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# PAME NOUN INFLECTION 

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0. Introduction

1. Prefixes
2. Stem-initial consonant
3. Tone-stress patterns
4. Suffixes
5. This article describes the inflection of nouns in Pame. ${ }^{1}$ Nouns are inflected for number of the noun, number of the possessor, and person of the possessor. These categories are expressed by (1) prefixes, (2) stem-initial consonant modification, (3) tone-stress changes, or (4) suffixes, and often redundantly by two or more of these systems at once. ${ }^{2}$ The four systems
[^0][^1]are described separately. Morphophonemic processes operate within each of these systems and also where they interact. The reader is referred to Gibson's 1956 article for a systematic description of Pame phonemics and morphophonemics. ${ }^{3}$

Though each system is essentially independent, there are some correlations between them, especially between that of possessive prefixes and the stem-initial consonant modifications for possession. The choice between prefixes or suffixes for number of the noun is largely determined by the animateness of the noun. All inanimate nouns choose prefixation; all animate nouns use suffixation and a subclass of them use prefixation as well. The system of tone-stress changes is the most independent of the other systems, with the qualification that the pattern which maintains the same tone throughout the paradigm is found most frequently with those nouns which mark possession by inflectional suffixes rather than prefixes and with those which maintain the same steminitial consonant throughout (but with changes in the prefix).

This article presents the regular patterns that have been found in a study of over 700
of inflection that has become partly ambiguous due to phonological changes in the language. The prefix system is somewhat more recent and serves to resolve some of the ambiguities. The suffix system is of more recent origin and marks the categories most explicitly. Pame is like other Otomanguean languages in displaying morphological layering which reflects a tendency for affixes to coalesce with the root in a single syllable.
${ }^{3}$ IJAL 22 (1956): 242-65.
nouns. There are also about twenty nouns that have some special irregularities in their inflection, which are not treated in this study. Most of these are kinship terms.

1. The prefix is an integral part of the Pame noun word; very few nouns have no prefix. The prefix may be nominalizing or simply nominal. In most cases, the prefix also has a classifying function. Examples of some of the prefixes:
kasấs musician (-sâs play an instrument), AGENT
kapદ́ thief (-pé steal) AGENT
naphę́ thievery (-pદ́ steal, laphę́ 3d pl.
future) ACT
kíčhąs playing of instruments (-są̂s play an
instrument, láchąs 3d pl. future) ACT
pingywán bone, skeleton HARD
pikywá? flint HARD
stily háigy feather(s) Fine, Little
stišèhi? bullet(s) FINE, LITTLE
Many of the noun prefixes also participate in a system of prefix modification to distinguish number of the noun or person of the possessor of a possessed noun (described below). Some prefixes are unchanging for plurals or for possessives, and in these cases those categories are marked by suffixes (see 4).

Inanimate nouns are marked for plural by a modification of the consonant of the noun prefix. Many animate nouns are also marked for plural by prefix modification as well as by suffixation, the characteristic device for pluralizing animate nouns (see 4).

The most regular prefix sets for absolute number are given in table 1. The basic prefix is used for singular or dual, and the modified prefix is used for three or more. The plural prefix has a weakened consonant: n is replaced by 1 or r ; m is replaced by w; c and č are replaced by s and š; and both ngo and ko are replaced by M.

The nasal prefix $M$ assimilates to the

TABLE 1

| Singular and Dual | Plural |
| :---: | :--- |
| $(1) \ldots \ldots$ ngo | M |
| $(2) \ldots \ldots$ ko | M |
| $(3) \ldots \ldots$ ni | li (rare $)$ |
| $(4) \ldots \ldots$ ni | ri |
| $(5) \ldots \ldots$ na | la |
| $(6) \ldots \ldots$ na | ra |
| $(7) \ldots \ldots$ ma | wa |
| (8) $\ldots$ mi (rare) | wi |
| (9) $\ldots$.co | so |
| $(10) \ldots$ ca | sa |
| $(11) \ldots$ či | ši |

point of articulation of the following consonant:
ygobé’ $\varepsilon$ t flag, mbé’ $\varepsilon$ t (pl.)
ŋgodèoc? bridge, ndèoc?
ygokhwè? bean, ŋkhwè?
ngosąoy night, nsąoŋ
ngolhwá ear of corn, nlhwą
Some speakers omit the $n$ before the lateral: (n)lhwá corn, (n)lhọ̀s salt (pl.).

Stops not in a cluster with $h$ are voiced after M:
kopó land, mbóp (pl.)
ygophói excrement, mphói
ngop? óho seat, mb? óho ทgokwắ tree, piece of wood, ŋgwą́y

Before other consonants the M is deleted, and except for stem-inital? and $h$ and clusters mh and nh , the stem-initial C is geminated in many words by some speakers. ${ }^{4}$

ngo'wê̂i mosquito, ?wę̂iky (animate pl.)
ngomhé tortilla, mhé
ŋgomê̂hi? squash, (m)mọhi?
ngowàhal ' horse, (w)wàhalt? (animate pl.) ทgonwé thunder, nnwết (animate pl.) ngonwę́’ gopher, nnwę́’t (animate pl.) konèp well, nغ̀p

[^2]M is also an allomorph of the plural of the possessive prefix ygo and works the same way.
ŋgomáy his saying, mmą́n ( pl .)
ngomàs his finger-ring, mmàs (pl.) (cf. màs more)
ygowâs your finger-ring, wwâs (pl.)
ygomò its corner, his hip, mò corners, mòt their hips
ngonhío ${ }^{\text {P }}$ his name, nhío? (pl.)
Examples of sets (3) to (11) in table 1 are:
(3) nikywą́ capulincillo tree, likywą́
(4) níngyęhe year, ríngyęhe
(5) nacê plum, lacê
(6) nachę̀n key, rachę̀n
(7) macì pitcher, wacì
(8) mičâ? corn bin, wičâ?
(9) cóndo egg shell, sóndo
(10) camphą́y pocket, samphą́y
(11) čihàgy spoon, šihàgy

Examples of prefix sets on animate nouns in combination with number suffixes are:
(1) ygowàhal? horse, ygowàhail ${ }^{y>}$ (du.), wwàhalt? (pl.)
(4) niyáho fox, niyáhoi (du.), riyáhot (pl.)
(5) nadò dog, nadòi (du.), ladòt (pl.)
(7) masát deer (sg., du.), ${ }^{5}$ wasát (pl.)
(9) cómhe butterfly, moth, cómhei (du.), sómhet (pl.)
(10) camphą́y bedbug, ${ }^{6}$ camphąị (du.), samphą́nt (pl.)
(11) čingî̂? parrot (sg., du.), šingê? ky (pl.)

