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**Studies in the  
Syntax of Mixtecan Languages  
3**

**C. Henry Bradley  
and  
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## Abbreviations

ADD	additive	INTS	intensifier
AFF	affirmative	KNO	known object
AML	animal	LIM	limiter
CAUS	causative	LIQ	liquid
CF	contrafactual	lit.	literally
cf.	compare	ME	male ego
CMP	complementizer	MS	man speaking
COL	collectivizer	NEG	negative
COM	completive	PERF	perfective
CON	continuative	PL	plural
DEI	deity	POT	potential
DER	derivational	Reg. Sp.	regional Spanish
DIR	directional	REP	repetitive
EX	exclusive	RES	respect
FAM	familiar	SG	singular
FE	female ego	Sp.	Spanish
GEN	general	SPEC	specifier
HAB	habitual	SPH	spherical
HORT	hortatory	TAG	tag question marker
IMP	imperative	UN	unspecified third person
IN	inclusive	WOD	wood
INAN	inanimate	WS	woman speaking
INC	incompletive	?	gloss unknown
INT	interrogative		

**A Preliminary Syntactic Sketch of  
Concepción Pápalo Cuicatec**

**David P. Bradley**

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# Introduction

## 0.1 Orientation

Cuicatec is spoken by about 10,000 speakers in the district of Cuicatlán, in the northeastern part of the state of Oaxaca, Mexico. These people live primarily in the following towns: Concepción Pápalo, San Andrés Teotilapan, San Francisco Chapulapa, San Juan Bautista Cuicatlán, San Juan Tepeuxila, San Pedro Teutila, Santa María Pápalo, Santa María Tlaxiatac, and Santos Reyes Pápalo (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:vii). Although there are various vocabulary differences and phonetic variations, the inhabitants of the different towns can understand each other's speech with a relatively high degree of intelligibility (Egland 1978:9).

This study is based primarily on data from four published folklore texts (Davis 1954, 1962), all in the Concepción Pápalo dialect. I would like to express my appreciation to the publishers of the *International Journal of American Linguistics* and of *Tlalocan* for granting permission to cite these texts in full as part of this study. They are reproduced, in modified orthographic form and with various other adjustments, including some changes in the location of sentence breaks, in chapter seven. Each of the sentences is numbered for purposes of citation throughout the sketch. Examples from the text about the lion will be cited by sentence number with L as a prefix, while L<sub>o</sub> will be used as the prefix for examples from the locust text. Examples from the text about the woman will be prefixed by w and those from the text about the ghost by g. Sometimes only the relevant part of a sentence is cited.

In an effort to supplement this material, several articles published about this dialect (Needham and Davis 1946, Davis 1952, and Davis and Walker

1955) were consulted, as well as a reconstruction of Proto-Mixtecan (Longacre 1957) and personal communication from Robert E. Longacre. Reference has also been made to a Cuicatec-Spanish dictionary (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983) in the Santa María Pápalo dialect, which showed 98% intelligibility with Concepción Pápalo (Egland 1978:9). Data from the dictionary are cited by page number with the prefix *D* and data from Needham and Davis by page number prefixed by *N*. Some unpublished data from an early linguistic survey of the area were also of value; these data are cited by *s* followed by the page number.

Since most of the data are from narrative texts, this study describes the syntactic structure characteristic of narrative discourse, and any structural differences that might mark other genres of Cuicatec discourse are not reflected here.

Because of the nature of the available data, this study is necessarily limited in some ways. The analysis would be more complete, and more accurate as well, if a native speaker of Cuicatec were available from whom to gather additional data. However, because the available data are from the work of several different analysts, each having used a somewhat different transcription system from the others, there are various inconsistencies within the data corpus as well as some apparent errors. For the sake of uniformity within the sketch, the transcriptions have been modified according to the phonological analysis presented below.

## 0.2 Phonology

Cuicatec has the following segmental phonological units: voiceless stops and affricate *p t ch k kw*, voiceless fricatives *f* (only in Spanish loanwords) *s x*, voiced fricatives *v d*, nasals *m n*, liquids *l r*, semivowel *y*, laryngeal *h* (glottal stop), oral vowels *i e a o u*, and nasalized vowels *in en an on un* (Longacre 1957:16–17,21). Longacre (1957:6) notes that this analysis is essentially the same as that of Needham and Davis (1946) with some minor modifications intended to make the transcription more phonemic. Both the oral set of vowels and the nasalized set can be modified by laryngealization, which is represented by *h* directly preceding the vowel: *hi he ha ho hu* and *hin hen han hon hun*.

There are three tones: high (written with acute accent), mid (written with macron), and low (unmarked). Cuicatec exhibits tone sandhi in which the basic tone of words in isolation is changed in the context of the tones on certain other words (Longacre 1957:96–100). In this sketch the tones have been reproduced as found in the source data and represent surface rather than underlying tone.

The data cited in this sketch vary in transcription from those in the source materials in several ways. As indicated above, nasalized vowels are represented orthographically by *n* following the vowel. In bisyllabic roots with a nasalized final vowel, the nasalization carries backward to the vowel of the preceding syllable if the medial consonant is *h* or *y*, but any other nonnasal consonant effectively blocks this nasalization spreading process (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:775). Medial vowels that are nasalized as a result of this phenomenon are not orthographically represented with a following *n*, and any letter *m* or *n* that occurs medially represents a nasal consonant rather than nasalization on the preceding vowel. Any vowels that are contiguous to a nasal consonant are nasalized, but this is not represented in the orthography.

A second feature which varies from the transcription in the source materials is the location of the laryngeal *h*. When *h* occurs alone intervocalically, i.e., at syllable boundaries, it represents a full glottal stop. In the source materials, laryngeals are often also written preceding onset consonants and seem to correspond to what Anderson and Concepción R. (1983:776) call interrupted (laryngealized) vowels. In this sketch, however, these are represented by *h* preceding the vowel which is laryngealized, rather than preceding the onset consonant. Thus, if *h* is preceded by another consonant in the onset of a syllable or if it is in the first syllable of a word, it represents laryngealization on the following vowel. (There should be no confusion with the sequence *ch*, which represents the alveopalatal affricate, because there is no phoneme represented by *c* alone. A morpheme with a laryngealized vowel following *ch* has the sequence *chh*.) Laryngealization spreads forward across syllable boundaries when there is an intervocalic *y* or *h*, and is not orthographically represented in the second syllable of a word in such cases. However, when other consonants intervene, if both syllables have a laryngealized vowel, the laryngealization is represented orthographically in both syllables.

Because the source data were all in written form rather than oral, there are certain unresolved questions regarding laryngealized vowels. There are occasional inconsistencies in the source data, which may be the result of transcription errors, free variation, or laryngealization loss in unstressed syllables. In this sketch, these discrepancies are resolved in favor of the form used in the dictionary.

A third feature which varies from the transcription in the source materials is vowel length. Stress and vowel length are easily predictable. Roots are either bisyllabic or monosyllabic, and stress occurs on the first syllable. Vowel length is a concomitant of stress and hence does not need to be represented in the orthography (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:777). However, a single syllable frequently carries a tone sequence,

and in such cases the vowel is written twice, each occurrence with the appropriate tone value. This is simply a convenience for writing tone sequences and does not represent vowel length.

Finally, the data from the dictionary, which employs four tones in the orthography, were modified to conform to the three-tone system which was used in the other data sources. Anderson and Concepción R. (1983:780) show that in various situations the two middle tones vary freely with each other. In this sketch, then, in any data from the dictionary the two intermediate tones are both marked with macron, corresponding to the single mid tone in the other sources.

For more on Cuicatec phonology see Needham and Davis (1946), Longacre (1957), and Anderson and Concepción R. (1983).

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# 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 either impersonal, intransitive, or transitive; transitive and intransitive sentences optionally take various kinds of adjuncts. Equative sentences link a subject with a nominal complement, and stative sentences link a subject and a stative verb. Each of these sentence types may take a peripheral location or time element, and they may also 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. These generally express meteorological or ambient concepts such as dawn or nightfall. Although no examples of a minimal impersonal sentence occurred in the data, there were a few examples with peripheral elements or in subordinate sentences.

L12 *chīdāvā tāmá xūvī*  
COM:dawn next day  
It dawned the next day.

D36 *yīdhāhāa*  
CON:nightfall  
Night falls.

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

- S12 *xáā tá*  
 CON:get:up she  
 She is getting up.
- S13 *xākū tá*  
 CON:cry she  
 She is crying.
- L3 *chīnīyáan dāyā ti*  
 COM:be:born child its:AML  
 Their child was born.
- L12 *kwēhén ntō īnó ti*  
 COM:go all three it:AML  
 All three animals set out.
- W1 *chēhēn tá*  
 COM:go she  
 A woman went.

**1.1.3 Transitive sentences.** The minimal form of a transitive sentence consists of a transitive verb followed by its subject and its object. Sometimes the subject is unexpressed if it is readily supplied from the context. In example L5 below, the nucleus of the object noun phrase is also unexpressed (see §3.1.4). Unexpressed elements are enclosed in square brackets in the free translation.

- S13 *xēhē tūhú nīnū*  
 CON:eat chicken corn  
 The chicken is eating the corn.
- L5 *dīn tāvī ālīmētáar lhín mí*  
 COM:do INTS to:feed little that  
 [They] did much to feed the little [animal]. *or* [They] fed the little [animal] very well.
- L14 *nthīchí ti yhān tāvī ūī*  
 COM:see it:AML many INTS animal  
 They saw very many animals.
- L28 *kāanhu sā chūhūnh*  
 POT:kill he us:IN  
 He can kill us.



- L63 *nānthāá ti sāhan mī*  
 COM:untie it:AML man that  
 He freed the man.
- L82 *chhīnhu sā īī*  
 COM:kill he animal  
 He killed the animal.
- G8 *ntāi tá yūuntu*  
 COM:bring she tortilla  
 She brought [out] tortillas.
- G15 *nkwá tūné sá īī*  
 NEG COM:catch he animal  
 He could not catch the animal.

**1.1.4 Sentences with adjuncts.** Both transitive and intransitive sentences may take the following adjuncts: locative, benefactive, associative, instrument, and referent. Adjuncts are frequently expressed by an adverbial noun phrase (see §3.6) or by a prepositional phrase (see §4.3), which follows the subject in intransitive sentences or the object in transitive sentences.

The locative adjunct is manifested by a noun phrase, often without the use of a locative noun or preposition. The meaning of the verb often includes information about the specific locative relationship (see §5.1.1), and sometimes it can be determined from the context of the predication.

With intransitive verbs that express motion or change of location, the locative adjunct expresses position, destination, or source, depending on the meaning of the verb.

- L1 *ūvī iyháyan chīnúū ti īkyahan*  
 two lion COM:walk it:AML forest  
 TWO LIONS were walking in the forest.
- L11 *kāhán ti īkyáhan*  
 POT:go it:AML forest  
 He could go to the forest.
- G2 *kwēhen sá ntūvā*  
 COM:go he Oaxaca  
 He went to the city of Oaxaca.

L25 *tōmhē lhín mí dīn ti rēsivír*  
 then little that COM:do it:AML to:receive

*kōnséxo yēhen chīdā ti*  
 advice base father its:AML

Then THE LITTLE [LION] received [some] advice from his father.

With transitive verbs expressing placement or change of possession, the locative adjunct usually expresses destination.

G12 *chhīī sā xīmá yútā mī*  
 COM:put he salt meat that

He salted the meat. (lit. He put salt on the meat.)

The locative adjunct also includes elements traditionally classified as indirect objects. Normally the direct object precedes the locative adjunct if both are present, unless the direct object comprises a sentential complement (see §1.1.9), in which case it follows the adjunct.

Lo8 *téché sá nínún ú*  
 POT:give he corn me

He is going to give me [some] corn. (lit. He is going to give [some] corn to me.)

L70 *nkwá kūmhī dī sāhan mī ú*  
 NEG POT:show you:SG man that me  
 You won't show me the man.

L72 *chhīhīn sā thūuvi mī ūī*  
 COM:show he trap that animal  
 He showed the trap to the animal.

Lo6 *kúchī dī chāk-ú chī nkwā-á vāha*  
 POT:tell you:SG mother-my CMP NEG:CON:exist-I house  
 You tell my mother that I am not home.

G6 *xāhan tā / xī tá sāhan /*  
 CON:say she CON:tell she man

*dēhe chúka nhān dī*  
 why much late you:SG

She said to him, "Why are you so late?"

- L16 *tōmhé xāhan lyóon / xīi sa dāyá ti / mā né*  
 then CON:say lion CON:tell he child its:AML now and  
*chāa ūī chhūn*  
 which animal this:PL

Then the lion said to his son, “now, which of these animals . . .”

The benefactive adjunct is marked by the prepositions *ntūku* ‘with’ and *kwēnta yehen* ‘on account of’ (Sp. *cuenta* ‘account’), or the locative noun *yehen* ‘base’, which has the extended meaning ‘for’.

- L59 *nēhen dī áamá fāvóor ntūk-ú*  
 CON:want you:SG one favor with-me  
 You want to do a favor for me.

- D751 *chīni nhúun āmā vahā yehēn kun máestro*  
 CON:make we:EX one house base four teacher  
 We are building a house for four teachers (Sp. *maestro*).

- D470 *ntiyūn khu né kwēnta yehen vakyan*  
 job this and account base town  
 THIS JOB is for the town.

The associative adjunct is marked by the preposition *ntūku* ‘with’; it adds a second participant to some other element of the sentence, usually the subject.

- L9 *kūhun-h ntūku dī ikyáhan*  
 POT:go-we:IN with you:SG forest  
 We will go with you to the forest.

- L11 *kāhán ti ikyáhan ntūkū chīdá ti*  
 POT:go it:AML forest with father its:AML  
 He could go to the forest with his father.

- L65 *kwēhēn sā ntūkū ti*  
 COM:go he with it:AML  
 He went with the animal.

Instrument adjuncts also use the preposition *ntūku* ‘with’, or a shortened form *ntū*. In both of the following examples the adjunct is fronted to precede the verb. This may be the typical position for instrument adjuncts, or it may simply indicate a semantic focus (see §1.1.8).

- L19 *ntū áamá tāhā ti stāhā ti ūī lhín mí*  
 with one hand its:AML COM:grab it:AML animal little that  
 He grabbed the little animal WITH ONE OF HIS PAWS.

- L63 *lyóon ntúúku díyhūn ti chīkā ti /*  
 lion with teeth its:AML COM:walk it:AML  
*chēhé ti hīyu*  
 COM:eat it:AML rope  
 THE LION broke the rope WITH HIS TEETH.

The referent adjunct may be expressed by a noun phrase alone, but it may also be marked by the locative noun *yehen* ‘base’, which has the extended meaning ‘about’ or ‘with reference to’.

- Lo3 *chākū sā xēhén ya / xīkā ya nínún sáhan*  
 mother his CON:go person CON:ask person corn man  
 HIS MOTHER would go [and] ask him for corn.
- Lo8 *chākū sā ūēxúnán yá sáhan*  
 mother his CON:ask person man  
 HIS MOTHER asked [about] the man.
- Lo0 *kwēntó yēhen lānkósta*  
 story base locust  
 The story about the locusts
- W0 *ámá kwēntó yēhen ámá nthātā chí chhēno*  
 one story base one woman CMP COM:happen  
 A story about a woman that happened *or* A true story about a woman

More than one adjunct may occur in a given sentence, and the relative order is not fixed. For example, an associative adjunct precedes a locative adjunct in the first example below while in the second the order is reversed.

- L9 *kūhun-h ntúku dī īkyáhan*  
 POT:go-we:1N with you:SG forest  
 We will go with you to the forest.
- L11 *kāhán ti īkyáhan ntūkū chīdá ti*  
 POT:go it:AML forest with father its:AML  
 He could go to the forest with his father.

**1.1.5 Equative sentences.** The minimal form of an equative sentence consists of an equative verb phrase followed by its subject and the nominal complement. Equative verbs include *kūvī* ‘to be’, *nāvākūntāā* ‘to turn into’, and *ōséa* ‘to be’ (probably a loan from Sp. *o sea* ‘or perhaps it is’ or ‘or may it be’). The continuative aspect form of *kūvī* is null (Anderson and

Concepción R. 1983:348). The examples below with no copula all have a focused subject followed by *né* (see §1.1.8).

With no copula:

D348 *sāhan lhín khu né dhīn-ú sāhan*  
 man little this and brother-my man  
 THIS BOY is my brother.

L2 *īī chhūn né īī réi yēhen ikýáhan*  
 animal this:PL and animal king base forest  
 THESE ANIMALS are the kings of the forest.

