











SEX-DENOTING NOUNS IN AMERICAN LANGUAGES.

BY

ALBERT S. GATSCHET,

OF THE U.S. BUREAU OF ETHNOLOGY, WASHINGTON.

1889.



(SEPARATELY PRINTED FROM THE "TRANSACTIONS OF THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY," Vol. XX, Pages 159 to 171.)

PM-31

3935

III. — Sex-denoting Nouns in American Languages.

BY ALBERT S. GATSCHET,

OF THE U. S. BUREAU OF ETHNOLOGY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The most cursory consideration of the things in nature teaches us the fact, that there are living and lifeless objects in the world around us, that is, beings which spontaneously show signs of inward life, and objects deprived of the signs of life or appearing to be so. To reach such a degree of mental apperception our race had to pass through a long period of training and experience, and among rude and primitive nations the human mind has not reached this stage of logical perfection; much less can this be said of the intelligence of the primordial man of many thousand years ago. The primordial man easily confounded action, motion, variation, and change with life, this being a natural consequence of the animism which then pervaded all human understanding. Man at that remote period also confounded cause and effect with sequence in time, and both errors were the fruitful agencies which produced that wonderful maze of religious ideas, myths, and superstitions which are now being published in the literature of folk-lore. Objects like the wind, lightning, dew, or fog could then be regarded as animate as well as pearls, precious stones, and flowers, although we would now laugh at the idea that there is life in them. But primeval ideas like these still survive in the gender of some languages, part of which are spoken by the most cultured nations.

But besides the above another distinction was received into the noun and other parts of speech. Man and the higher animals, as quadrupeds and birds, were known to be divided in two sexes, and an intimation of these was expressed in the grammatic forms of some languages. In the Aryan languages the majority of the lower animals and plants were also given a grammatic sex, but most other objects of nature were relegated into what is now called the neuter gender. In other languages, mainly of the agglutinative type, these were relegated into a large class of "inanimates." The large majority of all languages which are distinguishing gender in the noun, know of two genders only, and a number of tongues in all parts of the world know

nothing of any gender- or sex-distinction whatever, some of these, as Neopersian, Lettish and English, having lost them in course of time.

The personal pronoun is that part of speech in which the masculine sex is at first distinguished from the feminine by separate words or grammatic signs. From the personal pronoun this distinction gradually invades the possessive, reflective, demonstrative, interrogative and relative pronoun. Sex may be made distinct in the pronoun of one, but not of another dialect of the same linguistic family, a fact which I have observed in the Kalapuya family of Northwestern Oregon. Sex-distinction also exists in the third persons of the pronouns in some Iroquois dialects, but not in the Cherokee language, which is related to them. In Iroquois dialects the distinction between he and she extends to persons only, not to any of the animals. In the Timucua, once spoken in the Floridian peninsula, o, oqe is he, ya she; but sex does not appear to be marked in any other manner in this language, which is so extremely rich in pronominal and verbal forms.

From the personal and possessive pronoun sex-distinction passes into the *verb*, which in agglutinative languages is nothing but a modified noun. In the verb sex-distinction is less frequent than in the pronoun. Of American languages some Iroquois dialects have it in the third persons of the singular, dual and plural of the pronoun only; in the eastern hemisphere the languages which present this feature most conspicuously are those of the Semitic stock.

Distinction of sex in the noun.

The noun proper or substantive and the adjective are the parts of speech in which sex-denoting affixes are most unfrequently met with. The majority of all tongues will resort to separate terms to indicate sex in human beings and animals, and place them in apposition to the noun either before or after it. In Maya dialects these sex-apposites have been ground down so as to represent mere prefixes; ahdesignates the male, but in fact means *proprietor*, *possessor*; ish-, sh-represents the female sex, and originally referred to the reproduction of the species. Thus in the Maya of Yucatan mehen is *son*, ish-mehen *daughter*; Ah-Pech *man* called *Pech*, Ish-Pech *woman* called *Pech*. To designate the sex of animals, this language uses other

¹ To avoid misapprehension, I call henceforth *gender* the categories of the animate and inanimate, *sex* those of the masculine and feminine.

terms: shibil-coh male puma, shibil signifying male. The Quiché language, closely related to Maya, furnishes such examples as: Tziquin, nom. pr. masc. "Bird"—Sh-Tziquin, name of his wife; zu flute, ah-zu musician; achih-mun male slave, ishok-mun female slave, achih meaning male and ishok woman.