In addition to the more regular absolute number prefixes, there are some sets which distinguish plural by prefix suppletion: ki/ri, ka/im, ko/im, ngo/ri, $\emptyset / \mathrm{ri}, \mathrm{na} / \mathrm{i}$. kíppi ${ }^{\mathrm{i}}$ raw rum, rippi ${ }^{2}$ ( pl .) (this pl . is going out of use)
${ }^{5}$ Compare the Aztec word masatl deer. Pame has reinterpreted the first syllable as classifier ma-.
${ }^{6}$ Some nouns have both animate and inanimate meanings and, accordingly, two different plural forms. Here, apparently a bedbug is an animate "pocket," and requires the plural suffix -t.
kimyâol’ round valley, rimyâo?t (inanimate pl. -t)
kamàhaigy leader, immyàhaigyky (animate pl. -t)
koméigy North Pame person, immígnky (ditto)
ŋgonhę̀ip Huasteco Indian, rinhyę̀ ky (ditto) ygomhó?o adolescent female, rímhyq? ot (ditto), mhó?o adolescent female human, rímhyo? ${ }^{\text {ot }}$ (ditto)
nan’ę́n Spaniard, mestizo, íny’ę̧ky (ditto)
The following noun has a second order prefix in the singular, which is a reduction of ko-place: knamáogy water hole in rock, ramáogy (pl.).

Noun prefixes modify the prefix vowel to distinguish person of the possessor. They are divided into three groups according to the vowel alternations for the singular noun, as shown in table 2. Examples are given in table 3.

TABLE 2
Possessive Prefix Sets
$\left.\begin{array}{ccl}\hline & \begin{array}{c}\text { First } \\ \text { Person }\end{array} & \begin{array}{c}\text { Second } \\ \text { Person }\end{array}\end{array} \begin{array}{c}\text { Third } \\ \text { Person }\end{array}\right]$

Some nouns have a pattern $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ki}$ (rather than $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{ki}$ ). These nouns have a generalizer morpheme in the third-person plural possessor or the absolute form of the noun, whereas the $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{ki}$ nouns do not have a generalizer in this form but simply add a plural suffix to the third-person singular (see table 4).
There are four nouns of the $\mathrm{co} / \mathrm{či} / \mathrm{či}$ pattern that need to be distinguished from the regular ones of this pattern, which follow the EFE pattern of stem-initial

TABLE 3

|  | First | Second | Third |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eye | . nattào | ngotâo | ygotào |
| face ....... | . kattào | kotâo | kotào |
| roasting ear.. | . . nossà | nišâ | niššà |
| lower abdomen | . konhôi | kiphyòi | kiphyôi |
| nape of neck . . | . .skombápa | skipyą́? | skimbyą́a |
| nose ......... | . . connòa | činyộa | činŋyò̀a |
| broom........ | . .sta? ${ }^{\text {éogy }}$ | ski’éogy | sna?éogy |
| knife | . .tahés | kihés | nahés |

TABLE 4

| First | Second | Third Sg. | Third P1. | Absolute |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dwelling . . . . . kómmeho | komého | kímmiho | kím'ehept | - |
| handwriting . . kódde/kóddwe | kodè/kmad $\hat{\varepsilon}$ | kíggye | $\mathrm{kil}^{\text {y }}$ ¢p(t) | kily ${ }^{\text { }} \varepsilon$ letters of alphabet |
| food . . . . . . . . kóssoehegy | kmaséhegy | kíššehegy | kíč ${ }^{\text {P }}$ ehebmpt | kićč ${ }^{\text {ehegy }}$ |
| command . . . . .tmawái | kmawái | kimmyái | kibbyépt | kibbyái |

TABLE 5

|  | First | Second | Third Sg. | Third Pl. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ear. | . . . cokkwąo | čikyąo | čikyąo | šipkyhą̀p(t) | ABC |
| teat . | . . .coccwì | čičî? | čičip | šič? ${ }^{\text {e }}$ pt |  |
| thigh | . . .cokkwà | čikyôa | čikyòa | šinkyhòap(t) |  |
| neck | . . . cohhwì | činhî? | činhì | šiphyè ${ }^{\text {ky }}$ |  |
| nose . | . . .connôa | činyôa | čingyọa | šiphywąp $(t)$ | EFE |
| lips .. | . . . collè | $\operatorname{čil}^{\mathrm{y}} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | činŋyè | šingyèt |  |

consonant alternation (see 2). These (four) nouns follow the ABC pattern and also have in common that the root has a w always and only when the prefix contains an o (see table 5). One noun, skirt, has the irregular prefix set no/na/na: nokkòi ${ }^{\text {p }}$ (1st), nákkoi? (2d), nakòi ${ }^{\text {P ( }}$ ( 3 d sg .), nakhò? pt (3d pl., sg. of noun), rakhò pt (pl.).

Some of the possessive prefixes modify the prefix consonant to mark plural of the noun (see table 6).