L15 *īī chhén né kūchí chēenu yhūuvi yhūdú chēenu*  
 animal that:PL and pig mountain coati horse mountain  
*chivī kōnēxó hīmha iyāáta ntūkū más ka īī*  
 armadillo rabbit skunk opossum with more ADD animal  
 THE ANIMALS are peccaries, coatis, deer, armadillos, rabbits, skunks,  
 opossums, and many other animals.

With copula:

G13 *yūta mī nāvākūntāā yáhán tōo*  
 meat that COM:turn:into wood rotten  
 THE MEAT turned into rotten wood.

L20 *ōséa árná kūchí chēeno lhín*  
 COM:be one pig mountain little  
 [It] was a small peccary.

**1.1.6 Stative sentences.** The minimal form of a stative sentence consists of a stative verb followed by its subject. These verbs do not carry inflectional morphology as do the other verb types. Aspect is often interpreted according to the discourse context.

W3 *lóka tā*  
 crazy she  
 She was crazy.

L69 *ú né kwikū ú*  
 I and hungry I  
 I am hungry.

L30 *dūī tāvī ú*  
 strong INTS I  
 I am very strong.

L7 *a chhātā tāvī ti*  
 already big INTS it:AML  
 He was already very big.

w2 *amtá kwīku tā*  
 no:longer hungry she  
 She was no longer hungry.

Sometimes inflected forms of the equative verb *kūvī* ‘to be’, or the position verb *kēnú* ‘to be inside’, are used preceding the stative verb to clarify aspect.

w1 *chī kwīkū tāvī tá*  
 COM:be hungry INTS she  
 She became very hungry.

Lo4 *chī dāanthi sā hīyan*  
 COM:be lazy he person  
 He became lazy.

G3 *táhan mī kēnú dāanthi nāá tá*  
 woman that COM:be:inside lazy face her  
 THE WOMAN became lazy.

**1.1.7 Peripheral elements.** All basic sentence types optionally indicate location and time. Peripheral location describes the setting of an entire predication and so is distinguished from locative adjuncts, which complete the meaning of some verbs. Peripheral elements often occur at the major transition points within a discourse, and they may be expressed by adverbs, adverbial noun phrases (see §3.6), or subordinate sentences (see §6.2.1).

Location:

L57 *sáhan mī chīkyāatū sā ú mūhūn*  
 man that COM:knot he me here  
 THE MAN tied me here.

G7 *ā vena vén-é dí mūhūn*  
 already before CON:wait-I you:SG here  
 I have been waiting A LONG TIME for you here.

G4 *chēno tá sāhan rānchō chhātā*  
 COM:wait she man ranch big  
 She waited for him at the big ranch.

Time:

L31 *támá xūvī né dīn ti dēspēdīr*  
 next day and COM:do it:AML to:say:goodbye  
 THE NEXT DAY, he said goodbye.

Lo3 *xīkā ya nínún sāhan xūvī xūvī*  
 CON:ask person corn man day day  
 Ask the man for corn every day.

G6 *tāchī ntāa sā / tōmhē xāhan tā*  
 when COM:arrive he then CON:say she  
 When he arrived, she said . . .

L7 *tāchī chhūī xān īyu / a chhātā tāvī ti*  
 when COM:complete six month already big INTS it:AML  
 When six months had passed, he was already very big. *or* When [he]  
 was six months old, he was already very big.

**1.1.8 Focus permutations.** In appropriate discourse contexts, an element of the sentence may be focused by permuting it to pre-verb-phrase position. Such an element is often followed by the conjunction *né* ‘and’, which has the specialized function of indicating the end of that particular element and setting it off from the rest of the sentence (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:630). This process may be used to maintain topicality or thematicity of a particular nominal within a paragraph. Subject focus is especially common. When a subject noun phrase is focused, a coreferential noun or clitic pronoun follows the verb phrase.

L2 *īī chhūn né īī réi yēhen īkyáhan*  
 animal this:PL and animal king base forest  
 THESE ANIMALS are the kings of the forest.

L6 *īī lhín mí nú tāvī chūá ti*  
 animal little that quickly INTS COM:grow it:AML  
 THE LITTLE ANIMAL grew very quickly.

L41 *sāhan mī āstúto tāvī sā*  
 man that sly INTS he  
 THE MAN is very sly.

Various other types of elements may also be focused, including direct objects, instrument and referent adjuncts, as well as peripheral elements.

Direct object focus:

L4 *ũĩ lhín dínéhēn tāvī chākú ti ntúku*  
 animal little CON:love INTS mother its:AML with

*chídá ũĩ*  
 father animal

His mother and father dearly loved THE LITTLE ANIMAL.

L45 *lō míismo tēxūnā ti / dōho dí*  
 the same COM:ask it:AML who you:SG  
 He asked THE SAME [QUESTION], "Who are you?"

Instrument adjunct focus:

L19 *ntū áamá tāhā ti stāhā ti ũĩ lhín mí*  
 with one hand its:AML COM:grab it:AML animal little that  
 He grabbed the little animal WITH ONE OF HIS PAWS.

Referent adjunct focus:

L27 *sāhan mī né dīn tāvī dī / kwídádo dī*  
 man that and POT:do INTS you:SG care you:SG  
 You must be very careful of THE MAN.

Peripheral element focus:

L9 *kāvyān né kūhun-h ntúku dī íkyáhan*  
 tomorrow and POT:go-we:IN with you:SG forest  
 We will go with you to the forest TOMORROW.

L31 *támá xūvī né dīn ti dēspēdir*  
 next day and COM:do it:AML to:say:goodbye  
 THE NEXT DAY, he said goodbye.

L60 *mīnīyūn chōho sā*  
 just:now COM:pass he  
 He passed by JUST NOW.



G11 *inānkáká sá nā sīrvyētá yēhen sā kēnē*  
 CON:remember he face napkin base his COM:be:located

*tālhín xīima*  
 some salt

He remembered [that] he had some salt IN HIS HANDKERCHIEF.

The complementizer *chī* may also be used to set apart a focused element.

L75 *ānkūtá chī kādī nākēntāā ti*  
 never CMP POT:be:able POT:escape it:AML

He will NEVER be able to escape.

The use of *chī* is especially common in equative sentences with focused subject. The continuative aspect form of the equative verb *kūvī* is null, and the complementizer occurs in the position normally occupied by the verb. In this construction no noun or pronoun copy of the subject occurs.

L46 *á nkwá dí chí sāhan mī*  
 INT NEG you:SG CMP man that  
 Are YOU NOT the man?

L47 *nāvākūtāha yhūudu mī / nkwá ú chī sāhan mī*  
 COM:reply horse that NEG I CMP man that  
 The horse answered, "I am NOT the man."

It is also possible to focus more than one element in a given sentence. The following sentence shows both a subject and an instrument in focus.

L63 *lyóon ntūúku dīyhūn ti chikā ti / chēhé*  
 lion with tooth its:AML COM:walk it:AML COM:eat  
*ti hīiyu / mí nānthāá ti sāhan mī*  
 it:AML rope and COM:untie it:AML man that  
 THE LION broke the rope WITH HIS TEETH, and he freed the man.

**1.1.9 Sentential complements.** Basic sentences occur both as subject complements and as object complements within other sentences, but object complements occur more frequently. Object complements are generally introduced by the complementizer *chī*, but sometimes they are juxtaposed directly to the main sentence.

With complementizer:

L30 *dī-in dēsēáar chī ntīch-í sāhan mī*  
 POT:do-I to:desire CMP POT:see-I man that  
 I want to see the man.

- L42 *nī nkwá nākádīnō dī chī ntīchī dī sāhan*  
 nor NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man  
 Don't you even think about seeing the man.
- G5 *sāhan khu ākū sā chī táhan mī vā tá /*  
 man this CON:think he CMP woman that CON:exist she  
*vēnō tá sāhan nīnū nā rānchō chhātā*  
 CON:wait she man near face ranch big  
 THE MAN thought that THE WOMAN was waiting for him at the big ranch.
- G13 *nthīchī sā chī nthātā mī nāvākūntāā ya kú*  
 COM:see he CMP woman that COM:turn:into person snake  
 He saw that THE WOMAN turned into a snake.
- L06 *kúchī dī chāk-ú chī nkwā-á vāha*  
 POT:tell you:SG mother-my CMP NEG:CON:exist-I house  
 You tell my mother that I am not home.
- G2 *mī xāhan sā / xī sā nthāta yēhen sā chī*  
 and CON:say he CON:tell he woman base his CMP  
*kwēnō tá sāhān rānchō chhātā*  
 POT:wait she man ranch big  
 And he told his wife to wait for him at the big ranch.

Without complementizer:

- L9 *thīka kwhēe dī nhūu dī*  
 thus POT:learn you:SG POT:hunt you:SG  
 You will learn to hunt.
- L62 *ú nēh-én ntīch-í sāhan mī*  
 I CON:want-I POT:see-I man that  
 I want to see the man.
- L16 *chāa īī chhūn nēhēn dī chēhē dī īī*  
 which animal this:PL CON:want you:SG POT:eat you:SG animal  
 Which of these animals do you want to eat?
- G4 *nkwá īmīkūun tá chēhen tá*  
 NEG COM:want she COM:go she  
 She did not want to go.

- G11 *īnānkáká sá nā sīrvyētá yēhen sā kēnē*  
 CON:remember he face napkin base his COM:be:located

*tālhín xīima*  
 some salt

He remembered that he had some salt IN HIS HANDKERCHIEF.

- L17 *kūchā-á kwhīnū chēh-é ūī*  
 POT:be:able-I POT:finish POT:eat-I animal  
 I will be able to finish eating.

Sentential complements that function as subjects are not as common, but they also occur with and without the complementizer *chī*.

With complementizer:

- w4 *chīnkāha chī nīxéen yēhen tā chī lóka tā*  
 COM:begin CMP COM:appear base her CMP crazy she  
 It began to show that she was crazy.

- G10 *dēhe kūvī chī nkwá nthīī dī*  
 why POT:be:possible CMP NEG COM:put you:SG

*xīima yútā khu*  
 salt meat this

Why is it possible that you didn't put [any] salt on the meat?

Without complementizer:

- w4 *chīnkāha hīyūn tā*  
 COM:begin CON:laugh she  
 She began to laugh.

- L81 *dyóká nthāī kānh-ú dī*  
 better good POT:kill-I you:SG  
 It is better to kill you.

- L17 *kwhīnū chēh-é ūī*  
 POT:finish POT:eat-I animal  
 I will finish eating.

## 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 by placing the interrogative sentential marker *á* at the beginning.

L46 *á nkwá dí chí sáhan mī*  
 INT NEG you:SG CMP man that  
 Are NOT YOU the man?

L55 *á dī chí sáhan mī*  
 INT you:SG CMP man that  
 Are YOU the man?

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

L36 *dōho dí*  
 who you:SG  
 Who are you?

D541 *daha nēhēn khamhā chūu*  
 what want POT:say this  
 What does this mean?

L16 *chāa īī chhūn nēhēn dī*  
 which animal this:PL CON:want you:SG  
 Which of these animals do you want?

Peripheral elements are questioned using *tīin* ‘where?’ or *tikwáhān* ‘when?’. Noun phrases can probably also be used to question these, but there were no examples of such in the source data.

Lo8 *tīin kwēhen dāy-á*  
 where COM:go child-my  
 Where did my son go?

D715 *tikwáhān nāhan nthīsthi*  
 when POT:go you:PL  
 When will you be going?

Cause and purpose sentences can be questioned using *dēhe* ‘why?’.

G6 *dēhe chúka nhān dī*  
 why much late you:SG  
 Why are you so late?

- G10 *dēhe kūvī chī nkwá nthīī dī xīima*  
 why POT:be:possible CMP NEG COM:put you:SG salt  
*yútā khu*  
 meat this

Why is it possible that you didn't put [any] salt on the meat?

Stative verbs can be questioned using *tākā* 'how?'. Manner elements can probably also be questioned the same way, although there were no examples of this found in the data.

- D102 *taka yī yehen dī*  
 how CON:happen base you:SG  
 How are you? *or* How do you feel?

**1.2.3 Indirect questions.** WH questions may occur as sentential complements in statements. They are introduced by *tākā* 'how?'. Yes/no questions can probably also occur as indirect questions, but there were no examples found in the data.

- L18 *nūíchī dī tākā dī-in chī tūnkā-án*  
 POT:see you:SG how POT:do-I CMP POT:hunt-I  
 You watch how I hunt.

### 1.3 Commands

To form a second person command, a basic sentence in potential aspect is used. The subject may or may not be expressed.

- L64 *kēnthā dī ú*  
 POT:follow you:SG me  
 You follow me!

- L78 *nānchhākú ú*  
 POT:pardon me  
 Pardon me!

Negative commands are identical in form to negative statements with the verb in potential aspect. The semantic difference is determined by the context.

- L79 *nkwá kāanhu dī ú*  
 NEG POT:kill you:SG me  
 Don't kill me! *or* You will not kill me.

First person plural inclusive commands are also formed using a basic sentence with the verb in potential aspect.

- L62 *kūhūn-h*  
 POT:go-we:IN  
 Let's go!
- L64 *kūhūn-h mā*  
 POT:go-we:IN now  
 Let's go now!

#### 1.4 Vocatives

Vocatives may occur in either sentence-initial or sentence-final position. They include kinship or other terms used in direct address, and probably proper names, as well as free forms of the second person pronouns.

- S12 *táta / á vá táta*  
 papa INT CON:be tile  
 Papa, are there [any] tiles?
- S12 *nēh-én nāá mā / nána*  
 CON:want-I POT:wash now mama  
 I want to wash now, Mama.
- S13 *dūdé / vá ká kūhū dá ká*  
 aunt CON:exist ADD plate dirty ADD  
 Aunt, there are many plates [that are] very dirty.

#### 1.5 Sentential Markers

The interrogative marker *á* may occur at the beginning of a basic sentence and convert it to a YES/NO question; see §1.2.1 for examples.

Strong negation may be expressed by *ni* 'nor' (Sp. *ni*) at the beginning of the sentence or following a focused element; the verb phrase must also contain a negative marker.

- L58 *nī nkwá nākádīnō dī chí ntīchī dī sāhan*  
 NOR NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man  
 Don't you even think about seeing the man!
- L28 *sāhan mī nī nkwá ntīchī sā / né*  
 man that NOR NEG POT:see he and  
  
*kāanhu sā chūhūnh*  
 POT:kill he us:IN  
 THE MAN doesn't even [need to] see [us], and [yet] he can kill us.

## 2

# Verb Phrases

### 2.1 Content Verb Phrases

Content verb phrases consist of a nucleus, at least four optional prenuclear elements, and at least one optional postnuclear element.

**2.1.1 Verb nuclei.** A simple nucleus consists of a verb inflected for aspect. In the examples given in this chapter, the part of each sentence not included in the verb phrase is enclosed in parentheses.

- S13 *xēhē (tūhū nīnū)*  
CON:eat (chicken corn)  
(The chicken) is eating (corn).
- L18 *kwhīnō (dī)*  
FOR:see (you:SG)  
(You) will see.
- L82 *chhīnhu (sā īī)*  
COM:kill (he animal)  
(He) killed (the animal).
- G2 *(ámá xūvī) kwēhen (sá ntūvā)*  
(one day) COM:go (he Oaxaca)  
(ONE DAY he) went (to the city of Oaxaca).

There is one construction in the data that should probably be analyzed as a kind of discontinuous complex nucleus. It consists of the verb *dīn* 'to

do' inflected for aspect plus a Spanish infinitive; the subject of the sentence comes between the two parts.

- L25 *dīín (ti) rēsivíir (kōnséxo)*  
 COM:do (it:AML) to:receive (advice)  
 (It) received ([some] advice).
- L30 *dī(-ín) dēsēáar*  
 POT:do(-I) to:desire  
 (I) want (. . .)

No examples of other kinds of complex nuclei were found in the data, but there are many examples of compound verbs (see §5.1.1), which are derived from the combination of a content verb plus either another content verb, a stative verb, or a noun. These were probably complex nuclei at an earlier stage in the history of the language.

**2.1.2 Preverbal elements.** There are at least four elements that precede the verb nucleus: negative, temporal, intensifier, and manner.

The negative element *nkwá* is homophonous with, and is probably derived from, a negative verb meaning 'to not exist'. Its meaning has been extended to that of a general negative marker, not only for verbs, but for other classes of words as well.

- L70 *nkwá kūmhī (dī sāhan mī ú)*  
 NEG POT:show (you:SG man that me)  
 (You) won't show (me the man).
- L79 *nkwá kāanhu (dī ú)*  
 NEG POT:kill (you:SG me)  
 Don't kill (me)!
- Lo16 *nkwá kāha (sā nínú chākū sā)*  
 NEG COM:give (he corn mother his)  
 (He) did not give (his mother corn).
- L28 *(sáhan mī nī) nkwá ntīchī (sā)*  
 (man that nor) NEG POT:see (he)  
 (THE MAN) doesn't (even) [need to] see [us].

