Nominalization processes in Cocopa do not differ greatly from those described by Gorbet (1976:34-158) for Diegueño and by Munro (1976:187-268) for Mohave. Like Diegueño and Mohave, Cocopa employs two techniques for marking a nominalized clause: (1) prefixation of k\(^{W-}\) to a verb when the "head" is the subject of the verb and (2) absence of k\(^{W-}\) when the "head" bears some relation to the verb within the nominalization other than that of subject. In both techniques the verb is frequently modified by processes resembling those which form plurals. Also, in both techniques the fact of nominalization is marked, like any noun, by affixation of the appropriate case suffix to the verb which terminates the clause. The formal presence of a head is not required in either type of nominalization. Unlike Diegueño and Mohave, Cocopa employs a third technique: the prefixation of ?a-.

1. In many of its occurrences in Cocopa, k\(^{W-}\) can be treated merely as a noun-deriving prefix, one which can form a noun from any verb and which denotes that the subject of the verb performs the action or has the qualities expressed by the verb. ?a- also derives nouns from verbs, but is less productive than k\(^{W-}\). k\(^{W-}\) has definite reference and can generally be translated as "the one who; the thing which". ?a- has indefinite reference and can generally be translated as "someone who; something which". With some verbs k\(^{W-}\) and, more frequently, ?a- refer, not to the subject of the verb, but to its object, or even to the action of the verb itself. ?a- has a fixed prefixal position, which is before the consonant that precedes the vowel of the root syllable. The position of k\(^{W-}\) is less rigid, but generally precedes all elements except the pronominal prefixes and p(a)- "here, this" and s(a)- "there, that". Quite frequently the phoneme /a/, which probably cannot be equated with ?a-, is employed along with k\(^{W-}\). The following illustrate the derivative function of k\(^{W-}\), both with and without /a/.

(1) k\(^{W-}\)-š-a-más "the one who is sleeping" (šmas distributive plural of šma "sleep")

(2) š-c-k\(^{W-}\)-a-má·p "the ones who are sleeping" (šcma·p collective plural of šma "sleep")

(3) k\(^{W-}\)-ἶ-y-a-cás "the little one" (ἶycaš "be little")
4. \(kil^b\)-\(m\)-\(a\)-\(x\)-\(an\)x "the one(s) who will watch" (\(mxan\ "watch"; \(^-x\ "future"")

5. \(kil^b\)-\(r\)-\(s\)-\(k\) "old man" (\(r\)-\(s\)-\(k\) "be an old man")

6. \(kil^b\)-\(r\)-\(ar\) "the one who is working" (\(rar\ "work"")

7. \(kil^b\)-\(a\)-\(m\)-\(a\)-\(s\) "the one who is eating" (\(mas\ distributive plural of \(ma\ "eat"")

8. \(kil^b\)-\(y\)-\(aw\) "those (things) which are located (somewhere)" (\(yaw\ plural of \(ya\ -"be located"")

The following illustrate the derivative function of \(^a\)-.

9. \(i\)-\(a\)-\(p\)-\(a\)-\(y\) "pillow" (\(p\)-\(a\)-\(y\) plural of \(p\)-\(ay\ "lie on a pillow")

10. \(a\)-\(r\)-\(f\)-\(i\)-\(k\) "someone who is rich" (\(ri\)-\(k\ "be rich")

11. \(s\)-\(a\)-\(y\)-\(aw\) "song" (\(syaw\ distributive plural of \(sy\)-\(a\)-\( "sing")

12. \(a\)-\(m\)-\(an\) "airplane" (\(man\ "fly")

13. \(a\)-\(s\)-\(i\)-\(t\) "someone who is alone" (\(si\)-\(t\ "be one [numeral])

14. \(x\)-\(a\)-\(t\)-\(u\)-\(p\) "someone who jumps" (\(x\)-\(tu\)-\(p\ distributive plural of \(x\)-\(tup\ "jump")