But this is agglutination only; affixes like these are not real, inseparable grammatic marks to designate sex, but only terms used in forming compound nouns, just as we say she-fox for vixen. However, we find in several not sex-denoting American languages instances of metaphoric appellations of inanimate things referring to sexual distinction. They show how deeply engrafted in the human mind is the tendency towards animism. Thus the Caddo name for Mississippi river is Báhat sássin Mother of rivers, for sássin means mother as well as wife, and the name shows that that river is here symbolized as the "receiver of many rivers." In the Maskoki languages thumb is "mother of fingers"; in Creek íngi ítchki, in Chikasa ílbak-íshke, in Hitchití ílb-íki, the literal rendering of all these terms being "of one's fingers their mother."

Sex-denoting affixes.

What seems to be a genuine sex-denoting affix to the noun appears in one of the South-American linguistic families of the northern part of that continent. This stock is commonly designated as *Carib*, but since this name has been used in an exceedingly vague and indistinct manner, it is preferable to call the dialects in which sex-denoting affixes have been studied, by their special names.

Copying from Fr. Müller, Grundriss der Sprachwissenschaft, II, p. 324, the dialects in which this feature is observed are the Arowak and the Goajira, sex being indicated in adjectives and participles as well as in substantives. In Arowak we have:

boy basabanti; girl basabantu.

little boy basabanti-kan; little girl basabantu-kan.

a good man üsati; a good woman üsatu.

loving (man) kansiti; loving (woman) kansitu.

dying (man) ahuduti; dying (woman) ahudutu.

child (male) elonti; child (female) elontu.

In the *Goajira* language, spoken north of the Gulf of Maracaibo, the -i of the masculine answers to a feminine in -e, as follows:

merchant oikari; fem. oikare.

fisherman apüshaxori; fem. apüshaxore.

good anashi; fem. anase.

dead autushi; fem. autuse.

little morsashi; fem. morsase.

sorry, trist, maxuaintshi; fem. maxuainre.

The language of the Kalinago or *Caribs of the West Indies* or Antillian islands is surviving upon a few islands only; it is related to both dialects above mentioned, and shows the same sex-denoting suffixes as observed in Arowak (Müller, ibid. p. 339):

a beautiful man iropoⁿti; a beautiful woman irupatu. beloved (man) kiⁿshiⁿti; beloved (woman) kiⁿshiⁿtu. murderer aparuti; murderess aparutu.

I do not have the works of Father Breton before me, who is the chief authority upon this insular language; but from the extracts in L. Adam, Examen Grammatical, p. 7 (1878), it appears that the personal and the possessive pronouns also differed according to the sex of the one speaking in the third person: l-iem he does, t-iem she does; l-aku his eye, t-aku her eye. Moreover, the females among themselves spoke another language than the men, and though both languages were called Caribbean, Fr. Müller regards them as radically distinct from each other.¹

The Taensa people, the existence of which is recorded in the annals from 1680 to 1812, lived between Vicksburg and Natchez City on the west side of the Mississippi river, near the Tonikas, and about 1714 removed to Mobile Bay. The grammar, vocabulary and poetic collection of the Taensa language, which was published in Paris in 1882, has been attacked in regard to its authenticity, and since the arguments brought forward against it have not convinced many scientists,2 I shall make mention of the curious system of sexdistinction which the grammar contains. This distinction occurs in the pronouns and in the substantive. The pronouns with sex-forms are thou wi, fem. wiâ; he su, she suâ; ye wig, fem. wiâg; they sug, fem. suâg. The interrogative pronoun wekmâr, fem. wekmârâ who? the emphatic and expletive forms of the personal pronoun all bear the marks of sex-distinction. When a masculine form corresponds to a feminine substantive, the ending of the latter is -â; and this in some instances passes over into the adjective when this is used attributively.

¹ Cf. also Ober, Fred. A., Camps in the Caribbees. Boston, 1880, pp. 100–103. ² Dr. D. G. Brinton, in *American Antiquarian*, 1885, pp. 108–113; 275, 276; A. S. Gatschet, in *Revue de Linguistique* of Paris, 1888, pp. 199–208, and several articles written by Lucien Adam and Julien Vinson.

The terminals -ao, -a-u indicate inanimate things, but nouns in -ao, -a-u are regarded as of the feminine sex.

Tonika.

The only sex-denoting language which I have had the opportunity to study on the spot is the Tonika or Túnixka of Eastern Louisiana, discovered by me in the autumn of 1886. It proved to be a language heretofore unknown to science, and by its strange peculiarities deserves to be carefully studied and compared with other languages, especially with those spoken in its nearest vicinity: the Ná'htchi, Shetimasha, Atákapa and the sundry dialects of the wide-stretching Maskóki family.