The temporal element includes *a* 'already' and probably *amtá* 'no longer' as well, but *amtá* was found only in a stative verb phrase in the source data.



- L29 *a chīnīvī (sā vída yūhūn-h)*  
 already POT:take:away (he life base-our:IN)  
 (He) will take away (our lives).
- L67 *(mī né) a vá yān (sā áamá thūuvi)*  
 (and and) already CON:exist prepared (he one trap)  
 (He) had already prepared (a trap).

The intensifying adverb *néné* occurs before the verb, and is found only in verb phrases. Note the contrast with the intensifying adverb *tāvī* (see §2.1.3).

- D631 *néné yīta (kāhā sā)*  
 much CON:hurt (foot his)  
 (His foot) hurts a lot.

The manner element can include an individual adverb or a complete adverb phrase, or a stative verb or stative verb phrase.

- L9 *thika kwhēe (dī)*  
 thus POT:learn (you:SG)  
 In this way (you) will learn.
- L6 *(ūī lhín mí) nú tāvī chūá (ti)*  
 (animal little that) quickly INTS COM:grow (it:AML)  
 (THE LITTLE ANIMAL) grew very quickly.
- L24 *yēnó tāvī kūnāhán (ti)*  
 happy INTS POT:go:home (it:AML)  
 (They) went home very happily.

**2.1.3 Postverbal elements.** There is at least one postverbal element: the intensifying adverb *tāvī*, which is used with other classes of words in addition to verbs.

- L4 *(ūī lhín) dīnehēn tāvī (chākú ti ntúku)*  
 (animal little) CON:love INTS (mother its:AML with  
*chídá ūī)*  
 father animal)  
 (His mother and father) dearly loved (THE LITTLE ANIMAL).
- W5 *hīyun tāvī (tá)*  
 CON:laugh INTS (she)  
 (She) laughed wildly.

## 2.2 Stative Verb Phrases

Stative verb phrases are based on stative verbs, which are not inflected for aspect. There are two temporal markers, *amtá* ‘no longer’ and *a* ‘already’, and two intensifying adverbs, *chúka* ‘much’ or ‘so’ and *néné* ‘much’ or ‘very’, which may precede the nucleus.

w2 *amtá kwīku (tā)*  
no:longer hungry (she)  
(She) was no longer hungry.

L8 *a dāmá (ti ntūkū chidā ti)*  
already same (it:AML with father its:AML)  
(He and his father) were already the same [size].

G6 *chúka nhān (dī)*  
much late (you:SG)  
(You) are so late.

D632 *(chkhāyāa né) néné yēnó*  
(child and) very happy  
(THE CHILDREN) are very happy.

The intensifying adverb *tāvī* may follow the nucleus, as may the repetitive marker *tūun* ‘again’. These two elements can cooccur.

L7 *a chhātā tāvī (ti)*  
already big INTS (it:AML)  
(He) was already very big.

L27 *āstūtō tāvī (sā)*  
sly INTS (he)  
(He) is very sly.

w7 *dākā tāvī tūun*  
tangled INTS again  
([It]) was very tangled again.

# 3

## Noun Phrases

### 3.1 Basic Noun Phrases

Basic noun phrases consist of a noun or pronoun nucleus, with two optional prenominal elements and two optional postnominal elements.

**3.1.1 Noun nuclei.** Both simple and complex noun nuclei occur. A simple nucleus comprises only a noun or pronoun.

L07	<i>váha</i>	'house'
L2	<i>ũĩ</i>	'animal'
L19	<i>tāhá</i>	'hand'
G1	<i>sāhan</i>	'man'
G2	<i>ntūvā</i>	'city of Oaxaca'
G6	<i>dī</i>	'you:SG'
L06	<i>ú</i>	'I'

A complex nucleus is a lexical unit that consists of a noun followed by a modifier. Only two examples of complex nuclei occur in the available data, and in both the modifier is a noun, but the modifier can probably be a content verb or a stative verb also.

L15 *yhūdú chēnu*  
horse mountain  
deer

L15 *kūchí chēnu*  
pig mountain  
peccary

**3.1.2 Prenominal elements.** There are two elements that precede the nucleus: specifier and quantifier. The specifier is expressed only by the general marker *mā*.

L40 *mā yāhan*  
SPEC ground  
the ground (right here)

The quantifier comprises numerals as well as general quantifiers.

Numerals:

L1 *ūvī īyháyan*  
two lion  
two lions

L7 *xān īyu*  
six month  
six months

General quantifiers:

G11 *tālhín xīima*  
some salt  
some salt (cf. *lín* 'little')

w8 *kādā hīyan*  
each person  
everybody

L14 *yhān tāvī ūī*  
many INTS animal  
very many animals

Lo3 *tāvī nínú*  
INTS corn  
much corn

The numeral *āmā* 'one' often functions simply as an indefinite article.

- G1 *ámá sāhan*  
 one man  
 a man

**3.1.3 Postnominal elements.** Certain elements optionally follow the nucleus. These include deictics and relative clauses. Other Mixtecan languages also have optional limiter and additive elements, and so Cuicatec may also have similar elements that simply do not occur in the available data. Note that an additive element occurs in the general quantifier phrase (see §4.1.4).

Deictic function is carried by the nominal markers *khu* ‘this’, *thi* ‘that’ (nearby), and *kha* ‘that’ (at a distance), and by the locative adverb *mī* ‘there’, which is a shortened form of *mīyān*. When *mī* occurs as a deictic, it is glossed ‘that’, rather than ‘there’, but it often functions simply as a definite article.

- G5 *sāhan khu*  
 man this  
 this man
- D177 *būrrú thi*  
 donkey that  
 that donkey (Sp. *burro*) (nearby)
- D43 *yāhān kha*  
 tree that  
 that tree (at a distance)
- G3 *tāhan mī*  
 woman that  
 that woman *or* the woman

There are also two words which appear to be plural forms of deictics.

- L16 *īī chhūn*  
 animal this:PL  
 these animals
- L15 *īī chhén*  
 animal that:PL  
 those animals *or* the animals

Restrictive relative clauses follow the nucleus. They are often marked by the complementizer *chī*, by the prestressed pronoun *nāchī* ‘place’, or by the subordinate conjunction *tāchī* ‘when’, all of which also serve as relative pronouns. When a subject is relativized, a clitic pronoun copy referring to the subject usually follows the verb in addition to the relative pronoun that introduces the relative clause. When other elements are relativized, a clitic

pronoun copy also occasionally occurs within the relative clause. Sentences with content verbs may become relative clauses based on any noun phrase.

With subject as head:

- Lo5 *hīyan chí kūchiī ya*  
 person CMP COM:come person  
 [the] person who was coming
- L71 *ūī chí kēné mūhūn*  
 animal CMP COM:be:located here  
 [the] animal that is here

With object as head:

- G8 *xādē chí kāhan tā*  
 tepache CMP COM:give she  
 tepache, which she gave

With adjunct as head:

- Lo12 *vāha nāchī kēnúū sá*  
 house place COM:be:inside he  
 building where he was
- L35 *nāchī kēné áamá ītintū*  
 place COM:be:located one cow  
 place [where] there was a cow.

With peripheral element as head:

- L51 *ámá lūgáar náchí ntāyāatu áamá pāstóor*  
 one place place COM:be:tied one shepherd  
 a place where a shepherd was tied up.

Relative clauses based on stative verbs are translated as adjectives in English. Except for one instance in the data (L17), no complementizer is used.

- L17 *ámá ūī chí lhín*  
 one animal CMP little  
 an animal that is small *or* a small animal
- G2 *rānchō chhātā*  
 ranch big  
 ranch [that is] big *or* big ranch

- L18 *lyóon ntīku*  
 lion old  
 lion [that is] old *or* old lion

**3.1.4 Combinations of elements.** In the available data there were no examples of specifier and quantifier occurring together, and so their relative order preceding the nucleus is not known. Following the nucleus, relative clauses based on a stative verb precede the deictic.

- L32 *lyóon chhātā mí*  
 lion big that  
 the lion [that is] big *or* the big lion
- L35 *ūī lhín mí*  
 animal little that  
 the animal [that is] little *or* the little animal

Two relative clauses may occur in a single noun phrase; those based on content verbs follow those based on stative verbs.

- Lo1 *kwikū dán chí kénū*  
 hunger strong CMP COM:be:inside  
 a great famine that was in [there]

Relative clauses based on content verbs generally directly follow their head noun, but sometimes another element may occur between the two. In the following examples the intervening element is enclosed in parentheses.

- Lo2 *tá (yáan mī) chí vá áamá dāyá*  
 she (land that) CMP CON:exist one child  
 woman (in a town) who had a child
- w0 *ámá kwéntó (yēhen áamá nhatā) chí chhēno*  
 one story (about one woman) CMP COM:happen  
 A story (about a woman) which happened *or* A true story (about a woman)
- G0 *ámá kwénto (yēhen tá nīiyū) chí chí*  
 one story (about she ghost) CMP COM:be  
 A story (about a ghost) that happened *or* A true story (about a ghost)

When it is evident from the context, the nucleus of a noun phrase may be deleted, leaving a quantifier, relative clause, and/or a deictic as the only manifestation of the phrase.

- L26 *nākwhéhe chī ntīichu-h*  
 all CMP POT:see-we:IN  
 all [the animals] that we see
- L5 *lhín mí*  
 little that  
 the little [animal]

### 3.2 Measurement Noun Phrases

Measurement noun phrases have a noun expressing a unit of measurement as their nucleus, which must be preceded by a quantifier phrase (see §4.1). Measurement noun phrases occur only as quantifiers in other noun phrases, and in the following example, the higher noun is enclosed in parentheses.

- D563 *āmā dīnu (cáfe)*  
 one sack (coffee)  
 one sack (of coffee [Sp. *café*])
- D230 *āmā kīlu (yūta)*  
 one kilogram (meat)  
 one kilogram (Sp. *kilo*) (of meat)
- D418 *inu litró (nīnū)*  
 three liter (seed)  
 three liters (Sp. *litro*) (of seed)
- D230 *uvi xākū ntīchī kīlōmetro (chīn chhēnuú)*  
 two twenty ten kilometer (stuff long)  
 fifty kilometers (Sp. *kilómetro*) (of length)

### 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. Nuclei may be either inherently possessed nouns, which are largely body parts and kinship terms, or optionally possessed nouns. Inherently possessed nouns exhibit direct possession, in which the possessor is expressed immediately after the head noun.

- W6 *tīin tā*  
 head her  
 her head (hair)



- W9 *chākū tá*  
 mother her  
 her mother
- L06 *chāk-ú*  
 mother-my  
 my mother
- L63 *dīyhūn ti*  
 tooth its:AML  
 its teeth
- L56 *āmiko lyóon*  
 friend lion  
 the lion's friend

Optionally possessed nouns exhibit indirect possession and are expressed using the inherently possessed noun *yehen* 'base' in an extended sense meaning 'possession'. These phrases are appositional in nature (see §3.7).

- Lo3 *nínú / yēhen sā*  
 corn base his  
 his corn (lit. corn, his possession)
- L68 *chivú / yēhen sā*  
 goat base his  
 his goats (lit. goats, his possession)
- W8 *tīnó / yēhén ya*  
 cloth base person  
 her clothes (lit. clothes, her possession)
- G17 *nthātā / yēhen sā*  
 woman base his  
 his woman (wife) (lit. woman, his possession)

### 3.4 Interrogative Noun Phrases

Interrogative noun phrases are formed with the interrogatives *chāa* 'which?', *daha* 'what?', and *tavā* 'how much?'. The interrogative occurs initially in its noun phrase and the interrogative noun phrase occurs in focus position in its sentence (see §§1.1.8 and 1.2.2).

- L16 *chāa ūī chhūn*  
 which animal this:PL  
 which of these animals?

- D349 *daha ōra*  
 what hour  
 when? (Sp. *hora* ‘hour’) or what time?
- D707 *tavā ntūyu*  
 how:much year  
 how old?

### 3.5 Negative Noun Phrases

Negative noun phrases are formed by preposing the negative marker *nkwá* to a noun phrase. Negative noun phrases probably occur only in focus position in a sentence. In the following sentences containing negative noun phrases, the portion of the sentence outside of the negative noun phrase is enclosed in parentheses.

- L37 (*á*) *nkwá dī (chí sáhan mī)*  
 (INT) NEG you:SG (CMP man that)  
 (Are) not YOU (the man)?
- L38 *nkwá ú / (nāvhākútāhá ti)*  
 NEG I (COM:reply it:AML)  
 “Not I,” (it replied.) or “I [am] not ([he],” it replied.)

### 3.6 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 temporal noun nucleus. They are used as locative adjuncts (see §1.1.4) and as location or time peripheral elements (see §1.1.7).

- G4 *rānchō chhātā*  
 ranch big  
 [at the] big ranch
- L12 *támá xūvī*  
 next day  
 [the] next day

Adverbial possessive noun phrases consist of a possessive noun phrase with a locative noun as nucleus. Many of these are body-part nouns that are used with extended meanings (see §5.3.2).

L13 *chhīitū áamá xīkū*  
 side one river  
 beside a river

Lo6 *chētē vāha*  
 stomach house  
 inside the house

L66 *nā ráāncho*  
 face ranch  
 at the ranch

D96 *tīín yīkū*  
 head mountain  
 top of the mountain

### 3.7 Appositional Noun Phrases

Appositional noun phrases consist of two or more coreferential noun phrases in the same structural position but with no conjunction linking them. They are often used to express additional information about a noun nucleus that is already identified, similar to the use of nonrestrictive relative clauses in English.

L17 *ámá īī chī lhín / kōsā chī kūchā-á*  
 one animal CMP little thing CMP POT:be:able-I

*kwhīnū chēh-é īī*  
 POT:finish POT:eat-I animal

an animal that is small, something that I will be able to finish eating

Noun phrases expressing indirect possession are also appositional in nature. The inherently possessed noun *yehen* ‘base’ has a secondary sense of ‘possession’ and is coreferential with the preceding noun; see §3.3 for examples of this construction.

### 3.8 Additive Noun Phrases

Additive noun phrases are either coordinate or disjunctive. In the coordinate type, noun phrases are linked by the preposition *ntūku* ‘with’.

L10 *chīdá ti ntūkū chākú ti*  
 father its:AML with mother its:AML  
 his father and mother

- L15 *kūchí chēenu yhūuvi yhūdú chēenu chīvī kōnēxó*  
 pig mountain coati horse mountain armadillo rabbit  
*hīimha iyāáta ntūkū más ka ūī*  
 skunk opossum with more ADD animal  
 peccaries, coatis, deer, armadillos, rabbits, skunks, opossums, and  
 many other animals

The structure of an additive noun phrase is sometimes identical to that of a noun phrase with an associative adjunct (see §1.1.4), and an ambiguity may arise in the analysis. In such cases the larger context will be necessary to determine which is the intended sense.

- L65 *kwēhēn sā ntūkū ti*  
 COM:go he with it:AML  
 He went with the animal. *or* He and the animal went.
- L9 *kūhun-h ntúku dī*  
 POT:go-we:1N with you:SG  
 We will go with you. *or* We and you will go.

Two phrases may be linked in a disjunctive relation by the conjunction *u* 'or' (Sp. *o*).

- D726 *xūhūn yan u xan yan*  
 five person or six person  
 five or six people

### 3.9 Distributive Noun Phrases

Distributive noun phrases are formed by repeating a short noun phrase to express the idea of 'each' or 'every'.

- L63 *xūvī xūvī*  
 day day  
 every day

### 3.10 Personal-Name Noun Phrases

Personal-name noun phrases consist of two elements: a gender marker and a nucleus. The third person feminine clitic pronoun functions as the feminine gender marker, and the masculine pronoun is probably used as the masculine marker, but no examples of the masculine were found. The nucleus consists of either a personal name that agrees in gender with the marker or some other title or personal description.

s13 *tá āna*  
she Ann  
Ann (Sp. *Ana*)

G0 *tá nīiyū*  
she ghost  
a ghost



# 4

## Other Phrases

### 4.1 Quantifier Phrases

**4.1.1 Additive numeral phrases.** In additive numeral phrases simple numerals from one to ten, fifteen, twenty, hundred, and thousand are combined to form the numerals from eleven through fourteen, sixteen through nineteen, twenty-one through thirty, thirty-five, and certain combinations involving hundred and thousand. The larger numeral always occurs first.

s7 *ntīchī ínú*  
ten three  
thirteen

s7 *ntīíyhún kūun*  
fifteen four  
nineteen

s7 *ntūkū xúhún*  
twenty five  
twenty-five

s7 *ntíkú ntīchī*  
twenty ten  
thirty

S7 *ntīkū ntītyhún*  
 twenty fifteen  
 thirty-five

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.