There is not a one-to-one correlation between an absolute prefix set and a possessive prefix set, except that of the ši absolute prefix with the sta/ski/sna set of possessive prefixes (forty-two nouns). The ngo/ $M$ absolute prefix set corresponds to
the na/ngo/ngo possessive set (twenty-nine nouns) and also to the no/ni/ni possessive set (thirty-eight nouns). The na/ra absolute set corresponds to the ta/ki/na possessive set (eleven nouns). The na/la absolute set corresponds to the no/ni/ni possessive set (seven nouns). The other thirteen correspondences are scattered over twenty-one nouns, with one or two nouns representing each correspondence.
2. There are three patterns of steminitial consonant variation for distinguishing the person of the possessor: (1) the ABC pattern in which the first and third persons are always distinct and the second person is either distinct or the same as the

TABLE 6

|  | First | Second | Third Sg. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| na/ngo/ngo $\rightarrow$ i/M/M | . nattào | ygotâo | ygotào | eye |
|  | ittào | ndâo | ndào | eyes ${ }^{1}$ |
|  | naccì? | ygocî? | ngoci? | tooth |
|  | iččic | ncî? | ncì? | teeth |
| $\mathrm{ka} / \mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ko} \rightarrow \mathrm{i} / \mathrm{M} / \mathrm{M}$ | ka? ${ }^{\text {g }}$ | kon ${ }^{\text {², }}$ y | kon' ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ¢ | pudding |
|  | ${ }^{2} \mathrm{y}$ ¢́¢ ${ }^{2}$ | $n$ ? غ̇ท | n' ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$, | batches of pudding |
| no/ni/ni $\rightarrow$ ro/ri/ri | .nossà | nišâ | niššà | roasting ear |
|  | rossà | rišâ | riššà | roasting ears (pl.) |
| $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{ki} \rightarrow \mathrm{ro} / \mathrm{ri} / \mathrm{ri}$ | koncá | kičá | kinčá | pond |
|  | roncá | ričá | rinčá | ponds |
| $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{ki} \rightarrow \mathrm{ro} / \mathrm{ri} / \mathrm{ri}$ | . kódda ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kodá ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kíggya ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | place to lie down, lair |
|  | ródda? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | rodá? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ríggya'a | places to lie down, lairs <br> (pl.) |
| $\mathrm{ko} / \mathrm{kma} / \mathrm{ki} \rightarrow \mathrm{ro} /-/ \mathrm{ri}$ | . kóssoehegy | kmaséhegy | kíššehegy | food |
|  | róssoehegy | - | ríššehegy | foods |
| $\mathrm{ta} / \mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{na} \rightarrow \mathrm{ta} / \mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{ra}$ | .tahéš | kihés | nahés | knife |
|  | tahés | kihés | rahéš | knives |
| co/či/či $\rightarrow$ so/ši $/$ ši | .cokkwąo | čikyâo | čikyào | ear |
|  | sokkwąo | šikyąo | šikyą̀o | ears |
| $(-/-/ n a) \rightarrow \mathrm{ro} / \mathrm{ra} / \mathrm{ra}$ | .- | - | naygąo | side, cheek |
|  | rokkwą̀o | rangąo | rangą̀o | inner ears |
| no/na/na $\rightarrow$ ro/ra/ra | .nokkòi? | nákkoi? | nakòi ${ }^{\text {l }}$ | skirt |
|  | rokkòi ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | rákkoi? | rakòi | skirts |

${ }^{1}$ The i- may be weakened as a- or lost completely in the speech of most people today: attao is an alternate form of (i)ttào my eyes. The noun form nassì my firewood has been noted in the plural as (i)ssì or even aišsì.
${ }_{2}$ This form is not in use today; instead a phrase is used meaning "much my-pudding."
third, (2) the EFE pattern in which the first and third persons are the same and second person is distinct, and (3) the $\mathbf{X X X}$ pattern in which there is no change of stem-initial consonant.

The ABC pattern was postulated originally in the reconstruction of Proto-Otopamean to handle the morphophonemic variation of stem-initial consonants in the whole language family. ${ }^{7}$ There were four forms recognized for Pame verb paradigms: A third-person singular progressive, $\mathbf{B}$ third singular past, $\mathbf{C}$ third singular indefinite future, and $\mathbf{G}$ third plural in any tense-aspect. Parallel alternations in Pame noun paradigms correspond with $\mathbf{A}$ first person, $\mathbf{B}$ second person,

[^3]C third-person singular, and $\mathbf{G}$ third-person plural and/or the absolute (nonpossessed) form of the noun (see table 7).

The $\mathbf{A}$ form is a fortis consonant, usually geminate in Pame. The B and C forms are lenis. The stops $p p$ and $t t$ have both a strong and a weak alternation pattern. The strong pattern is a vestige of an older system and is exemplified by only a few words, all with oral root vowels. Although pp occurs in the A form of verb paradigms, the cluster mb appears instead in noun paradigms. In the weak patterns, the one example of stem-initial $m$ has a single $m$ in the $\mathbf{A}$ form instead of the expected mm . In the strong pattern, the $\mathbf{B}$ form is a continuant and the $\mathbf{C}$ form is a nasal. The ? and $h$ add a nasal in the $\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{C}$ forms. (The $\mathbf{B}$ form in verbs does not add a nasal, however.) The combination of $n$ ? before

TABLE 7
ABCG Pattern of Consonant Alternations

|  |  | A | B | C | G |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Strong |  | mb | w | m | b |
|  | (2) | tt | 1 | n | (*d) |
| Weak | . . 3 ) | pp | p | p | $\mathrm{ph} / \mathrm{p}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (4) | tt | t | t | $\mathrm{lh} / \mathrm{l}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (5) | kk | k | k | $\mathrm{kh} / \mathrm{k}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (6) | cc | c | c | $c^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (7) | ss | s | s | ch |
|  | (8) | (m)m | m | m | mh |
|  | (9) | n | n | n | nh |
|  | (10) | hh | nh | nhi | (lh) |
|  | (11) | h | nh | nhi | 1 h |
|  | (12) | ? | $\mathrm{n}^{2}$ | $n{ }^{2}$ | 17 |
|  | (13) | 2 | d | di | 17 |

an oral root vowel produces $d$ in Pame. The $\mathbf{C}$ form of a laryngeal consonant has an added palatal element, usually showing itself as an i or e (except before a front vowel, where it disappears).