In the pronoun, verb and noun this southern tongue distinguishes two sexes, the masculine and feminine; inanimate things belong either to one or the other of the two, and abstract nouns are chiefly or exclusively of the feminine class. If an inanimate order ever existed, it has been merged into the above two, as in the modern Romance languages the neuter has merged into the masculine.

In the noun the *male sex* is made distinct in the singular by the prefix uk- (u-), or by the suffix -ku (-k^u, - χ ku, - χ k, -k); in the plural by the prefix sik-, sig-, or by the suffixed pronoun sä'ⁿ, sä'ma, hé säma. The *female sex* has a distinguishing mark in the prefix tik- (tí'h-, tig-, ti-, t-) or in the suffix -ktchi (- χ tchi, - χ tch, -ktch, -kts, -'htchi, -tch, -ts) in the singular number, while in the plural it has sin, siⁿ, si, hé sin, hé sinma, placed either before or after the noun to which they belong.

All these affixes are either pronouns or of pronominal origin. They are frequently omitted where we expect to find them, and the masculine affixes much more so than those of the opposite sex.

A partial list of Pronouns is as follows:

héku, hék^u this one, this; fem. héktchi, hé'htch; pl. hé säⁿ; hé sin. héku and héktchi may also refer to inanimate things.

Personal pronoun:

- ı sg. ima I; emphatic î'matan myself.
- 2 sg. ma thou (masc.) hä'ma (fem.); emphatic mátan, hä'matan.
- 3 sg. úwi he, tí'htchi she; emphatic úwitan, tí'htchitan.

- I pl. inima we; emphatic inimata" ourselves.
- 2 pl. wínima ye (masc.), hínima (fem.); emphatic wínimatan, hínimatan.
- 3 pl. sä'ⁿma, sä'ⁿ they (masc.), sinima, siⁿ (fem.); emphatic sä'ⁿmataⁿ, fem. sinimataⁿ.

Possessive pronoun:

lúk tongue, ta lúk the tongue, a tongue, tongue.

- 1 sg. iluk my tongue.
- 2 sg. wíluk thy tongue, fem. híluk.
- 3 sg. úluk his tongue, fem. tíluk her tongue.
- I pl. î'nluk our tongues.
- 2 pl. wî'nluk your tongues, fem. hî'nluk.
- 3 pl. síluk their tongues, fem. sílnluk.

The word ri house, provided with possessive prefixes, runs as follows:

- 1 sg. ígri my house; 2 sg. wígri, f. hígri; 3 sg. úgri, f. tígri.
- ı pl. íhĕri our house; 2 pl. wíhĕri, f. híhĕri; 3 pl. sígri, f. sí'hri.

When ri house, which is of the feminine gender, stands in the plural, it becomes ri-sin houses, lit. "house-these" or "house-they," and the "conjugation" proceeds as follows:

- 1 sg. ígrisin or ta rí'htinsin my houses.
- 2 sg. wigrisin thy houses, fem. higrisin.
- 3 sg. úgrisin his houses, tígrisin her houses.
- I pl. iherisin our houses.
- 2 pl. wi'hrisin your houses, fem. hi'hĕrisin.
- 3 pl. sígrisin their houses, fem. sí'hrisin; or tá n'tchi sín sí'hri, lit. "the-women-their-houses."

In following up a portion of the personal inflection of the verb, similar pronominal elements are found to occur.

Present tense of ságu to eat, declarative form:

- 1 sg. ságukani I am eating.
- 2 sg. ságuki; fem. ságuka.
- 3 sg. sagukúna, ságuku; fem. sagúkati.

indef. sagúkiti somebody is eating.

- 1 du. saginán we two are eating.
- 2 du. saguwina"; fem. saguhina".
- 3 du. sagu-úna"; fem. sagusína".

- I pl. ságitin and ságiti voe are eating.
- 2 pl. sagúwiti; fem. sagúhiti.
- 3 pl. sagúkiti; fem. sagúsiti.

Although there is a dual in the verb, I have been unable to obtain a dual for the pronoun and substantive differing from the plural.

Now let us see how these different signs of sex are applied in the Tonika sentence. Let us consider them separately, beginning with the:

Masculine.

kuá tú χ ku óshka tádshara *the clavos of a little bird*; kuá being masc., tú χ ku or tú χ ku, tú χ k *little*, is of the same sex.

héku náxk like this man, or like this thing.

ikontéku lúpui wéran a-áχkinta my father-he (ikonté-ku) died, while I was hunting.

kán harī'a ta ríxku (or táxku, abbr.)? how tall is this tree?

táyani-shi-k^u ríχti míshti tá sá-tek^u ukpéri *the buffalo is stronger than the horse*; lit. "cattle-male-he strong more the horse-he him surpasses": uk- is the masc. object-particle of the singular, referring here to the horse.

tóni sik'háyi hihá-ixta lúp hót' ónta The old people in this village are all dead; lit. "people those-old in-there dead all are"; sikbeing an instance of the masculine plural.

