘merely two (hours [Sp. *hora*])’

Note, however, that when an expanded numeral phrase occurs as the quantifier of a measurement noun phrase, postnuclear elements may follow the measurement noun, but not the higher noun.

*ūhūn (lítu) ndē dáva (nduse)*  
 five (liter) CON:be:against:SG half (water)  
 'five-and-a-half (liters [Sp. *litro*] of water)'

*dava (etun) tsí (nuni)*  
 half (box) LIM (corn)  
 'just half (a four-liter measure of corn)'

When an expanded numeral phrase is questioned, the interrogative marker *ndu* occurs following the postnuclear elements. However, it optionally precedes or follows the deprecativ *kūdii* without apparent change of meaning, as seen by comparing the last two examples.

*ūvi (shoó) ka ndu*  
 two (moon) more INT  
 'two more (months)?'

*ūvi ka tuku ndu (ihshá)*  
 two more REP INT (child)  
 'two other (children)?'

*ūun kudii ndu (íta)*  
 one merely INT (tortilla)  
 'merely one (tortilla)?'

*ūun ndu kudii (íta)*  
 one INT merely (tortilla)  
 'merely one (tortilla)?'

**4.1.4 General quantifier phrases.** Approximate quantities may be expressed by general quantifier phrases. These phrases consist of a nucleus, which is a nonnumerical quantifier, followed by any of the postnuclear elements which occur in expanded numeral phrases except for the fraction. No prenuclear elements occur.

*ndehvi tsí (íta)*  
 few LIM (tortilla)  
 'just a few (tortillas)'



*tšʔn ka tuku kudü (tsídō)*  
 several more REP merely (rabbit)  
 'merely several other (rabbits)'

In 7.37 the specifier *dʔvī* serves as the nucleus of a general quantifier phrase.

**4.1.5 Distributive numeral phrases.** A repeated numeral or general quantifier, which is usually grammatically simple, constitutes a distributive numeral phrase. These phrases express the meaning 'numeral by numeral'.

*uni úni (ʔshá)*  
 three three (child)  
 'three-by-three (children)'

*uvi úvi (kātí)*  
 two two (animal)  
 'two-by-two (animals)'

*uvívi (kātí)*  
 two:two (animal)  
 'two-by-two (animals)'

*dava dava (θ)*  
 half half (UN)  
 'by halves' or 'in equal parts'

The numeral *uun* 'one', when repeated, must be preceded by a reduced form of the verb *kuvi* 'to become' or *shéé* 'to arrive', or by the complementizer *é*.

*kwi un kwi un (it)*  
 CON:become one CON:become one (it:AML)  
 'one (animal) at a time'

*shé un shé un (ñā)*  
 CON:arrive one CON:arrive one (person)  
 'each (person)'

*é un é un (ñā)*  
 CMP one CMP one (person)  
 'each (person)'

**4.1.6 Alternative numeral phrases.** Two or three numerals in ascending order combine to form alternative numeral phrases. The numerals are usually grammatically simple and indicate an approximate rather than specific number. They frequently are preceded by the conjunction *tē* 'if' or 'when', which in this context means 'approximately', and sometimes they are separated by *ō* 'or' (Sp. *o*).

*uvi úni (ndīka)*  
 two three (banana)  
 'two or three (bananas)'

*te ūvi uni kīmi (kwīā)*  
 if two three four (year)  
 'about two to four (years)'

*úni o kīmi (ihshá)*  
 three or four (child)  
 'three or four (children)'

**4.1.7 Negative quantifier phrases.** Negative quantifier phrases contain a numeral or general quantifier as nucleus, frequently preceded by pre-nuclear *dá* 'only' or 'just'. They are introduced by *ñá tē* 'definitely not' (see 1.5) and are used to express exaggeration. These phrases occur only in sentence-initial position.

*ñá te da ūhshi (vīhi)*  
 NEG if only ten (house)  
 'more than ten (houses)' (lit. 'definitely not just ten [houses]')

*ñá te da dū (ñaha)*  
 NEG if only bit (person)  
 'a whole lot of (people)' (lit. 'definitely not just a few [people]')

This construction also occurs with the idiomatic expression *un siin* 'a bit' as nucleus.

*ñá te da un sīn (davi)*  
 NEG if only one bit (rain)  
 'a whole lot (of rain)' (lit. 'not just a bit [of rain]')

The quantifier nucleus is sometimes an interrogative expression (see 3.4).

*ñá tē ndé kaa (kīi)*  
 NEG if how CON:be (animal)  
 'a lot of (animals)' (lit. 'not how many [animals]')

*ñá dā né ndīhi (tsīñu)*  
 NEG only what all (work)  
 'all sorts of (jobs)' (lit. 'not just what-all [work]')

(See also 7.84.)

For added emphasis, sometimes a quantifier nucleus is repeated.

*ñá tē ndé ka ndé kaa (ñaha)*  
 NEG if how CON:be how CON:be (person)  
 'A WHOLE LOT (of people)'

*ñá te da dī da dī (tsídō)*  
 NEG if only bit only bit (rabbit)  
 'A WHOLE LOT (of rabbits)'

*ñá te ūn sīn un sīn (davi)*  
 NEG if one bit one bit (rain)  
 'A WHOLE LOT (of rain)'

## 4.2 Adverb Phrases

**4.2.1 Basic adverb phrases.** Basic adverb phrases consist of a nucleus, which may be a locative, temporal, or general adverb, with optional prenuclear and postnuclear modifying elements that vary considerably depending upon the particular adverb they modify. The prenuclear element is commonly expressed by the intensifier *dōó* 'very'. The postnuclear elements comprise all of those found in verb phrases (see 2.1.3) except personal involvement. In addition, phrases with a locative adverb nucleus often terminate in a poststressed locative adverb or poststressed deictic, while phrases with a temporal adverb nucleus often terminate in

a poststressed temporal or locative adverb or deictic (see 3.1.3 and 5.5). This construction is similar to the adverbial noun phrase (see 3.6).

With locative adverbs:

*dōó ikā*  
INTS far  
'very far'

*iha tsi*  
here LIM  
'right here'

*nínu tsi ā*  
above LIM here  
'just up above here'

*nínū kwehen tsi kân*  
above completely LIM there  
'just way up above there'

*ikan tsi kūdii*  
there LIM merely  
'merely just there'

*kūhí tsi kudii kân*  
outside LIM merely there  
'merely just outside there'

*daha kân*  
over there  
'over there'

*daha sán*  
over that  
'over there'

(See also 7.12, 7.13, 7.19, 7.34, 7.99, 7.102, 7.122, and various others.)

## With temporal adverbs:

*dōo kwáa*  
 INTS late  
 'very late (in the evening)'

*iku tsi*  
 yesterday LIM  
 'just yesterday'

*tévāá duhva*  
 early thus  
 'quite early (in the morning)'

*vevíi duhva tsi a*  
 today thus LIM here  
 'right away'

*kwaá ve*  
 late now  
 'this afternoon' or 'this evening'

*utén san*  
 tomorrow that  
 'the next day'

(See also 7.51, 7.86, 7.116, and various others.)

## With general adverbs:

*dōó kwū*  
 INTS slowly  
 'very slowly'

*dotō tsi*  
 haphazardly LIM  
 'just any old way'

*kwū kwehen tsi*  
 slowly completely LIM  
 'just extremely slowly'

*dukwan kūdīi*  
 thus merely  
 'merely thus'

In one idiomatic expression the adverb nucleus is followed by both a poststressed locative and a poststressed temporal adverb.

*vīhi a ve*  
 while here now  
 'right now' or 'in a little while'

(See also 7.48, 7.52, and various others.)

**4.2.2 Appositional adverb phrases.** Any two of the following structures may be juxtaposed to form appositional adverb phrases: adverbs (full forms), adverb phrases, adverbial noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and subordinate clauses. This construction is fairly rare. Note, however, that the use of a poststressed locative or temporal adverb in the general adverb phrase is very frequent, and is appositional in meaning.

*utén / lune*  
 tomorrow Monday  
 'tomorrow, Monday (Sp. *Lunes*)'

*īha / űushiví*  
 here world  
 'here on earth'

*īkan / kūchaña*  
 there Tehuacán  
 'there in Tehuacán'

*īkan / īnī ukun kân*  
 there insides church there  
 'there in the church'

*ītsi kân / ikân mí shīhi tí*  
 trail there there where COM:die it:AML  
 'on the road, there where it died'

See also 7.1 which contains an appositional adverb phrase embedded in an appositional noun phrase.

Two adverb phrases sometimes occur appositionally in a kind of discontinuous structure that is used as a highlighting device in narrative discourse (see Small 1979:364). The first phrase occurs in focus position and is expressed by *ikan tsī* 'just there', used in the sense of 'right then and there'; the second phrase occurs in the usual position for locative adjuncts or location peripheral elements.

*ikan tsī (shihī t̄) nú itsi k̄ān*  
 there LIM (COM:die it:AML) face trail there  
 '(It died) right there on the trail.'

(See also 7.102, 7.109, and 7.122.)

**4.2.3 Alternative adverb phrases.** Alternative adverb phrases are quite rare; they are formed by juxtaposing two related adverbs and indicate approximate time. (See 4.1.6 for a description of a similar construction based on numerals.)

*utén idá*  
 tomorrow day:after:tomorrow  
 'tomorrow or the day after' or 'in the near future'

**4.2.4 Distributive adverb phrases.** In distributive adverb phrases the adverb is repeated to indicate 'every'; the limiter *tsi* optionally follows the second one. (For a description of similar constructions based on nouns and numerals, see 3.9 and 4.1.5.)

*tévā tevāa*  
 early early  
 'every morning'

*utén ūtén*  
 tomorrow tomorrow  
 'every day' or 'daily'

*shio shio tsi*  
 away away LIM  
 'just in every direction'

**4.2.5 Negative adverb phrases.** Negative adverb phrases are similar to negative quantifier phrases (see 4.1.7), except that they usually have an adverb or basic adverb phrase as nucleus. They express exaggeration by

means of irony and occur only in preverbal manner position in a sentence (see 2.1.2).

*ñá te dā vévii (kaeku ∅)*  
 NEG if only today (CON:cry UN)  
 '(It has been crying) a long time!' (lit. 'Not just today [is it crying].')

*ñá te da ētsin tsi (tuví ∅)*  
 NEG if only near LIM (CON:sit:SG UN)  
 '(It is) a long ways away!' (lit. '[It is] not simply nearby.')

Occasionally, these phrases have as their nucleus a noun phrase used adverbially.

*ñá te da un sūn tsi (kaeku ∅)*  
 NEG if only one bit LIM (CON:cry UN)  
 '(It is crying) a whole lot!' (lit. 'Not just a little bit [is it crying].')

*ñá tē do dīkī (uhvi ∅)*  
 NEG if word CON:play (CON:hurt UN)  
 '(It) really (hurts)!' (lit. 'Not in jest [does it hurt].')

In order for prenuclear *dā* 'only' to occur with *do dīkī*, the main verb must intervene, thus creating a discontinuous structure; *do dīkī* may optionally follow the subject of such a sentence.

*ñá te da (ūhvi) do dīkī (kúñū kó)*  
 NEG if only (CON:hurt) word CON:play (body me)  
 '(My body) really (hurts)!' (lit. 'Not simply in jest [does my body hurt].')

*ñá te da (ūhvi kúñū kó) do dīkī*  
 NEG if only (CON:hurt body me) word CON:play  
 '(My body) really (hurts)!' (lit. 'Not simply [does my body hurt] in jest.')

For added emphasis, sometimes the nucleus is repeated.

*ñá te dā vévi vévii (tuví ∅)*  
 NEG if only today today (CON:sit:SG UN)  
 '(It has been [here]) A LONG TIME!'



*ñá tē do diki do diki (uhvi ∅)*  
 NEG if word CON:play word CON:play (CON:hurt UN)  
 '(It) REALLY (hurts)!'

### 4.3 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition followed by its object, which may be a noun phrase, an adverb phrase, or another prepositional phrase. Rarely, the preposition is preceded by a quantifier. They are distinguished from adverbial possessive noun phrases which employ inherently possessed nouns, usually referring to body parts, which often have a relational function (see 3.6). The prepositions are *nihī* 'with'; *ndeé* 'against', 'as far as', 'from', 'since', or 'even'; *náā* 'in place of'; *méhñū* 'in the middle of'; *máā* 'under'; *ninú* 'above'; *shuvi* 'below'; and *kwenda iñá* 'for', 'on behalf of', 'about', or 'in place of' (Sp. *cuenta*).

*nī enī ná*  
 with brother:ME him  
 'with his brother'

*nde kucháñā*  
 against Tehuacán  
 'as far as Tehuacán'

*nde kidáā*  
 against then  
 'since then'

*náā kó*  
 in:place:of me  
 'in place of me'

*méhñu ī*  
 in:middle:of UN  
 'in the middle of it'

*méñu ndute kān*  
 in:middle:of water there  
 'in the middle of the water there'

*má ētun*  
under box  
'under a box'

*má vihī*  
under house  
'in the house' or 'indoors'

*ninú vihī tún*  
above house her  
'above her house'

*shuvi ukún kán*  
below church there  
'below the church there'

*kwenda iñá ko*  
account thing me  
'for me' or 'on my behalf'

(See also 7.5, 7.16, 7.22, 7.26, 7.41, 7.103, and 7.123.)

The conjunctions *dā* 'when' and *dá ndē* 'until' also function as prepositions meaning 'until'.

*da kidáā*  
when then  
'until then'

*da nde kidáā*  
when against then  
'until then'

*da nde kwía vē*  
when against year now  
'until a year from now'

(See also 7.106.)

Both *dá ndē* and *ndé* may be preceded by the quantifier phrase *un tsi* 'just one', which here functions as an intensifier.

*un tsi da nde kwia ve*  
 one LIM when against year now  
 'as long as a year from now'

*un tsi nde maa í k̄ān*  
 one LIM against under UN there  
 'all the way down there'

(See also 7.12, 7.16, 7.19, and 7.22.)



# 5

## Parts of Speech

### 5.1 Content and Equative Verbs

**5.1.1 Derivation.** Content verbs are derived from other content verbs, from stative verbs, or from nouns by means of derivational prefixes, sometimes accompanied by tone changes.

The causative prefix *nā-* combines with content verbs in potential aspect, adding an agent. The low accent inherent in the prefix is usually realized on the following syllable.

*na-kāhshí*

CAUS-POT:eat

‘to feed’ (cf. *kahshí* ‘to eat’)

*na-kōhshó*

CAUS-POT:fall

‘to drop’ (cf. *kōhshō* ‘to fall’)

*na-kwēku*

CAUS-POT:cry

‘to play (an instrument)’ (cf. *kweku* ‘to cry’)

*na-tsíhó*

CAUS-POT:be:cooked

‘to cook’ (cf. *tsihō* ‘to be cooked’)

*na-ndōho*

CAUS-POT:suffer

‘to persecute’ (cf. *ndoho* ‘to suffer’)

*na-ndōto*

CAUS-POT:wake:up

'to wake (someone) up' (cf. *ndoto* 'to wake up')

(See also 7.12, 7.13, 7.60, 7.91, and 7.95.)

The prefix *nā-* also combines with stative verbs to create derived content verbs.

*na-ndihi*

CAUS-fine

'to grind up' (cf. *ndihi* 'fine')*na-nēé*

CAUS-dark

'to turn off (a light)' (cf. *neé* 'dark')

The repetitive prefix *na-* combines with content verbs in potential aspect to add the meaning of repeated or resumed action. Many verbs with it have acquired idiomatic meanings.

*na-shee*

REP-POT:arrive

'to arrive back'

*na-nihi*

REP-POT:get

'to find (something lost)'

*na-káku*

REP-POT:sew

'to mend' (cf. *kíkū* 'to sew')*na-kate*

REP-POT:dig

'to wash (clothes)'

*na-kahan*

REP-POT:speak

'to remember'

(See also 7.3, 7.12, 7.27, 7.28, 7.43, 7.52, 7.54, and 7.69.)

This prefix also combines with stative verbs to create derived content verbs.

*na-îtsí*

REP-dry

'to get dry again' (cf. *îtsí* 'dry')

*na-ihní*

REP-hot

'to get hot again (weather)'

When *na-* is combined with some verbs with initial *k*, the derived form begins with *nd*, rather than the expected *nak*.

*ndíhvī*

REP:POT:enter

'to re-enter' (cf. *kíhvī* 'to enter')

*nduvi*

REP:POT:become

'to turn into' (cf. *kuvi* 'to become')

*ndava*

REP:POT:lie:down

'to fall over' (cf. *kava* 'to lie down')

*ndaa*

REP:POT:go:up

'to go uphill' (cf. *kaa* 'to go up [e.g., a ladder]')

*ndaa*

REP:CON:be

'to be (PL)' (cf. *kaa* 'to be [SG]')

*ndoto*

REP:POT:look

'to wake up' (cf. *koto* 'to look')

Both the causative *nā-* and the repetitive *na-* may occur in the same verb; either one may precede.