15. \(n\)-\(v\)-\(w\)-\(a\)-\(r\)-\(a\)-\(l\) "one’s clothes" (\(nu\)-\(r\)-\(al\ "have clothes, put on clothes")

16. \(w\)-\(a\)-\(x\)-\(v\)-\(a\)-\(s\) "quirt" (\(-u\)-\(x\)-\(v\)-\(as\ distributive plural of \(-u\)-\(x\)-\(as\ "whip")

2. It is not adequate in all their occurrences to treat \(kil^b\)- and \(^a\)- as simply prefixes which make nouns out of verbs. It can be seen in the following that more elements have been nominalized than just the verbs to which the prefixes are attached.

17. \(p\)-\(a\)-\(p\)-\(a\) "baker" (\(pan\ "bread", \(pa\)-\(p\ "bake")

18. \(ku\)-\(c\) \(p\)-\(k\)-\(v\)-\(a\)-\(x\)-\(a\)-\(t\) "the one who keeps pigs as pets" (\(ku\)-\(c\ "pig", \(p\- "3rd. obj.", \(n\)-\(v\)-\(a\)-\(t\ "keep as pets" [from \(n\)-\(v\)-\(x\)-\(a\)-\(t\ "pet"; \(n\)-\(v\- "anim. poss.", \(x\)-\(a\- "dog")

19. \(n\)-\(v\)-\(vi\)-\(a\)-\(m\)-\(a\)-\(s\) "food" (\(n\)-\(vi\- "thing", \(ma\)-\(s\ plural of \(ma\ "eat"; lit., "things which one eats")

The nouns \(pan\,\(ku\)-\(c\,\(n\)-\(v\)-\(vi\) are objects of the verbs which follow them and belong to the nominalizations, respectively, of

20. \(p\)-\(u\)-\(p\)-\(a\) "he bakes bread" (\(p\- "3rd. subj.")

21. \(p\)-\(v\)-\(u\)-\(x\)-\(a\)-\(t\) "he keeps pigs as pets"
(22) n<yaví. ʔu-má "he is eating"

(20), (21), and (22) are complete sentences and (17), (18), and (19) are their nominalizations. However, pan, ku·c, and n<yaví in (17), (18), and (19) are treated as objects on semantic grounds only. Grammatically, they are ambiguous. A noun before the verb of a nominalized sentence may be the subject of the verb, as in

(23) capáy p⁻k<sup>W</sup>-n<sup>v</sup>-a-xá·t "the man who keeps pets" (capay "man")

which should be compared with (18). (23) is a nominalization of

(24) capáy-c p⁻n<sup>v</sup>-u-xá·t "the man keeps pets" (-c "subj.")

The translation of (23) as "the one who keeps men as pets" is grammatically, but not semantically, acceptable. The possibility for ambiguity arises because the subject case suffix is never affixed to the noun which is the subject of a sentence nominalized by k<sup>W</sup>- or ?a- and because the object case suffix for nouns is zero. Such ambiguities probably cause little trouble for speakers. The contexts seem to resolve them without difficulty. The other case suffixes to nouns within the nominalization are retained, as illustrated by -ˡ<sup>y</sup> in

(25) capáy plast-k<sup>W</sup>-a-mán "the people who start out in Somerton" (samł "Somerton", -ˡ<sup>y</sup> "in", man "start out")

Ordinarily it is the last verb only in the clause which affixes k<sup>W</sup>- All verbs occasionally affix k<sup>W</sup>- as in

(26) kxu·n k<sup>W</sup>-x-a-cáł k<sup>W</sup>-a-yú-m kᵗ-u-ʔá-c wa--yá-c ... boy the one who the one who how does he is around is pitiful is

How did that pitiful boy...

(27) muk k<sup>W</sup>-wayáw k<sup>W</sup>-ʔa-cáš k<sup>W</sup>-ʔás-pi-c behind the one who the one who the one that is around is little he said

ša--yí--c-a
she comes there

The little one in the rear that he spoke of was coming along there.