The $\mathbf{G}$ form of the ABCG pattern is used for the third-person plural possessor and also for the absolute form of the noun. The $\mathbf{G}$ form of the weak (most common) ABC patterns adds an $h$ to the $\mathbf{B}$ form of all nonlaryngeal consonants except c (which has an added ?) and adds an 1 to the laryngeals ? and $h$. Note that the expected $* \operatorname{sh}$ is ch and the expected $*$ th and $* t^{?}$ are
lh and 1 (probably by analogy with the laryngeal clusters). Also note that if the root contains a vowel sequence interrupted by h , the h of the clusters $\mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{lh}$, and kh becomes?

The $\mathbf{G}$ form of the strong $\mathbf{A B C}$ patterns is b for the $\mathrm{mb} \mathbf{A}$ form. The one example of the $\mathrm{tt} \mathbf{A}$ form, mouth, is a body part and does not have an absolute form. The thirdperson plural possessed form does not modify the initial consonant, but simply adds the plural suffix. The expected $\mathbf{G}$ form would be $d$. The $b$ and $d$ would be the regular phonetic result of a? added to the

TABLE 8

|  | First | Second | Third Sg. | Third Pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) finger-ring. | . nambàs | ngowâs | ngomàs | ngobàspt, mbàsp(t) |
| (2) mouth... | . .kattè | kolê | konè | nèt |
| (3) mat.... | . .náppȩhi? | ngopéhi ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | ngopéhi? | ngop'éhe? pt |
| (4) arrow .. | . .nattà | ygotâ? | ygotà | ngolhà ${ }^{\text {pt }}$ |
| (5) solid wall | . .nakká | ngokwà | ngokwá | ggokhwąpt |
| (6) clay pot. | . .naccé? | ngocôe ${ }^{\text {? }}$ | ygocóe /-wé? | ngoc' wé'p(t) |
| (7) firewood | . .nassì | ygosôi | ygosòi/-wi | ngochwèp(t) |
| (8) saying .... | . .namáy | ngomà̀ | ygomą́y | ngomhąmpt, mhąmpt |
| (9) cornfield. | .kannèa | koņ̂a | konòa | konhwàpt |
| (10) throat .. | . kahhèi? | konhwî? | konhwi? | konhwè? ${ }^{\text {ky }}$ |
| (11) name . . | . .nahọ? | ygonhê? | ygonhío? | ngolhô'pt |
| (12) seeds (pl.) | . . ${ }^{\text {Pyóng }}$ | n? ${ }^{\text {con }}$ | $n$ nion | $\mathrm{nl}{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ¢mpt |
| (13) house . . | . .na? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ygodôs | ygodios/ y godèos | ngol ${ }^{\text {dospt }}$ |

m and n of the $\mathbf{C}$ form of the strong patterns (see table 8).

The EFE pattern was also recognized in the reconstruction of Otopamean. The $\mathbf{F}$ form is basic to the pattern and is phonologically complex (or modified) in comparison to the $\mathbf{A}$ form of the ABCG pattern; it usually resembles a $\mathbf{G}$ form or a $\mathbf{B}$ form. The $\mathbf{E}$ form further modifies the $\mathbf{F}$ form. It adds a nasal to the nasals $m$ and $n$ and to the voiceless stops and affricate $p, t, k, c$. It strengthens the clusters $l^{?}$ and lh to $\mathrm{t}^{\text {? }}$ and th, respectively. It geminates the continuatives $\mathrm{s}, 1$, and w and the voiced stops b and d . The laryngeals $?$ and h and clusters containing ? or $h$ (except 1 ? 1 h ) are not changed in the $\mathbf{E}$ form.

The consonant of the $\mathbf{F}$ form is used for second-person possessor and also for the absolute form of the noun. The thirdperson plural is the same as the $\mathbf{E}$ form,
with plural marked by a suffix (see tables 9 and 10).

TABLE 9
EFE Pattern of Consonant Alternations

| F | E | F | E |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) m | mm | (13) d | dd |
| (2) n | nn | (14) $\mathrm{m}^{\text {? }}$ | m ${ }^{\text {? }}$ |
| (3) p | mb | (15) $\mathrm{n}^{\text {? }}$ | $n$ ? |
| (4) t | nd $(t-t t)^{1}$ | (16) mh | mh |
| (5) k | ng | (17) nh | nh |
| (6) c | nc | (18) $c^{\text {? }}$ | $c^{\text {? }}$ |
| (7) $1^{\text {? }}$ | $t$ ? | (19) ch | ch |
| (8) lh | tth/th | (20) $\mathrm{k}^{\text {? }}$ | $\mathrm{k}^{\text {? }}$ |
| (9) s | ss | (21) kh | kkh/kh ${ }^{2}$ |
| (10) 1 | 11 | (22) ? | ? |
| (11) w | ww | (23) h | h |
| (12) b | bb |  |  |