*na-nā-kahshí*

CAUS-POT:REP-POT:eat

‘to cause to resume eating’

*na-na-kāhshí*

REP-POT:CAUS-POT:eat

‘to feed again’

Some verbs with initial *nā*, *na*, or *n* appear to be frozen forms with derivational prefixes for which the corresponding simple form has been lost.

*nanduté*

POT:untie

‘to untie’

*nadūví*

POT:whistle

‘to whistle’

*nadíkí*

POT:play

‘to play’ (cf. *ē dīkī* ‘plaything, toy’)

*nakwāha*

POT:?

‘to read, to study, to teach’

*naīhva*

POT:yawn

‘to yawn’

*nēhshín*

POT:sweep

‘to sweep’

*nēkín*

POT:comb

‘to comb’

Intransitive verbs are derived from stative verbs by adding the inceptive prefix *ku-*, a reduced form of *kuví* ‘to become’, or its repetitive form *ndu-*,



a reduced form of *nduvi* 'to become', which indicates a return to an original state.

*ku-neé*

POT:become-dark

'to get dark'

*ku-ihní*

POT:become-hot

'to get hot'

*ku-iā*

POT:become-sour

'to get sour'

*ku-diin*

POT:become-angry

'to get angry'

*ndu-váha*

POT:REP:become-good

'to get well' (cf. *váhā* 'good')

*ndu-ndíí*

POT:REP:become-smooth

'to get ironed' or 'to get tidied up'

In rare instances the prefix *ku-* is added to a noun to form an intransitive verb.

*ku-choho*

POT:become-herb

'to be treated with medicine' (cf. *chóhō* 'herb')

*ku-viko*

POT:become-fiesta

'to be blessed'

A significant number of transitive verbs with initial *k* in the potential aspect have corresponding intransitive forms with *t* or *nd*. This seems to be a remnant of a formerly productive derivational process.

Transitive		Intransitive	
<i>kádīn</i>	'to squash'	<i>tádīn</i>	'to be squashed'
<i>káhnū</i>	'to break'	<i>táhnū</i>	'to be broken'
<i>kahndé</i>	or		
<i>kehndé</i>	'to cut'	<i>téhnđē</i>	'to be cut'
<i>katsin</i>	'to cut up, to tear up'	<i>ndātsin</i>	'to be cut up, to be torn up'

In a few cases, a form with initial *nd* that appears to be the intransitive counterpart of a transitive verb requires the inceptive prefix *ku-*. The *nd*-initial form occurs alone only as a stative verb.

Transitive	Intransitive	Stative
<i>kákū</i> 'to sew'	<i>ku-ndíkú</i> 'to be sewn'	<i>ndíku</i> 'sewn'
<i>kahvī</i> 'to count'	<i>ku-ndēhvī</i> 'to be counted'	<i>ndehvi</i> 'few'

Position verbs differ from other content verbs in that they occur only in unmarked continuative aspect and characteristically have separate forms for singular and plural subjects.

	SG	PL
be in	<i>nuu</i>	<i>ñuhu</i>
be upon	<i>ndekú</i>	<i>odo</i>
be against	<i>ndeé</i>	<i>uve</i>
be underneath	<i>nihni</i>	<i>shihí</i>
be sitting	<i>tuví</i>	<i>ndoo</i>
be standing	<i>ndítsí</i>	<i>ndāñí</i>
be hanging	<i>rkaa</i>	<i>atā</i>

These verbs combine with special derivational prefixes to express the act of assuming a position or of placing something in a position.

Intransitive verbs that express the act of assuming a position are derived from position verbs by means of the motion prefix *i-*,<sup>1</sup> which is realized as a high accent on verbs with initial vowel, *ñ*, or *sh*; these verbs likewise have separate forms for singular and plural subjects.

	SG	PL
get in	<i>i-núū</i>	<i>ñúhū</i>
get upon	<i>i-ndékū</i>	<i>ódō</i>
get against	<i>i-ndēē</i>	<i>úvē</i>
get underneath	<i>i-níhnī</i>	<i>shíhī</i>
sit down	<i>i-túvī</i>	<i>i-ndóō</i>
stand up	<i>i-ndútsī</i>	<i>i-ndáññē</i>
hang	<i>i-rkáā</i>	<i>átā</i>

Transitive verbs of placement are derived from position verbs by means of the collocative prefix *ts-*, which is realized as *sh-* before a consonant. There are separate singular and plural forms, as in the verbs described above, but in these verbs it is the number of the object that is relevant, rather than the number of the subject.

	SG	PL
put in	<i>sh-nūu</i>	<i>ts-uhun</i>
put upon	<i>sh-ndékú</i>	<i>ts-odō</i>
put against	<i>sh-ndēé</i>	<i>ts-uvē</i>
put underneath	<i>sh-níhnī</i>	<i>ts-ihī</i>
set down	<i>sh-túvī</i>	<i>ts-oo</i>
stand up	<i>sh-ndútsí</i>	<i>sh-ndáññē</i>

In one pair of verbs, the collocative prefix occurs only on the singular form.

---

<sup>1</sup>The motion prefix is probably historically related to the motion auxiliaries described in 2.1.2, but shows a greater degree of fusion and semantic weakening.

	SG	PL
hang up	<i>sh-kaa</i>	<i>kata</i>

**5.1.2 Inflection.** Most content verbs are inflected for three aspects: continuative, completive, and potential. The unmarked continuative aspect is the basic form of the verb; in regular verbs, the remaining aspect forms can be predicted from it.<sup>2</sup> The form of the continuative aspect that occurs in most constructions, however, consists of this basic form preceded by the prefix *ka-* (or its optional plural form *ndá-*). Completive aspect is usually marked by a tone change, and potential aspect is sometimes marked by a prefix. For descriptive convenience, verbs that take these three aspects may be divided into six classes. The first two classes comprise regular verbs, while the remaining four classes are irregular in various ways, and contain only a few members each.

Verbs of Class I begin with a vowel, usually *e* or *i*. The completive aspect is marked by a low accent on the first syllable, and the potential aspect is marked by a *kw-* or *kV-* prefix, which fuses with the stem-initial vowel in various predictable ways.<sup>3</sup>

	CON	COM	POT
cry	<i>ka-eku</i>	<i>ēku</i>	<i>kweku</i>
burn	<i>ka-ehmi</i>	<i>ēhmi</i>	<i>kahmi</i>
hit	<i>ka-ehní</i>	<i>ēhní</i>	<i>kahní</i>
cut	<i>ka-ehndé</i>	<i>ēhndé</i>	<i>kahndé</i>
spill	<i>ka-etí</i>	<i>ētí</i>	<i>katí</i>
walk	<i>ka-ika</i>	<i>īka</i>	<i>kaka</i>
run	<i>ka-inu</i>	<i>īnu</i>	<i>kunu</i>
bathe	<i>ka-itsi</i>	<i>īsi</i>	<i>kutsi</i>
carry	<i>ka-ido</i>	<i>īdo</i>	<i>kwido</i>

<sup>2</sup>This form is, however, somewhat rare. It occurs following the nonmotion auxiliary *ini* (see 2.1.2), and certain verbs take it in other constructions (see 1.1.6, 1.1.9, 5.1.1, and 6.3).

<sup>3</sup>There is evidence of vowel harmony in the formation of the potential prefix. Verbs with initial *e* add *kw-* if the second vowel of the couplet is *u*, but replace *e* with *ka-* if the second vowel is *i*, *e*, or *í*. Verbs with initial *i* add *kw-* if the second vowel is *e* or *o*, but replace *i* with *ku-* if the second vowel is *i* or *u*, and with *ka-* if the second vowel is *a*.

Verbs of Class II begin with a consonant. They fall into two groups, depending on the tone of the penultimate syllable of the stem. If this syllable has no accent, the verb adds a low accent on the first syllable of the completive aspect form. If, however, the penultimate syllable of the stem has a low accent in the basic form, completive aspect is marked by adding a high accent at the beginning of the word. In a three-syllable stem, the high accent falls on the first syllable, and the low accent on the second syllable remains unchanged. If, however, the stem contains only two syllables, the high accent is added to the first syllable, which already has a low accent, giving a high-low pattern. In Class II verbs, the potential aspect form has no prefix, and it is thus homophonous with the unmarked continuative aspect form.

With no accent on the penultimate syllable:

	CON	COM	POT
grind	<i>ka-ndiko</i>	<i>ndiko</i>	<i>ndiko</i>
tie	<i>ka-kihni</i>	<i>kihni</i>	<i>kihni</i>
get dark	<i>ka-kuneé</i>	<i>kuneé</i>	<i>kuneé</i>
wash	<i>ka-nakate</i>	<i>nakate</i>	<i>nakate</i>

With a low accent on the penultimate syllable:

	CON	COM	POT
fight	<i>ka-nāá</i>	<i>nāá</i>	<i>nāá</i>
shave	<i>ka-dēté</i>	<i>dēté</i>	<i>dēté</i>
sweep	<i>ka-nēhshín</i>	<i>nēhshín</i>	<i>nēhshín</i>
drop	<i>ka-nakōhshó</i>	<i>nakōhshó</i>	<i>nakōhshó</i>

Verbs of Class III, like those of Class I, begin with a vowel and take the prefix in the potential. They differ, however, in that completive aspect is marked by a high accent on the first syllable and a low accent on the second syllable. This tone pattern is also found in potential aspect.

	CON	COM	POT
explode	<i>ka-ite</i>	<i>ítē</i>	<i>kwítē</i>
bury	<i>ka-ihshi</i>	<i>ihshī</i>	<i>kúhshī</i>

Verbs of Class IV are like those of Class II in that they begin with a consonant and take no prefix in the potential. They are like verbs of Class III, however, in that the completive and potential aspects are marked by a high accent on the first syllable and a low accent on the second syllable. In this verb class the completive and potential aspect forms are homophonous.

	CON	COM	POT
speak	<i>ka-kahán</i>	<i>káhān</i>	<i>káhān</i>
fall	<i>ka-kohshó</i>	<i>kóhshō</i>	<i>kóhshō</i>
sew	<i>ka-kíku</i>	<i>kíkū</i>	<i>kíkū</i>
cover	<i>ka-dáhvi</i>	<i>dáhvī</i>	<i>dáhvī</i>

Verbs of Class V begin with a consonant. Like verbs of Classes II and IV, they do not take the potential prefix, but they differ from these classes in that the basic tone pattern is retained in all three aspects. As in Class IV, the completive and potential aspect forms are homophonous.

	CON	COM	POT
push	<i>ka-tíhvī</i>	<i>tíhvī</i>	<i>tíhvī</i>
put upon (PL)	<i>ka-tsodō</i>	<i>tsodō</i>	<i>tsodō</i>
put upon (SG)	<i>ka-shndēkú</i>	<i>shndēkú</i>	<i>shndēkú</i>

Verbs of Class VI all have potential aspect forms that show segmental differences from the other two aspects.<sup>4</sup> The tone change that marks completive aspect may be like Class I, Class III, or neither.

With completive like Class I:

	CON	COM	POT
burn	<i>ka-ihshi</i>	<i>īhshi</i>	<i>koko</i>
drink	<i>ka-shihi</i>	<i>shīhi</i>	<i>koho</i>
buy	<i>ka-ñii</i>	<i>ñīi</i>	<i>kwiiin</i>

---

<sup>4</sup>Verbs with stem-initial palatals *sh* or *ñ* are like verbs with initial vowels in that they take the *kw-* or *kV-* potential prefix; in such verbs the palatal consonant is deleted in potential aspect forms.

## With completive like Class III:

	CON	COM	POT
give, hit	<i>ka-shéhe</i>	<i>shéhē</i>	<i>kwéhē</i>
die	<i>ka-shihi</i>	<i>shihī</i>	<i>kuví</i>
exist <sup>5</sup>	<i>ka-shio, ió</i>	<i>shíō</i>	<i>koó</i>

## With completive like neither:

	CON	COM	POT
do <sup>6</sup>	<i>ka-de</i>	<i>dé</i>	<i>kada, vií</i>

Motion verbs have, in addition to the three regular aspects, an incomplete aspect, which indicates an action that has been initiated and is still in effect. This aspect is marked by the prefix *kú-*, indicating motion in a given direction without return to the point of departure. The irregular forms *véhshī* in the verb 'to come' and *kwéhēn*, a fusion of *kú-* plus *ñéhē*, in the verb 'to go' likewise express this aspect.<sup>7</sup> The other three aspects of these verbs, which are all consonant-initial, are like Classes II, IV, or VI. These motion verbs are:

	CON	INC	COM	POT
come	<i>ka-kihshi</i>	<i>véhshī</i>	<i>kihshi</i>	<i>kihshi</i>
come back	<i>ka-ndihshi</i>	<i>kú-ndihshi</i>	<i>ndihshi</i>	<i>ndihshi</i>
go uphill	<i>ka-ndaa</i>	<i>kú-ndāa</i>	<i>ndāa</i>	<i>ndaa</i>
go downhill	<i>ka-ndii</i>	<i>kú-ndīi</i>	<i>ndīi</i>	<i>ndīi</i>
go down	<i>ka-kii</i>	<i>kú-kīi</i>	<i>kīi</i>	<i>kīi</i>
go back	<i>ka-nuhu</i>	<i>kú-nūhú</i>	<i>nūhū</i>	<i>nūhū</i>
go up	<i>ka-shee</i>	<i>kú-shēe</i>	<i>shēe</i>	<i>kaa</i>
go	<i>ka-ñehe</i>	<i>kwéhēn</i>	<i>ñéhē</i>	<i>kīhīn</i>

<sup>5</sup>The unmarked continuative form *ió* 'there is' or 'there are' is difficult to classify. It resembles a position verb in meaning (see 5.1.1), although it has no separate form for a plural subject, and a position verb *tuvi* 'to be sitting' substitutes for it in negative sentences.

<sup>6</sup>There are two potential forms of the verb 'to do': *vií* occurs independently, whereas *kada* occurs only as the first member of a complex verb nucleus (see examples in 2.1.1).

<sup>7</sup>For further discussion of aspectual problems in motion verbs in Mixtec, see Kuiper and Merrifield (1975) and Macaulay (1982 and 1985).

Verbs of assuming a position also have an incomplete form. Most of these verbs fall into suppletive pairs that correlate with the number of the subject. All of the singular verbs and some of the plural ones contain the motion prefix *i-*, while the remaining plural ones do not (see 5.1.1). Verbs in both groups show irregular patterns of prefixation and tone that do not fall into any of the six types described above.

The verbs that contain *i-* in their basic continuative form also have it in the complete form, where its tone is raised to high, but not in incomplete or potential. Continuative aspect is marked by the prefix *ka-*, incomplete aspect is marked by the prefix *ká-*, and potential aspect is marked by *ku-*. The continuative form usually has a high accent on the first syllable of the stem, and the other three aspects have a low accent on the first syllable.

	CON	INC	COM	POT
get in (SG)	<i>ka-i-núu</i>	<i>ká-nūu</i>	<i>í-nūu</i>	<i>ku-nūu</i>
sit down (SG)	<i>ka-i-túvi</i>	<i>ká-tūví</i>	<i>í-tūví</i>	<i>ku-tūví</i>
stand up (SG)	<i>ka-i-ndĩsi</i>	<i>ká-ndĩsí</i>	<i>í-ndĩsí</i>	<i>ku-ndĩsí</i>
get hung (SG)	<i>ka-i-rkáa</i>	<i>ká-rkāa</i>	<i>í-rkāa</i>	<i>ku-rkāa</i>
sit down (PL)	<i>ka-i-ndóo</i>	<i>ká-ndōo</i>	<i>í-ndōo</i>	<i>ku-ndōo</i>
stand up (PL)	<i>ka-i-ndāñi</i>	<i>ká-ndāñí</i>	<i>í-ndāñí</i>	<i>ku-ndāñí</i>

The verbs that do not contain *i-* have a *ka-* prefix on both the continuative and incomplete forms, and a fused *kV-* prefix on the potential. They have a high accent on the first syllable of the stem in the basic continuative aspect form, and this pattern is retained in the incomplete. Complete aspect has a high-low tone pattern, and potential is characterized by the lack of any accent.