S7 *ntīkū ntīchī ínú*  
 twenty ten three  
 thirty-three

S7 *ntīkū ntīí kúun*  
 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 twenty occurs as the nucleus of an attributive numeral phrase, it takes the form *xākū*.

D279 *kun xakú*  
 four twenty  
 eighty

D96 *āmā syēntó*  
 one hundred  
 one hundred (Sp. *ciento*)

D260 *āmā mīil*  
 one thousand  
 one thousand (Sp. *mil*)

In the survey data there is another form for one hundred, which seems to be part of the number system originally used by speakers of Mixtecan languages and would predate the use of the borrowed Spanish term.

S7 *xūhun xākū*  
 five twenty  
 hundred

The original number system was vigesimal and probably went at least as high as four hundred, or twenty twenties (Robert E. Longacre, personal communication).



Attributive numeral phrases combine with additive numeral phrases to form all the remaining nonsimple numerals.

D319 *uvi xākū xān*  
 two twenty six  
 forty-six

D349 *inu xākū ntīchī*  
 three twenty ten  
 seventy

**4.1.3 Expanded numeral phrases.** The only examples of expanded numeral phrases in the available data consist of a simple numeral as the nucleus with *ntō* 'all' preceding it and adding an additional quantifying sense to the numeral nucleus. Probably at least additive and attributive numeral phrases could also serve as a nucleus of this type of phrase. In the examples, an entire noun phrase is given with the part not included in the numeral phrase enclosed in parentheses.

L12 *ntō īnó (tī)*  
 all three (it:AML)  
 all three (animals)

L23 *ntō ūvī (īī ntīīku)*  
 all two (animal old)  
 both (old animals)

**4.1.4 General quantifier phrases.** Approximate quantities may be expressed by general quantifier phrases. These phrases consist of a nucleus, which is a nonnumeral quantifier, and an optional postnuclear element, which may be either the intensifying adverb *tāvī* or the additive *ka*. Other Mixtecan languages have an optional prenuclear element, which may be a negative or a specifier, and at least two other optional postnuclear elements, a repetitive and a limiter. It is possible that these elements also occur in Cuicatec, but none were found in the source data.

L14 *yhān tāvī (īī)*  
 many INTS (animal)  
 very many (animals)

L15 *mās ka (īī)*  
 more ADD (animal)  
 many other (animals)

## 4.2 Adverb Phrases

**4.2.1 Basic adverb phrases.** A nucleus and an optional postnuclear intensifying adverb *tāvī* combine to form basic adverb phrases. The nucleus may be either a locative or a general adverb.

L49 *yāhān tāvī*  
 far INTS  
 very far

L6 *nú tāvī (chūtá)*  
 quickly INTS (COM:grow)  
 (grew) very quickly

**4.2.2 Repetitive adverb phrases.** The simple repetition of an adverb, which intensifies its meaning, constitutes a repetitive adverb phrase. The additive *ka* may also follow the second adverb.

N141 *tyān tyān*  
 early early  
 very early

S4 *tūnū tūnū kā*  
 little little ADD  
 gently *or* little by little

## 4.3 Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition followed by its object. There is a very limited set of prepositions because much of their function is carried by locative nouns (see §§5.3.2 and 3.6). The prepositions include only *ntūku* ‘with’, *ménos* ‘except’ (Sp. *menos*), and *nú* ‘until’ or ‘even’; and the complex forms *kwēnta yehen* ‘on account of’ (Sp. *cuenta* ‘account’) and *nīnū nā* ‘at’, ‘by’, or ‘near’.

L63 *ntūúku dīyhūn ti*  
 with tooth its:AML  
 with its teeth

W7 *ntúku āsēite*  
 with oil  
 with oil

- L26 *ménos áamá sáhan*  
except one man  
except a man
- Lo13 *ntí túnú chhākū*  
until much sound  
even a tremendous noise
- D470 *kwēnta yehen vakyan*  
account base town  
for the town
- G5 *nīnū nā rānchō chhātā*  
near face ranch big  
at the big ranch



# 5

## Parts of Speech

### 5.1 Content and Equative Verbs

**5.1.1 Derivation.** Content verbs are derived from other content verbs, from nouns, and probably also from stative verbs by means of derivational prefixes, as well as by means of compounding.

The causative prefix *dī-* is a shortened form of *dīn* ‘to do’. It is used with content verbs, with nouns, and probably also with stative verbs to form derived content verbs.

- L4 *dī-néhēn*  
CAUS-CON:want  
to love (cf. *néhēn* ‘CON:want’)
- D367 *dī-kwhinú*  
CAUS-POT:end  
to finish (cf. *kwhinū* ‘POT:end’)
- L26 *dī-chhīvha*  
CAUS-value  
to have value (cf. *chhīvha* ‘value’)

There is also a repetitive marker, *na-* or *n-*, which may be prefixed to certain verbs to derive another verb.

- D621 *n-kahā*  
REP-COM:give  
to give back (cf. *kāhā* ‘to give’)

- W8 *ī-nā-ntāchī*  
CON-REP-vomit  
to vomit (repeatedly)
- W7 *ī-nā-dī-daūn*  
CON-REP-CAUS-?  
to make smooth
- W9 *nā-dī-xīkū*  
REP-CAUS-medicine  
to heal (cf. *xiku* ‘medicine’)
- G11 *ī-nā-nkáká*  
CON-REP-?  
to remember
- G17 *nā-ntāa*  
REP-COM:arrive  
to return
- W10 *nā-ntuvā*  
REP-COM:be:healed  
to get well

Compounds are formed by the fusion of a complex verb nucleus into a single word. The first example below contains an epenthetic *n* between the two parts; see Needham and Davis (1946:145).

- L06 *kūnūn-tēhé*  
POT:be:inside-hidden  
to hide (cf. *kūnū* ‘to be inside’)
- L10 *chīnī-vēén*  
COM:sit:down-ear  
to listen
- L38 *nā-vākū-tāhá*  
REP-COM:turn:around-hand  
to reply
- G13 *nā-vākū-ntāā*  
REP-COM:turn:around-COM:arrive  
to turn into
- L42 *nā-ká-dīnō*  
REP-under-bonnet  
to think

- L39 *ikū-yatū*  
CON:?-knot  
to tie
- L51 *ntā-yāatu*  
COM:arrive-knot  
to be tied
- L61 *kēntá-nā*  
POT:follow-face  
to follow

**5.1.2 Inflection.** Content and equative verbs are inflected for four different aspects: potential, continuative, completive, and perfective. The first three aspects are similar to future, present, and past tenses, but cannot be equated with them because aspect emphasizes the action or process expressed by the verb, leaving the time frame to be established by the context of the discourse in which it occurs. On the other hand, tense emphasizes the particular time frame during which the action or process takes place (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:xiv). The perfective aspect, which has been referred to as ‘prior past’ (Davis 1952:35) and/or ‘state of completion’ (Longacre 1957:56), is unique with respect to the other Mixtecan languages. It is a reflex of the protolanguage verb system, which has been preserved more completely in Cuicatec than in the other sister languages (Longacre 1957:56). Only one of the verbs in the texts is glossed with perfective aspect, and it is unclear if the perfective is still in common use or if it is being lost, as has happened in many of the sister languages. Although the texts and dictionary were of some assistance in the analysis proposed in this chapter, most of it is based on unpublished language survey data and on data from Davis and Walker (1955).

Verbs can be classified on the basis of which form of the potential aspect prefix they take. The other aspectual prefixes are more regular in their forms, while the potential form has several distinct variants. The continuative prefix is conditioned by the initial segment of the verb root; vowel-initial roots take *x-* while consonant-initial roots take *i-*. Similarly, the completive aspect prefix varies according to vowel-initial or consonant-initial roots. It is expressed by *ch-/chi-*, *k-/ki-*, or sometimes *k-/ke-*. The perfective aspect prefix is either *n(t)-* or *ni-*, also determined by vowel-initial or consonant-initial roots.

In the first class of verbs, potential aspect is indicated by *kw-* before vowel-initial verb roots or *ku-* before consonant-initial roots. There are two subclasses. Some verbs take the set *kw-/ku-*, *x-/i-*, *k-/ki-(ke-)*, and *n(t)-/ni-*, while others take *kw-/ku-*, *x-/i-*, *ch-/chi-*, and *n(t)-/ni-*.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
buy	<i>kw-ái</i>	<i>x-ái</i>	<i>k-ái</i>	<i>nt-ái</i>
cover	<i>kw-ákú</i>	<i>x-ákú</i>	<i>ch-áaku</i>	<i>nt-ákú</i>
sleep	<i>kū-yādō</i>	<i>ī-yādō</i>	<i>kī-yādō</i>	<i>nī-yāadō</i>
hide	<i>kū-núnthēhē</i>	<i>ī-núnthēhē</i>	<i>kē-núnthēhē</i>	<i>nī-núnthēhē</i>
rope	<i>kū-nūu</i>	<i>ī-nūu</i>	<i>chī-nūu</i>	<i>nī-nūu</i>

The position verb *kunē* ‘to be located’ belongs in this class, but has irregular prefixes *kā-* and *ka-* in the continuative and completive aspects, respectively.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
be located	<i>ku-nē</i>	<i>kā-nē</i>	<i>ka-nē</i>	<i>nī-nē</i>

In the second class of verbs, potential aspect is indicated by *k-* before vowel-initial verb roots and by *ka-* or *ko-* before consonant-initial roots. There are two subclasses. Some verbs take the set *k-/ka-*, *x-/i-*, *ch-/chi-*, and *n(t)/ni-*, while others take the set *k-/ko-*, *x-/i-*, *k-/ke-*, and *n(t)/ni-*.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
break	<i>k-āatu</i>	<i>x-ātū</i>	<i>ch-āatu</i>	<i>nt-átú</i>
bring	<i>kā-nkwāi</i>	<i>ī-nkwāi</i>	<i>chī-nkwāi</i>	<i>nī-nkwāi</i>
scratch	<i>k-ūun</i>	<i>x-ūun</i>	<i>k-ūun</i>	<i>n-ūun</i>
keep awake	<i>kō-ntūchī</i>	<i>ī-ntūchī</i>	<i>ké-ntūchī</i>	<i>nī-ntuchi</i>

In some verbs in this class there is also a change in the root of the nonpotential forms, such as a vowel change or the loss of the final syllable.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
jump	<i>k-áva</i>	<i>x-āa</i>	<i>k-āa</i>	<i>nt-áa</i>
complete	<i>k-ūvī</i>	<i>x-ī</i>	<i>ch-īi</i>	<i>nt-í</i>
be	<i>k-ūvī</i>	∅	<i>ch-ī</i>	?
run	<i>k-áno</i>	<i>x-éno</i>	<i>ch-éno</i>	<i>n-éno</i>
go	<i>k-āhan</i>	<i>x-ēhēn</i>	<i>ch-ēhen</i>	<i>n-éhēn</i>



The verb 'to go' has another form, *kwēhen*, which is glossed as completive aspect in the text data, but it may correspond to some other aspect (possibly incomplete). This verb also has an imperative form *kwéhén*. It is possible in some other Mixtecan languages for the verb 'to go' to have more than just the basic aspectual forms (Barbara E. Hollenbach, personal communication).

Perfective aspect is sometimes marked by two elements, the first of which is *ni-*, while the second is some variation of the completive prefix. This suggests that *ni-* may be derived historically from a preverbal element on the phrase level, which served (redundantly) to indicate previous time.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
advise	<i>k-ūvī</i>	<i>x-ī</i>	<i>ch-īi</i>	<i>ní-nch-ī</i>
say	<i>k-āmhān</i>	<i>x-āhān</i>	<i>k-āhān</i>	<i>ní-nk-āhān</i>
give	<i>k-āha</i>	<i>x-āha</i>	<i>k-āha</i>	<i>ní-nk-āhá</i>
stretch	<i>kw-āhain</i>	<i>x-āhain</i>	<i>k-āhain</i>	<i>ní-k-āhain</i>
recite (prayers)	<i>k-āvaha</i>	<i>x-āvaha</i>	<i>k-āvaha</i>	<i>nī-k-āvaha</i>

Potential aspect in the third class of verbs is indicated by *ch-* with a vowel-initial verb root or by a null prefix ( $\emptyset$ -) with a consonant-initial root. There are two subclasses. Verbs in one subclass take *ch-/∅-*, *x-/i-*, *ch-/∅-*, and *ni-ch-/ni-*, while verbs in the second subclass take  $\emptyset-$ , *i-*, *chi-*, and *ni-*. Since the potential and the completive prefixes are the same (*ch-/∅-*) for one subclass, some verbs have identical forms in these two aspects, while others distinguish between the two by means of a tone change in the completive form (Longacre 1957:57–8).

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
carry	$\emptyset$ - <i>kānhúnēn</i>	<i>ī-kānhúnēn</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>kānhúnēn</i>	<i>ní-kānhúnēn</i>
eat (lunch)	$\emptyset$ - <i>kādhínú</i>	<i>ī-kādhínú</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>kādhínú</i>	<i>nī-kādhínú</i>
see	<i>ch-ēenān</i>	<i>x-ēenān</i>	<i>ch-ēenān</i>	<i>ní-ch-ēenān</i>
happen	<i>ch-óhó</i>	<i>x-óhō</i>	<i>ch-óho</i>	<i>ni-nch-óhō</i>
join	<i>-dīdāmā</i>	<i>ī-dīdāmā</i>	<i>chī-dīdamā</i>	<i>ní-dīdamā</i>

When the verb root begins with a laryngealized vowel, the continuative prefix becomes  $\emptyset$ -. This suggests that there is some constraint against *x-* before a laryngealized vowel.

	POT	CON	COM	PERF
spin	<i>kw-hā</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>hā</i>	<i>k-hāa</i>	<i>nt-há</i>
satisfy	<i>kw-hán</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>hún</i>	<i>k-hūun</i>	<i>n-hún</i>
encircle	<i>kw-hāaku</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>hāaku</i>	<i>ch-hāaku</i>	<i>nt-hāaku</i>
break	<i>kw-héen</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>héen</i>	<i>ch-héen</i>	<i>n-héen</i>
kill	<i>k-hāanhu</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>hīnhu</i>	<i>ch-hīnhu</i>	<i>n-hīnhu</i>
plant	<i>k-hūchī</i>	$\emptyset$ - <i>hīchī</i>	<i>ch-hīichi</i>	<i>nt-hīchī</i>

Because of the limited amount of data available for this analysis, it is by no means comprehensive, and there are a number of verb forms in the data that do not fit into the analysis. For example, there are discrepancies in the tones and laryngeals, which may indicate different aspect forms, but they might also simply be the results of sandhi or even errors in transcription. Further work needs to be done in the description of verb inflection.

## 5.2 Stative Verbs

Unlike content and equative verbs, stative verbs are not inflected for aspect. They are either basic or derived from nouns. The derived verbs may or may not show a tone change from their nominal counterparts.

Basic stative verbs:

L4	<i>lhín</i>	‘little’
L11	<i>yēnó</i>	‘happy’
L23	<i>ntīiku</i>	‘old’
L30	<i>dītū</i>	‘strong’
L30	<i>kāani</i>	‘fast’

Derived stative verbs:

D748	<i>yhámhi</i>	‘grey, cloudy’ (cf. <i>yhāmhī</i> ‘smoke’)
D756	<i>yinchetée</i>	‘muddy’ (cf. <i>yinchetée</i> ‘mud’)
G13	<i>yāhan</i>	‘dirty’ (cf. <i>yāhan</i> ‘ground, dirt’)

Some stative verbs have separate forms for singular and plural referents.

		SG	PL
D297	little	<i>lhín</i>	<i>hāyáa</i>
D202	big	<i>chhātā</i>	<i>hātā</i>
D232	long	<i>chhenu</i>	<i>henu</i>

### 5.3 Nouns

**5.3.1 Derivation.** Compound nouns may be formed by the fusion of complex noun nuclei (see §3.1.1) into single words.

N145 *xīvyāvā*  
 hole:cliff  
 cave (cf. *xīvā* ‘hole’, *yáva* ‘cliff’)

N145 *nantakwáhá*  
 flower:red  
 geranium (cf. *nāanta* ‘flower’, *kwáha* ‘red’)

N145 *dūtīhikū*  
 egg:louse  
 nits (cf. *dūtúhú* ‘egg’, *īku* ‘louse’)

Nouns may also be derived by means of adding a prefix to another noun. The example below shows an epenthetic *k*; see Needham and Davis (1946:145).