[^4]TABLE 10

|  | First | Second | Third Sg. | Third Pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) squash | .nómmǫhi? | nimyớhi? | nímmyohi? | nímmyohe? ky |
| (2) citrus fruit . . | . nonnąs | ninyâs | ninŋą̀ | nipyyąst |
| (3) tomato . . . | . nómbai | nipyài | nímbyai | nímbyaiky |
| (4) water | kónde | kikyè | kíngye | kíngyet |
| (5) piece of flesh. | .nongwè? | nikyê? | ningyè? | ringyè? ${ }_{\text {t }}$ |
| (6) sore ...... | .noncwés | ničés | ninčés | rinčést |
| (7) blanket. | .not?w't | nil ${ }^{\text {y }} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | niky ${ }^{\text {c }}$ ? | nikky ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ' ${ }^{\text {t }}$ |
| (8) tamale ..... | . .notthę̧' $¢$ | nil ${ }^{\text {hequ }}$ ' $\varepsilon$ | nikkyhé' $\varepsilon$ | nikkyhę̧' $\varepsilon$ t |
| (9) roasting ear | .nossà | nišâ | niššà | niš̌̌àt |
| (10) lips | . collè | čil ${ }^{\text {y }} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | činŋyè ${ }^{1}$ | šinŋyèt |
| (11) bark(ing). | .nówwot | niwyòt | níwwyot | ríwwyot |
| (12) bed | .nobbé | nibyé | nibbyé | nibbyét |
| (13) century plant | . .nóddoa | nigyòa | níggyoa | . níggyoat |
| (14) months . . . . | .rom'ąo? | rim? yąo? | rim'yąo? | rim? ${ }^{\text {acào }}$ t |
| (15) path . . . . . | . .non ${ }^{\text {Podehe? }}$ | niŋ’غ̨h\&? | nin’ ${ }^{\text {che }}$ ¢ |  |
| (16) tortilla.... | .nomhér | nimhy | nimhy'̇ | nimhyęt |
| (17) abdomen | .konhôi | kighyòi | kiphyôi | kiphyôiky |
| (18) huapillo plant | .noc?à | nič?â? | nič? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ? | nič?à ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| (19) maggot.... | . .nochí? | ničhí? | ničhí? | ričhé? ky |
| (20) paper | . .nok? wés | niky ${ }^{\text {cés }}$ | niky ${ }^{\text {éš }}$ | niky? ${ }^{\text {éšt }}$ |
| (21) beans | . .rokkhwè? | rikyhê? | rikkyhe? | rikkyhè? |
| (22) chile | .no? wèi | ni’ ${ }_{\text {î }}$ | ni ${ }^{1}$ | ni ${ }^{\text {liky }}$ |
| (23) calf of leg | . .nohor | nihyó? | nihyó? | rihyó? ${ }^{\text {t }}$ |

[^5]The XXX pattern has no change of steminitial consonant in the first and second persons and in the third-person singular. The absolute form of the noun has the generalizer morpheme. There are two patterns for forming the third-person plural possessor. Some speakers use the G form initial consonant and add -pt; other speakers use the $\mathbf{X}$ form and add - t : their medicine šil ${ }^{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{\varepsilon} \hat{\varepsilon} p t$ or snad $\hat{\varepsilon} \mathrm{t}\left(\right.$ šil $^{\mathrm{y}}{ }^{\mathrm{f}} \hat{\varepsilon}$ medicine) ; their table šič?éhebmpt or snaséhegyky (šič? éhegy table).

The nouns of the $\mathbf{X X X}$ pattern are derived from verbs by the instrumental nominalizer ši- (sta/ski/sna) or na- (ta/ki/ na). The $\mathbf{X}$ form of the possessed noun appears to be based on the $\mathbf{B}$ form of the verb (third-person singular past tense). ${ }^{8}$ The absolute form of the noun contains the generalizer appropriate for the verb from which it is derived.

The examples of the $\mathbf{X X X}$ pattern in the data support the pattern described earlier and add some further information. Some of the verbs from which the XXX nouns derive do not have consonant alternation but maintain a complex cluster throughout the paradigm. These words in the absolute form of the noun have the generalizer morpheme added to a fortis (double) consonant. In these cases, the $t$ is not weakened to $l$, so that $t^{?}$ and tth appear in the data. The strong form of the ABC pattern for initial tt shows 11 in the $\mathbf{X}$ form and tt or t ? (before VhV ) in the $\mathbf{G}$ form (see tables 11 and 12).
3. The tone-stress alternation patterns are found principally with those nouns which mark possession by prefixation (class 1), whereas the tones are held constant in those nouns which mark possession by suffixation (class 2 , see 4 ), with very few exceptions.

[^6]TABLE 11
Generalized Forms of XXX Nouns

|  |  | X | G |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Strong | . . . 1 ) | w | b |
|  | (2) | 11 | tt |
|  | (3) | 11 | $t^{\text {P }}$ (VhV) |
| Weak. | no ex. | p | $\mathrm{ph} / \mathrm{p}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (4) | t | lh/l ${ }^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (5) | k | $\mathrm{kh} / \mathrm{k}$ ? |
|  | no ex. | c | $c^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (6) | s | $\mathrm{ch} / \mathrm{c}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (7) | m | mh |
|  | (8) | n | nh |
|  | (9) | h | lh |
|  | (10) | ? | $1 ?$ |
|  | (11) | d | 12 |
|  | (12) | pp | pph |
|  | (13) | tt | t? ( VhV ) |
|  | (14) | kk | kkh |
|  | (15) | $t$ ? | $t$ ? |
|  | (16) | $\mathrm{k}^{\text {? }}$ | $\mathrm{k}^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (17) | cc | $c^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (18) | $c^{\text {? }}$ | $c^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (19) | hh | tth |
|  | (20) | nd | nd ${ }^{\text {? }}$ |
|  | (21) | yg | nkh |
|  | (22) | nc | nc ? |
|  | (23) | mh | mh |
|  | (24) | nh | nh |

There is a predominant pattern in which first and third persons are alike in tone and in stress placement, and second person has a contrastive tone-stress. The vast majority of the nouns occurring with na/ngo and no/ni types of prefix sets share this feature.

Using L to represent low tone-stress, / $/, \mathrm{H}$ to represent high, / $/ /, \mathrm{F}$ to represent falling, $/ \wedge /$, and pH to represent prefix with high tone-stress-which makes it predictable that the stem will have low pitch with secondary stress-the most frequent pattern is L F L (i.e., L in first person, F in second, L in third). After this, in order of frequency in our data, come pH L pH , H F H, H L H, pH H pH, L H L, F L F, L pH L , and HpHH . A list of examples is given in table 13.