(28) k<sup>W</sup>-a-pák k<sup>W</sup>-a-rár k<sup>W</sup>-wa·a-c ʔu-xá·p-m-xán<sup>y</sup>-c-a those who those who those who they really entered arrive work swarm

The swarming workers who were arriving really came in.

When several verbs affix k<sup>W</sup>-, it is the last one only which takes a case suffix, as in (27) and (28) where -c "subj." is affixed. In (26) -m, suffixed to k<sup>W</sup>ayú, is not the case suffix -m "away from a point of
reference", but -m "continuative". The nominalization \( k\^w x\acute{a}l \)
\( k\^w y\acute{u}\acute{m} \) is the subject of a sequence of verbs beginning with \( k\^\acute{u}\acute{a}c \), but
the speaker arbitrarily chose to omit the subject suffix -c.

The head of a \( k\^w \) nominalization is usually third person. If the
head is second person, m- "2nd. pers." is not replaced, but immediately
precedes \( k\^w \).

\( n^\acute{y} q\acute{x}\acute{a} \quad m-w\acute{a}w-i^\acute{y} \quad t^\acute{y}-m-k\^w a-w\acute{a}s ... \\
\text{girl} \quad \text{you stay} \quad \text{you who sit in it} \\
\text{at home} \\
\)

You, the girl who always stays at home, ....

\( m-k\^w a-\ldots \acute{s}\acute{i}:t \ "\text{each of you}" \ (\acute{s}\acute{i}:t \ \text{distributive plural of} \\
\acute{s}\acute{i} \ "\text{be one}" )^9 \\
\)

\( k\^w \) apparently is not used when the head is first person. Attempts to
obtain it by elicitation were unsuccessful. (31) is the reply to (29),
both of which are from texts. \( n^\acute{y} \) seems to replace \( k\^w \) for a first
person head.\(^10\)

\( n^\acute{y} a-\acute{c} \ waw-i^\acute{y} \ t^\acute{y}-n^\acute{y} a-\ldots w\acute{a} \ pa-w\acute{a}-\acute{a} ... \\
I \quad I \text{stay} \quad I \text{who (?) sit I sit here, but} \\
\text{at home in it} \\
\)

I do stay at home, but....

However, I am not certain that (31) is a nominalization.
\( k\^w \) may be employed along with -x "future", as in

\( k\^w m-a-x\acute{a}n-x-pi-c \quad u-p\acute{a}k-c-a \\
\text{those who will watch they arrived} \\
\)

Those who are going to watch it have arrived.

Indeed, the only affix which cannot be employed simultaneously with \( k\^w \)
is, as far as I can determine, \( u- \ "3rd. subj." \\
A nominalization, like any noun, which is in apposition with a fol-
lowing noun, or pronoun, does not take a case suffix. It is the fol-
lowing noun, or pronoun, which takes the suffix, as illustrated by -y
"at" affixed to \( n^\acute{y} q\acute{a} \) in

\( w\acute{i} \quad k\^w y\acute{a} k \quad n^\acute{y} q\acute{a} y \quad n^\acute{y} u-w\acute{a}y q\acute{a}-\ldots w\acute{a}-c ... \\
\text{mountain which lies there he lived he sat there} \\
\text{At a mountain which lies there where he lived....} \\
\text{When affixed to} \ ?i \ "\text{say}" , \( k\^w \) may refer to the subject of the verb,
as in

\( ?a-p\acute{a} \ k\^w q\acute{a}-p\acute{i}-c \ n^\acute{y} w\acute{a}y p\acute{i}:t \\
\text{man he who said his heart it is blocked} \\
\text{The man who said it is crazy.} \)
More frequently the nominalization $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as}$ refers, not to the subject, but to the object, i.e., to what was said. A further peculiarity is the employment of the suppletive third person form of the verb, $\text{?a}$, rather than the stem, $\text{?i}$. The clause immediately preceding $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as}$ seems always to be in apposition with it.