L1 *īkyáhan*  
 COL:wood  
 forest (cf. *i-* ‘collectivizer’, *yáhán* ‘wood’)

**5.3.2 Classification.** Nouns may be classified according to gender, possessibility, distribution, and countability.

There are five gender classes, which are determined by the third person pronoun: masculine, feminine, human (respect), animal, and inanimate (see §5.4). Some nouns fall into more than one class, especially those included in the human (respect) category; *nthātā* ‘woman’, for example, corresponds to both feminine and respect pronoun forms. Also, in folktales animals may be included in the masculine or feminine class, as well as the animal class.

## Masculine nouns:

L16	<i>lyóon</i>	‘lion’
L30	<i>sáhan</i>	‘man’
L51	<i>pāstóor</i>	‘shepherd’
W9	<i>kwáa</i>	‘shaman’

## Feminine nouns:

G2	<i>nhāta</i>	‘woman’
G3	<i>táhan</i>	‘woman’

## Human (respect) nouns:

G13	<i>nhātā</i>	‘woman’
Lo3	<i>chākū</i>	‘mother’
Lo5	<i>hīyan</i>	‘person’

## Animal nouns:

L1	<i>īyháyan</i>	‘lion’
L16	<i>lyóon</i>	‘lion’
L35	<i>īīntū</i>	‘cow’
G13	<i>kú</i>	‘snake’

## Inanimate nouns:

G0	<i>kwénto</i>	‘story’
G8	<i>xādē</i>	‘tepache’ (an alcoholic beverage)
G9	<i>yūuntu</i>	‘tortilla’
G13	<i>yūta</i>	‘meat’

Nouns may also be classified according to whether or not they can be possessed. Those which cannot be possessed generally refer to meteorological or topographical phenomena.

D182	<i>īyūn</i>	‘star’
L6	<i>īyu</i>	‘moon, month’
D352	<i>yhāhan</i>	‘sun’
L13	<i>xīkū</i>	‘river’

Nouns that can be possessed are either directly or indirectly possessed (see §3.3). Directly possessed nouns are generally body parts or kinship terms.

L19	<i>tāhá</i>	‘hand, paw’
W6	<i>ūin</i>	‘head, hair’
L63	<i>chākū</i>	‘mother’
L11	<i>chidá</i>	‘father’

The remaining nouns are indirectly possessed.

L63	<i>nínú</i>	‘corn’
L53	<i>ūī</i>	‘animal’
L66	<i>rāāncho</i>	‘ranch’

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 include kinship terms and probably personal names as well. When kinship terms are used in this way, they are not marked for possession.

S12	<i>táta</i>	‘father’
S12	<i>nána</i>	‘mother’
S13	<i>dūdé</i>	‘aunt’

Proper nouns include place names and personal names. Personal names sometimes occur in personal-name noun phrases (see §3.10).

G2	<i>nuvā</i>	‘city of Oaxaca’
S13	<i>tá āna</i>	‘Ann’ (Sp. <i>Ana</i> )

Locative nouns occur as the nuclei of adverbial noun phrases (see §3.6). There are two categories, the first of which includes place names, topographical features, and certain other nouns.

G2	<i>nuvā</i>	‘city of Oaxaca’
L1	<i>īkyahan</i>	‘forest’
L13	<i>xikū</i>	‘river’
L33	<i>yúni</i>	‘road’

The second category includes a small number of body-part nouns that are used in an extended sense and function as prepositions.

- L13 *chhīitū*  
side  
beside, by
- Lo6 *chētē*  
stomach  
inside
- Lo7 *nā*  
face  
by, at, in
- D437 *kāhā*  
foot  
base
- D96 *tīin*  
head  
top of
- G0 *yehen*  
base  
for, about, from, with reference to

Temporal nouns include units of time and occur as the nuclei of adverbial noun phrases (see §3.6).

- L3 *xūvī* 'day'
- L7 *īyu* 'month'
- Lo1 *tyémpo* 'time'

Measurement nouns express units of weight or measure, and occur as nuclei of measurement noun phrases (see §3.2).

- D377 *dīnu* 'sack'
- D418 *litró* 'liter' (Sp. *litro*)
- D230 *kīlu* 'kilogram' (Sp. *kilo*)
- D230 *kilómetro* 'kilometer' (Sp. *kilómetro*)

Common nouns are those which are not included in any of the above distribution classes.

L2	<i>ūī</i>	‘animal’
L26	<i>sáhan</i>	‘man’
L67	<i>tūuvi</i>	‘trap’
Lo6	<i>nínú</i>	‘corn’
G9	<i>xīima</i>	‘salt’

Nouns may also be classified according to countability. Mass nouns cannot be modified by a numeral quantifier, but count nouns can.

Mass nouns:

Lo3	<i>nínú</i>	‘corn’
G9	<i>xīima</i>	‘salt’
G13	<i>nūnī</i>	‘water’
L40	<i>yāhan</i>	‘ground, dirt’

Count nouns:

L1	<i>īyhāyan</i>	‘lion’
L7	<i>īyu</i>	‘month’
L23	<i>ūī</i>	‘animal’
L67	<i>tūuvi</i>	‘trap’
W3	<i>xūvī</i>	‘day’
G1	<i>nthātā</i>	‘woman’

#### 5.4 Pronouns

Personal pronouns show a fairly complex system that employs the parameters of person, number, and respect. The first and second person pronouns each have a free form and an enclitic form. The first person distinguishes between inclusive and exclusive in the plural forms, and the second person distinguishes between familiar and respect in the singular forms (Anderson and Concepción R. 1983:xi). There is no case distinction in the pronoun system, and so their function is determined by their position in the sentence and/or the discourse context.

The free pronouns occur most frequently in sentence-initial position, where they indicate focus. In any position in the sentence, however, they can occur to express a greater degree of emphasis than the corresponding clitic pronouns. The free pronouns are:

	SG	PL
first EX	<i>ú</i>	<i>nthúshuūn</i>
first IN	—	<i>shún, chúhūnh</i>
second FAM	<i>dí</i>	—
second RES	<i>nthi</i>	<i>nthĩsthi</i>

It is possible that the distinction between familiar and respect in the second person forms was originally a distinction between singular and plural, with the plural form being used to indicate respect. This is more clearly seen in the clitic forms below. The plural form above appears to be a compound but the source of the second part of the word is unclear.

There are clitic forms which correspond to the free forms, but they occur only following a verb, noun, or possibly a preposition, depending on the function of the pronoun as subject of the verb, possessor of the noun, or object of the preposition. The clitic form of the first person singular pronoun is expressed by a high tone, which replaces the tone of the final vowel of the preceding morpheme (Davis 1962:197). The first person plural inclusive form *oh* or *-h* triggers a vowel-harmony process in the stem to which it is affixed (see Needham and Davis 1946:143–45 for further discussion of this process). The clitic forms are:

	SG	PL
first EX	(fused high tone)	<i>nhúu</i>
first IN	—	<i>oh, -h</i>
second FAM	<i>dĩ</i>	—
second RES	<i>ni, ne</i>	<i>ni</i>

The following examples show how the first person singular and inclusive forms affect the shape of the preceding word. To show the first person singular clitic the hyphen that represents morpheme boundary is placed before the final vowel, to which the high tone is fused.

- L70 *chēh-é*  
 POT:eat-I  
 I will eat (cf. *chēhē* ‘POT:eat’)
- L66 *chāk-ú*  
 mother-my  
 my mother (cf. *chākū* ‘mother’)



- L26 *chūhū-h*  
 POT:eat-we:IN  
 we will eat (cf. *chēhē* ‘POT:eat’)
- L29 *yūhūn-h*  
 base-our:IN  
 our (cf. *yehen* ‘base’)

Third person pronouns distinguish six gender classes, but no contrast of number. There are no free forms, and most of the clitic forms are reduced forms of corresponding nouns. The masculine pronoun (and probably the feminine as well) can be extended to refer to animals in folktales.

masculine	<i>sá</i> (cf. <i>sáhan</i> ‘man’)
feminine	<i>tá</i> (cf. <i>táhan</i> ‘woman’)
human RES	<i>ya</i> (cf. <i>hīyan</i> ‘person’)
human UN	(fused low tone with optional glottal stop)
animal	<i>tī</i> (cf. <i>ūī</i> ‘animal’)
inanimate	∅

There is a prestressed pronoun, which is a compound formed by combining the locative noun *nā* ‘face’ and the complementizer *chī*.

- L35 *nāchī* ‘place’

The prestressed pronoun *nāchī*, the subordinate conjunction *tāchī* ‘when’, and the complementizer *chī* also function as relative pronouns (see §3.1.3).

There are two interrogative pronouns. See §§1.2.2 and 3.4 for a discussion of their use.

- L36 *dōho* ‘who?’  
 D317 *daha* ‘what?’

## 5.5 Adverbs

Adverbs are locative, temporal, general, intensifying, or interrogative.

Locative adverbs include all locational words that are not nouns. They occur as locative adjuncts (see §1.1.4) and as locative peripheral elements (see §1.1.7).

D32	<i>mīyān</i> or <i>mī</i>	‘there’
L57	<i>mūhūn</i>	‘here’
Lo13	<i>nūi</i>	‘there’
G5	<i>nūnū</i>	‘near’
L49	<i>yāhān</i>	‘far’

The reduced form *mī* ‘there’ also functions as a deictic in noun phrases (see §3.1.3); in this function it is glossed ‘that’.

Temporal adverbs include all temporal words that are not nouns. They occur as time peripheral elements (see §1.1.7). They are simple or complex.

Simple:

D57	<i>ikū</i>	‘yesterday’
L9	<i>kāvyān</i>	‘tomorrow’
L16	<i>mā</i>	‘now’
L60	<i>mīnīyūn</i>	‘just now’
Lo6	<i>tōmhé</i>	‘then’
Lo10	<i>nēhēn</i>	‘meanwhile’

Complex:

G7	<i>ā</i>	<i>vena</i>
	already	before
		for a long time

General adverbs include manner words that are not stative verbs. They occur preceding the verb as a manner element in the verb phrase (see §2.1.2).

L6	<i>nū</i>	‘quickly’
L18	<i>thīka</i>	‘thus’

There are three intensifying adverbs. One occurs commonly in content verb phrases, stative verb phrases, quantifier phrases, and adverb phrases (see §§2.1.3, 2.3, 4.1.4, and 4.2.1). It follows the nucleus of the particular phrase in which it occurs. This word also functions as a general quantifier meaning ‘much’.

L6	<i>tāvī</i>	‘much’
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The other two intensifying adverbs occur only in verb phrases and precede the verb.

G6	<i>chúka</i>	‘much, so’
D631	<i>néné</i>	‘much’

Interrogative adverbs occur in WH questions and indirect questions (see §§1.2.2 and 1.2.3). They include:

Lo8	<i>tīín</i>	‘where?’
D119	<i>tikwáhān</i>	‘when?’
G6	<i>dēhe</i>	‘why?’
L18	<i>tākā</i>	‘how?’
D119	<i>tavā</i>	‘how much?’

## 5.6 Quantifiers

Quantifiers include both numerals and general quantifiers; they occur in quantifier phrases (see §4.1) and as pronominal elements in noun phrases (see §3.1.2).

Simple numerals include those from one to ten, fifteen, and twenty, as well as Spanish loans for hundred and thousand. The remaining numerals are expressed by numeral phrases (see §§4.1.1 and 4.1.2).

D380	<i>āmā</i>	‘one, a’
D155	<i>uvi</i>	‘two’
D377	<i>inu</i>	‘three’
D119	<i>kun</i>	‘four’
D96	<i>xūhūn</i>	‘five’
D345	<i>xan</i>	‘six’
D349	<i>ntacha</i>	‘seven’
D279	<i>nīnī</i>	‘eight’
D276	<i>nū</i>	‘nine’
D151	<i>nīchī</i>	‘ten’
D319	<i>nūthiyūn</i>	‘fifteen’
D383	<i>ntikū</i>	‘twenty’
D119	<i>xākū</i>	‘twenty’ (as the nucleus of attributive numeral phrases)

D96	<i>syēntó</i>	‘hundred’ (Sp. <i>ciento</i> )
D260	<i>mīil</i>	‘thousand’ (Sp. <i>mil</i> )

General quantifiers include a number of less precise quantifying words.

L34	<i>támá</i>	‘another’ (cf. <i>ámá</i> ‘one’)
L14	<i>yhān</i>	‘many’
L15	<i>más</i>	‘more’
L26	<i>nākwhéhe</i>	‘all’
G11	<i>tālhín</i>	‘some’ (cf. <i>lhín</i> ‘little’)
W8	<i>kādā</i>	‘each’
L12	<i>ntō</i>	‘all’

The intensifying adverb *tāvī* ‘much’ also functions as a general quantifier.

### 5.7 Prepositions

There are only a small number of simple prepositions. They are used mainly in prepositional phrases (see §4.3), but *ntūku* ‘with’ is also used in additive noun phrases (see §3.8).

L8	<i>ntūku</i> or <i>ntū</i>	‘with’
L26	<i>ménos</i>	‘except’
Lo13	<i>ntí</i>	‘until, even’

There are also two complex prepositions.

G5	<i>nīnū nā</i>	near face at, by, near
D120	<i>kwēnta yehen</i>	account base on account (Sp. <i>cuenta</i> ) of, for

### 5.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used mainly to link combinations of sentences in a coordinate or subordinate relationship (see §§6.1.1 and 6.2.1). The coordinate conjunctions include:

L23	<i>mikū</i>	or <i>mī</i>	‘and’
L3	<i>né</i>		‘and’
D351	<i>tin</i>		‘but’
G18	<i>sīnō</i>		‘but’
G9	<i>pērō</i>		‘but’
D726	<i>u</i>		‘or’ (Sp. <i>o</i> )

The subordinate conjunctions are simple or complex. The simple ones include:

L62	<i>kātē</i>		‘because’
L59	<i>ntíūī</i>		‘if’
Lol4	<i>tāchī</i>		‘when’ (cf. <i>chī</i> ‘complementizer’)
W7	<i>vēnā</i>		‘before’

The conjunction *tāchī* also functions as a relative pronoun (see §3.1.3).  
The complex subordinate conjunctions include:

L9	<i>pārā</i>	<i>chī</i>	
	for	CMP	
	so that		
W2	<i>dātāachī</i>	<i>chī</i>	
	?:when	CMP	
	when		

### 5.9 Markers

Markers include all words that form parts of sentences or phrases that are not included in the parts of speech already described. There are verbal, nominal, general, and sentential markers.

Verbal markers occur as preverbal and postverbal elements in verb phrases; they are:

L8	<i>a</i>		‘already’
W2	<i>amtá</i>		‘no longer’
W7	<i>tūun</i>		‘again’

Nominal markers occur as prenominal and postnominal elements in noun phrases; they are:

D523	<i>khu</i>	‘this’
D718	<i>thi</i>	‘that (nearby)’
D442	<i>kha</i>	‘that (at a distance)’
L16	<i>chhūn</i>	‘this:PL’
L15	<i>chhén</i>	‘that:PL’
L16	<i>chāa</i>	‘which?’

General markers occur in more than one type of construction; they are:

G15	<i>nkwá</i>	‘not’
L15	<i>ka</i>	‘more’
L40	<i>mā</i>	‘specifier’
L17	<i>chī</i>	‘complementizer’

The complementizer also functions as a relative pronoun (see §3.1.3), as a subordinate conjunction expressing cause or purpose (see §6.2.1), and to mark the end of a focused element or the break between two juxtaposed sentences (see §§1.1.8 and 6.1.2).

There are two kinds of sentential markers. One kind indicates the mood or truth value of a sentence (see §1.5), and occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

L37	<i>á</i>	‘interrogative’
L28	<i>nī</i>	‘not even’

The second kind of sentential marker relates a sentence to its discourse context (see §6.4). These are complex and are formed by combining a coordinate conjunction with a temporal adverb.

W10	<i>míkú</i>	<i>tōmhē</i>
	and	then
		then
L23	<i>míkū</i>	<i>lūéko</i>
	and	soon
		then

### 5.10 Interjections

Interjections are words used outside of sentences to express emotion. Some common ones are:

D400	<i>ái</i>	‘surprise or amazement’
D399	<i>āan</i>	‘ah’
D400	<i>hāan</i>	‘aha!’
D597	<i>xāan</i>	‘bah!’





## 6

# Intersentential Relations

### 6.1 Coordinate Relations

Some relationships between sentences are expressed by means of a conjunction, and some are not. An element may be unexpressed in the second sentence if it is coreferential with an element of the first sentence.

**6.1.1 Coordinate relations with conjunctions.** Coordinate conjunctions are used to express coordination, antithesis, temporal sequence, and result.

Simple coordination is expressed using the conjunction *mikū* ‘and’ (or a shortened form *mī*).

L30 *kāani tāvī ú / mí dī-in dēsēáar*  
fast INTS I and POT:do-I to:desire

*chī ntīch-í sáhan mī*  
CMP POT:see-I man that  
I’m very fast, and I want to see the man.