Many nouns have the same tones in all

TABLE 12

|  | First Person | Absolute | Third Plural G |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) dough dish.... | . stawáhac? | šibyáhac? | šibyáhaspt |
| (2) lamp | .stallèič ${ }^{\text {P }}$ | šikkič? | šikkišpt |
| (3) substitute . . . . | .stalléhegy | šiky'éhegy | šiky ${ }^{\text {éhebmpt }}$ |
| (4) soap ......... | .statą́han? | šily ${ }^{\text {cáhhan? }}$ | šilyąhampt |
| (5) raft ......... | . .stakàoc? | šikyhàoc? | šikyhàosp(t) |
| (6) pattern, measure | .stasáo? | šičháo? | šičhá? pt |
| (7) bladder. . . . . . | .stamغ̇̀t | - | šimhy¢̨̀? pt |
| (8) plow ........ | .taņ̀a | nanhọ̀a | nanhọ̀apt/wąpt |
| (9) drinking vessel | .taháo? |  | nalhá ${ }^{\text {p }}$ (t) |
| (10) needle. . . | .ta? ${ }^{\text {e }}$ | nal? ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | nal? $\hat{\text { enpt }}$ |
| (11) medicine | .stadé | šil ${ }^{\text {P}} \hat{\varepsilon}$ | šil ${ }^{\text {P }}$ ¢̂p(t) |
| (12) ribbon(s) . . . . | .stáppe | šípphye | šípphy\&pt |
| (13) marriage | .stattę̀he ${ }^{\text {Pt }}$ | šiky ${ }^{\text {ecehe? }}$ t | šiky ${ }^{\text {è }}$ he? pt |
| (14) defense | .stakké'et | šikkyhé? et | šikkyhé?ept |
| (15) gift received .. | .tat ${ }^{\text {Pè }}$ ogy |  | nat? ${ }^{\text {d }}$ dnt |
| (16) plane (carpentry) | .stak? óahadn? | šiky? óahadn? | šiky?óahabmpt |
| (17) stopper ..... | .snaccèo? | šič? ${ }^{\text {co }}$ ? | - |
| (18) rattle | stác ${ }^{\text {ac }}$ ? | šič' ${ }^{\text {ce? }}$ | šíč? ${ }^{\text {aspt }}$ |
| (19) balance scales | .stahhéogy | šikkyhéogy | šikkyhébmpt |
| (20) money . ..... | .tandéhedn? | - | nand? ¢́hebmpt |
| (21) greeting . . . . . | .staygào? | šipkyhào? | šijkyhà? pt |
| (22) fasting | . stancèhegy |  | šinč ${ }^{\text {chihebmpt }}$ |
| (23) toy (dolls). | . stámhę̧ (nt) | šímhyę (nt) | šímhy¢̨mp (mpt) |
| (24) pet name | . . . stánhę'\&n | šínhyĖen | šínhy ${ }^{\text {P }}$ ¢mpt |

TABLE 13


TABLE 14

|  | .nambáho, ygowáho, ŋgomáho festival nobbé'i, nibé'i, nibbé'i musical instrument (not wind) skombá’a, skipyą’a, skimbyă’a nape of neck stahá’aiky, skihyá’aiky, snahá’aiky saw (tool) ta’ảign, ki’yáign, na'áign brush |
| :---: | :---: |
| L | .stakàç? skikyàc? snakà̀c? shallow wooden washtub <br>  tahèiky, kihyèiky, nahèiky gun |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  | stáhhwat, skihhwat, snáhhwat forgiveness |
|  | stáppe, skíppye, snáppe ribbon for braiding hair |

persons. This is characteristic of the sta-/ski-/sna- type of prefix set. The patterns include H H H, L L L, F F F, and pH pH pH , which can all be symbolized by T T T, or unchanging tone-stress (see table 14).

There also exists a pattern in which nouns have the same tone in second and third persons: pH H H. At least three nouns follow this pattern in the plural of the noun, but have HHH in the singular of the noun. pH H H in both sg. and pl.: náttaho, ngotáho, ngotáho work; náttąhan’, ngotą́han? , ngotą́han? washing. p H H in pl. but H H H in sg. : nambéhe, ggowéhe, ŋgoméhe load; íwwyєhe, wwéhe, mméhe loads; nambéhe?, ygowéhe?, ngoméhe? hat; íwwyehe?, wwéhe?, mméhe? hats; nambápai, ngowá?ai, ngomápai domesticated animal; íwwya’aiky, wwá’aiky, mmá? aiky domesticated animals.

A few irregular nouns have irregular tone-stress patterns, as shown in table 15. Note the use of second-person suffix in clearing and tail.

Among class-2 nouns, the predominant
tone pattern is T T T: pingywágk, pingywą́nk?, pingywąmp skeleton; maciky, maciky? , macèp jug; šôtk, šôtk? , šôp cloth; skáchadnk, skáchadnk?, skáchabmp embarrassment.

One class-2 noun has been found with a rare rising tone: tàátk, tàátk? (3d sg. defective), a term for father. (tàát is a title of respect for one's father, godfather, father-in-law, son-in-law.) There are, however, at least three nouns of this class that have the pattern L F L: skambòk, skambôk?, skambòp fingernail; sanhwàk, sanhwâk?, sanhwàp armpit (also son-); naykhòe? k , naŋkhôiky?, naŋkhò? p pants.
4. Absolute number is marked by suffixes in animate nouns and in special circumstances by a plural suffix in inanimate nouns.

The suffixes -i dual and -t plural are used to mark absolute number in animate nouns. The -i is positioned after the last vowel of the stem. Stem-final alveolar consonants are palatalized; stem-final velar (g) y is

TABLE 15

```
H pH pH . . . . rawé', wíy&o?, wómmeo'/wámm&o? father
pH F F .... . . kássa', kosâk?, kosâ? a clearing in woods
```



```
H pH L . . . . . .rawí, ác`q/éc`?Q, wac`ǫ mother
pH L H....... náttọy, ygotòn, ygotóy horn
pH L F . . . . . nácce?, ngocèok?, ngocôe? tail
```

TABLE 16

|  |  | Dual | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (1) kamá | murderer | kamái | kamát |
| (2) kammái | judge | kammái | kammáiky |
| (3) kanhè? | baby, child | kanhèi | kanhè ${ }^{\text {t }}$ |
| (4) pákkas | head of cattle | pákkaiš | pákkast |
| (5) pastól | shepherd (Span. pastor) | pastóil ${ }^{\text {y }}$ | pastólt |
| (6) kawédn ? | priest | kawéign? | kawédnt? |
| (7) talógy | chicken | talói ${ }^{1}$ | talódnt |
| (8) kapé | thief | kap $\underline{\varepsilon}^{\text {i }}$ | kapę́t |
| (9) kochí? | snake, worm | kochí? | koché' ky |
| (10) coykhwês | daddy longlegs | conkhwês | sonkhwêst |
| (11) kamès | spider (certain nonpoisonous variety) | kamèš | kamèst |
| (12) čikíl | goat | čikily ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | sikilt? |
| (13) kopèc? | badger | kopèič? | kopèst? |
| (14) nikywą́ | male of animal or tree | nikywą́i | rikywą́nt |