	CON	INC	COM	POT
get on (PL)	<i>ka-ódo</i>	<i>ka-ódo</i>	<i>ódō</i>	<i>kodo</i>
get against (PL)	<i>ka-úve</i>	<i>ka-úve</i>	<i>úvē</i>	<i>kuve</i>
get in (PL)	<i>ka-ñúhu</i>	<i>ka-ñúhu</i>	<i>ñúhū</i>	<i>kuhun</i>
get underneath (PL)	<i>ka-shíhi</i>	<i>ka-shíhi</i>	<i>shíhī</i>	<i>kíhi</i>

In most verbs the potential aspect form is used in commands. There are, however, two classes of special imperative forms. For second person imperatives, motion verbs of going (but not coming) use the segmental form



of the incompletive aspect, but replace its tones by a pattern that usually involves introducing a high accent.

	Imperative	Incompletive
go	<i>kwēhén</i>	<i>kwéhēn</i>
go back	<i>ku-núhu</i>	<i>kú-nūhú</i>
go down	<i>ku-kūi</i>	<i>kú-kūi</i>
go downhill	<i>ku-ndüi</i>	<i>kú-ndüi</i>
go uphill	<i>ku-ndáa</i>	<i>kú-ndāa</i>
go up	<i>ku-shée</i>	<i>kú-shēe</i>

When the subject of a command is some other person, however, the potential aspect form is used (see 1.3).

In addition, there are six special forms that are used exclusively as imperatives.

<i>nihí</i>	‘come!’	
<i>ūhun</i>	‘take (this)!’	
<i>kamá</i>	‘hurry up!’	
<i>tihí</i>	‘hurry up!’	
<i>tsihñū</i>	‘go ahead!’	
<i>duhshēn</i>	‘shut up!’	(cf. <i>duhshēn</i> ‘war’)

The content verbs *kaa* ‘to be (singular)’, ‘to be characterized by’, or ‘to appear’ and its plural counterpart *ndáā*,<sup>8</sup> which characteristically occur in stative sentences (see 1.1.6), occur only in unmarked continuative aspect.

Of the three verbs that occur in equative sentences (see 1.1.5), *nani* ‘to be named’ occurs only in unmarked continuative aspect, but *kuvi* ‘to become’ and its repetitive counterpart *nduvi* are regularly inflected for the three basic aspects; they belong to Class II.

	CON	COM	POT
become	<i>ka-kuvi</i>	<i>kūvi</i>	<i>kuvi</i>
turn into	<i>ka-nduvi</i>	<i>ndūvi</i>	<i>nduvi</i>

---

<sup>8</sup>The inherently plural verb *ndáā* is morphologically a fused form composed of the repetitive prefix *na-* followed by *kaa* (see 5.1.1). The use of the plural form is optional for many speakers.

## 5.2 Stative Verbs

Stative verbs differ from content and equative verbs in that they are not inflected for aspect.

Stative verbs are either basic or derived from nouns, usually by means of a change of accent. The meanings are frequently idiomatic.

Basic stative verbs:

<i>váhā</i>	‘good’
<i>vidē</i>	‘wet’
<i>vī</i>	‘heavy’
<i>ihni</i>	‘hot’
<i>nee</i>	‘dark’
<i>ndāhvī</i>	‘poor’
<i>kwīhshín</i>	‘white’

Derived stative verbs:

Stative Verb		Noun	
<i>áhnā</i>	‘rubbery’	<i>ahna</i>	‘rubber’
<i>úhmē</i>	‘smoky’	<i>uhme</i>	‘smoke’
<i>tátsín</i>	‘windy’	<i>tátsín</i>	‘wind’
<i>déhen</i>	‘greasy’	<i>dēhén</i>	‘lard’
<i>ndōhshó</i>	‘muddy’	<i>ndōhshó</i>	‘mud’
<i>kwīhí</i>	‘thin’	<i>kwīhī</i>	‘sickness’
<i>tūún</i>	‘black’	<i>tūūn</i>	‘charcoal’
<i>atā</i>	‘old’	<i>átā</i>	‘back’
<i>dítsín</i>	‘weepy’	<i>dítsín</i>	‘nose’
<i>dūkún</i>	‘tall, high’	<i>dūkūn</i>	‘neck’
<i>duhshēn</i>	‘bothersome, lazy’	<i>duhshēn</i>	‘war’
<i>nduhu</i>	‘fat’	<i>nduhu</i>	‘trunk, log’

(See also 7.101 and 7.105.)

Three stative verbs expressing size have distinct forms for singular and plural referents.

	SG	PL
long	<i>kani</i>	<i>nani</i>
big	<i>kahnu</i>	<i>nahnu</i>
small	<i>lúhndī</i>	<i>kwetsī</i>

### 5.3 Nouns

**5.3.1 Derivation.** There are no regular processes for deriving nouns from other parts of speech. There is, however, extensive fusion of complex noun nuclei (see 3.1.1) into single words. Such fusions have resulted in a large number of plant names with initial *t* or *ch*, from fused *utun* ‘tree’, as well as a number of animal names with initial *t*, *ts*, *s*, *sh*, or *kít*, from fused *kít* ‘animal’. In many cases, the identity of the second part cannot be determined.

With fused ‘tree’:

<i>tdenū</i>	‘sweetgum’
<i>chāá</i>	‘oak’
<i>chuhshē</i>	‘pine’
<i>chūn</i>	‘bamboo’
<i>cháhá</i>	‘chili plant’ (cf. <i>shaha</i> ‘chili’)

With fused ‘animal’:

<i>tīná</i>	‘dog’
<i>trítá</i>	‘woodpecker’
<i>tduhmé</i>	‘scorpion’ (cf. <i>dúhmē</i> ‘tail’)
<i>tsídó</i>	‘rabbit’
<i>tsoo</i>	‘turtle’
<i>tsī</i>	‘snail’
<i>smūi</i>	‘bumblebee’
<i>skundi</i>	‘cricket, grasshopper’
<i>shtéé</i>	‘coyote’
<i>shūñí</i>	‘rat, mouse’
<i>shndohó</i>	‘spider’ (cf. <i>ndōhó</i> ‘adobe’)
<i>kítume</i>	‘bee’ (cf. <i>shūmē</i> ‘wax’)

<i>kātdihi</i>	‘female animal’ (cf. <i>dīhī</i> ‘mother’)
<i>kāchīi</i>	‘male animal’ (cf. <i>shīi</i> ‘husband’)

Other compound nouns:

<i>rkahu</i>	‘deer’ (cf. <i>idú</i> ‘horse’, <i>kuhu</i> ‘wild’)
<i>rkādún</i>	‘tostada’ (cf. <i>itā</i> ‘tortilla’, <i>kādún</i> ‘toasted’)
<i>dīhū</i>	‘beard’ (cf. <i>idi</i> ‘hair’, <i>shuhu</i> ‘mouth’)
<i>dōshó</i>	‘disaster, miracle’ (cf. <i>doó</i> ‘word’, <i>ishó</i> ‘fearful’)

Since simple nuclei are characteristically disyllabic in Mixtec, it can be assumed that words of three or more syllables, as well as the majority of words with initial consonant clusters, are the result of fusion of complex nuclei, although it is frequently impossible, apart from historical and comparative study, to identify the individual morphemes.

<i>tengimī</i>	‘onion’ (cf. <i>ite</i> ‘grass’)
<i>ngoñūhú</i>	‘orange’
<i>ngāndīi</i>	‘sun’
<i>rkótūún</i>	‘Spanish (language)’
<i>rkwāhndī</i>	‘rainbow’
<i>shndiví</i>	‘star’
<i>ñukátī</i>	‘firecracker’

**5.3.2 Classification.** Nouns fall into several cross-cutting classifications; they may be divided according to gender, possessibility, distribution, or countability.

Nouns fall into five gender classes, according to the third person pronouns that can substitute for them (see 5.4): adult, masculine, feminine, animal/spherical, and unspecified. Adult nouns include deities as well as adult humans and do not distinguish masculine and feminine. There is some overlap between adult and masculine or feminine nouns, but the use of a specifically masculine or feminine noun or pronoun to refer to an adult is usually considered disrespectful. Animal/spherical nouns include round inanimate objects along with birds, fish, insects, and other animals. Unspecified nouns include small children along with nonround inanimate objects.

## Adult nouns:

<i>ñaha</i>	‘person, people’
<i>dihī</i>	‘mother’
<i>uvā</i>	‘father’
<i>dutu</i>	‘priest’
<i>sandu</i>	‘saint (Sp. <i>santo</i> )’
<i>ngāndii</i>	‘sun’
<i>shóō</i>	‘moon’
<i>dāvī</i>	‘rain’

## Masculine nouns:

<i>naha</i>	‘boy’
<i>shü</i>	‘husband’
<i>ení</i>	‘brother (of male)’
<i>sndadun</i>	‘soldier (Sp. <i>soldado</i> )’

## Feminine nouns:

<i>táhnū</i>	‘female, girl’
<i>dyōkó</i>	‘daughter’

## Animal/spherical nouns:

<i>kiti</i>	‘animal, round object’
<i>tsāká</i>	‘fish’
<i>lūhún</i>	‘roadrunner’
<i>kóō</i>	‘snake’
<i>tūsín</i>	‘avocado’
<i>ndéhā</i>	‘peach’
<i>kanika</i>	‘marble (Sp. <i>canica</i> )’

## Unspecified nouns:

<i>vihi</i>	‘house’
<i>kāá</i>	‘metal, machete, bell’
<i>utun</i>	‘tree, wood’
<i>shúū</i>	‘rock’

<i>ndute</i>	‘water’
<i>ndika</i>	‘banana’
<i>kwīā</i>	‘year’
<i>ĩñā</i>	‘thing’
<i>ihshá</i>	‘child’

Nouns may also be divided into those that can be possessed and those that cannot. Nouns that cannot be possessed are those that refer to topographical and meteorological phenomena, as well as certain Spanish loans that refer to abstractions. These nouns cannot be followed directly by a possessor but may occur in an appositional construction with *ĩñā* ‘thing’ and a possessor (see 3.3 and 3.7).

<i>shuku</i>	‘mountain’
<i>shndĩví</i>	‘star’
<i>nduvĩ</i>	‘day’
<i>lei</i>	‘law (Sp. <i>ley</i> )’
<i>kwendu</i>	‘story (Sp. <i>cuento</i> )’

Some nouns have more than one sense discrimination, some of which can be possessed while others cannot.

<i>tátsĩn</i>	‘wind’ (not possessible); ‘breath, voice’ (possessible)
---------------	---

Possessible nouns are either inherently or optionally possessed. Inherently possessed nouns are usually kinship terms or body parts.

<i>tahan</i>	‘companion, sister, brother (of female)’
<i>shĩ</i>	‘husband’
<i>dĩhĩ</i>	‘mother’
<i>dĩtsĩn</i>	‘nose’
<i>ndaha</i>	‘arm, hand, branch (of tree), page (of book)’
<i>dĩví</i>	‘name’

(See also 7.2, 7.12, 7.16, 7.23, 7.34, 7.40, and various others.)

If such nouns are elicited without a specified possessor, they are usually given with a first person singular or inclusive poststressed pronoun (see 5.4) as possessor. All other nouns are optionally possessed.

<i>vihí</i>	‘house’
<i>dahma</i>	‘skirt’
<i>tsídó</i>	‘rabbit’
<i>kwíā</i>	‘year’
<i>ñuú</i>	‘town’
<i>ihshá</i>	‘child’

(See also 7.2, 7.3, 7.28, and 7.96.)

Possessed nouns occur as the nucleus of possessive noun phrases; see 3.3 and 3.6 for examples of phrases containing these nouns.

Distribution classes of nouns include vocatives, proper nouns, locative nouns, temporal nouns, measurement nouns, and common nouns. Some nouns fall into more than one class.

Vocatives include special terms used exclusively as vocatives, special vocative forms of nouns, and special forms of proper nouns. Nouns have three vocative forms. In ordinary vocative forms, stress and length fall on the first syllable of a couplet, just as they do in nonvocative forms, but the accent patterns sometimes differ. In vocative forms used when calling from a distance, the final syllable is stressed and lengthened and carries a high-low accent. In emphatic vocative forms used to gain someone’s attention, *VV* and *VhV* sequences reduce to *V*, and stress shifts to the final syllable, which is checked by *h*.

Forms used only as vocatives:

	Ordinary	Calling	Emphatic
Mother!	<i>ñāá</i>	<i>ñāâ</i>	<i>ñáh</i>
dear!	<i>lāá</i>	<i>lāâ</i>	<i>láh</i>
boy! (ws)	—	—	<i>dúnh</i>

Vocative forms of nouns:

	Ordinary	Calling	Emphatic
Father!	<i>uvā</i>	<i>ūvâ</i>	<i>ūvâh</i>
Uncle!	<i>dūó</i>	<i>dūô</i>	<i>dūóh</i>

child!	<i>īshá</i>	<i>īshâ</i>	<i>īsháh</i>
baby!	<i>pāhá</i>	<i>pāâ</i>	<i>páh</i>
boy!	<i>na kudii</i>	<i>na kudîi</i>	<i>dîh</i>
teacher!	<i>mastru</i>	<i>mastrû</i>	<i>mastruh</i>
	(Sp. <i>maestro</i> )		

Proper nouns used as vocatives:

	Ordinary	Calling	Emphatic
Peter!	<i>pelu</i>	<i>pelû</i>	<i>peluh</i>
	(Sp. <i>Pedro</i> )		
John!	<i>xwaan</i>	<i>xwaân</i>	<i>xwanh</i>
	(Sp. <i>Juan</i> )		
Mary!	<i>maria</i>	<i>mariâ</i>	<i>mariah</i>
	(Sp. <i>María</i> )		

See 1.4 for examples of vocatives used with sentences.

Proper nouns include personal names and place names, many of which are compound nuclei. Most personal names are borrowed from Spanish; they often are replaced by nicknames of Mixtec origin, which are frequently names of animals.

Personal names:

<i>pedru</i> or <i>pelu</i>	'Peter'
<i>maria</i> or <i>lia</i>	'Mary'
<i>tsīhvá</i>	'Pheasant'
<i>létoō</i>	'Inchworm'

Place names:

<i>ñukóhshō</i>	'Mexico City'
<i>kuchaña</i>	'Tehuacán'
<i>núndūvé</i>	'City of Oaxaca'
<i>tenjohō</i>	'City of Puebla'

Locative nouns occur as the nuclei of adverbial noun phrases (see 3.6). They fall into two categories: those that occur in the basic subtype and



those that occur in the possessive subtype. The first category includes place names, names of topographical features, and a few other nouns.

<i>kuchaña</i>	'Tehuacán'
<i>itsi</i>	'trail'
<i>úte</i>	'water hole, spring'
<i>ñuí</i>	'town'

The second group includes mainly names for body parts which are used in an extended sense; they are:

<i>núū</i>	face
	'at, on, on top of, in front of'
<i>átā</i>	back
	'in back of, outside of, behind'
<i>ini</i>	insides
	'in, inside of'
<i>ndaha</i>	hand
	'in the presence of, to (a person)'
<i>d#kē</i>	head
	'at the top of'
<i>etí</i>	bottom
	'at the foot of, at the base of'
<i>diñi</i>	side
	'beside, at the edge of (town)'

*shuhu*  
mouth  
'on the edge of, on the rim of'

*iñā*  
thing  
'for, about, of'

Temporal nouns include names for units of time and calendric units; some are complex nuclei.

Simple:

*ura* 'hour, time (Sp. *hora*)'  
*nduvī* 'day'  
*vite* 'week'  
*shōō* 'moon, month'  
*kwīā* 'year'  
*vierne* 'Friday (Sp. *Viernes*)'

Complex:

*shó māu*  
moon May  
'May (Sp. *Mayo*)'

Measurement nouns express units of weight or measurement; they occur as the nucleus of measurement noun phrases (see 3.2).

*naha* 'pair'  
*toō* 'span'  
*iññ* 'pinch'  
*sün* 'bit'  
*étün* 'box, maquila (four-liter measure used for corn)'  
*metru* 'meter (Sp. *metro*)'  
*litru* 'liter (Sp. *litro*)'  
*kilu* 'kilogram (Sp. *kilo*)'

Common nouns are all those not included in any of the above categories.

<i>tīná</i>	‘dog’
<i>dīkwí</i>	‘milk’
<i>chóhō</i>	‘herb, medicine’
<i>túūn</i>	‘charcoal’
<i>utun</i>	‘tree, wood’

Nouns may also be classified as either mass or count. Mass nouns do not permit a numeral or numeral phrase as quantifier, whereas count nouns do.

Mass nouns:

<i>dīkwí</i>	‘milk’
<i>ndute</i>	‘water’
<i>túūn</i>	‘charcoal’
<i>uhshen</i>	‘dough, paste’
<i>utsi</i>	‘powder’

Count nouns:

<i>ítā</i>	‘tortilla’
<i>étūn</i>	‘box’
<i>tutú</i>	‘paper’
<i>ñaha</i>	‘person’
<i>tsiñu</i>	‘work, job’

## 5.4 Pronouns

First and second person pronouns show a distinction between free and poststressed forms. Both kinds distinguish between singular and plural, and some of the poststressed pronouns also distinguish two case forms.