(35) $\text{s}'\text{a-r} \text{k}^\text{w}?\text{ás-c-a}$ be dry what he said

It was dry like he said.

(36) $\text{n}'\text{pá-pí-c ma} \text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as pu-wá-c} \text{yu-s}$ the wheat get ripe as he said it sits there it is

The wheat got ripe like he said.

(37) $\text{?u-rá-r} \text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as-m pa-yá}$. he works as was said it happens now

So he's going to work like they said he would.

(38) $\text{wá} \text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as pa-wá}$. he sits as was said he sits here

So he's here, the one they said.

(39) $\text{kmí-ta-ká-p-sí-n}^\text{y} \text{šu-mán k}^\text{w}?\text{as-c} \text{?u-?á} \text{?a-c}$ that suitcase he opened like he said he did they said

They said he opened the suitcase like he said for him to do.

It is interesting that $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as}$ can be treated as a verb as well as a noun, i.e., by affixation of the verb suffixes $\text{~m} "\text{switch-referent}"$, as in (39), and $\text{~c} "\text{present-past coordinating}"$, as in (35) and (39). $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as}$ is also the nominalization of $\text{?a}^\text{y} "\text{do}"$, as in (40), which is to be compared with (44).

(40) $\text{n}^\text{y} \text{awí-} \text{k}^\text{w}?\text{ás-pí-n}^\text{y} \text{?u-?á-n}^\text{x} \text{?a-c}$ thing what she does he will do too he says

Whatever she does, he wants to do too.

The nominalization $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{is}$, also from $\text{?i} "\text{say}"$, is used in contexts very similar to those with $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{as}$. $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{is}$ occurs only rarely in texts and was difficult to elicit. The number of examples recorded are not sufficient to determine its function and meaning. The following were volunteered by speakers as examples of $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{is}$.

(41) $\text{k}^\text{w}?\text{is-c} \text{yu-m} \text{?a-c}$

what he said it is she said

What he said, she said.
(42) miriká'n capáy ʔu-yúš wa·m kʷ-ʔís-pi-nʸ
white man Indian he is in the what he said
beginning
l-awyá·m  la·x
he does not know  not

The white man doesn't know what the Indians used to do.

(43) xy-u-púk  kʷ-ʔís-pi-nʸ sm-u-lá·yp
he is first what he said they were unable to do

They couldn't do what the first one said.

(44) nʰwí· kʷ-ʔís-pi-nʸ ʔa-nʸ-x  pa--wá-c
thing what she says he will say too he sits here
ʔá-nʸ-pa
he really says

Whatever she says, he wants to say too.

2. Nominalizations by means of the second technique, the absence of kʷ-, are identifiable as nominalizations by the affixation of the appropriate case suffix and/or by the modification of the verb stem by a pluralizing process, usually that which forms the distributive plural of the verb.11 A plural notion is not appropriate in all instances and therefore a pluralizing process is not always employed. In such instances the case suffix is critical for identification. Most nominalizations formed by this technique take, in addition to the case suffix and preceding it, the reduced form of either pi- "this" or ʂu- "that". The reduced forms of these pronouns consist of the consonants only. A predictable transition vowel (/i/ before palatals, /a/ before other consonants) is inserted between the reduced forms and any consonantal case suffix. The case suffixes for pronouns are the same as those for nouns, with the exception that the object is marked by -nʸ, not by zero as for nouns. Thus, the forms -pinʸ and -šinʸ identify a nominalization as being in the object case. If the nominalization can be recognized as such by the plural stem, -pinʸ and -šinʸ are often omitted and the case of the nominalization is identified as object by the zero noun suffix. The employment of a plural stem or a formal marker for the object case is not a requirement. Also speakers frequently omit the subject case suffix after consonants when there is no possibility for ambiguity. Hence, it might be expected that nominalizations would occasionally be produced in which the nominalizations lack any formal criteria for identification. Such nominalizations do occur, but are rare. Except for intonation, nominalizations of this sort are not distinguishable from two juxtaposed predications. An illustration of a nominalization without employment of a plural stem or a case suffix is