${ }^{1}$ Some speakers use the sg. form of the noun for dual rather than omit its distinctive
ending. ending.
deleted after the dual i . The -i is nasalized after nasalized vowels. The cluster ii reduces to $i$. The -i dual is deleted after nonlow vowels before š.
The suffix -t is palatalized after stemfinal i. Stem-final velar (g) y assimilates to the -t. A final cluster with ? metathesizes the $?$ to appear after the $t$. Then a $c$ is simplified to $s$ before $t$. The vowel i is lowered to e before ${ }^{\mathrm{t}}$ t. Examples are given in table 16.
The suffixes are used with animate nouns even when there is a number prefix; see examples (10), (12), and (14) in table 16.
The word ngol'oेs house also means vehicle (airplane is a "house" that is flown). The inanimate noun is pluralized by a prefix: (n)l?òs houses. The animate noun adds the plural suffix: (n)l? o st vehicles. (There is no animate dual.)
Ordinarily, an inanimate noun shows
TABLE 17

| Sg.-Dual | Plural |
| :---: | :---: |
| soap . . . . . . šily? ${ }^{\text {cháhan? }}$ | Sily ${ }^{\text {Pááha? }}$ t |
| fastener . . . . .ndappol? | ndappó? |
| bundle kišóc? | rišó ${ }^{\text {p }}$ t |
| fence . . . . . . . ygok? wą̀hol? |  |

the plural only by prefixes. However, certain inanimate nouns ending in $n^{?}, 1$, or $\mathrm{c}^{\text {? }}$ in the sg.-du. absolute form take an inanimate -t suffix in the plural. The $\mathbf{C}$ preceding the final ? of the sg.-du. form is dropped before this -t. Note that this behavior contrasts with that of the animate $-t$, described above. Table 17 shows examples.
The inanimate -t plural suffix, although homophonous with the animate -t , is more correctly identified with the -t suffix for plural objects in verbs. Compare láttąhan? I launder one or two pieces of clothing, but láttąha't I launder three or more pieces; lappól I fasten it (sg.-du. object), lappó't I fasten them (pl. obj.); lasóc? I tie it up (sg.-du. obj.), lasó't I tie them up (pl. obj.).
Another characteristic of the inanimate plural - $t$ is that it precedes the person suffixes: ninčáol ${ }^{\text {P }}$ sugar cone, rinčáo't sugar cones, ninčáolk my sugar cone ( 3 drops according to a regular rule), rinčáo'tk my sugar cones.

The number suffixes used with nouns which show person of the possessor by prefixes are: - $\mathrm{m}^{\text {? }}$ exclusive dual or plural, -i dual (nonexclusive), -t third-person


Fig. 1.-Number suffixes
Fig. 2.-Person and number suffixes
TABLE 18


TABLE 19

|  | chin | pitcher | palm leaf | $\operatorname{reed}(\mathrm{s})(\mathrm{junco})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | maci | čihwá? ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | kohwí? |
| $m y$. | manèk | maciky | čihwá? ${ }^{\text {ak }}$ | kohwitok |
| your | manغ̀k? | maciky? | čihwá ${ }^{\text {ak }}$ ? | kohwípok? |
| his... | manèp | macèp | čihwá? ap | kohwípep |
| our excl. . | . manèk? ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | macik? y | čihwá ${ }^{\text {ak }}$ ? ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | kohwit ok? |
| our dual | manciky | maciky | čihwá'aiky | kohwípoiky |
| your dual | . manèiky? | maciky ? | čihwá? ${ }^{\text {aiky? }}$ | kohwí? oiky? |
| their dual. | manèp | macèp | čihwá? ${ }^{\text {ap }}$ | kohwit ${ }^{\text {ep }}$ |
| our plural. | manèky | macikg | čihwá ${ }^{\text {aky }}$ | kohwíroky |
| your plural. | manèk? ${ }^{\text {g }}$ | macik? y | čihwá ${ }^{\text {ak }}$ ' y | kohwí?ok? |
| their plural | manèpt | macèpt | čihwá ${ }^{\text {Papt }}$ | kohwî? ${ }^{\text {ept }}$ |

TABLE 20
Resulting Final Consonant Clusters

| Stem <br> Ending |  | $\underset{-k ?}{2 \mathrm{sg}}$. | $\begin{gathered} 3 \mathrm{sg} . \\ -\mathrm{p} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 1 \text { dual } \\ - \text { iky } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{-i k y ?}{2}+$ | $\begin{gathered} 3 \text { dual } \end{gathered}$ | $1 \text { pl.incl. }$ | $1 \operatorname{excl}_{-\mathrm{k} \geq \mathrm{g}}^{+2} \mathbf{2 p l} .$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \mathrm{pl} . \\ & -\mathrm{pt} \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| V.... |  | k ${ }^{\text {? }}$ | p | iky | iky ${ }^{\text {? }}$ | p | kn | $k^{2} \mathrm{n}$ | pt |
| t.... | .tk | tk? | p | iky | iky? | p | tn | $t^{\text {? }}$ n | pt |
| P... |  | $k^{\text {? }}$ | ?p | e? ky | iky? | ${ }^{\text {pp }}$ | ? kg | $k^{\text {? }}$ y | ? pt |
| s, $\mathrm{c}^{\text {? }}$ | .sk | sk? | sp | išky | išky? | sp | sn | sn? | spt |
| č,č ${ }^{\text {² }}$ | .šk | šk? | šp | išky | išky? | išp | šn | šn? | špt |
| 1,17 | .lk | $1{ }^{\text {? }}$ | lp | ilvky | $i^{\text {y }}$ ky ${ }^{\text {? }}$ | lp | ln | $\ln 2 / 1 ? n$ | lpt |
| n .... | .nk | $n{ }^{\text {? }}$ | mp | inky | inky? | mp | (J) $\mathrm{nk} / \mathrm{nn}(\mathrm{A})^{1}$ | (J) $n k^{?} / n^{2}$ (A) | mpt |
| y ... | . nk | nk ? | mp | inky | inky? | mp | (J) $\mathrm{yy} / \mathrm{gn}$ (A) | (J) $\eta^{2} / y^{2} \mathrm{y}$ (A) | mpt |
| dn .. | .dnk | dnk? | bmp | ignky | ignky? | bmp | dn | dn? | bmpt |
| gn ... | .gyk | gyk? | bmp | igyky | ignky? | bmp | gn | $\mathrm{g})^{\text {? }}$ | bmpt |