Free pronouns are used primarily when the pronoun is fronted for focus, as seen in 1.1.8. The free pronouns are:

	SG	PL
first EX	<i>shuhú</i>	<i>ndíhí</i>
first IN	—	<i>shohō</i>
second	<i>shōhon</i>	<i>ndōho</i>

The noninclusive plural forms appear to be a fusion of *ndīhi* 'all' with the corresponding singular forms.

Poststressed pronouns have separate case forms for subject and object in first and second person singular and inclusive, but not in first person exclusive and second person plural. The poststressed pronouns are:

	Subject		Object	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
first EX	<i>ú</i>	<i>ndí</i>	<i>kó</i>	<i>ndí</i>
first IN	—	<i>ō</i>	—	<i>kō</i>
second	<i>-n</i>	<i>ndo</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>ndo</i>

Object pronouns function as object, locative adjunct, possessor, or as subject of an arbitrary class of verbs, most of which involve sensory perception (see 1.1.2, 1.1.3, 1.1.4, and 3.3). Subject pronouns function as subject with most verbs.

The second person singular clitic pronoun *-n* has the effect of regressively nasalizing the entire verb to which it is attached (see Pike and Small [1973.124–25]).

*kada vaha-n*  
 POT:do good-you:SG  
 'you will make'

*kakidi ndu-n*  
 CON:sleep INT-you:SG  
 'are you sleeping?'

(See also 7.6, 7.10, 7.11, 7.15, 7.18, 7.21, 7.29, 7.38, and various others.)

In all sets of pronouns the singular/plural contrast carries overtones of a familiar/respect distinction. That is, a plural form often is used with a singular referent to show respect or social distance, as discussed in Small (1979.365–66). This is especially common with second person, as seen in 7.37, 7.59, 7.60, 7.76, and various others. In 7.39, the singular form of the verb occurs together with a plural pronoun used to show respect for a singular referent. The inclusive pronouns often are used in soliloquy (see 7.3, 7.4, 7.44, 7.48, 7.52, and 7.107).

Third person pronouns show a distinction among free forms, post-stressed forms, and prestressed forms. These kinds all show distinctions in gender, rather than in number or case. The masculine pronoun has variant forms depending upon the sex of the speaker. The third person free pronouns are:

adult (respect)	<i>ñaha</i>
masculine (respect)	<i>shtaha</i>
masculine (MS)	<i>naha</i>
(WS)	<i>chéhnū</i>
feminine	<i>táhnū</i>
animal/spherical	<i>kiti</i>

The third person clitic pronouns are:

	Poststressed	Prestressed
adult (respect)	<i>ña</i>	<i>ña</i>
masculine (respect)	<i>shta</i>	<i>shta</i>
masculine (MS)	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>
(WS)	<i>chí</i>	<i>chéhnū</i>
feminine	<i>tún</i>	<i>tánū, tá</i>
animal/spherical	<i>ti</i>	<i>kiti</i>
unspecified	<i>i, ∅</i>	<i>é</i>

Note that the first three gender classes show no distinction between the two forms. Poststressed pronouns are used as subjects and objects of verbs, possessors of nouns, and objects of prepositions. Poststressed pronouns occur in focus position, however, only if preceded by a specifier (see 3.1.2). Prestressed pronouns, on the other hand, are used as nuclei of noun phrases when something else follows in the same noun phrase (see 3.1.3 and 3.7).

The choice of pronoun is determined partly by the gender class of its referent (see 5.3.2) and partly by the age, sex, and respect relationship of the speaker to the referent. The generic pronouns *ñaha* and *ña* are used to refer to adults, whether male or female; throughout this sketch they are glossed 'person'. The specific masculine and feminine pronouns, on the other hand, are used to refer to younger people. The pronouns *shtaha* and *shta*, which correspond somewhat to the Spanish title *don*, are used occasionally to refer to certain men who are well known and respected in the

community. The reduced form *tá* of the feminine prestressed pronoun is used only with personal names of girls and pets (see 3.1.1). The animal/spherical pronouns *kíí* and *tí* refer to round objects as well as to animals. The unspecified gender class has no specific free pronoun form. Its post-stressed form is either expressed by *i* or unexpressed, depending upon whether it functions as subject of verb, as object of verb, or as possessor of noun or object of preposition; and whether its referent is an inanimate object, a child, or an indefinite person.<sup>9</sup> The following diagram illustrates its distribution.

	Subject	Object	Possessor
inanimate object	∅	∅	<i>i</i>
child	∅	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>
indefinite person	<i>i</i>	∅	<i>i</i>

Of these nine categories, seven occur in the text in chapter 7. Examples of the zero pronoun expressing inanimate subject are found in 7.7, 7.9, 7.20, 7.46, 7.64, 7.80, 7.98, 7.99, and 7.102; those expressing a child subject are found in 7.17, 7.24, 7.25, 7.41, 7.54, 7.66, 7.89, and 7.106; and those expressing an inanimate object are found in 7.5, 7.90, 7.91, 7.92, 7.93, 7.94, 7.95, 7.97, and 7.99. Examples of the *i* pronoun expressing an indefinite subject are found in 7.2, 7.3, and 7.4; those expressing a child object are found in 7.6, 7.52, 7.53, 7.54, and 7.107; those expressing an inanimate possessor are found in 7.16, 7.22, 7.92 and 7.103, and those expressing a child possessor are found in 7.13, 7.17, 7.20, 7.23, 7.41, 7.44, 7.101, 7.102 and 7.103. A locative adjunct that is not signaled by a locative noun or preposition is treated like the object of a verb, as seen in 7.6.

There are three interrogative pronouns, one of which is complex.

Simple:

<i>shoó</i>	‘who?’
<i>neé</i>	‘what?’

---

<sup>9</sup>It is possible that the distribution pattern of the unspecified pronoun *i/∅* reflects three distinct sources of this pronoun, all of which share a palatal component: *íñā* ‘thing’, *íhshá* ‘child’, and *shoó* ‘who?’.

## Complex:

<i>ne</i>	<i>iñá</i>
what	thing
'what?'	

Interrogative pronouns occur alone in WH questions (see 1.2.2) or in combination with nouns or personal pronouns to form interrogative noun phrases (see 3.4).

## 5.5 Adverbs

Adverbs are locative, temporal, general, intensifying, or interrogative.

Locative adverbs comprise all locational words that are not nouns or prepositions; they occur mainly as locative adjuncts and locative peripheral elements.

<i>iha</i>	or <i>a</i>	'here'
<i>ikān</i>	or <i>kān</i>	'there'
<i>shio</i>		'elsewhere, away'
<i>ikā</i>		'far'
<i>etsin</i>		'near'
<i>daha</i>		'ahead, over'
<i>kīhí</i>		'outside'

The poststressed forms *a* 'here' and *kān* 'there' are frequently used to terminate adverbial noun phrases and basic adverb phrases (see 3.6 and 4.2.1).

Temporal adverbs are simple or complex; they comprise all temporal words and idioms that are not nouns. They occur as time peripheral elements.

## Simple temporal adverbs:

<i>veví</i>	or <i>ve</i>	'today, now'
<i>kidáā</i>	or <i>dá</i>	'then'
<i>iku</i>		'yesterday'
<i>vetun</i>		'last night'
<i>utén</i>		'tomorrow'

<i>tévāa</i>	‘tomorrow morning, early’
<i>īdá</i>	‘day after tomorrow’
<i>kwaa</i>	‘afternoon, evening’
<i>vīhi</i>	‘a while’
<i>naha</i>	‘a long time’
<i>dīhna</i>	‘earlier, first’

Complex temporal adverbs:

<i>nī</i>	<i>dukwān</i>
whole	thus
‘while, meanwhile, in the meantime’	

<i>rko</i>	<i>ndūvi</i>
?	day
‘afterwards, later on’	

<i>ngwen</i>	<i>ndūvi</i>
whole:completely	day
‘always, all the time’	

<i>kwén</i>	<i>nīnu</i>	<i>vétūn</i>
completely	night	last:night
‘all night long’		

General adverbs comprise all manner words that are not stative verbs. They are simple or complex.

Simple general adverbs:

<i>dukwān</i> or <i>kwān</i>	‘thus, still’
<i>duhva</i> or <i>va</i>	‘thus’
<i>kwū</i>	‘slowly’
<i>tūi</i>	‘nicely’
<i>kini</i>	‘in an ugly manner’
<i>dōtó</i>	‘haphazardly’
<i>kwán</i>	‘thus’
<i>dadūi</i>	‘same’



## Complex general adverbs:

*dókō*    *sá*  
almost    only  
'almost'

*diü*    *sa*  
bit    only  
'nearly'

*diü*    *ka*  
bit    more  
'even more'

Intensifying adverbs most commonly occur as manner in content verb phrases, stative verb phrases, and basic adverb phrases.

*dōó* or *ōó*    'very'  
*kwehén*    'completely'

The intensifier *dōó* precedes the nucleus, whereas *kwehén* may either precede or follow it.

Interrogative adverbs comprise all simple interrogatives that are not pronouns; they are:

*míhī* or *mí*    'where?'  
*ama*    'when?'  
*ndé*    'how?'

The first two occur singly, while *ndé* 'how?' occurs most frequently in combination with verbs of happening and existing (see 1.2.2, 2.1.2, 2.3, and 3.4). For a description of interrogative noun phrases that function as interrogative adverbs, see 3.4.

## 5.6 Quantifiers

Quantifiers include both numerals and general quantifiers. They function as quantifiers in noun phrases (see chapter 3, especially 3.1.2, 3.2, and 3.10), as the nucleus in various quantifier phrases (see 4.1), and as ordinals in relative clauses (see 3.1.3).

Simple numerals include the numerals from one through ten, fifteen, and twenty, plus two Spanish loans for one hundred and one thousand. The numerals one and twenty each have suppletive allomorphs, which are used in combination with certain other numerals in additive and attributive numeral phrases (see 4.1.1 and 4.1.2). The simple numerals are:

<i>uun</i>	‘one’
<i>ĩn</i>	‘one’ (only following ten)
<i>úvī</i>	‘two’
<i>únī</i>	‘three’
<i>kámī</i>	‘four’
<i>úhūn</i>	‘five’
<i>ĩñū</i>	‘six’
<i>úhshē</i>	‘seven’
<i>únā</i>	‘eight’
<i>ĩn</i>	‘nine’
<i>úhshī</i>	‘ten’
<i>shéhūn</i>	‘fifteen’
<i>ókō</i>	‘twenty’
<i>diko</i>	‘twenty’ (as the nucleus of attributive numeral phrases)
<i>syendu</i>	‘hundred (Sp. <i>ciento</i> )’
<i>mīl</i>	‘thousand (Sp. <i>mil</i> )’

When the numerals for two, three, and four follow *ndĩhi* ‘all’ in expanded numeral phrases (see 4.1.3), they fuse with it.

<i>nduvi</i>	‘both’
<i>nduni</i>	‘all three’
<i>ngĩmi</i>	‘all four’

General quantifiers include a number of less precise quantifying words; the most common ones are:

<i>kwéhē</i>	‘much, many’
<i>tĩtĩn</i>	‘several’
<i>ndehvī</i>	‘few’
<i>ndĩhi</i>	‘all’

<i>nü</i>	‘whole, complete’
<i>dava</i>	‘half, part of’

The quantifiers *tüün* ‘several’ and *ndehvi* ‘few’ are used only with count nouns.

### 5.7 Prepositions

There are seven simple prepositions and one complex preposition based on a Spanish loan. Even though none of them has a clear etymology, a few show resemblances to other parts of speech that may indicate a historical connection.

Simple:

<i>nihī</i>	‘with’
<i>ndee</i>	‘against, as far as, from, since, even’ (cf. <i>ndee</i> ‘to be against’)
<i>māā</i>	‘under’
<i>nāā</i>	‘in place of’ (cf. <i>naa</i> ‘altar’)
<i>méhñū</i>	‘in the middle of’
<i>nínū</i>	‘above’
<i>shuvi</i>	‘below’ (cf. <i>shuvi</i> ‘palm mat’)

Complex:

<i>kwenda</i>	<i>iñá</i>
account	thing
‘for, on behalf of, about, in place of (Sp. <i>cuenta</i> )’	

Prepositions occur only in prepositional phrases (see 4.3).

Other prepositional functions are carried by noun phrases containing body-part nouns used in an extended sense (see 3.6 and 5.3.2). Two conjunctions, *dā* ‘when’ and *dá ndē* ‘until’ (see 5.8) also function as prepositions.

### 5.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are coordinate or subordinate, and simple or complex.

## Simple coordinate:

*ne* 'and'*ō* 'or'*ndá* 'but'

## Complex coordinate:

*ndá tsi*  
but LIM  
'but'*ne dá*  
and when  
'and then'

## Simple subordinate:

*dā* 'when, then'*tē* 'if, when'*tsí* 'because, that'*vata* 'as'

## Complex subordinate:

*da é*  
when CMP  
'since'*dá ndē*  
when against  
'until'*da nī*  
when whole  
'while'*da ti*  
when ?  
'so that'

*vata ko é*  
 as POT:exist CMP  
 ‘in order that’

*vata ò*  
 as CON:exist  
 ‘as’

*vata dá*  
 as when  
 ‘whenever’

*ndé dā*  
 against when  
 ‘ever since’

*tē dǎ*  
 if also  
 ‘if only’

*kwān te*  
 thus if  
 ‘even if, even though’

Coordinate conjunctions are used to link two or more basic sentences; see 6.1.1 for examples. They also occur in sentence-initial position to link a sentence to the preceding discourse context; see 6.4 for examples. The conjunction *ne* ‘and’ also occurs at the end of a preverbal constituent of the sentence, where it serves to define the end of the fronted constituent. Such a constituent may be a noun phrase (see 1.1.8) or a subordinate sentence (see 6.2.1).

Subordinate conjunctions occur at the beginning of a basic sentence that is in a subordinate relation to another sentence; see 6.2.1 for examples.

The complementizer *é*, which is basically a pronoun (see 5.4), frequently functions like a conjunction to mean ‘because’ (see 6.2.1); it also occurs in complex conjunctions.

## 5.9 Markers

Markers include all words that form part of sentences or phrases but are not included in the parts of speech already described. Markers are verbal, nominal, general, or sentential.

Verbal markers occur as preverbal elements in verb phrases (see chapter 2, especially 2.1.2); they are simple or complex.

Simple:

<i>ñá</i>	‘not’
<i>vátā</i>	‘not yet’
<i>nā</i>	‘hortatory’
<i>nī</i>	‘contrafactual’
<i>é</i>	‘already’

Complex:

<i>dā</i>	<i>ve</i>
when	now
‘just now’	

Nominal markers occur in noun phrases (see chapter 3, especially 3.1.2 and 3.1.3); they are:

<i>á</i>	‘diminutive’
<i>divī</i>	‘same’
<i>sáhā</i> or <i>sá</i>	‘this’ (cf. <i>iha</i> ‘here’)
<i>tsikān</i> or <i>sán</i>	‘that’ (cf. <i>ikān</i> ‘there’)

General markers occur in more than one major phrase type; they are:

<i>tsi</i>	‘just’
<i>dá</i>	‘only’
<i>sá</i>	‘only’
<i>ká</i>	‘more, still’
<i>ndihshe</i>	‘truly’
<i>tuku</i>	‘other, again’
<i>ku</i>	‘emphatic’
<i>kūdii</i>	‘merely’
<i>mī</i>	‘alone’

Sentential markers express the mood or truth value of a sentence (see 1.2.1 and 1.5); they are simple or complex.

Simple:

<i>ndu</i>	'interrogative'
<i>vá</i>	'doubtfully'
<i>ní</i>	'therefore'
<i>kwán</i>	'thus, so'
<i>dì</i>	'also'

Complex:

<i>vata</i>	<i>tē</i>
as	if
'apparently'	

<i>á</i>	<i>tē</i>
?	if
'probably'	

<i>ñá</i>	<i>tē</i>
NEG	if
'definitely not'	

### 5.10 Interjections

Interjections are words or fixed phrases used outside of sentences to express emotion, agreement, or disagreement; they are simple or complex.

Simple:

<i>ahan</i>	'okay'
<i>xúun</i>	'yes'
<i>ñáhā</i>	'no'
<i>mbá</i>	'wow! (Sp. <i>icaramba!</i> )'

## Complex:

*ñāhá ni san*  
NEG CF that  
'definitely not!'

*ishi ko or ii ko*  
? us ? us  
'expression of fear'



## 6

# Intersentential Relations

### 6.1 Coordinate Relations

Some combinations of sentences are connected by a conjunction, and some are not.

**6.1.1 Coordinate relations with conjunctions.** Coordinate sentences with conjunctions express coordination, antithesis, disjunction, and temporal sequence.