(45) n-yí·-x xcaq yu-m¹²
you will come it is bad it is

Your coming will be bad.
This second type of nominalization is employed, as stated above, only when the head is not the subject of a verb within the nominalization. The head may bear any other sort of relation to the verb, or verbs, as denoted by the appropriate case suffix, or the action or condition expressed by the verb may itself be the head. In the following the objects of the verbs are heads.

(46) mat n'y-i-m-wayá'-c m-wayáw-pi-n'y m-ši-s-m y-u-ʔi'-p land you are around you are around you name he listens in them

You name the lands you have visited and he will listen.

(47) prxa-w pi.-i'y p-m-cáp-pi-c xčpa-c ?u-yú-c pa-ˀ-wá-mpa fox in this you put him coyote he is he really sits

The fox you put in here has really turned into a coyote.

(48) n'y-a-c xm?uk pkáy-pi-n'y syalk-x-š ... I ashes I carry I will dump but

I will dump the ashes I am carrying, but....

(49) n'y-a-p n'yawi. ?u.yáw-pi-n'y m-ʔi-k m-ra-r-x-m me, my thing I know you do you will work

pu-yá'-c yu-š it happens then it is

You will carry out the work that I know.

(50) n'yawi. yu- pʰxʷay ?in'yá'-m pa-wá-c yu-š13 thing I am it is good it is it sits it is (doing) very much here

What I am doing is very good.

Sometimes the object as head is covert, as in

(51) kʷárkʷár ?as šwan yu-m talk he says not nice it is

What he says is not nice.

(52) s-x-u-tús-si-n'y ʔay-n-u-mák-m sa-wá-c ?i-c-a she spit she left it in it sits there it says

The spit she left in it said it.

Heads which are the notions expressed upon affixation of the other case suffixes may be overt, as are xaY and makáy in
(53) xa-ŋ y p-ca-náp-ŋ y p-ŋk-u-xáp-m ...
in water they wash him in they put him in

When they put him in the water they wash him in,....

(54) máká-y n ŋ y u-wá-y l-u-yá-m-s "...
at where he lives I don't know but

I don't know where he lives, but....

On the other hand, they are often covert, as in

(55) ?u-yáw-x-ŋ y p-u-káŋ
she will come he took a shortcut

He took a shortcut to where she was coming.

(56) capáŋ swam-ŋ y p-ca-káŋ
people they are he mixed
all in them up

He got all the people into a group.

(57) spap-ŋ y ?u-wá-c-a
be in four she sits

She is in the fourth grade.

(58) n ŋ iy-u-pá-t-s-ŋ i p-m-kmi-k ...
he lies there you bring him

You bring him to his bed (the place where he lies)....

(59) n ŋ i-p-a-xír-p-i p-a-xír
they tie him there they tie him

They tied him at the place where they tie him.

(60) n ŋ i-ku-ŋyú-ma-sa-m n ŋ y-mu-xáp-m pá-n ŋ c-a
she went that way she passed by he went along too

He went along too, the way she went and where she passed by.

In (60) the first word is the nominalization and the case suffix is -m
"away from a point of reference". The second word in (60) is parenthetical or perhaps in apposition with the first. -m suffixed to the second word is not the case suffix -m, but -m "switch-referent".

Sometimes the head of a nominalization is the notion expressed by the verb. An example of this is (45). Some other examples are

(61) pa-yí-s-pi-c ewaár
I come it is tiring

My coming was tiring.
(62) mapíl Y p-m-wáš-pí-n Y pwa-y-x-m ?í-x-a
now you sit here she will I will say
arrive again again

While you are here, she should come again, I'll say.