- L06 *ú kāh-án / kūnūntēh-é chētē vāha nāchī vá*  
 I POT:go-I POT:hide-I stomach house place CON:exist  
*nínú / mikú kúchī dī chāk-ú*  
 corn and POT:tell you:SG mother-my  
*chī nkwā-á vāha*  
 CMP NEG:CON:exist-I house  
 I am going to hide in the corn crib (lit. house where there is corn),  
 and you tell my mother that I am not home.  
 (See also L72, W1, G2, and G13.)

Antithesis may be expressed using *mīkū* ‘and’, *né* ‘and’, *tin* ‘but’, or *sīnō* ‘but’ (Sp. *sino*).

- W1 *chī kwīkū tāvī tá / mīkū nkwá chīnāhān tā /*  
 COM:be hungry INTS she and NEG COM:go:home she  
*chēhe tā lūéko*  
 POT:eat she soon  
 She became very hungry, but she didn’t go home to eat right away.
- L28 *sáhan mī nī nkwá nthīchī sā /*  
 man that nor NEG POT:see he  
*né kāanhu sā chūhūnh*  
 and POT:kill he US:IN  
 THE MAN doesn’t even [need to] see [us], and [yet] he can kill us.
- D351 *nkwā chī nkwā nēh-én / tin chī nkwā*  
 NEG:CON:exist CMP NEG want-I but CMP NEG  
*kūvī dī-ín*  
 CON:be:possible POT:do-I  
 It’s not that I don’t want [to], but that I am not able to do [it].
- G18 *nkwá tāhan mī chī nthīchī sā / sīnō tá ntīiyu*  
 NEG woman that CMP COM:see he but she ghost  
 It was NOT THE WOMAN whom he saw, but [he saw] a ghost.

Temporal sequence is expressed using the conjunctions *né* or *mīkū*, both of which mean ‘and’.

- L3 *chīikā xūvī / né chīniyáan dāyā ti*  
 COM:walk day and COM:be:born child its:AML  
 The days passed, and their child was born.

G12 *tomhē chēhēn sā / chítáhā sā /*  
 then COM:go he COM:take he  
*mīkū chhīī sā xīmá yútā mī*  
 and COM:put he salt meat that  
 Then he took [the salt] and he salted the meat.

Result is expressed using the conjunction *mīkū* (or the reduced form *mī*).

L63 *tomhē lyóon ntūúku dīyhūn ti chūkā ti /*  
 then lion with tooth its:AML COM:walk it:AML  
*chēhé ti hīiyu / mí nānthāá ti sāhan mī*  
 COM:eat it:AML rope and COM:untie it:AML man that  
 Then, THE LION broke the rope WITH HIS TEETH, and he freed the man.

L63 *vá tāvī nínú yēhen sā / mīkú chākū sā*  
 CON:exist INTS corn base his and mother his  
*xēhé ya / xīkā ya nínú sāhan xūvī xūvī*  
 CON:go person CON:ask person corn man day day  
 [One of the men] had a lot of corn and HIS MOTHER would go [and]  
 ask him for corn every day.

**6.1.2 Coordinate relations without conjunctions.** It is possible to express certain relationships between coordinate sentences simply by juxtaposing them. These relationships include simple coordination, temporal sequence, result, and antithesis.

The juxtaposition of two or more sentences with no conjunction sometimes expresses a list of closely related actions or states.

L43 *kāntīī ti / kwēhēn ti*  
 COM:follow it:AML COM:go it:AML  
 He went on his way.

G8 *kūhu sā / chēhe sā*  
 POT:drink he POT:eat he  
 He will eat, [and] he will drink.

(See also L50 and L64.)

Sometimes the complementizer *chī* is used to separate two juxtaposed sentences which describe the same event. Often one is more specific than the other, and this repetition serves to highlight the event.

L18 *nhīichī dī tākā dī-ín /chī tūnkā-án*  
 POT:see you:SG how POT:do-I CMP POT:hunt-I  
 You watch how I hunt.

L40 *īdīn sā / chí íntha áamá khūu*  
 CON:do he CMP CON:find one iron  
 He finds an iron.

Quotations are often introduced by two juxtaposed sentences, one with the verb *xāhān* 'to say' and the other with the verb *xī* 'to tell' (see §6.3 for examples of this construction).

In a series of stative verbs, the subject is repeated following each verb, even if the subjects are coreferential.

L30 *ú né chhātā tāvī ú / dīū tāvī ú / kāani tāvī ú*  
 I and big INTS I strong INTS I fast INTS I  
 I am very big, I'm very strong, [and] I'm very fast.

If the object of a verb consists of several different items, the verb and subject are stated before each item.

G8 *mikū ntāi tá tūhū / ntāi tá yūuntu /*  
 and COM:bring she chicken COM:bring she tortilla  
*ntāi tá xādē*  
 COM:bring she tepache

Then she brought [out] chicken, tortillas, [and] tepache.

Sometimes two juxtaposed sentences express a temporal relationship, such as closely related events in sequence. The complementizer *chī* may separate the two parts.

L12 *chīdāvā táamá xūvī / kwēhén ntō ínó ti*  
 COM:dawn next day COM:go all three it:AML  
 It dawned the next day, [and] all three animals set out.

L68 *nkāá ti / chī xēhé ti chivú yēhen sā*  
 COM:come it:AML CMP CON:eat it:AML goat base his  
 They came [and] ate his goats.

(See also L19 and G9.)

Two juxtaposed sentences may also express a logical result.

L73 *ĩĩ mĩ kwĩkũ ti / kwēhēn ti / chēhē ti*  
 animal that hungry it:AML COM:go it:AML POT:eat it:AML

*lũnchĩ mĩ*  
 little:goat that

THE ANIMAL was hungry, [and so] he went to eat the little goat.

An antithetical relation may be expressed by simple juxtaposition of two sentences. In the second example below, the two sentences that are in antithetical relationship together form a conditional sentence (see §6.2.1).

L56 *nkwá ú chĩ sāhan / āmiko lyóon*  
 NEG I CMP man friend lion  
 I am NOT the man; [but I] am the lion's friend.

L80 *ntĩĩ nkwá kãn-hú dĩ / nākāntā-á dĩ /*  
 if NEG POT:kill-I you:SG POT:let:go-I you:SG

*tōmhē chēhē di ú*  
 then POT:eat you:SG me

If I don't kill you [but] free you [instead], then you will eat me.

## 6.2 Subordinate Relations

Subordinate relations are usually expressed using conjunctions, but purpose may be expressed simply by juxtaposing two sentences.

**6.2.1 Subordinate relations with conjunctions.** Conjunctions are used to introduce certain relationships between sentences, including cause, condition, purpose, and temporal relations.

Subordinate sentences that express the reason or cause for the predication stated in the main sentence are introduced by the complementizer *chĩ* or the conjunction *kāĩē* 'because'; they follow the main sentence.

L11 *yēnó tāví ti / chĩ kāhán ti ĩkyáhan*  
 happy INTS it:AML CMP POT:go it:AML forest

*ntũkũ chĩdá ti*  
 with father its:AML

He was very happy that he could go to the forest with his father.

L27 *sāhan mī né dīn tāvī dī / kwīdādo dī /*  
 man that and POT:do INTS you:SG care you:SG

*kātē sāhan mī āstúto tāvī sā*  
 because man that sly INTS he

You must be very careful of THE MAN because he is very sly.

L42 *nī nkwá nākádīnō dī chī nūchī dī sāhan /*  
 nor NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man

*kātē sāhan mī kāanhu sā dī*  
 because man that POT:kill he you:SG

Don't you even think about seeing the man because THE MAN will kill you.

(See also L016.)

Conditional sentences are introduced using the conjunction *nūūū* 'if'; they precede the main sentence.

L59 *nūūū nēhen dī áamá fāvóor ntūk-ú /*  
 if CON:want you:SG one favor with-me

*nānthāti dī ú*  
 POT:untie you:SG me

If you want to do a favor for me, untie me.

L70 *nūūū nkwá kūmhī dī sāhan mī ú /*  
 if NEG POT:show you:SG man that me

*chēh-é dī*  
 POT:eat-I you:SG

If you won't show me the man, I will eat you.

L80 *nūūū nkwá kān-hú dī / nākāntā-á dī /*  
 if NEG POT:kill-I you:SG POT:let:go-I you:SG

*tōmhē chēhē dī ú*  
 then POT:eat you:SG me

If I don't kill you [but] free you [instead], then you will eat me.

Purpose is expressed using the complementizer *chī* or a complex conjunction *pārā chī* (Sp. *para* 'for') 'so that'. The main sentence precedes the purpose sentence and the verb in the purpose sentence is in potential aspect. The first example below contains two purpose sentences; the first one is introduced by *pārā chī* and is subordinate to the main sentence, and the second one is introduced by *chī* and is subordinate to the first purpose sentence.

- L9 *kūhun-h ntúku dī īkyáhan / pārá chī thika*  
 POT:go-we:IN with you:SG forest for CMP thus  
*kwhēe dī nhūu dī / chī chēhē dī*  
 POT:learn you:SG POT:hunt you:SG CMP POT:eat you:SG  
 We will go with you to the forest so that you will learn to hunt for food (lit. hunt so you can eat).

- L23 *mīkū lūéko tūnkān áamá yhūdú chēeno / chī chēhe*  
 and soon COM:hunt one horse mountain CMP POT:eat  
*ntō ūvī ūī ntīku*  
 all two animal old  
 And then [he] hunted a deer for both old animals to eat.

- G8 *kāhan tā / chī kūhu sā / chēhe sā*  
 COM:give she CMP POT:drink he POT:eat he  
 She gave [him] to eat [and] drink.

Temporal relations are expressed using *tāchī* ‘when’ to encode temporal succession as well as temporal overlap. Subordinate temporal sentences precede the main sentence.

- L7 *tāchī chhūī xān īyu / a chhātā tāvī ti*  
 when COM:complete six month already big INTS it:AML  
 When six months had passed, he was already very big. *or* When [he] was six months old, he was already very big.

- G6 *tāchī ntāa sā / tōmhē xāhan tā*  
 when COM:arrive he then CON:say she  
 When he arrived, she said . . .

- G9 *tāchī kwēhēn sā / kwhīntī sā / chēhē sā yūuntu /*  
 when COM:go he POT:sit he POT:eat he tortilla  
*yúta mī nkwá chīnúu xīima*  
 meat that NEG COM:be:found salt  
 When he went to sit down and eat, he found that THE MEAT WAS NOT salted.

- G17 *mīkū tāchī nāntāa sa / kēnū nthātā*  
 and when COM:return he COM:be:inside woman  
*yēhen sā vāha*  
 base his house  
 And when he arrived, his wife was [already] at the house.

- w6 *mīkū tāchī inthūtī tá / xīdākā tāvī tīin tā*  
 and when COM:lie:down she CON:tangle INTS head her  
 Whenever she lay down, her hair would get very tangled.

Temporal relations may also be expressed using *vēná* 'before' to introduce the subordinate time sentence.

- w7 *vēná ntūvē / dākā tāvī tun*  
 before POT:turn:around tangled INTS again  
 Before [she] could turn around, [it] was very tangled again.

**6.2.2 Subordinate relations without conjunctions.** Purpose relations may be expressed simply by two juxtaposed sentences with no conjunction relating them. A subordinate sentence that expresses purpose follows the main sentence, and the verb is in potential aspect.

- L21 *kāhá tī / chēhe dāyā ti*  
 COM:give it:AML POT:eat child its:AML  
 He gave [it] to his son to eat.
- L73 *kwēhēn ti / chēhē ti lūnchí mī*  
 COM:go it:AML POT:eat it:AML little:goat that  
 He went to eat the little goat.
- L76 *sāhan mī kwēhen sā / kānēnkwāi sā inkāātu yēhen*  
 man that COM:go he POT:bring he rifle base  
 THE MAN went to get [his] rifle.
- L77 *nākwēhēn sā / kāanhu sā lyóon mī*  
 COM:go he POT:kill he lion that  
 He was going to kill the lion.
- Lo6 *ú kāh-án / kūnūntēh-é chētē vāha*  
 I POT:go-I POT:hide-I stomach house  
 I am going to hide in the corn crib.
- Lo7 *mī sāhan kwēhen sā / kūnūntēhe sā nā vāha*  
 and man COM:go he POT:hide he face house  
 So THE MAN went to hide in the corn crib.
- G9 *tāchí kwēhēn sā / kwhīntī sā / chēhē sā yūuntu*  
 when COM:go he POT:sit he POT:eat he tortilla  
 When he went to sit down [and] eat . . .

(See also w1 and w9.)



6.3 Direct Quotations

Quotations are composed of a quotation and an introducer. The nucleus of this construction is the quotation, which is obligatory and consists of one or more sentences or fragments. The introducer precedes the quotation and consists of a verb of speaking in continuative aspect, usually *xāhān* ‘says’, followed by a subject.

L17 *xāhan īī lhn mí / áamá īī chī*  
 CON:say animal little that one animal CMP  
 The little animal said, “An animal that . . .”

G10 *tōmhē xāhan sā / dēhe kūvī chī*  
 then CON:say he why POT:be:possible CMP  
 He said, “Why is it possible that . . .”

Often the introducer is a juxtaposed coordinate construction that contains two different speech verbs (see §6.1.2).

G6 *xāhan tā / xī tá sāhan / dēhe chúka nhān dī*  
 CON:say she CON:tell she man why much late you:SG  
 She said to him, “Why are you so late?”

L36 *tōmhē xāhān ti / xīi ti īī / dōho dí*  
 then CON:say it:AML CON:tell it:AML animal who you:SG  
 Then he said to the animal, “Who are you?”

L69 *xāhān lyóon / xīi ti sāhan / ú né*  
 CON:say lion CON:tell it:AML man I and  
 The lion said to the man, “I . . .”

L9 *tōmhē xāhan chidá ti / xīi ti īī /*  
 then CON:say father its:AML CON:tell it:AML animal

*kāvyān né kūhun-h ntúku dī īkyáhan*  
 tomorrow and POT:go-we:IN with you:SG forest

Then his father said to him, “TOMORROW we will go with you to the forest.”

The quotation introducer also includes other speech verbs, such as *tēxūnā* ‘ask’ and *návākútāhá*, a compound form meaning ‘reply’ (see §5.1.1). These speech verbs occasionally follow the quotation.

L45 *lō míismo tēxūnā ti / dōho dí*  
 the same COM:ask it:AML who you:SG  
 He asked THE SAME [QUESTION], “Who are you?”

- L38 *nkwá ú / nāvākútāhá ti*  
 NEG I COM:reply it:AML  
 “Not I,” it replied. *or* “I am not [he],” it replied.

Examples of quotations that contain more than one sentence are found in L26–29, L36–37, L39–42, L45–46, L47–49, L54–55, L56–60, L61–62, L69–70, L78–79, L80–81, Lo9–10, and G6–7.

The introducer may be omitted altogether in order to achieve a heightened dramatic effect.

- L63–65 *tōmhē lyóon ntūúku dīyhūn ti chīkā ti /*  
 then lion with tooth its:AML COM:walk it:AML  
*chēhé ti hīyu / mí nānthāá ti sāhan mī //*  
 COM:eat it:AML rope and COM:untie it:AML man that  
*kenthā dī ú / kūhūn-h mā //*  
 POT:follow you:SG me POT:go-we:IN now  
*tōmhē kwēhēn sā ntúkū ti*  
 then COM:go he with it:AML

Then THE LION broke the rope WITH HIS TEETH, and he freed the man.  
 “You follow me [and] let’s go now!” Then he went with the animal.

#### 6.4 Relations Across Sentence Boundaries

An important way in which a sentence is related to its discourse context is through the use of certain linking expressions in sentence-initial position.

Temporal succession is expressed by *mikū* (or *mī*) ‘and’, *tōmhē* ‘then’, *míkú tōmhē*, or *míkú lúéko* (Sp. *luego* ‘soon’).

- G15–16 *nkwá tūné sá ūū / chī chhīnhu sā ūū //*  
 NEG COM:catch he animal CMP COM:kill he animal  
*míkū sāhan mī nāváyūune sā*  
 and man that COM:go:home he

He could not catch the animal to kill it. Then THE MAN went home.

- L18–19 *kwhīnō dī / thīka dīn dī // tōmhē*  
 POT:see you:SG thus POT:do you:SG then  
*lyóon chhātā né kāhán ti*  
 lion big and POT:go it:AML  
 “You will see how to do it.” Then THE BIG LION jumped.

- W9-10 *tōmhē chākū tá chēhen ya / nhūan yá*  
 then mother her COM:go person POT:hunt person  
*ámá kwáa / chī nādīxīkū sā tāhan // mīkū tōmhē*  
 one shaman CMP POT:heal he woman and then  
*nāntuvā yēhen tā*  
 COM:be:healed base she  
 Then HER MOTHER went to find a shaman to heal the woman. Then she got well.