Coordination is expressed by the conjunction *ne* ‘and’, which is usually accompanied by a pause before and/or after it.

*shéē tún / ne íní u tún*  
COM:arrive she and COM:see I her  
‘She arrived, and I saw her.’

*shéē tún ne / íní u tún*  
COM:arrive she and COM:see I her  
‘She arrived, and I saw her.’

(See also 7.16, 7.19, 7.22, and 7.60.)

Sometimes two sentences that have a semantic relation such as sequence or result are joined by the conjunction *ne* ‘and’, rather than by some more specific coordinate or subordinate conjunction.

*ñéhe na ñūkohshó / ne ikān kúnaá na*  
COM:go he Mexico:City and there COM:become:lost he  
‘He went to Mexico City, and THERE he got lost.’

(See also 7.2, 7.13, 7.17, 7.20, 7.23, and 7.43.)

When the relationship is not sequential, the final sentence often ends with the sentential marker *dí* ‘also’.

*ñéhē tun núndūvé ne / ñéhē tún kuchañá dí*  
 COM:go she Oaxaca and COM:go she Tehuacán also  
 ‘She went to Oaxaca, and she also went to Tehuacán.’

*kahshí o ñá / ne koho o káféé dí*  
 POT:eat we:IN tortilla and POT:drink we:IN coffee also  
 ‘We’ll eat tortillas, and we’ll drink coffee (Sp. *café*), too.’

Antithesis is expressed by *ndá* or, more commonly, *ndá tsi* ‘but’. Nonfinal sentences optionally end with *ne* ‘and’.

*kava o vē / ndá dīhna kahshí ō ∅*  
 POT:lie:down we:IN now but earlier POT:eat we:IN UN  
 ‘We’ll go to bed now, but FIRST we’ll eat something.’

*ñéhē ú ñukohshó ne /*  
 COM:go I Mexico:City and  
 ‘I went to Mexico City,

*ndá tsi ña ni kunáa ú*  
 but LIM NEG CF COM:become:lost I  
 but I didn’t get lost.’

The conjunction *ō* ‘or’ expresses a disjunctive relation; it frequently introduces each sentence. Nonfinal sentences often end with *ne* ‘and’.

*kāhín ndú tun ñukohsho / ō ña kāhín tun*  
 POT:go INT she Mexico:City or NEG POT:go she  
 ‘Will she go to Mexico City, or won’t she?’

*ō kāhín tun ñukohshó ne / ō kāhín tun núndūvé*  
 or POT:go she Mexico:City and or POT:go she Oaxaca  
 ‘She will either go to Mexico City, or she will go to Oaxaca.’

*ō shuhú káhan u ne / ō xwaan káhan ná ne /*  
 or I POT:speak I and or John POT:speak he and  
 ‘Either I will speak, or JOHN (Sp. *Juan*) will speak,

*o pēlu káhan ná*  
 or Peter POT:speak he  
 or PETER (Sp. *Pedro*) will speak.'

The second part of a disjunctive sentence may contain only the interjection *ñáhā* 'no'.

*ō kihin tún ne / ō ña kihin tun*  
 or POT:go she and or NEG POT:go she  
 'Either she will go, or she won't go.'

*ō kihin tún ne / ō ñahá*  
 or POT:go she and or no  
 'Either she will or will not go.'

Temporal sequence is expressed by the complex conjunction *ne dá* 'and then'; a pause either precedes the conjunction or follows the *ne*.

*ñū na vihi / né dā nádiko nā ∅*  
 COM:buy he house and when COM:REP:sell he UN  
 'He bought a house, and then he resold it.'

*kihin tun núndūvé ne / dá kihin tun kúchaña*  
 POT:go she Oaxaca and when POT:go she Tehuacán  
 'She will go to Oaxaca, and then she will go to Tehuacán.'

(See also 7.5, 7.49, 7.52, and 7.101.)

**6.1.2 Coordinate relations without conjunctions.** Coordinate relations can also be expressed by simple juxtaposition or by repetition of part of a sentence.

Almost any coordinate relation can be expressed by simply juxtaposing two sentences without pause at the boundary, if the context is clear enough. Such sentences usually have coreferential subjects.

One of the most common relations expressed in this way is simultaneous action; one of the verbs usually expresses motion or position.

*kaita na / kwehen ná*  
 CON:sing he INC:go he  
 'He went along singing.'

*odō tūn tutūn / sheé tun*  
 CON:carry she firewood COM:arrive she  
 'She arrived carrying firewood.'

*ndoo ña / ndáehshi ña*  
 CON:sit:PL person CON:PL:eat person  
 'They are sitting down eating.'

Further examples of simultaneous action with coreferential subjects are found in 7.25, 7.30, 7.55, and 7.103. An example of such a sentence with different subjects is found in 7.29.

Sequential action can also be expressed using juxtaposition.

*kūdiin na / kunúhu na*  
 COM:become:fierce he INC:go:back he  
 'He got mad and went home.'

(See also 7.27, 7.104, and 7.106.)

Restatement of a positive sentence by a negative one is often expressed by juxtaposition.

*kúnúhú na / ñá nī kátuví na*  
 INC:go:back he NEG CF INC:sit:SG he  
 'He went back; he didn't stay.'

(See also 7.82.)

Instrument may be expressed by a sentence containing a verb such as 'to use' preceding the sentence describing the action. (Instrument may also be expressed as an adjunct; see 1.1.4.)

*kāá kade tsun nihi nā / kaendé nuu na ∅ utun*  
 metal CON:do work with he CON:cut face he UN wood  
 'He is using A MACHETE to cut wood.' or 'He is cutting wood with  
 A MACHETE.'

Repetition of part of the first sentence in the second one is sometimes used to simplify long sentences and slow down the information flow. The first sentence usually contains a motion verb, and the second one often contains an equivalent motion auxiliary, which expresses purpose in addition to motion (see 2.1.2).

*kwéhen na kūchaña / kú kadá tsiñu na*  
 INC:go he Tehuacán INC:go POT:do work he  
 'He has gone to Tehuacán to work.'

*kakihshi tún / kakish kwiin tún tuun íha*  
 CON:come she CON:come POT:buy she charcoal here  
 'She comes to buy charcoal here.'

(See also 7.53 and 7.108.)

Repetition is also used to express coordination of noun phrases. If the noun phrases function as subject, the verb is given once for each noun phrase and optionally following the last one. If the noun phrases function as something other than subject, the verb and its subject are given once for each noun phrase and optionally following the last one.

*ndio nuni / ndio ndutsi / ndio ñi*  
 CON:want corn CON:want bean CON:want salt  
 'Corn, beans, and salt are needed.'

*ndio nuni / ndio ndutsi / ndio ñi / ndio*  
 CON:want corn CON:want bean CON:want salt CON:want  
 'Corn, beans, and salt are needed.'

*ñū tún nama / ñū tún shuhve / ñū tún nuni*  
 COM:buy she soap COM:buy she thread COM:buy she corn  
 'She bought soap, thread, and corn.'

*ñū tún nama / ñū tún shuhve /*  
 COM:buy she soap COM:buy she thread  
 'She bought soap and thread'

*ñū tún nuni / ñū tún*  
 COM:buy she corn COM:buy she  
 and corn.'

## 6.2 Subordinate Relations

Subordinate relations are for the most part expressed by conjunctions; a limited number are expressed by juxtaposition.

**6.2.1 Subordinate relations with conjunctions.** Conjunctions are used to express cause, condition, concession, purpose, temporal relations, and comparison. The subordinate sentence normally follows the main sentence, but most kinds may also precede the main sentence. When a subordinate sentence precedes, it usually ends with the conjunction *ne* ‘and’, which helps to separate the two parts of the construction.

Cause is usually expressed by the subordinate conjunctions *tsí* ‘because’ or *da é* ‘since’. Occasionally *tsí* occurs followed by *da é*. The subordinate sentence almost always follows the main sentence, but a sentence introduced by *da é* may precede.

*ñéhe nā kárjutsi / tsí kandio na nuni*  
 COM:go he San:Miguel because CON:want he corn  
 ‘He went to San Miguel because he needed corn.’

*ña kwūn ú Ø / da é ña tuví dyuhun*  
 NEG POT:buy I UN when CMP NEG CON:sit:SG money  
 ‘I won’t buy it, since there isn’t any money.’

*kāhīn ú nī tun / tsí da é lúhndī ká tun*  
 POT:go I with her because when CMP small:SG more she  
 ‘I’ll go with her, since she’s still little.’

*da é njo kuví u ne / ñá kāhīn u*  
 when CMP CON:want POT:die I and NEG POT:go I  
 ‘Since I’m sick, I won’t go.’

(See also 7.7.)

Cause can also be expressed by simply using the complementizer *é*.

*ña ni kuví kāhīn / tun é njo kuví tun*  
 NEG CF COM:be:able POT:go she CMP CON:want POT:die she  
 ‘She wasn’t able to go as she was sick.’

*dōo diní ko / é ña kīhīn ú*  
 INTS CON:be:happy:inside me CMP NEG POT:go I  
 ‘I am very happy that I am not going.’

(See also 7.14, 7.26, 7.40, 7.42, and 7.80.)

In some sentences, the relationship expressed by *é* is not strictly cause, but can perhaps be expressed best by English ‘in that’ (see 7.11 and 7.68).

A subordinate sentence introduced by *tsí* ‘because’ often follows the interjection *ñáhā* ‘no’, as seen in 7.61, 7.78, 7.81, and 7.86.

There are three types of condition: simple, wishful, and contrafactual. The first two types occur with verbs in potential or continuative aspect, while the third type occurs with verbs in completive aspect. The main sentence is usually, but not always, in potential aspect. A simple condition is expressed by *tē* ‘if’ or ‘when’.

*ihshá ña nihi na ñuhu ña / te kuví ña*  
 child person POT:GET he land person if POT:DIE person  
 ‘THEIR SON will inherit their land if they die.’

*ñā kwūn ú ∅ / tē dóo ahví i*  
 NEG POT:BUY I UN if INTS CON:COST UN  
 ‘I won’t buy it if it is very expensive.’

*tē ndio ndo ∅ ne / káhin ō*  
 if CON:WANT YOU:PL UN and POT:GO WE:IN  
 ‘If you want to, we’ll go.’

*tē ña káhin tún ne / ñá káhin u dē*  
 if NEG POT:GO she and NEG POT:GO I also  
 ‘If she won’t go, I won’t go either.’

(See also 7.119 and 7.120.)

A wishful condition is expressed by *tē dē* ‘if only’.

*kwiin ú ∅ / tē dē kadiko nā ∅*  
 POT:BUY I UN if also CON:SELL he UN  
 ‘I would buy it if only he were selling it.’

*dōo diní ko / tē dē káhin u*  
 INTS happy me if also POT:GO I  
 ‘I would be very happy if I were going.’

(See also 7.39.)

To express a contrafactual condition, *tē* or *tē dī* must occur with the preverbal contrafactual marker (see 2.1.2), and the verb must be in completive aspect.

*te ni nīū ú nīi ne / kutāví u ∅*  
 if CF COM:buy I skin and POT:get:covered I UN  
 'If I had bought a hat, I would wear it.'

*tē dī ni nēhé u ne / e shēē ú ve*  
 if also CF COM:go I and already COM:arrive I now  
 'If only I had gone, I would have arrived by now.'

*tē dī nā ni nēhe nā ne /*  
 if also NEG CF COM:go person and  
 'If only they hadn't gone,

*kwan tsī ó kandito nā*  
 thus LIM CON:exist CON:live person  
 they would still be alive.'

Concession is expressed by *kwān te* 'even if' or 'even though'. If the subordinate sentence precedes the main sentence, the main sentence is usually introduced by *ndá tsi* 'but'.

*kwiin ú ∅ / kwān te dōo ahví i*  
 POT:buy I UN thus if INTS CON:COST UN  
 'I'll buy it even if it's very expensive.' or 'I'll buy it even though  
 it's very expensive.'

*nā nīhi ení na nīhu na / kwān te kuví na*  
 NEG POT:get brother:ME him land him thus if POT:die he  
 'His brother won't inherit his land even if he dies.'

*kwān té nā vá ēshí ∅ / ndá tsi ehshí u ∅*  
 thus if NEG good CON:eat UN but LIM COM:eat I UN  
 'Even though it didn't taste good, yet I ate it.'

Purpose is most commonly expressed by *vata ko é* 'in order that', *da ti* 'in order that', or simply *dā* 'then'; sometimes it is expressed by the complementizer *é*. The subordinate sentence is always in potential aspect.



*kadē tsīñu na / vata ko é nīhi ná dyuhun*  
 CON:do work he as POT:exist CMP POT:get him money  
 'He is working in order to earn money.'

*ñá kāñin-n / vata ko é ña kahní*  
 NEG POT:go-you:SG as POT:exist CMP NEG POT:kill  
 'Don't go lest he kill'

*na o*  
 he you:SG  
 you!'

*vata ko é kandīhi shee ó ne /*  
 as POT:exist CMP quickly POT:arrive we:IN and  
 'In order to arrive quickly,

*kunu ō*  
 POT:run we:IN  
 let's run.'

*kaeku tūn / da ti nīhi tun é ndio tūn*  
 CON:cry she when ? POT:get her CMP CON:want her  
 'She cries in order to get what she wants.'

*natsīhó u ndutsi / dá kāhshi ó ∅*  
 POT:CAUS:cook I bean when POT:eat we:IN UN  
 'I will cook beans for us to eat.'

*kada tsīñu ō / é nīhi kó dyuhun*  
 POT:do work we:IN CMP POT:get us:IN money  
 'We'll work to earn money.'

(See also 7.4, 7.35, 7.53, 7.75, and 7.107.)

A variety of temporal relations may be expressed by conjunctions. The most common of these conjunctions is *dā* 'when'. It occurs mainly with verbs in completive aspect.

*ndōto ihsha / dá ite ñukātī*  
 COM:wake:up child when COM:explode firecracker  
 'The child woke up when the firecracker exploded.'

*dā ñehe ná ñukohshó ne / nduku na tsĩũũ*  
 when COM:go he Mexico:City and COM:look:for he work  
 'When he went to Mexico City, he looked for work.'

*dā dóo ihrũ né / kaish duté u*  
 when INTS hot and CON:GOPOT:swim I  
 'When it's very hot out, I go swimming.'

(See also 7.1, 7.3, 7.6, 7.25, 7.26, 7.28, and various others.)

The conditional conjunction *tē* 'if' or 'when' is used sometimes to refer to future events, implying a degree of uncertainty.

*kaehshi o Ø / té shee o*  
 POT:eat we:IN UN if POT:arrive we:IN  
 'We'll eat when we arrive.'

*tē shihi ñá ne / ihshá ña nihi na*  
 if COM:die person and child person POT:get him  
 'When they have died, their son will inherit

*ñuhu ña*  
 land person  
 their land.'

Various complex conjunctions based on *dā* also express temporal relations; these include *vata dá* 'whenever', *ndé dā* 'since', and *dá ndē* 'until'.

*kaehshí u ita / vata dá kakakĩn kó*  
 CON:eat I tortilla as when CON:be:hungry me  
 'I eat tortillas whenever I am hungry.'

*vata dá kañehe ná ñukohshó ne / kakunáa na*  
 as when CON:go he Mexico:City and CON:become:lost he  
 'Whenever he goes to Mexico City, he gets lost.'

*iní u tún / nde da kúlúhndĩ tún*  
 CON:know I her against when COM:become:small:SG she  
 'I have known her since she was little.'

*ndé dā kulúhndī tūn / iní u tūn*  
 against when COM:become:small:SG she CON:know I her  
 'Ever since she was little, I've known her.'

*kandētu na / da ndé nāshee úva nā*  
 CON:wait he when against COM:REP:arrive father him  
 'He waited until his father got back.'

When a subordinate sentence introduced by *dā ndē* 'until' or *tē* 'when' precedes, the main sentence is often introduced by *dā* or *da kidāa* 'then'.

*dā nde kūvi tsiho ndutsi ne /*  
 when against POT:finish POT:cook bean and  
 'When (until) the beans finish cooking,

*dā kāhshí u Ø*  
 when POT:eat I UN  
 then I'll eat them.'

*tē kúvi éhshi ō ne / da kidāa kāhín o*  
 if COM:finish COM:eat we:IN and when then POT:go we:IN  
 'When we've finished eating, then we'll go.'

(See also 7.105.)

Simultaneous or included action is expressed by *da nē* or *nē dukwān* 'while' or 'meanwhile', which often introduce both sentences, the first of which is subordinate.

*da nē kūkwí na ne /*  
 when whole COM:become:slow he and  
 'While he delayed,

*da nē ínu tí*  
 when whole COM:run it:AML  
 meanwhile it ran away.'