${ }^{1}$ (J) stands for the speech variety represented by Juana Montero (de Rodriguez) and (A) the speech variety of Ascensiona Durán. The two women grew up a fifteen-minute walk apart.
plural, and -n plural (nonthird person) (see fig. 1).

The morphophonemic adjustments for -i and -t have already been described. Both $-m^{\text { }}$ and $-n$ have an oral stop transition after an oral vowel, -bm ${ }^{\text {? }}$ and -dn. Stemfinal $(\mathrm{g}) \mathrm{n}$ is deleted before $-\mathrm{m}^{2}$ and -n as well as before -i. The cluster ai reduces to $\varepsilon$ before $-\mathrm{m}^{\text {? }}$, and other clusters with i or o as second member lose the i or o before $-\mathrm{m}^{2}$. Examples are shown in table 18.

Nouns that show person of the possessor by suffixation employ $-k$ for first person, $-k^{\text {? }}$ for second person, and $-p$ for third person. The number of the possessor is shown by the same set of suffixes presented in figure 1 , added after the person suffixes. The results of the combinations of the two suffix orders are shown in figure 2 . Note that $-\mathrm{m}^{\text {? }}$ assimilates to -k , and the ? metathesizes to follow the k , although
many speakers pronounce it after the g . The plural -n also assimilates to -k and $-k^{?}$. The ? of the suffix $-k^{?}$ in the pronunciation of many speakers follows the 1 . This results in homophonous endings for first-person exclusive and second-person plural.

The dual -i is lost before the suffix -p by the rule that deletes cluster-final i and $o$ before a bilabial suffix; stem vowel i lowers to e before the -p of third person; vowel o in the second syllable of a stem is replaced by e before a bilabial suffix (in both nouns and verbs). Older speakers sometimes pronounce a voiceless I after the thirdperson -p in the dual (see table 19).

When the person and number suffixes combine with stem-final consonants (or consonant clusters), some cluster reductions take place. These are shown in table 20. Examples are shown in table 21.

TABLE 21

| life | $\begin{array}{l}\text { anise } \\ \text { skanhwàc? }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { feather, pen } \\ \text { stily }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| myáign |  |  |$\}$

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## [Footnotes]

${ }^{1}$ Pame (Otomi) Phonemics and Morphophonemics<br>Lorna F. Gibson<br>International Journal of American Linguistics, Vol. 22, No. 4. (Oct., 1956), pp. 242-265.<br>Stable URL:<br>http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0020-7071\%28195610\%2922\%3A4\%3C242\%3AP\%28PAM\%3E2.0.CO\%3B2-1

${ }^{3}$ Pame (Otomi) Phonemics and Morphophonemics
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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Pame is an Otomanguean language spoken by about 3,700 people in central Mexico. The variety described is Central Pame, spoken in Santa María Acapulco, on the southeast border of San Luis Potosí. The 1970 census places the population at 2,700 . The mutually unintelligible North Pame accounts for the other 1,000 speakers. It is spoken in the region of La Palma, Tierras Coloradas, San Felipe Gamotes, Alaquines, and Hoya de Durazno in San Luis Potosí. South Pame as spoken by the few remaining speakers in Jiliapan, Hidalgo, was described by Leonardo Manrique Castañeda, "Structural Sketch of South Pame (Jiliapan Dialect)," in Handbook of Middle American Indians, vol. 5, Linguistics, ed. N. A. McQuown (New York, 1967), pp. 33148. It also is quite distinct from Central Pame. Note the change from the classification of Santa María Acapulco as North Pame, as stated in Lorna Gibson, "Pame (Otomi) Phonemics and Morphophonemics," IJAL 22 (1956): 242-65.
    ${ }^{2}$ The redundancy in marking number and possession has its explanation partly in historical change. The modifications of stem-initial consonant and tone-stress constitute an older system

[^1]:    [IJAL, vol. 45, no. 4, October 1979, pp. 309-22]
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    0020-7071/79/4504-0003\$01.23

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ Note that in the verbs, the stem-initial C of forms without a prefix is almost always geminate: wwài he cries (lawài I cry); ddóa he walks (ladóa I walk); but not in wôt he barks.

[^3]:    ${ }^{7}$ Doris A. Bartholomew, "Proto-Otopamean (Mexico)" (Ph.D. diss., University of Chicago, 1965).

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also one case of t - tt in dough: nottèhilp 1st, niky ${ }^{2}$ hil ${ }^{2}$
    
    ${ }_{2}$ This set of $\mathbf{C}$ alternations is not followed uniformly by all speakers. For beans, a few use kh in the $\mathbf{E}$ forms. For chest (anat.), the majority use nokkhwẩa 1st, nikyhwápa 2d, nikkyhwá’a 3d sg., rikkyhwá’at 3d pl., whereas some follow a pattern resembling ABC, with kkh in 1st and kh in 2d and 3d.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Note the nn instead of the expected 11 in 3d. sg.

[^6]:    ${ }^{8}$ The $\mathbf{B}$ form for the laryngeals in verbs does not, however, have the accompanying nasal found in the $\mathbf{B}$ form of the noun ABC pattern.