(63) n' a-c n' akúr kí-xún-c m-yus k' wí-n Y -c-a
I long ago I was a boy you are I was also like
m-yus k' wí-n Y -c pa-yí-c
you are I was also like I came here

Long ago I was also a little boy like you, I became like you.

(64) m-mšpás-pí-c xcaq pu-yá-c yú-n Y-pa
you die be bad it happens then it really is

Your dying will really be bad.

Munro (1976:194) states that the subject of an "oblique relative clause" (a nominalization which does not take k W- ) in Mohave "is not ŋ-marked." This is usually true also in Cocopa. The only exceptions I have recorded are pronouns. In Cocopa the subject of the verb in this type of nominalization ordinarily takes the object case suffix—zero for nouns, -p for the first person pronoun, -n Y for other pronouns. An illustration of this is (49) where n Y-a-p is the subject of ʔu-yáw. n Y-a-c in (48) appears to be an exception, but it is not. n Y-a-c is the subject of ɡyáik, not of pkay. n Y-a-p, I believe, would be acceptable, in which case it would be part of the nominalization and thus the subject of pkay, not of ɡyáik. n Y-a-c in (65) and ɡu-c in (66) are exceptions.

(65) n' a-c mač ʔu-yáw-pí-c-a vyu•linavakaw Y-l-u-yák-m
I land I know Vyu•linavaka·w it does not lie in
lá•x-ya
not again

Vyu•linavaka·w is still not among the lands I know.

(66) n' akúr ʔawyá-n Y ɡu-c n' i-y-u-wá-x-pí-n Y-a
a long time he knows too that one she will sit in it

He also knew for a long time that she would be in it.

A noun which is the subject of the verb in a nominalization always takes a zero suffix, as in

(67) pírl Y n Y-sʔak k W-a-šít ʔa-n Y n Y-sxa• k' árk'ár
parrot woman the same it said too girl talk
ʔás-pí-n Y-a
she said
The female parrot said the same thing that the girl said.

(68) kʷ-a-yá-t ?á-n'y-c-a u yá-ma. ?u-yú-s-pi-n'y ?á-n'y-c-a
the same he said too lion he is he said too

He said the same thing, he said what the lion said.

(69) mca-wí-yá n'yawí. ?u-má-x-pí-c pí-s si-τ
adults thing they will eat peso (Spanish) (Spanish)

n'y-a-yú-c
then it is

So what adults will eat will be one dollar.

3. Constructions with -m "switch-referent" somewhat resemble nominalizations semantically, as can be seen in two examples from a Cocopa text. 14

(70) wi- kʷ-yak n'y-ša-y n'y-u-wáy ša--wá-c...
mountain which lies there he lived he sat there

At a mountain which lies there where he lived....

(71) wi-c pu-yá-k-m n'y-ša-y ?u-wá-m ?a-c
mountain it lies there there he sat they say

n'y-ša-y p-k-u-mí-m-c-a
there they took him

At a mountain where he lived, they say they took him there.

Switch-referent constructions differ grammatically in that their subjects take -c "subj.", in their inability to affix a case suffix, and in their employment of nonplural forms of the verb. -m "switch-referent" in Cocopa is a subordinating suffix. The only function it performs is to denote that the next verb has a different subject. There must be a next verb—this prefix cannot be affixed to the last verb of a sentence. Switch-referent constructions, at least in Cocopa, cannot be treated as nominalizations as we normally think of them. I say this in spite of the occasional occurrence of sentences like (72) in which the subordination mapúc şm'im is embedded within the main clause.

(72) "n'y-a-c mapú-c ş-m-?i-m 1-u-yá-š-m ş mapí-y
I you you say there I don't know but now

?a-k pa-m p-a-?í-x pu-yá-š-m " ?a-c
I go I arrive I will do to her it happens then he said

"I don't know what you were saying there, but now I'll go and do it to her," he said.
Embedding is not in itself an indication of nominalization. If -m "switch-referent" is to be treated as a nominalizing suffix, then so must -c "present-past coordinating", -k "future coordinating", and several other syntactic suffixes. But a consideration of this matter is beyond the scope of the present paper.