*nē dukwan kākídí tun ne /*  
 whole thus CON:sleep she and  
 'While she sleeps,

*nī dukwan kada tsiñu ō*  
 whole thus POT:DO work we:IN  
 in the meantime we'll work.'

The day of the month is expressed as an idiomatic subordinate sentence introduced by the complementizer *é*; it either precedes or follows the main sentence without pause at the boundary.

*ñéhē ú ñukohsho / é ūvi ndóo o āvrii*  
 COM:go I Mexico:City CMP two CON:sit:PL we:IN April  
 'I went to Mexico City on April (Sp. *Abril*) second.'

*é ūni ndóo ō sho máu / nāsheé u*  
 CMP three CON:sit:PL we:IN moon May COM:REP:arrive I  
 'On the third of May (Sp. *Mayo*) I got back.'

Comparison of likeness is expressed by the conjunction *vata* 'as', optionally followed by the limiter *tsi*. The same verb usually occurs in both sentences. When the subordinate sentence precedes, the main sentence often begins with *kwān* 'thus' and often ends with *dī* 'also'. Comparison sentences are most commonly stative sentences (see 1.1.6).

*kaa ∅ / vata kaa shuú*  
 CON:be:SG UN as CON:be:SG rock  
 'It is like a rock.'

*vata ndáa ihsha / ndáa ña*  
 as CON:be:PL child CON:be:PL person  
 'They are like children.'

*vata tsi ēshí tsákā né / kwan ēshí ∅ dī*  
 as LIM CON:eat fish and thus CON:eat UN also  
 'It tastes just like fish.' (lit. 'Just as fish tastes, so it tastes also.')

(See also 7.5.)

When sentence types other than stative occur, however, it is usually necessary to recast the sentence as the subject complement of the verb *koo* 'to exist'.

*kade na / vatā ó de uva nā*  
 CON:do he as CON:exist CON:do father him  
 'He behaves like his father does.'

*vata tsī ó ita láā né /*  
 as LIM CON:exist CON:sing bird and  
 'She sings just like a bird.' (lit. 'Just like a bird

*kwān ó kaita tūn*  
 thus CON:exist CON:sing she  
 sings, so she sings.)

(See also 7.119.)

Comparison of degree is expressed by the complementizer *é*, followed by the subject. No verb phrase occurs in the subordinate sentence, but it is always understood to contain the same verb as the main sentence. The main sentence must contain *ká* 'more' in the verb phrase.

*kahnu ká tun / é shūhú*  
 big:sg more she CMP I  
 'She is bigger than I am.'

*dī ka kahnu tun / é tāhan tūn*  
 bit more big:sg she CMP sister her  
 'She is even bigger than her sister.'

*dī dī ka kandīhi inu na / é shohō*  
 bit bit more quickly COM:run he CMP we:IN  
 'He ran a lot faster than we did.'

*dī ka kwehe kaéhshi na / é enī ná*  
 bit more much CON:eat he CMP brother:ME him  
 'He eats even more than his brother does.'

*dī ka iō iñá tun / é shūhú*  
 bit more CON:exist thing her CMP I  
 'She has even more than I have.'

*dī ka ña vū ∅ / é sáhá*  
 bit more NEG heavy UN CMP this  
 'It is not as heavy as this.' or 'It is lighter than this.'

**6.2.2 Subordinate relations without conjunctions.** Juxtaposition without pause at the boundary is sometimes used to express purpose, or rarely, cause. It also expresses the time of day.

In juxtaposed purpose sentences, the second part expresses the purpose of the first. Its verb must be in potential aspect, and the hortatory *nā* sometimes occurs.

*nāi tún doo / kada váhā tún dahma tún*  
 COM:buy she cloth POT:do good she skirt her  
 'She bought cloth to make her skirt.'

*tāhshí-n ∅ / na kōto ndeé u ∅*  
 POT:give-you:SG UN HORT POT:look against I UN  
 'Give it to me in order that I may examine it.'

(See also 7.100.)

In such sentences an object is often shared; in the following examples the solidus that marks the break between sentences is arbitrarily placed after the shared noun phrase.

*tāhshi ndo tsiñu / vií u*  
 POT:give you:PL work POT:do I  
 'Give me work to do.'

*kañii tún ita / káhshi ihshá tun*  
 CON:buy she tortilla POT:eat child her  
 'She buys tortillas for her children to eat.'

A further example of this phenomenon is found in 7.91. In 7.90 and 7.94, a shared noun phrase occurs in focus position, rather than between the two parts. In 7.92, a similar construction occurs with an unexpressed object.

Juxtaposition also occasionally expresses cause, as seen in 7.83. Perhaps other subordinate relations can also be expressed in this way if the context is clear enough.

The time of day is expressed as an idiomatic subordinate sentence either preceding or following the main sentence without intervening pause.

*kaeku uni kwáa / ñehé u*  
 CON:cry three late COM:go I  
 'I went at three o'clock in the afternoon.'

*kihshi ndo / kaeku uni*  
 POT:come you:PL CON:cry three  
 ‘Come at three o’clock!’

### 6.3 Direct Quotations

Quotations consist of three parts: the quotation, the quotation introducer, and the quotation closer. The quotation is obligatory and consists of one or more sentences or fragments. The introducer is optional, but the closer is obligatory except in dramatic dialogue where the speakers are clearly distinguished by tone of voice, speech style, or content. The introducer usually contains the verb *káhān* ‘to speak’ or ‘to say’ in continuative aspect; occasionally a more specific verb, such as *tsishehē* ‘to ask’, occurs. The closer nearly always contains the verb *káhān* in unmarked continuative aspect. Both introducer and closer contain an obligatory subject and an optional addressee. The addressee is expressed as an associative adjunct with *káhān* or as a locative adjunct with *tsishehē* (see 1.1.4).

*kakahan tún / káhān ú dī / kahan tún*  
 CON:speak she POT:go I also CON:speak she  
 ‘She said, “I’m going too,” she said.’

*koho-n ndute / kahan tún nī kó*  
 POT:drink-you:SG water CON:speak she with me  
 ‘“Drink some water!” she said to me.’

*katsishehē ú na / míhi ndu káhān-n / kahán u*  
 CON:ask I him where INT POT:go-you:SG CON:speak I  
 ‘I asked him, “Where are you going?” I said.’

(See also 7.6, 7.10, 7.11, 7.21, 7.29, 7.31, and various others.)

Sometimes both *káhān* and a more specific verb occur in a juxtaposed coordinate construction, as described in 6.1.2 above.

*shoó ndu kakahan í / kahan tún / tsishehē tún*  
 who INT CON:speak UN CON:speak she CON:ask she  
 ‘“Who is speaking?” she said; she asked.’

Sometimes the verb phrase of the introducer is expanded to include a postverbal element (see 2.1.3).

*kakahan túku na / káhān ó / kahan ná*  
 CON:speak REP he POT:go we:IN CON:speak he  
 'He said again, "Let's go!" he said.'

*kakahán sh tun / shuhú ði / kahan tún*  
 CON:speak LIM she I also CON:speak she  
 'She just said, "Me too," she said.'

(See also 7.8, 7.15, 7.18, 7.67, and 7.93.)

Note that in 7.8 a postverbal element also appears in the closer, but this is rare. In all but one of the examples in chapter 7, *káhān* is preceded by *sá* 'so'. Its use here seems to indicate a peculiar speech style, as for instance, that of animals.

Soliloquy is similar to dialogue but is characterized by a lack of addressee and by the use of a first person plural inclusive pronoun.

*kakahan tún / ndé ko vii o ve /*  
 CON:speak she how POT:exist POT:do we:IN now  
 'She said, "What shall I do now?"

*kahan tún*  
 CON:speak she  
 she said.'

(See also 7.3, 7.4, 7.44, 7.48, 7.52, and 7.107.)

In future speech, the verb of the introducer is in potential aspect, and the closer is a subject complement construction (see 1.1.9) with the pre-stressed potential aspect form of the verb *koo* 'to exist' as its main verb.

*káhān tún / kwiin ú ∅ / ko kahan tún*  
 POT:speak she POT:buy I UN POT:exist POT:speak she  
 'She will say, "I'll buy it," she'll say.'

Two quotations in chapter 7 span more than a single sentence; they are: 7.97–99 and 7.119–20.

#### 6.4 Relations Across Sentence Boundaries

In sentence-initial position certain elements occur that serve to link the sentence to its preceding discourse context. These elements include con-



junctions, adverbs and short adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, and occasionally, a deictic or preposition.

Sentences within a discourse are most commonly introduced by the conjunction *ne* ‘and’, which serves to move the action or argument forward as well as to provide continuity within the discourse.

*ñéhē u nūndūvé sho máū // ne dōó kakān davi*  
 COM:go I Oaxaca moon May and INTS CON:fall rain  
 ‘I went to Oaxaca in May. And it was raining a lot

*ikān // ne ndavā ú itsi kān*  
 there and COM:slip I trail there  
 there. And I slipped on the road.’

(See also 7.1–2, 7.4–5, 7.5–6, 7.6–7, 7.7–8, 7.8–9, 7.9–10, 7.12–13, and various others.)

An unexpected circumstance or sequence of events is frequently introduced by *ndá* or *ndá tsi* ‘but’.

*shéē ú nu vihi ñā //*  
 COM:arrive I face house person  
 ‘I arrived at their house.

*ndá tsi shosho ndóo i kān*  
 but LIM nobody CON:sit:PL UN there  
 But there was nobody there.’

(See also 7.3–4, 7.36–37, 7.91–92, and 7.95–96.

The conjunction *tsí* ‘because’ or ‘for’ often introduces explanatory material.

*káhin o ñūkohsho // tsí dōo njo káhin u*  
 POT:go we:IN Mexico:City because INTS CON:want POT:go I  
 ‘Let’s go to Mexico City! For I really want to go.’

(See also 7.11–12, 7.15–16, 7.18–19, 7.39–40, 7.41–42, 7.69–70, and 7.97–98.)

Sometimes an adverb, adverb phrase, or prepositional phrase in focus position (see 1.1.8) has a discourse-linking function. Some of the adverbs

that occur in this position are complex, and certain locative forms are used with temporal meanings.

*téni t̄ ní ndute k̄ān //*  
 COM:drown it:AML face water there  
 'It drowned in the water.'

*ikan tsī shihi t̄ //*  
 there LIM COM:die it:AML  
 It died RIGHT (THEN AND) THERE.

*ikan nd̄hi kwendu īā tsidō*  
 there COM:finish story thing rabbit  
 THERE ends the story (Sp. *cuento*) about the rabbit.'

*ndio t̄n nuni //*  
 CON:want she corn  
 'She needed corn.'

*dukwān é ñehé tun k̄anjutsi*  
 thus CMP COM:go she San:Miguel  
 THUS (it was) that she went to San Miguel.'

(See also 7.46–47, 7.47–48, 7.56–57, 7.73–74, 7.74–75, and 7.105–106.)

In the following example, the second sentence contains a prepositional phrase, and the other three contain simple or complex temporal adverbs.

*dihna k̄hin ná kuchaña //*  
 earlier POT:go he Tehuacán  
 'FIRST he will go to Tehuacán.'

*da kidāā ne / k̄hin nā n̄ndūvé //*  
 when then and POT:go he Oaxaca  
 THEN he will go to Oaxaca.

*da rko nd̄ví k̄hin ná ñukohsho //*  
 when ? day POT:go he Mexico:City  
 AFTERWARDS he will go to Mexico City.

*nì dukwan kundēu ú na*  
 whole thus POT:wait I him  
 MEANWHILE I will wait for him.'

It is possible for a sentence to begin with both a conjunction and a focused adverb, adverb phrase, or prepositional phrase, as seen in 7.5, 7.10, 7.24, 7.29, 7.43, 7.46, 7.92, 7.102, 7.122, and 7.123.)

Sometimes the deictic *tsikān* 'that' is used to express cause.

*dōo vihshín vevii //*  
 INTS cold today  
 'It's very cold out today.

*tsikān ne / ñá káhín u*  
 that and NEG POT:go I  
 THEREFORE, I'm not going.'

*dōo vihshín vevii //*  
 INTS cold today.  
 'It's very cold out today.

*tsikān é ña káhín ú*  
 that CMP NEG POT:go I  
 THAT'S WHY I'm not going.'

The preposition *ndeé* 'against' sometimes occurs at the beginning of a negative sentence following another negative sentence, in which case it means 'nor'.

*ñá ni ñēhé xwaan //*  
 NEG CF COM:go John  
 'John didn't go.

*ndē ña ni ñéhe ú dī*  
 against NEG CF COM:go I also  
 Nor did I go.' or 'John didn't go. I didn't go either.'



## 7

## Text

7.1 *iha ndaa ú un kwendu iña a tsídō /*  
 here POT:tell I one story thing DIM rabbit  
 'Now I'll tell a story (Sp. *cuento*) about a rabbit,

*ndé o dé tì nduvi dihna /*  
 how CON:exist COM:do it:AML day earlier  
 about what it did when it lived a long time ago,

*da ika tì / un kwendu iña a tsído /*  
 when COM:walk it:AML one story thing DIM rabbit  
 a story about a rabbit

*kāi éshi itú*  
 animal COM:eat cornfield  
 that ate a cornfield.'

7.2 *ne / tōhó itú san ne / ñá kaīní tun*  
 and owner cornfield that and NEG CON:see she  
 'As for the owner of the cornfield, she didn't know

*shoó kaehshí i itú tun /*  
 who CON:eat UN cornfield her  
 who was eating her cornfield,

*ne dōó dutsī kwini tun*  
 and INTS angry CON:feel her  
 and she was very angry.'

7.3 *shoó ndu kaeshí i itú kō /*  
 who INT CON:eat UN cornfield US:IN  
 ‘ “Who has been eating our cornfield?”

*sá kahan tún da násheé tun*  
 so CON:speak she when COM:REP:arrive she  
 she said when she arrived back

*nú vīhi tún kān*  
 face house her there  
 at her house.’

7.4 *ndá tsi iō é vii ō*  
 but LIM CON:exist UN POT:do we:IN  
 ‘ “But there is something we can do

*dá nīhi ko*  
 when POT:get us:IN  
 to find out

*shoo é kaeshí i itú kō /*  
 who CMP CON:eat UN cornfield US:IN  
 who it is that has been eating our cornfield,”

*sá kahan tún*  
 so CON:speak she  
 she said.’

7.5 *ne / kidāā né / dē váha tún shume nūñu /*  
 and then and COM:do good she wax wild:bee  
 ‘So then, she formed beeswax

*vata kaa un ñaha*  
 as CON:be:SG one person  
 to look like a person,

*ne / dā í shtúví tun ∅*  
 and when COM:go POT:COL:sit:SG she UN  
 and then she went and set it

*má itú tun kán*  
 under cornfield her there  
 in her cornfield.'

- 7.6 *ne dā sheé a tsidō sán ne /*  
 and when COM:arrive DIM rabbit that and  
 'And when the rabbit arrived,

*katsishehe ñ̃ ī*  
 CON:ask it:AML UN  
 it asked it,

*ndē o de-n /*  
 how CON:exist CON:do-you:SG  
 "What are you doing

*kwán o nuu-n iha /*  
 thus CON:exist CON:be:in:SG-you:SG here  
 in here like this?"

*sá kahan ñ̃*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.'

- 7.7 *ne / ñ̃á ni káhan ∅ /*  
 and NEG CF COM:speak UN  
 'But it didn't answer

*tsí ñ̃a te ñ̃aha ni kúvi ∅ /*  
 because NEG if person CF COM:become UN  
 because it wasn't A PERSON

*tsí kūdii shúme kúvi ∅*  
 because merely wax COM:become UN  
 for it was only made of wax.'

- 7.8 *ne / kakahan túku a tsidō sán /*  
 and CON:speak REP DIM rabbit that  
 'And the rabbit spoke again,

*“buenos días” / sá kahan túku tí*  
 good days so CON:speak REP it:AML  
 “Good (Sp.) morning (Sp.)!” it said again.’

7.9 *ne / ñá ni káhan túku Ø*  
 and NEG CF COM:speak REP UN  
 ‘But again it didn’t answer.’

7.10 *ne / kidáā ne / kakahan tí/*  
 and then and CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘So then, it said,

*ndé kwi kakudiin ndu-n /*  
 how CON:happen CON:become:fierce INT-you:SG  
 “Why are you getting angry?”

*sá kahan tí*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

7.11 *ndé kwi ña te kakáhan ndu-n /*  
 how CON:happen NEG if CON:speak INT-you:SG  
 ‘ “Why don’t you answer

*é kākahán u ni ō / sá kahan tí*  
 CMP CON:speak I with you:SG so CON:speak it:AML  
 when I speak to you?” it said.’