- L22-23 *tōmhē lhin mí né yēnó tāvī // mīkū lūéko tūnkān*  
 then little that and happy INTS and soon COM:hunt  
*ámá yhūdú chēeno / chī chēhe ntō ūvī ūī ntīku*  
 one horse mountain CMP POT:eat all two animal old  
 Then THE LITTLE [LION] was very happy. Then [he] hunted a deer for both old animals to eat.

(See also L60-61, L62-63, L64-65, L81-82, L08-9, L010-11, G7-8, and G10-11.)

Expectancy reversal, or a change of thought between one sentence and the next, is expressed by *pērō* ‘but’ (Sp. *pero*) or *mīkū* ‘and’.

- G8-9 *chī kāhan tā / chī kūhu sā / chēhe sā //*  
 CMP COM:give she CMP POT:drink he POT:eat he  
*pērō tāchí kwēhēn sā / kwhīntī sā / chēhē sā yūuntu /*  
 but when COM:go he POT:sit he POT:eat he tortilla  
*yūta mī nkwá chīnúu xīima*  
 meat that NEG COM:be:found salt  
 ... which she gave [him] to eat and drink. But, when he went to sit down [and] eat, he found that THE MEAT WAS NOT salted.

- L58-59 *nī nkwá nākādīnō dī chí nūchī dī sāhan //*  
 NOR NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man  
*pērō ntīūi nēhen dī ámá fāvóor ntūk-ú*  
 but if CON:want you:SG one favor with-me  
 Don't even think about seeing [the] man. But if you want to do me a favor ...

G2-3 *xāhan sā / xī sā nthāta yēhen sā*  
 CON:say he CON:tell he woman base his

*chī kwēnō tá sāhān rānchō chhātā // mīkū táhan mī*  
 CMP POT:wait she man ranch big and woman that

*kēnú dāanthi nāá tá*  
 COM:be:inside lazy face hers

He told his wife to wait for him at the big ranch. But THE WOMAN was lazy.

L03-4 *mīkú chākū sā xēhén ya / xīkā ya*  
 and mother his CON:go person CON:ask person

*nínú sáhan xūvī xūvī // mīkú vá áamá xūvī*  
 corn man day day and CON:exist one day

And HIS MOTHER would go [and] ask him for corn every day. But there was one day . . .

# 7

## Texts

### 7.1 The Story About a Lion

This text was originally published in the *International Journal of American Linguistics* (Davis 1954).

- L1 *ūvī īyháyan chīnúū ti īkyahan*  
two lion COM:walk it:AML forest  
TWO LIONS were walking in the forest.
- L2 *ūī chhūn né ūī réi yēhen īkyáhan*  
animal this:PL and animal king base forest  
THESE ANIMALS are the kings (Sp. *rey*) of the forest.
- L3 *chīikā xūvī / né chīnīyáan dāyā ti*  
COM:walk day and COM:be:born child its:AML  
The days passed, and their child was born.
- L4 *ūī lhín dīnehēn tāvī chākú ti*  
animal little CON:love INTS mother its:AML  
*núku chidá ūī*  
with father animal  
His mother and father dearly loved THE LITTLE ANIMAL.

- L5 *dīn tāví ālīmēntáar lhín mín*  
 COM:do INTS to:feed little that  
 [They] did much to feed (Sp. *alimentar*) the little [animal]. or [They] fed the little [animal] very well.
- L6 *īī lhín mí nú tāví chítá ti*  
 animal little that quickly INTS COM:grow it:AML  
 THE LITTLE ANIMAL grew very quickly.
- L7 *tāchí chhūī xān īyu / a chhātā tāví ti*  
 when COM:complete six month already big INTS it:AML  
 When six months had passed, he was already very big. or When [he] was six months old, he was already very big.
- L8 *a dāmá ti ntūkū chīdā ti*  
 already same it:AML with father its:AML  
 He and his father were already the same [size]. or He was already the same [size] as his father.
- L9 *tōmhé xāhan chīdā ti / xīi ti īī / kāvyān*  
 then CON:say father its:AML CON:tell it:AML animal tomorrow  
*né kūhun-h ntúku dī īkyáhan / pārá chī*  
 and POT:GO-WE:IN with you:SG forest for CMP  
*thíka kwhēe dī nhūu dī / chī chēhē dī*  
 thus POT:learn you:SG POT:hunt you:SG CMP POT:eat you:SG  
 Then his father said to him, "TOMORROW we will go with you to the forest so that (Sp. *para* 'for') you will learn to hunt for food."
- L10 *tōmhē né īī lhín mí né chīnīvēén ti*  
 then and animal little that and COM:listen it:AML  
*chī xāhan chīdā ti ntūkū chākú ti /*  
 CMP CON:say father its:AML with mother its:AML  
*xīi ti īī*  
 CON:tell it:AML animal  
 The LITTLE ANIMAL listened to what his father and mother told him.
- L11 *yēnó tāví ti / chī kāhán ti īkyáhan*  
 happy INTS it:AML CMP POT:go it:AML forest  
*ntūkū chīdā ti*  
 with father its:AML  
 He was very happy that he could go to the forest with his father.

- L12 *chīdāvā támá xūvī / kwēhén ntō inó ti*  
 COM:dawn next day COM:go all three it:AML  
 It dawned the next day, [and] all three animals set out.
- L13 *ntāá ti chhīitū áamá xīkū*  
 COM:arrive it:AML side one river  
 They arrived beside a river. *or* They came to the edge of a river.
- L14 *nthīchí ti yhān tāvī ūī*  
 COM:see it:AML many INTS animal  
 They saw very many animals.
- L15 *ūī chhén né kūchí chēenu yhūuvi yhūdú chēenu*  
 animal that:PL and pig mountain coati horse mountain  
*chivī kōnēxó hūmha iyāáta ntūkū más ka ūī*  
 armadillo rabbit skunk opossum with more ADD animal  
 THE ANIMALS are peccaries (Reg. Sp. *cuchi* ‘pig’), coatis, deer, armadillos, rabbits (Sp. *conejo*), skunks, opossums, and many other (Sp. *más* ‘more’) animals.
- L16 *tōmhé xāhan lyóon / xī sa dāyá ti / mā né*  
 then CON:say lion CON:tell he child its:AML now and  
*chāa ūī chhūn nēhēn dī chēhē dī ūī*  
 which animal this:PL CON:want you:SG POT:eat you:SG animal  
 Then the lion (Sp. *león*) said to his son, “NOW, which of these animals do you want to eat?”
- L17 *tōmhé xāhan ūī lhín mí / áamá ūī chī lhín /*  
 then CON:say animal little that one animal CMP little  
*kōsā chī kūchā-á kwhīnū chēh-é ūī*  
 thing CMP POT:be:able-I POT:finish POT:eat-I animal  
 Then the little animal said, “An animal that is small, something (Sp. *cosa* ‘thing’) that I will be able to finish eating.”
- L18 *tōmhé xāhan lyóon ntīiku / nthīchī dī tākā*  
 then CON:say lion old POT:see you:SG how  
*dī-ín / chī tūnkā-án ūī lhín / kwhīnō dī /*  
 POT:do-I CMP POT:hunt-I animal little POT:see you:SG  
*thika dīn dī*  
 thus POT:do you:SG  
 Then the old lion said, “You watch how I hunt a little animal, [and] you will see how to do it.”

- L19 *tōmhē lyóon chhātā né káhán ti / ntū áamá*  
 then lion big and POT:go it:AML with one  
*tāhá ti stāhā ti ūī lhín mí*  
 hand its:AML COM:grab it:AML animal little that  
 Then THE BIG LION jumped, [and] he grabbed the little animal WITH ONE OF HIS PAWS.
- L20 *ōséa áamá kūchí chēeno lhín*  
 COM:be one pig mountain little  
 [It] was (Sp. *o sea* 'or perhaps [it] was') a small peccary.
- L21 *kāhá tī / chēhe dāyā ti*  
 COM:give it:AML POT:eat child its:AML  
 He gave [it] to his son to eat.
- L22 *tōmhē lhín mí né yēnó tāvī*  
 then little that and happy INTS  
 Then THE LITTLE [LION] was very happy.
- L23 *mūkū lūéko tūnkān áamá yhūdú chēeno / chī chēhe*  
 and soon COM:hunt one horse mountain CMP POT:eat  
*ntō ūvī ūī ntīku*  
 all two animal old  
 Then (Sp. *luego*) [he] hunted a deer for both old animals to eat.
- L24 *tōmhē yēnó tāvī kūnāhán ti*  
 then happy INTS POT:go:home it:AML  
 Then they went home very happily.
- L25 *tōmhē lhín mí dīn ti rēsivír*  
 then little that COM:do it:AML to:receive  
*kōnséxo yēhen chídā ti*  
 advice base father its:AML  
 Then THE LITTLE [LION] received (Sp. *recibir*) [some] advice (Sp. *consejo*) from his father.



- L26 *xāhan chīdā ti / xīi ti ūi / nākwéhe*  
 CON:say father its:AML CON:tell it:AML animal all  
*chī nūichu-h dīchhīvha chī chūhū-h ménos*  
 CMP POT:see-we:IN CON:be:good CMP POT:eat-we:IN except  
*ámá sáhan chī xūvī sā ānimál oombre*  
 one man CMP name his animal man  
 His father said to the animal, “ALL [THE ANIMALS] THAT WE SEE are good for us to eat except (Sp. *menos*) a man who is called animal-man (Sp. *animal, hombre*).
- L27 *sāhan mī né dīn tāvī dī / kwīdādo dī /*  
 man that and POT:do INTS you:SG care you:SG  
*kātē sáhan mī āstúto tāvī sā*  
 because man that sly INTS he  
 You must be very careful (Sp. *cuidado*) of THE MAN because HE is very sly (Sp. *astuto*).
- L28 *sáhan mī nī nkwá nthīchī sā /*  
 man that nor NEG POT:see he  
*né kāanhu sā chūhūnh*  
 and POT:kill he us:IN  
 THE MAN doesn't even (Sp. *ni* 'nor') [need to] see [us], and [yet] he can kill us.
- L29 *a chīnīvī sā vída yūhūn-h*  
 already POT:take:away he life base-our:IN  
 He will take away our lives (Sp. *vida*).”
- L30 *tōmhē xāhan lyóon lhín mí // ú né chhātā tāvī ú /*  
 then CON:say lion little that I and big INTS I  
*dītū tāvī ú / kāani tāvī ú /*  
 strong INTS I fast INTS I  
*mí dī-in dēsēáar chī nūch-í sáhan mī*  
 and POT:do-I to:desire CMP POT:see-I man that  
 Then the little lion said, “I am very big, [and] I'm very strong, [and] I'm very fast, and I want (Sp. *desear*) to see the man.”

- L31 *támá xūvī né dīn ti dēspēdīr*  
 next day and COM:do it:AML to:say:goodbye  
*yēhen víhī*  
 base companion  
 THE NEXT DAY, he said goodbye (Sp. *despedir*) to [his] parents.
- L32 *lyóon chhātā mí kwēhén ti áamá yūni*  
 lion big that COM:go it:AML one road  
 THE BIG LION went down one road.
- L33 *ūī nthātā mí kwēhén ti támá yūni*  
 animal woman that COM:go it:AML another road  
 THE FEMALE LION went down another road.
- L34 *ūī lhín stāhá ti támá yūni*  
 animal little COM:grab it:AML another road  
 THE LITTLE ANIMAL took [still] another road.
- L35 *ntāa ūī lhín mí nāchī*  
 COM:arrive animal little that place  
*kēné áamá ūīntū*  
 COM:be:located one cow  
 The little animal came to a place where there was a cow.
- L36 *tōmhé xāhán ti / xīi ti ūī / dōho dí*  
 then CON:say it:AML CON:tell it:AML animal who you:SG  
 Then he said to the animal, “Who are you?”
- L37 *á nkwá dī chí sáhan mī*  
 INT NEG you:SG CMP man that  
 Are YOU NOT the man?”
- L38 *nkwá ú / nāvākútāhá ti*  
 NEG I COM:reply it:AML  
 “Not I,” it replied. or “I am not [he],” it replied.
- L39 *sāhan mī ikūyatū sā ú*  
 man that CON:tie he me  
 “THE MAN ties me up.
- L40 *īdīn sā / chí íntha áamá khūu / chīntā mā yāhan*  
 CON:do he CMP CON:find one iron COM:drive SPEC ground  
 He finds an iron [and] drives [it] into the ground.

- L41 *sāhan mī āstúto tāvī sā*  
 man that sly INTS he  
 THE MAN is very sly.
- L42 *nī nkwá nākádīnō dī chī ntīchī dī sāhan /*  
 not NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man  
*kātē sāhan mī kāanhu sā dī*  
 because man that POT:kill he you:SG  
 Don't you even think about seeing the man because HE will kill you."
- L43 *kāntīí ti / kwēhēn ti*  
 COM:follow it:AML COM:go it:AML  
 He went on his way.
- L44 *ntāá ti nāchī kēné áamá yhūúdu*  
 COM:arrive it:AML place COM:be:located one horse  
 He came to a place where there was a horse.
- L45 *lō mīismo tēxūnā ti / dōho dí*  
 the same COM:ask it:AML who you:SG  
 He asked THE SAME (Sp. *lo mismo*) [QUESTION], "Who are you?"
- L46 *á nkwá dí chí sāhan mī*  
 INT NEG you:SG CMP man that  
 Are YOU NOT the man?"
- L47 *nāvākútāha yhūudu mī / nkwá ú chí sāhan mī*  
 COM:reply horse that NEG I CMP man that  
 The horse answered, "I am NOT the man.
- L48 *sāhan mī né xā sā ú*  
 man that and CON:ride he me  
 THE MAN rides me.
- L49 *īkāndēd-í sāhan yāhān tāvī*  
 CON:carry-I man far INTS  
 I carry the man very far."
- L50 *lyóon né kāntīí ti / kwēhēn ti*  
 lion and COM:follow it:AML COM:go it:AML  
 THE LION went on his way.

- L51 *ntāá ti ámá lūgáar náchí ntāyāatu*  
 COM:arrive it:AML one place place COM:be:tied  
*ámá pāstóor*  
 one shepherd  
 He came to a place (Sp. *lugar*) where a shepherd (Sp. *pastor*) was tied up.
- L52 *sáhan mī né kyātú dūkū sáhan*  
 man that and COM:tie robber man  
 Robbers had tied up THE MAN.
- L53 *sáhan mī né dūkū sā ūī yēhen sā*  
 man that and COM:rob he animal base his  
 They stole HIS animals.
- L54 *tōmhē xáhan lyóon / xī ti sáhan / dōho dī*  
 then CON:say lion CON:tell it:AML man who you:SG  
 Then the lion said to the man, “Who are you?”
- L55 *á dī chī sáhan mī*  
 INT you:SG CMP man that  
 Are you the man?”
- L56 *tōmhē návākútāha sā mī / nkwá ú chī sáhan /*  
 then COM:reply he that NEG I CMP man  
*āmíko lyóon*  
 friend lion  
 Then he replied, “I am NOT the man; [but I] am the lion’s friend (Sp. *amigo*).
- L57 *sáhan mī chīkyāatū sā ú mūhūn*  
 man that ?:COM:tie he me here  
 THE MAN tied me here.
- L58 *nī nkwá nākádīnō dī chí nthīchī dī sáhan*  
 nor NEG POT:think you:SG CMP POT:see you:SG man  
 Don’t you even think about seeing the man!
- L59 *pērō ntūiti nēhen dī ámá fāvóor ntūk-ú /*  
 but if CON:want you:SG one favor with-me  
*nānthāti dī ú*  
 POT:untie you:SG me  
 But (Sp. *pero*) if you want to do a favor (Sp. *favor*) for me, untie me.