Notes

1. Financial support for field work on Cocopa was provided by the Survey of California Indian Languages (1963-65) and by faculty research grants from Idaho State University (1967) and the University of Georgia (1973).

2. By "head" I mean the semantic notion within the nominalization which has a syntactic relation to some element outside the nominalization.

3. The categories which these processes form might be called more accurately aspectual. I retain the use of the term "plural" since most Yumanists use this term and know what is meant by it.

4. Although I have tried to do so, I cannot justify identifying /a/ as the indefinite prefix 'a-. It is segmentable, but I am not yet able to define its function. For most verbs which employ /a/ along with k'w-, its deletion is not permitted. Some verbs do not permit its employment with k'w-. For the few verbs which along with k'w- can take /a/ as well as omit it, its presence usually denotes animate reference and its absence inanimate reference.

5. The glottal stop of 'a- is present only in word initial position.

6. /u/ becomes /w/ before a vowel.

7. /u:/ becomes /w/ before a vowel. -u-x 'a:w "whip" is a bound stem which requires a pronominal object prefix.

8. The glottal stop of 'u- is present only in word initial position. The position of 'u-, like that of 'a-, is always before the consonant which precedes the vowel of the root syllable.


10. The first person object prefix is n'y-. However, I am doubtful that /n'y/ here should be analyzed as this prefix.

11. Munro (1975:193) calls nominalizations of this type in Mohave "oblique relative clauses."

12. The nominalization myi-x is the subject of xcaq and could have been marked as such by -c, -pic, or -sic.

13. yu "be, do" is a transitive verb in Cocopa, with n'awi. "thing" its object in this sentence. Lengthening of the vowel of yu signifies continuative aspect.

14. Margaret Langdon once remarked that Diegueño speakers prefer constructions with -m "switch-referent" to nominalizations and avoid the latter if possible. In general, this is also true for Cocopa speakers.
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1977 HOKAN-YUMAN LANGUAGES WORKSHOP

James E. Redden, Editor

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The first meeting of linguists working on Hokan and Yuman languages was held at the University of California, San Diego, in 1970 at the invitation of Margaret Langdon, who established the Yuman Languages Archives with the aid of a National Science Foundation grant. This meeting made it possible for various specialists working on these languages to get to know each other and to benefit from technical discussions of many problem points. Those attending this first meeting felt that the papers and discussions contributed so much to the advancement of the understanding of these languages that participants soon began asking when we would meet again. In 1975 Margaret Langdon again invited the Yumanists to meet at San Diego. It was felt that this and the previous meeting had contributed so much to the collective understanding of Hokan and Yuman that it was decided to meet every year if it could be arranged. In 1976 another workshop was held at UCSD, to which both Hokanists and Yumanists were invited. In 1977 Hokanists and Yumanists met at the University of Utah in Salt Lake City. In 1978 the meeting will again be at UCSD.

The participants of the 1977 Hokan-Yuman Languages Workshop gratefully acknowledge all the work done by Professor Mauricio Mixco and his assistants, which made the workshop run so smoothly and enjoyably.

Unfortunately, everyone who presented a paper at the 1976 Hokan-Yuman Languages Workshop was not able to prepare a final version for inclusion in this volume. All papers in this volume were presented in an earlier version at the 1977 workshop. The papers are arranged in the order that they appeared on the program at the workshop. The Yuman papers were given first, and papers from the other branches of Hokan followed.


The proceedings of the 1975 and 1976 workshops are now out of print, but copies may be obtained in microfiche or hard-bound copies from ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 N. Kent Street, Arlington, VA 22209.

James E. Redden
Carbondale, May 1978
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