7.12 *tsí tē ñá ne /*  
 because if NEG and  
 ‘ “Because if not,

*nakīshi ú un nda kwaha kó sa /*  
 POT:CAUS:come I one hand right me this  
 I’ll punch (you with) my right hand,

*ne un tsi nde dáha kan*  
 and one LIM against over there  
 and I’ll leave you sitting



*nashtúví*            *u o /*  
 POT:REP:COL:sit:SG    I    you:SG  
 WAY OVER THERE!"

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 SO CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.13 *ne nálahin ndíhshe sá tsi ∅*  
 and COM:CAUS:GO truly only LIM UN  
 'And it really did punch (it) just then

*á ndaha i / ne /*  
 DIM hand UN and  
 (with) its paw, and

*ikan tsī tīn ndēe á ndaha i*  
 there LIM COM:grab against DIM hand UN  
 RIGHT THERE its paw stuck to it.'

- 7.14 *ne dōó dutsī kwini a tsídō sán*  
 and INTS angry CON:feel DIM rabbit that  
 'And the rabbit was very angry

*e tīn ∅ ndaha tī*  
 CMP COM:grab UN hand it:AML  
 that it grabbed its paw.'

- 7.15 *ne / kakahán sa tī /*  
 and CON:speak only it:AML  
 'And it just said,

*ndé kwi katīn ndu-n ndaha kó/*  
 how CON:happen CON:grab INT-you:SG hand me  
 "Why are you grabbing my hand?"

*sá kahan tī.*  
 SO CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.'

- 7.16 *tsí tē nā ne / nakīhshi ú*  
 because if NEG and POT:CAUS:COME I  
 ‘ “Because if not, I’ll kick (you with)

*un dīhīn dātsin kó san /*  
 one foot left me that  
 my left foot,

*ne / un tsi nde maa i kan*  
 and one LIM against under UN there  
 and I’ll leave you

*nashnúu ú o /*  
 POT:REP:COL:be:in:SG I you:SG  
 ALL THE WAY DOWN THERE!”

*sá kahan tī*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.17 *ne nákihīn ndīhshe sá tsi ∅*  
 and COM:CAUS:go truly only LIM UN  
 ‘And it really did kick (it with)

*dīhīn dātsin i /*  
 foot left UN  
 its left foot,

*ne ikan tsī tīn ndēe túku dīhīn tī*  
 and there LIM COM:grab against REP foot it:AML  
 and RIGHT THERE its foot stuck again.’

- 7.18 *ne / kakahan túku tī /*  
 and CON:speak REP it:AML  
 ‘And again it said,

*ndé kwi katīn ndu-n dīhīn kó /*  
 how CON:happen CON:grab INT-you:SG foot me  
 “Why are you grabbing my foot?”

*sa kahan t̃i*  
 SO CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.'

- 7.19 *tsí tē ñá ne /*  
 because if NEG and  
 ' "Because if not,

*nak̃hshi u d̃h̃in kwāha kó san /*  
 POT:CAUS:come I foot right me that  
 I'll kick (you with) my right foot,

*ne un tsi nde dáha kan*  
 and one LIM against over there  
 and I'll toss you

*nakw̃tá u o / sá kahan t̃i*  
 POT:CAUS:go:down I you:SG so CON:speak it:AML  
 WAY OVER THERE!" it said.'

- 7.20 *ne / nákh̃in nd̃hshe sá tsi ∅*  
 and COM:CAUS:go truly only LIM UN  
 'And it really did kick (it) just then

*d̃h̃in kwāha i /*  
 foot right UN  
 (with) its right foot,

*ne ikan ts̃i t̃in ndēe túku ∅*  
 and there LIM COM:grab against REP UN  
 and RIGHT THERE it stuck again.'

- 7.21 *ne / kakahan t̃i / ndé kwi*  
 and CON:speak it:AML how CON:happen  
 'And it said, "Why

*katĩn ndu-n d̃h̃in kó / sa kahan t̃i*  
 CON:grab INT-you:SG foot me so CON:speak it:AML  
 are you grabbing my foot?" it said.'

7.22 *tsí tē nā́ ne /*  
 because if NEG and  
 ‘ “Because if not,

*nakīhshi ú nda dā́sin kó san /*  
 POT:CAUS:COME I hand left me that  
 I’ll hit (you with) my left hand,

*ne un tsi nde maa i kan*  
 and one LIM against under UN there  
 and I’ll toss you

*nakwī́tá u o / sá kahan tí*  
 POT:CAUS:go:down I you:SG so CON:speak it:AML  
 WAY DOWN THERE!’ it said.’

7.23 *ne / ná́kā́hin túku sá tsi ∅*  
 and COM:CAUS:GO REP only LIM UN  
 ‘And it punched (it) again just then

*nda dā́sin i /*  
 hand left UN  
 (with) its left paw,

*ne ikan tsí tī́n ndéé ndī́hi ndaha i*  
 and there LIM COM:grab against all hand UN  
 and all its paws stuck RIGHT THERE.’

7.24 *ne ikan tsí tī́n ndéé kanií ∅ kī́daa*  
 and there LIM COM:grab against whole UN then  
 ‘And the whole thing stuck then RIGHT THERE.’

7.25 *ne / kó da kā́ka chu ndáa ∅*  
 and ? only CON:speak ? straight UN  
 ‘And it was sitting there in the cornfield

*uví ∅ má itú kā́n /*  
 CON:sit:SG UN under cornfield there  
 doing nothing but hollering

*dá shēe tánū tó itú san*  
 when COM:arrive female owner cornfield that  
 when the owner of the cornfield arrived.'

- 7.26 *ne / dōo diní tun / é tūví tì*  
 and INTS happy her CMP CON:sit:SG it:AML  
 'And she was delighted (to find) it sitting

*má itú kân / dá sheé tun*  
 under cornfield there when COM:arrive she  
 there in the cornfield when she arrived.'

- 7.27 *ne / náku nīhi tún tì /*  
 and COM:REP:become with she it:AML  
 'And she picked it up

*kunú nīhi tun tì nú vihi tún kân*  
 INC:return with she it:AML face house her there  
 and took it home with her.'

- 7.28 *ne / dā násheé tun*  
 and when COM:REP:arrive she  
 'And when she got back

*nú vihi tún kân ne /*  
 face house her there and  
 to her house,

*shnu kutū tún tì ini akú kân*  
 COM:COL:be:in:SG tight she it:AML insides fence there  
 she locked it up in a cage.'

- 7.29 *ne / ikân nuu tì /*  
 and there CON:be:in:SG it:AML  
 'And it was in THERE

*sheé a shté san ne / katsishehē ∅ /*  
 COM:arrive DIM coyote that and CON:ask UN  
 when the coyote arrived, and it asked,

*ndé o de-n /*  
 how CON:exist CON:do-you:SG  
 “What are you doing

*kwán o nuu-n íha /*  
 thus CON:exist CON:be:in:SG-you:SG here  
 in here like this?”

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

7.30 *íha nuu ú / kade tsiñu ú /*  
 here CON:be:in:SG I CON:do work I  
 ‘ “I’m in HERE working,”

*sa kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

7.31 *katsishehē á shteé san tí /*  
 CON:ask DIM coyote that it:AML  
 ‘The coyote asked it,

*vāhá ō kandáhvi ña o /*  
 good CON:exist CON:pay person you:SG  
 “Do they pay you WELL?”

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

7.32 *kandávi váha ñā kó /*  
 CON:pay good person me  
 ‘ “They pay me well,”

*sá kahan á tsídō san*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

- 7.33 *ne / dōo vá o kaito ña kó dī /*  
 and INTS good CON:exist CON:look person me also  
 ‘ “And they also take VERY GOOD care of me,”

*sá kahan tī*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.34 *daha kân dī ne / iha kakahan ña /*  
 over there also and here CON:speak person  
 ‘ “Moreover,<sup>1</sup> NOW they say

*é kâni vihi ú nī dyóko ñā /*  
 CMP POT:set:up house I with daughter person  
 that I should marry their daughter,”

*sá kahan a tsídō san*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

- 7.35 *kūdii dá kakáhan ña /*  
 merely only CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘It was only saying (that)

*da ii kukūi ∅ nima á shtéé san /*  
 when ? POT:go:down UN heart DIM coyote that  
 in order that the coyote would agree (Sp. *ánima*)

*nakunúu ∅*  
 POT:REP:get:in:SG UN  
 to get in

*kwenda iña tī*  
 account thing it:AML  
 in its place (Sp. *cuenta*).’

- 7.36 *sá kahan tī tsí ña shkúndení tī /*  
 so CON:speak it:AML because NEG CON:like it:AML  
 ‘It said that it didn’t want

---

<sup>1</sup>The expression *daha kân dī* is an idiom meaning ‘moreover’.

*é kani vi nihi t̄ dyóko ñā*  
 CMP POT:set:up house with it:AML daughter person  
 to marry their daughter.'

- 7.37 *ndá tē d̄ ðivi ka ku ndō /*  
 but if also same more EMPH you:PL  
 ' "If only (it were) YOU!"

*sá kahan t̄ nī á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak it:AML with DIM coyote that  
 it said to the coyote.'

- 7.38 *ndāa kahan-n /*  
 straight CON:speak-you:SG  
 ' "Are you telling THE TRUTH?"

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

- 7.39 *tē d̄ kaindeni ndo ne /*  
 if also CON:like you:PL and  
 ' "If you'd like to,

*nakunúu ndo*  
 POT:REP:get:in:SG you:PL  
 get in (here)

*kwenda iñá ko /*  
 account thing me  
 in my place,"

*sá kahan a tsídō san*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.40 *tsi dóo kandini i ndé koo*  
 because INTS CON:worry UN how POT:exist  
 'For it was very worried about how



*nakáku*             $\emptyset$  / *e*    *téku*    *i*  
 POT:REP:be:born    UN    CMP    COM:hear    UN  
 it would escape, having heard

*é*    *kāhan*    *tun*    *é*    *tāka*    *ihni*  
 CMP    COM:speak    she    CMP    poker    hot  
 her say that she would

*kāmi*    *nuu*    *tún*    *etí*    *i*  
 POT:burn    face    she    bottom    UN  
 burn its bottom WITH A HOT POKER.'

- 7.41 *ne* / *á*    *shtéé*    *san*    *ne* /  
 and    DIM    coyote    that    and  
 'As for the coyote,

*kūkī*            *ndihshe*    *sá*    *tsi*     $\emptyset$     *nima*    *i* /  
 INC:go:down    truly    only    LIM    UN    heart    UN  
 it really did just then agree

*nakunúu*             $\emptyset$   
 POT:REP:get:in:SG    UN  
 to get in

*kwenda*    *iña*    *tí*  
 account    thing    it:AML  
 in place of it.'

- 7.42 *tsi*            *dóo*    *diní*    *i* / *é*    *kāhan*            *tí*  
 because    INTS    happy    UN    CMP    COM:speak            it:AML  
 'For it was very happy that it said

*é*    *divi*     $\emptyset$     *kani*            *vi*    *nihī*     $\emptyset$   
 CMP    same    UN    POT:set:up    house    with    UN  
 that IT should be the one to marry

*dyóko*    *ñā*  
 daughter    person  
 their daughter.'

- 7.43 *ne ikān nakáku tí/*  
and there COM:REP:be:born it:AML  
'And THERE it escaped,

*ne / kwéhen tĩ*  
and INC:go it:AML  
and it took off.'

- 7.44 *ne / dā kwáa ne / kakahan túku tún /*  
and when COM:become:late and CON:speak REP she  
'And when it got late, she said,

*nē ndú ura kami núu o tāka ihni*  
what INT hour POT:burn face we:IN poker hot  
"What time (Sp. *hora*) shall we burn

*etĩ i é nuu*  
bottom UN CMP CON:be:in:SG  
with a hot poker the bottom of that one

*ini akú kān / kahan tún*  
insides fence there CON:speak she  
that is in the cage?" she said.'

- 7.45 *ne / da kúduhva á shteé san /*  
and only COM:become:thus DIM coyote that  
'And the coyote was astonished

*da téku i é kāhan tun*  
when COM:hear UN CMP COM:speak she  
when it heard her say that she was going to

*é kāmi nuu tún tāka ihni etĩ i*  
CMP POT:burn face she poker hot bottom UN  
burn its bottom with a hot poker.'

- 7.46 *ne / kidāā ne / dōo dé kwe iní i /*  
and then and INTS COM:do measure insides UN  
'And so then, it thought very hard,

*ndé koo ndu / é kwan koó Ø /*  
 how POT:exist INT CMP thus POT:exist UN  
 ‘How can this be?’

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

- 7.47 *duhva ndū ó sa*  
 thus INT CON:exist only  
 ‘ “Is THIS why the fellow

*un inu na inúu díhna /*  
 one COM:run he COM:get:in:SG earlier  
 who was in (here) before ran (away)?”

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

- 7.48 *vihí a ve ne / tahvi o Ø vē /*  
 while here now and POT:break we:IN UN now  
 ‘ “In a little while now we will break it

*dá ndü ō /*  
 when POT:REP:go:down we:IN  
 and get out,”

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

- 7.49 *ne / tahvi ndíhshe tí Ø /*  
 and COM:break truly it:AML UN  
 ‘And it really did break it,

*né dā ndü tí*  
 and when COM:REP:go:down it:AML  
 and then it got out.’

- 7.50 *ne dā ndū tì ne /*  
 and when COM:REP:go:down it:AML and  
 ‘And when it got out,  
  
*dōó dutsī kwini tì*  
 INTS angry CON:feel it:AML  
 it was very angry.’
- 7.51 *vevī tsi kahshi tì a tsidō sán*  
 today LIM POT:eat it:AML DIM rabbit that  
 ‘It was going to eat that rabbit RIGHT AWAY.’
- 7.52 *ne kakahan tì / vihi a ve ne /*  
 and CON:speak it:AML while here now and  
 ‘And it said, “In a little while now  
  
*kì nandúku o ī/*  
 POT:go POT:REP:look:for we:IN UN  
 we’ll go look for it,  
  
*ne dá káhshi o i /*  
 and when POT:eat we:IN UN  
 and then we’ll eat it,”  
  
*sá kahan á shtéé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’
- 7.53 *ne / kwéhen ndīhshe tì /*  
 and INC:go truly it:AML  
 ‘And it really did go  
  
*ku nandúku tì a tsidō san*  
 INC:go POT:REP:look:for it:AML DIM rabbit that  
 look for the rabbit  
  
*dá káhshi tì i*  
 when POT:eat it:AML UN  
 to eat it.’

- 7.54 *ne / dā náníhi t̃i i ne /*  
 and when COM:REP:get it:AML UN and  
 ‘And when it found it, it was already

*é maestrú sa tsi kade ∅*  
 already teacher only LIM CON:do UN  
 just then acting as a teacher (Sp. *maestro*).’

- 7.55 *nuu sá ∅ / kanakwahā ∅ /*  
 CON:be:in:SG only UN CON:CAUS:learn UN  
 ‘It was inside teaching

*dá shee t̃i*  
 when COM:arrive it:AML  
 when it arrived.’

- 7.56 *ne / dā shee t̃i ne /*  
 and when COM:arrive it:AML and  
 ‘And when it arrived,

*kakahan t̃i / ndé o de-n /*  
 CON:speak it:AML how CON:exist CON:do-you:SG  
 it said, “What are you doing

*kwán o nuu-n iha /*  
 thus CON:exist CON:be:in:SG-you:SG here  
 in here like this?”

*sá kahan t̃i*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.57 *iha nuu ú a /*  
 here CON:be:in:SG I here  
 ‘ “Here I am in HERE,”

*sá kahan a tsídō san*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

7.58 *ne / kakahan á shtéé san /*  
 and CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 ‘And the coyote said,

*vihí a ve ne /*  
 while here now and  
 “In a little while now,

*kahshi ú o ve / sá kahan tí*  
 POT:eat I you:SG now so CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘I’m going to eat you!” it said.’

7.59 *ne / a tsídō sán ne / kakahan tí /*  
 and DIM rabbit that and CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘And as for the rabbit, it said,

*ndé kwi kahshí ndo ko /*  
 how CON:happen POT:eat you:PL me  
 “Why are you going to eat me?”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

7.60 *te kākakin ndo ne /*  
 if CON:be:hungry you:PL and  
 ‘ “If you’re hungry,

*nakwaha ndo na kwetsī sán /*  
 POT:CAUS:learn you:PL boy small:PL that  
 you teach the children,

*ne nā ká kihí u é káhshi ndo /*  
 and HORT POT:go POT:take I UN POT:eat you:PL  
 and let me go get something for you to eat!”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

- 7.61 *ne / a shteé san ne / kakahan tí /*  
 and DIM coyote that and CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘And as for the coyote, it said,

*ñáhā / tsí divī-n é káhshi ú o /*  
 no because same-you:SG CMP POT:eat I you:SG  
 “No, because YOU are the one I’m going to eat,”

*sá kahan tí*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.62 *ñáhā / sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 no so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 ‘ “No!” said the rabbit.’