- L60 *ú né kūmh-í sāhan mī dí / káte mīniyūn*  
 I and POT:show-I man that you:SG because just:now  
*chōho sā*  
 COM:pass he  
 I will show you the man, because he JUST NOW passed by.”
- L61 *tōmhé nāvākútāha lyóon / nānthát-í dí mīniyūn /*  
 then COM:reply lion POT:untie-I you:SG just:now  
*né kēntánā dī*  
 and POT:follow you:SG  
 Then the lion replied, “I will untie you right now and you follow [me].
- L62 *kūhūn-h / kātē ú nēh-én ntīch-í sāhan mī*  
 POT:go-we:IN because I CON:want-I POT:see-I man that  
 Let’s go because I want to see the man.”
- L63 *tōmhē lyóon ntūúku dīyhūn ti chīkā ti /*  
 then lion with tooth its:AML COM:walk it:AML  
*chēhé ti hīyu / mí nānthāá ti sāhan mī*  
 COM:eat it:AML rope and COM:untie it:AML man that  
 Then THE LION broke the rope WITH HIS TEETH, and he freed the man.
- L64 *kēnthā dī ú / kūhūn-h mā*  
 POT:follow you:SG me POT:go-we:IN now  
 “You follow me [and] let’s go now!”
- L65 *tōmhē kwēhēn sā ntúkū ti*  
 then COM:go he with it:AML  
 Then he went with the animal. *or* Then he and the animal went.
- L66 *ntāa sā nā ráāncho yēhen*  
 COM:arrive he face ranch base:UN  
 He arrived at his ranch (Sp. *rancho*).
- L67 *mī né a vá yān sā áamá thūuvi*  
 and and already CON:exist prepared he one trap  
*yēhen yáyan*  
 base coyote  
 He had already prepared a trap for the coyotes.
- L68 *nkāá ti / chí xēhé ti chīvú yēhen sā*  
 COM:come it:AML CMP CON:eat it:AML goat base his  
 They came [and] ate his goats (Sp. *chivo*).

- L69 *tōmhé xāhán lyóon / xī ti sāhan /*  
 then CON:say lion CON:tell it:AML man  
*ú né kwīkū ú*  
 I and hungry I  
 Then the lion said to the man, “I am hungry.
- L70 *ntíūī nkwá kūmhī dī sāhan mī ú /*  
 if NEG POT:show you:SG man that me  
*chēh-é dī*  
 POT:eat-I you:SG  
 If you won’t show me the man, I will eat you.”
- L71 *tōmhē xāhan sā / xī sā ūī / ntíūī kwīkū dí /*  
 then CON:say he CON:tell he animal if hungry you:SG  
*chéhē dī ūī chī kéné mūhūn*  
 POT:eat you:SG animal CMP COM:be:located here  
 Then he said to the animal, “If you are hungry, then eat the animal that is here.”
- L72 *tōmhē chhīhīn sā thūuvi mī ūī /*  
 then COM:show he trap that animal  
*mī nīkéné áamá lūnchí*  
 and PERF:be:located one little:goat  
 Then he showed the trap to the animal, and there was a little goat.
- L73 *ūī mī kwīkū ti / kwēhēn ti / chēhē ti*  
 animal that hungry it:AML COM:go it:AML POT:eat it:AML  
*lūnchí mī*  
 little:goat that  
 THE ANIMAL was hungry, [and so] he went to eat the little goat.
- L74 *mī chī ntánū ti nā thūuvi mī*  
 and CMP COM:arrive:under it:AML face trap that  
 He jumped quickly into the trap.
- L75 *ānkūtá chī kādī nākēntāā ti*  
 never CMP POT:be:able POT:escape it:AML  
 He will NEVER be able to escape.
- L76 *sāhan mī kwēhen sā / kānēnkwāi sā īnkāātu yēhen*  
 man that COM:go he POT:bring he rifle base  
 THE MAN went to get [his] rifle.

- L77 *nākwēhēn sā / kāanhu sā lyóon mī*  
 COM:go he POT:kill he lion that  
 He was going to kill the lion.
- L78 *tōmhē xāhan lyóon mī / xīi ti sáhan /*  
 then CON:say lion that CON:tell it:AML man  
*nānchhākú ú yēhen vīida yēh-én*  
 POT:pardon me base life base-my  
 Then the lion said to the man, “Pardon me for my life’s sake.
- L79 *nkwá kāanhu di ú*  
 NEG POT:kill you:SG me  
 Don’t kill me.”
- L80 *tōmhē nāvākútāha sā mī / ntīi nkwá kān-hú dī /*  
 then COM:reply he that if NEG POT:kill-I you:SG  
*nākāntā-á dī / tōmhē chēhē di ú*  
 POT:let:go-I you:SG then POT:eat you:SG me  
 Then he answered, “If I don’t kill you [but] free you [instead], then you will eat me.
- L81 *dyóká nthāi kān-hú dī*  
 better good POT:kill-I you:SG  
 It is better to kill you.”
- L82 *tōmhē chhīinhu sā ūi*  
 then COM:kill he animal  
 Then he killed the animal.

## 7.2 The Story About the Locusts

This text was originally published in *Tlalocan* (Davis 1962).

- Lo0 *kwēntó yēhen lānkósta*  
 story base locust  
 The story (Sp. *cuento*) about the locusts (Sp. *langosta*)
- Lo1 *ntā áamá tyémpo áamá kwīkū dán chí kēnū*  
 COM:arrive one time one hunger strong CMP COM:be:inside  
 A time (Sp. *tiempo*) came when there was a great famine.

- Lo2 *vāa tá ūuvi īnthī tá yāan mī chí vá*  
 CON:exist she two old she land that CMP CON:exist  
*ámá dāyá ya sáhan*  
 one child person man  
 There were two old women in a town who [each] had a son.
- Lo3 *vá tāvī nínú yēhen sā / mīkú chākū sā*  
 CON:exist INTS corn base his and mother his  
*xēhén ya / xīkā ya nínú sáhan xūvī xūvī*  
 CON:go person CON:ask person corn man day day  
 [One of the men] had a lot of corn and HIS MOTHER would go [and]  
 ask him for corn every day.
- Lo4 *mīkú vá ámá xūvī chí chí dāanthi sā hīyan*  
 and CON:exist one day CMP COM:be lazy he person  
 But there was one day when he became lazy.
- Lo5 *nthīichi sá hīyan chí kūchiī ya*  
 COM:see he person CMP COM:come person  
 He saw the person who was coming [to his house].
- Lo6 *tōmhé xāmé xāhan sā / xī sā / ú kāh-án /*  
 then ? CON:say he CON:tell he I POT:go-I  
*kūnūntēh-é chētē vāha nāchī vá nínú / mīkú*  
 POT:hide-I stomach house place CON:exist corn and  
*kúchī dī chāk-ú chí nkwā-á vāha*  
 POT:tell you:SG mother-my CMP NEG:CON:exist-I house  
 Then he said, “I am going to hide in the corn crib (lit. house where  
 there is corn), and you tell my mother that I am not home.”
- Lo7 *mī sáhan kwēhen sā / kūnūntēhe sā nā vāha*  
 and man COM:go he POT:hide he face house  
*chī vá nínú*  
 CMP CON:exist corn  
 So THE MAN went to hide in the corn crib.
- Lo8 *tómhé chākū sā ūēxúná yá sáhan / tīín kwēhen*  
 then mother his CON:ask person man where COM:go  
*dāy-á / kātē téché sá nínú ú*  
 child-my because POT:give he corn me  
 Then HIS MOTHER asked [about] the man, “Where did my son go  
 because he is going to give me [some] corn.”



- Lo9 *míkú tōmhē xāhan táhan sā mī / kwéhén ne /*  
 and then CON:say woman his that IMP:go you:RES  
*míkú kāmā chíī ne*  
 and soon POT:COME you:RES  
 Then his wife said, "Go, and return soon.
- Lo10 *nēhēn chí nántā sā*  
 meanwhile CMP COM:return he  
 Meanwhile he will have returned."
- Lo11 *míkú ínthī tā mī kūnāhān ya*  
 and old she that POT:go:home person  
 Then THE OLD WOMAN went home.
- Lo12 *táchí ūuvi nāá kūnāhán ya / tōmhē táhan mī*  
 when two ? POT:go:home person then woman that  
*chēhen tá / nāvhān tá vāha nāchī kēnúū sá*  
 COM:go she COM:open she house place COM:be:inside he  
 A short time after she went home, THE WOMAN went [and] opened  
 the building where he was.
- Lo13 *níí túnú chhākū ntīi*  
 until much sound there  
 There was a tremendous noise.
- Lo14 *kānthāa lānkōstā chhēn*  
 COM:follow locust that:PL  
 Many locusts came out.
- Lo15 *chhínú chēhé ti sáhan*  
 COM:finish COM:eat it:AML man  
 They had completely eaten the man.
- Lo16 *ā dāmāa íní sá kēntítí sá /*  
 already only bone his COM:lie:down he  
*chī nkwá kāha sā nínú chākū sā*  
 CMP NEG COM:give he corn mother his  
 ONLY HIS SKELETON was lying [there] because he did not give his  
 mother corn.

## 7.3 The Story About a Woman

This text was originally published in *Tlalocan* (Davis 1962).

- w0 *ámá kwēntó yēhen ámá nthātā chí chhēno*  
 one story base one woman CMP COM:happen  
 A story (Sp. *cuento*) about a woman which happened or A true story  
 about a woman
- w1 *chēhēn tá / nāa tā / mīkū chí kwīkū tāvī tá /*  
 COM:go she POT:wash she and COM:be hungry INTS she  
*mīkū nkwá chīnāhān tā / chēhe tā lūéko*  
 and NEG COM:go:home she POT:eat she soon  
 A woman went to wash [clothes] and she became very hungry, but  
 she didn't go home to eat right away (Sp. *luego*).
- w2 *mīkū dátāachī chí chīnūnāa tā / amtá kwīku tā*  
 and ?:when CMP COM:?:wash she no:longer hungry she  
 When she finished washing, she was no longer hungry.
- w3 *mīkū nāntāa tāntōho nīnī xūvī kwāxīvī /*  
 and COM:return meanwhile eight day after  
*kēntá xūvī yēhēn tā tāchī lóka tā*  
 ?:COM:arrive day base her when crazy she  
 Meanwhile (Sp. *tanto*), after eight days had passed, the day came  
 when she was crazy (Sp. *loca*).
- w4 *tāchīn chīnkāha chí nīxéen yēhen tā chí lóka tā /*  
 when COM:begin CMP COM:appear base her CMP crazy she  
*chīnkāha hīyūn tā*  
 COM:begin CON:laugh she  
 When it began to show that she was crazy, she began to laugh.
- w5 *hīyun tāvī tá*  
 CON:laugh INTS she  
 She laughed wildly.
- w6 *mīkū tāchī īnthūī tá / xīdākā tāvī tīin tā*  
 and when CON:lie:down she CON:tangle INTS head her  
 Whenever she lay down, her hair would get very tangled.

- w7 *mīkū tāchī chāku tá hīya ntúku āséite /*  
 and when mother her CON:comb with oil  
*inādīdaūn ya / vēná ntūvē /*  
 CON:make:smooth person before POT:turn:around  
*dákā tāvī tūun*  
 tangled INTS again  
 Whenever HER MOTHER combed [her hair] with oil (Sp. *aceite*) [and] smoothed [it], before [she] could turn around [it] was very tangled again.
- w8 *mīkū kādā hīyan chī xéhén ya / yāvhi ya*  
 and each person CMP CON:go person CON:greet person  
*tāhan / thīkā ināntāchī tá tīnó yēhén ya*  
 woman thus CON:vomit:repeatedly she cloth base person  
 As for everyone (Sp. *cada* ‘each’) who goes [and] visits the woman, she vomits on their clothes.
- w9 *tōmhē chākū tá chēhen ya / nhūan yá*  
 then mother her COM:go person POT:hunt person  
*ámá kwáa / chī nādīxikū sā tāhan*  
 one shaman CMP POT:heal he woman  
 Then HER MOTHER went to find a shaman to heal the woman.
- w10 *mīkú tōmhē nāntuvā yēhen tā*  
 and then COM:be:healed base she  
 Then she got well.

#### 7.4 The Story About a Ghost

This text was originally published in *Tlalocan* (Davis 1962).

- G0 *ámá kwénto yēhen tá ntīiyū chí chí*  
 one story base she ghost CMP COM:be  
 A story (Sp. *cuento*) about a ghost that happened or A true story about a ghost
- G1 *ámá sāhan chī ntúkū sā ūuvi nthāta*  
 one man CMP with him two woman  
 [There was] a man who [had] two wives.

- G2 *ámá xūvī kwēhen sá ntūvā / mí xāhan sā / xī sā*  
 one day COM:go he Oaxaca and CON:say he CON:tell he  
*nthāta yēhen sā chī kwēnō tá sāhān rānchō chhātā*  
 woman base his CMP POT:wait she man ranch big  
 ONE DAY he went to the city of Oaxaca, and he told his wife to wait  
 for him at the big ranch (Sp. *rancho*).
- G3 *mīkū táhan mī kēnú dāanthi nāá tá*  
 and woman that COM:be:inside lazy face her  
 But THE WOMAN was lazy.
- G4 *nkwá tīmīkūun tá chēhen tá / chēno tá sāhan*  
 NEG COM:want she COM:go she COM:wait she man  
*rānchō chhātā*  
 ranch big  
 She did not want to go and wait for him at the big ranch.
- G5 *mí sāhan khu ākū sā chī táhan mī vā tá /*  
 and man this CON:think he CMP woman that CON:exist she  
*vēnō tá sāhan nīnū nā rānchō chhātā*  
 CON:wait she man near face ranch big  
 THE MAN thought that THE WOMAN was waiting for him at the big  
 ranch.
- G6 *tāchī ntāa sā / tōmhē xāhan tā /*  
 when COM:arrive he then CON:say she  
*xī tá sāhan / dēhe chúka nhā dī*  
 CON:tell she man why much late you:SG  
 When he arrived, she said to him, “Why are you so late?”
- G7 *ā vena vén-é dí mūhūn*  
 already before CON:wait-I you:SG here  
 I have been waiting A LONG TIME for you here.”
- G8 *mīkū ntāi tá tūhū / ntāi tá yūuntu /*  
 and COM:bring she chicken COM:bring she tortilla  
*ntāi tá xādē chī kāhan tá*  
 COM:bring she tepache CMP COM:give she  
*chī kūhu sā / chēhe sā*  
 CMP POT:drink he POT:eat he  
 Then she brought [out] chicken, tortillas, [and] tepache (an alcoholic  
 beverage), which she gave [him] to eat and drink.

- G9 *pērō tāchí kwēhēn sā / kwhīntī sā / chēhē sā yūuntu /*  
 but when COM:go he POT:sit he POT:eat he tortilla

*yūta mī nkwá chīnúu xīima*  
 meat that NEG COM:be:found salt

But (Sp. *pero*) when he went to sit down [and] eat, he found that THE MEAT was not salted.

- G10 *tōmhē xāhan sā / dēhe kūvī chī*  
 then CON:say he why POT:be:possible CMP

*nkwá nthīī dī xīima yūtā khu*  
 NEG COM:put you:SG salt meat this

He said, “Why is it possible that you didn’t put [any] salt on the meat?”

- G11 *mīkū inānkáká sá nā sīrvyētá yēhen sā*  
 and CON:remember he face napkin base his

*kēnē tālhin xīima*  
 COM:be:located some salt

Then he remembered that he had some salt IN HIS HANDKERCHIEF (Sp. *servilleta* ‘napkin’).

- G12 *tōmhē chēhēn sā / chítáhā sā / mīkū chhīī sā*  
 then COM:go he COM:take he and COM:put he

*xīimá yūtā mī*  
 salt meat that

Then he took [the salt] and he salted the meat.

- G13 *tōmhē nthīchī sā chī nthātā mīī nāvākūntāā ya*  
 then COM:see he CMP woman that COM:turn:into person

*kú / mīkū yūta mī nāvākūntāā yáhán tōo /*  
 snake and meat that COM:turn:into wood rotten

*míkú yūuntu mī nāvākūntāā yāata intēhē /*  
 and tortilla that COM:turn:into leaf oak

*mīkū xādē mī nāvākūntāā nūnī yāhan*  
 and tepache that COM:turn:into water dirty

Then he saw that THE WOMAN turned into a snake, and THE MEAT turned into rotten wood, and THE TORTILLAS turned into oak leaves, and THE TEPACHE turned into muddy water.

- G14 *míkú kú mí kwēhén ti*  
 and snake that COM:go it:AML  
 Then THE SNAKE went [away].
- G15 *nkwá tūné sá ūī / chī chhīnhu sā ūī*  
 NEG COM:catch he animal CMP COM:kill he animal  
 He could not catch the animal to kill it.
- G16 *mīkū sáhan mī nāváyūune sā*  
 and man that COM:go:home he  
 Then THE MAN went home.
- G17 *mīkū tāchī nāntāa sa /*  
 and when COM:return he  
  
*ykēnū nthātā yēhen sā vāha*  
 COM:be:inside woman base his house  
 And when he arrived, his wife was [already] at the house.
- G18 *nkwá tāhan mī chī nthíchī sā / sīnō tá ntīiyu*  
 NEG woman that CMP COM:see he but she ghost  
 It was NOT THE WOMAN whom he saw, but (Sp. *sino*) [he saw] a ghost.

### 7.5 Residue

There are several sentences in the preceding texts that are not accounted for by the constructions described in this study. For various reasons they are somewhat difficult to analyze, and no satisfactory analysis for them has been presented here. These sentences are: L28, Lo1, Lo2, Lo13, Lo16, W3, W10, and G1.