- 7.63 *nakwāha ndo na kwetsi sán /*  
 POT:CAUS:learn you:PL boy small:PL that  
 ‘ “You teach the children;

*nā ké kihí u é káhshi ndo /*  
 HORT POT:go POT:take I UN POT:eat you:PL  
 let me go get something for you to eat!”

*sá kahan tí*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.64 *ne / kúkī sa tsí ∅*  
 and INC:go:down only LIM UN  
 ‘And the coyote just then

*nima á shteé san*  
 heart DIM coyote that  
 agreed to it.’

- 7.65 *ndāa kahan-n / sá kahan tí*  
 straight CON:speak-you:SG so CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘ “Do you mean it?” it said.’

- 7.66 *ne / kīhi sá tsi á shteé san regla /*  
 and COM:take only LIM DIM coyote that ruler  
 ‘And the coyote just picked up a ruler (Sp. *regla*)

*kánakwaha ∅ na kwetsī sán*  
 CON:CAUS:learn UN boy small:PL that  
 and taught the children.’

- 7.67 *ne / kakahán sa ∅ / “atención, niños” /*  
 and CON:speak only UN attention children  
 ‘And it just said, “Attention (Sp.),

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 children (Sp. *niños*)!” said the coyote.’

- 7.68 *ne dōtó kandétu tī*  
 and haphazardly CON:wait it:AML  
 ‘And it waited in vain (to find out)

*né ura nasheé a tsidō san /*  
 what hour POT:REP:arrive DIM rabbit that  
 what time the rabbit would get back

*é kū nakihí tī*  
 CMP INC:go POT:REP:take it:AML  
 from going to get

*é kāhshi á shteé san*  
 UN POT:eat DIM coyote that  
 something for the coyote to eat.’

- 7.69 *mīhi ndu kū nakihí tī ∅*  
 where INT INC:go POT:REP:take it:AML UN  
 ‘Where did it ever go get it?’

- 7.70 *tsí kudü inu kwehen tī*  
 because merely COM:run completely it:AML  
 ‘For it simply ran away.’



- 7.71 *ne dā ña ni nashée kwéhen t̃i*  
 and when NEG CF COM:REP:arrive completely it:AML  
 ‘And when it didn’t arrive back at all,

*ne / kwéhēn á shtéé san /*  
 and INC:go DIM coyote that  
 the coyote went

*kū nandúku t̃i t̃i*  
 INC:go POT:REP:look:for it:AML it:AML  
 to look for it.’

- 7.72 *ne / dā nánihi t̃i a tsídō sán*  
 and when COM:REP:get it:AML DIM rabbit that  
 ‘And when it found the rabbit,

*ne / e dík̃i tun m̃hnde tsí kan*  
 and already head tree prickly:pear LIM there  
 the rabbit was already perched

*ndēku a tsídō sán*  
 CON:be:on:SG DIM rabbit that  
 ON TOP OF A PRICKLY PEAR.’

- 7.73 *ne / dā shee á shtéé san ne /*  
 and when COM:arrive DIM coyote that and  
 ‘And when the coyote arrived,

*kakahan t̃i / ndé o de-n /*  
 CON:speak it:AML how CON:exist CON:do-you:SG  
 it said, “What are you doing,

*kwán o ndeku-n a/*  
 thus CON:exist CON:be:on:SG-you:SG here  
 sitting up here like this?”

*sá kahan t̃i*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

7.74 *iha ndekú u /*  
 here CON:be:on:sg I  
 ‘“I’m sitting UP HERE

*kaehshi ú káí mihndé san /*  
 CON:eat I fruit prickly:pear that  
 eating the prickly pears,”

*sá kahan a tsídō san*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

7.75 *vihí a ve ne / nuu-n*  
 while here now and POT:come:down-you:sg  
 ‘“So now, come down

*ñuhu a / dá káhshi ú o /*  
 ground here when POT:eat I you:sg  
 to the ground here; then I’ll eat you!”

*sá kahan á shité san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

7.76 *ne / kakahan a tsídō san /*  
 and CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 ‘And the rabbit said,

*ndé kwi kahshi ndó ko /*  
 how CON:happen POT:eat you:PL me  
 “Why are you going to eat me?”

*sá kahan í*  
 so CON:speak it  
 it said.’

7.77 *ña káhshi ndo é kaehshi ú san /*  
 NEG POT:eat you:PL UN CON:eat I that  
 ‘“Won’t you eat what I’m eating?”’

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.78 *ñáhā / tsí divī-n é káhshi ú o /*  
 no because same-you:SG CMP POT:eat I you:SG  
 '“No, because IT'S YOU that I'm going to eat!”

*sá kahan á shtéé sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

- 7.79 *ñáhā / kahshí ka ndo é kaehshi ú san ni /*  
 no POT:eat more you:PL UN CON:eat I that therefore  
 '“No, eat what I'm eating!”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.80 *ña dínī ndo / e dóo vá ehshí ∅ /*  
 NEG happy you:PL CMP INTS good CON:eat UN  
 '“Aren't you glad that it really tastes good?”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.81 *ñáhā / tsí divī-n é káhshi ú o /*  
 no because same-you:SG CMP POT:eat I you:SG  
 '“No, because it's YOU that I'm going to eat!”

*sá kahan á shtéé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

- 7.82 *ne / kaehshí a tsídō sán /*  
 and CON:eat DIM rabbit that  
 'And the rabbit (went on) eating,

*ñā káde t̄ kwenda*  
 NEG CON:do it:AML account  
 not paying any attention.'

- 7.83 *un tsi káikwehe shúhu t̄ /*  
 one LIM COM:become:red mouth it:AML  
 'Its mouth got all red

*kaeshi t̄ k̄it̄ mihndé san*  
 CON:eat it:AML fruit prickly:pear that  
 from eating the prickly pears.'

- 7.84 *ne / kakahān t̄ /*  
 and CON:speak it:AML  
 'And it said,

*ñā tē ndé kaa vá ēhshi é kaēhshi ú /*  
 NEG if how CON:be good CON:eat UN CON:eat I  
 "These things I'm eating taste REALLY GOOD,"

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.85 *ñā káshi ndíhshe ndú ndo ∅ /*  
 NEG POT:eat truly INT you:PL UN  
 ' "Won't you really eat any?"

*sá kahan t̄ nī á shtéé san*  
 so CON:speak it:AML with DIM coyote that  
 it said to the coyote.'

- 7.86 *ñáhā / tsí divī-n*  
 no because same-you:SG  
 ' "No, because it's YOU

*é vevíí tsi kahshi ú o / kwini ko /*  
 CMP today LIM POT:eat I you:SG CON:feel me  
 that I'm going to eat RIGHT NOW, I think,"

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

- 7.87 *ñáhā / sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 no so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 '“No!” said the rabbit.'

- 7.88 *kahshí ka ndo é kaēhshi ú sa ni /*  
 POT:eat more you:PL UN CON:eat I this therefore  
 '“Eat what I'm eating!”'

*sá kahan tí nī á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak it:AML with DIM coyote that  
 it said to the coyote.'

- 7.89 *ne / kúkī ∅ nima á shteé san /*  
 and INC:go:down UN heart DIM coyote that  
 'And the coyote agreed

*éhshi ∅ ∅*  
 COM:eat UN UN  
 to eat it.'

- 7.90 *uun tsi ∅ nakihshi-n /*  
 one LIM UN POT:CAUS:come-you:SG  
 '“Toss me JUST ONE;

*na kōto ndeé u ∅ ni /*  
 HORT POT:look against I UN therefore  
 let me try it then!"'

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

- 7.91 *ne / náköshó ndihshe tí uun ∅ /*  
 and COM:CAUS:fall truly it:AML one UN  
 'And it really did drop one

*éhshi á shtéé san*  
COM:eat DIM coyote that  
for the coyote to eat.'

- 7.92 *ndá tsi dihna de váha tì iñu i /*  
but LIM earlier COM:do good it:AML thorn UN  
'But FIRST it removed its spines;

*da shēhé tì ∅ /*  
when COM:give it:AML UN  
then it gave it

*éhshi á shtéé san*  
COM:eat DIM coyote that  
to the coyote to eat.'

- 7.93 *ne / kakahan túku a tsídō san /*  
and CON:speak REP DIM rabbit that  
'And the rabbit said again,

*kahshí ka ndo ∅ / sá kahan tì*  
POT:eat more you:PL UN so CON:speak it:AML  
"Eat another one!" it said.'

- 7.94 *uun sá ∅ nakwítá-n /*  
one only UN POT:CAUS:go:down-you:SG  
' "Toss down JUST ONE MORE

*na káhshi ú ∅ / sá kahan á shtéé san*  
HORT POT:eat I UN so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
for me to eat!" said the coyote.'

- 7.95 *nákwítá ndihshe tì uun ká ∅*  
COM:CAUS:go:down truly it:AML one more UN  
'It really did toss another one down.'

- 7.96 *ndá tsi ña ni de váha ká tì iñu i*  
but LIM NEG CF COM:do good more it:AML thorn UN  
'But it no longer removed its spines.'

7.97 *ne / kakahan tí /*  
 and CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘And it said,

*ndá tsi ña níhi kahshi ndó/*  
 but LIM NEG POT:get POT:eat you:PL  
 ‘But you won’t get any of it to eat

*te nakwítá u Ø*  
 if POT:CAUS:go:down I UN  
 if I toss it down.’

7.98 *tsi sáha ne / un váha tsi itsi Ø*  
 because this and one good LIM ripe UN  
 ‘Because this one, it’s REALLY ripe.’

7.99 *te nakōhshó u Ø ne/*  
 if POT:CAUS:fall I UN and  
 ‘If I drop it,

*dikán tsi kunaa Ø /*  
 same:there LIM POT:become:lost UN  
 it’ll get spoiled RIGHT THERE,”

*sá kahan tí nī á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak it:AML with DIM coyote that  
 it said to the coyote.’

7.100 *ndíká ndo shuhu ndo /*  
 POT:open you:PL mouth you:PL  
 ‘ “Open your mouth;

*na nakōshó nuu ú Ø /*  
 HORT POT:CAUS:fall face I UN  
 let me drop it in!”

*sá kahan tí nī á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak it:AML with DIM coyote that  
 it said to the coyote.’

- 7.101 *ne / ndiká ndihshe sá tsi ∅*  
 and COM:open tr<sub>L</sub> only LIM UN  
 ‘And it really did just n open

*shuhu i / ne dē nakwíta nuu tì*  
 mouth UN and when COM:CAUS:go:down face it:AML  
 its mouth, and then it tossed

*shuhu i kitì iñu sán*  
 mouth UN fruit thorny that  
 that spiny fruit down into ITS MOUTH.’

- 7.102 *ne / ikan tsī inú tāhu ∅*  
 and there LIM COM:get:in:SG tight UN  
 ‘And it got stuck RIGHT THERE

*ini dukun i kan*  
 insides neck UN there  
 in its throat.’

- 7.103 *ne / kó da kanatūví ∅ kúñu i /*  
 and ? only CON:CAUS:roll UN body UN  
 ‘And it just went tumbling

*kwēhen ∅ máa i kán*  
 INC:go UN under UN there  
 down (the hill).’

- 7.104 *ne / da nē núu nánehe tì /*  
 and when whole COM:come:down quickly it:AML  
 ‘And in the meantime, it quickly got down

*ínu tì*  
 COM:run it:AML  
 (and) ran away.’

- 7.105 *ne / dá ndē shee tsóko /*  
 and when against POT:arrive ant  
 ‘And it wasn’t until some ants arrived



*dā nátavá tì kitì iñu san*  
 when COM:REP:take:out it:AML fruit thorny that  
 that they removed the spiny fruit

*dukun á shteé san*  
 neck DIM coyote that  
 from the coyote's throat.'

7.106 *da kidáā nákaká ∅ / kwehen ∅*  
 when then COM:REP:walk UN INC:go UN  
 'Then it finally escaped (and) took off.'

7.107 *ne kakahān túku á shteé san /*  
 and CON:speak REP DIM coyote that  
 'And the coyote again said,

*nda víhi a ve ne /*  
 but while here now and  
 "But in a little while now

*kì nandúku o ñña ko ve /*  
 POT:go POT:REP:look:for we:IN thing us:IN now  
 we'll go look for our thing now;

*dā kāhshi o i /*  
 when POT:eat we:IN UN  
 then we'll eat it,"

*sá kahan á shteé san*  
 so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.'

7.108 *ne kwéhen ndíhshe sa á shteé san /*  
 and INC:go truly only DIM coyote that  
 'And the coyote really did then go

*ku nandúku tī a tsídō sán*  
 INC:go POT:REP:look:for it:AML DIM rabbit that  
 to look for the rabbit.'

7.109 *ne / dā náníhi t̄ a tsídō sán ne /*  
 and when COM:REP:get it:AML DIM rabbit that and  
 ‘And when it found the rabbit,

*é ikan tsī nuu sá ∅*  
 already there LIM CON:be:in:SG only UN  
 it was already RIGHT THERE

*diñi ndute kân*  
 side water there  
 beside the river.’

7.110 *ne / dā shee á shtéé san ne /*  
 and when COM:arrive DIM coyote that and  
 ‘And when the coyote arrived,

*katsishehe t̄ / ndé o de-n /*  
 CON:ask it:AML how CON:exist CON:do-you:SG  
 it asked, “What are you doing

*kwán o nuu-n íha/*  
 thus CON:exist CON:be:in:SG-you:SG here  
 here like this?”

*sá kahan t̄*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

7.111 *ne / kakahan á shtéé san /*  
 and CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 ‘And the coyote said,

*vihí a ve ne / kahshi ú o ve /*  
 while here now and POT:eat I you:SG now  
 “In a little while now I’m going to eat you!”

*sá kahan t̄*  
 so CON:speak it:AML  
 it said.’

- 7.112 *ndé kwi káhshi ndó ko /*  
 how CON:happen POT:eat you:PL me  
 ‘ “Why are you going to eat me?”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

- 7.113 *ndé kwi éni ndâhvi ku-n*  
 how CON:happen COM:set:up poor EMPH-you:SG  
 ‘ “Why did you indeed deceive me?”

*kó kwan / sá kahan á shteé san*  
 me thus so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 said the coyote.’

- 7.114 *ne / kakahan a tsídō sán /*  
 and CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 ‘And the rabbit said,

*ama éni ndâhvi u ndo /*  
 when COM:set:up poor I you:PL  
 “When did I ever deceive you?”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

- 7.115 *shú ne / ñá íní u /*  
 I and NEG CON:know I  
 ‘ “Me, I don’t know

*kwán o kahan ndó san /*  
 thus CON:exist CON:speak you:PL that  
 what you’re talking about,”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.’

7.116 *vevii tsi kahshi ú o /*  
 today LIM POT:eat I you:SG  
 ‘ “I’m going to eat you RIGHT NOW,

*kwini ko / sá kahan á shté san*  
 CON:feel me so CON:speak DIM coyote that  
 I think,” said the coyote.’

7.117 *ñáhā / sá kahan a tsidō sán*  
 no so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 ‘ “No!” said the rabbit.’

7.118 *ne kwéhen tsī a tsidō san*  
 and INC:go LIM DIM rabbit that  
 ‘And the rabbit just went

*iní ndute san*  
 insides water that  
 into the water.’

7.119 *ne / kakahan tī /*  
 and CON:speak it:AML  
 ‘And it said,

*tē njo kahshi ndó ko ne /*  
 if CON:want POT:eat you:PL me and  
 “If you want to eat me,

*kihshi ndó / vata ō véhshī ú san*  
 POT:come you:PL as CON:exist INC:come I that  
 come after me (lit. as I have come).’

7.120 *ne / tē she ndikín ndó ko ne /*  
 and if POT:arrive CON:follow you:PL me and  
 ‘And if you catch up with me,

*dá kāhshi ndó ko /*  
 when POT:eat you:PL me  
 then eat me!”

*sá kahan a tsídō sán*  
 so CON:speak DIM rabbit that  
 said the rabbit.'

- 7.121 *ne / kwéhen ndíhshe sá tsi á shteé san*  
 and INC:go truly only LIM DIM coyote that  
 'And the coyote really did just then go (in).'

- 7.122 *ne / ikan tsī téni á shteé san*  
 and there LIM COM:drown DIM coyote that  
 'And the coyote drowned RIGHT THERE

*nú ndute kán*  
 face water there  
 in the water.'

- 7.123 *ne / ikán ndíhi kwendu*  
 and there COM:finish story  
 'And THERE ends the story

*iña a tsído nī á shteé*  
 thing DIM rabbit with DIM coyote  
 about the rabbit and the coyote.'