Feminine.

óka núχtchi tú *little girl*; lit. "child-woman-small"; tú *little* need not take the fem. ending (tú'htchi) here, for the sex is already pointed at by núχtchi.

táxkuri héktch imé'htini this fence is mine (táxkuri fence).

tá yúnka'htch (or tá yúnka) títik ma-itóru ā'ra a rope is crossing the creek; lit. "the rope creek across is lying"; if yúnka was masc., the verb would be ū'ra.

rá-axkini î'gatchik lúpiti'htch I grew up when my mother was dead. ígatchiktch tí'htch, Béluksi núxtchi, iknaxshä'ki my mother, a Beluxi woman, brought me (here). In these two examples tí'htch is added reverentially to the term my mother (î'gatchi).

ta tíraktch irúkati húriwi the cloth (or sheet) floats in the wind; lit. "the-she-cloth-she floats-she wind-in," ira cloth being preceded and followed by feminine affixes.

ta ri_{χ} kéku (or tárkeku, tá χ kuk) hárīa tári'tch atápära the tree is as tall as the house; lit. "the tree tall the house-she equals."

táχkuk hárīa, tígri kä'ha the tree is lower than the house; lit. "the tree tall, she-house is-not."

táxtchiksh tí'hkorak(i) full moon; lit. "luminary she-round."

lá-u táχtchiksh ríkĕhä, áχshukun táχtchiksh tikamíshti *the moon is* smaller than the sun; lit. "night-luminary great-not, day-luminary her surpasses."

tá-ushi rómana míshtik, ta mákak tikpéri water is heavier than oil; lit. "water (for ta wí'hshi) heavy more, the oil her surpasses."

ta wishana máxkina míshti hótu siⁿpéri this lake is deeper than all others; lit. "the lake deep more all them (fem.) surpasses."

yakanikáχtcha kí, láhoⁿ tuk yakanikáχtcha *if I come*, *I come early*. Láhoⁿ tuk "small morning" gives *no* indication of the feminine gender of láhon, láhoni.

ta héri'htchi tchúima he seizes the canoe.

táru hésin ra (or rata) these nuts are hard.

ta niriwä'ka sin the cemeteries.

hé sin hótu tíksa tchóhaki she led all these dogs; tíksa female dog, hé sin these (fem. pl.), hótu all.

The demonstrative particle *ta* preceding many of the nouns can best be understood when we regard it as an article corresponding in most cases to our definite article *the*, and indicative of the singular and plural number of both sexes.

These examples plainly show that there is a real sex-distinction in this language for animate beings as well as for inanimate things; that the pronoun ku, ku is always placed *after* its noun, adjective, or pronoun to designate the masculine gender; that the more frequent ti'h-, ti-, t- is placed *before* it to designate the feminine, but when it appears in the shape of ti'htch, -'htch, -ksh, -'tch is *suffixed* to it; that in many instances the signs of either class are omitted altogether.

The point which we have to examine next is, what objects or categories of objects are assigned to the one or the other sex. For we find that the attribution of some sex to inanimate things must have started from the same mental activity which has assigned to the sun a male sex in the classic and a female in the Germanic languages, and to the moon just the reverse, although there is nothing male or female to be perceived in either of the two celestial bodies. It was the same energy of the mind which caused primitive men to produce myths by personifying the inanimate objects of nature observed

around them. The Tonika language is the more remarkable on this account, because it is the only language heretofore discovered in America which divides all objects of creation into two great sexcategories.

Of the *adjectives* the large majority appear to have a simple form, from which the masculine is derived by suffixing -ku, - χ ku, -k", the feminine by appending one of the aforementioned affixes. The adjective ni'hsara young forms neither of the two, as the sex is expressed by the noun accompanying this adjective or implied in it: one ni'hsara boy, nú χ tchi ni'hsara girl; lit. "man young," "woman young."

We have the following instances:

tä ^{'n} great, large	masc. tä'ku, tä'gu	fem. tä"htchi
tú small, little	túχku, túχk	túχkush
kóra ⁿ round	kóraku	kóraktch
méli <i>black</i>	méliku	méliktchi
míli <i>red</i>	míliku	míliktchi
rówa white	rówaku	rówaktchi
táxkir smutty, dirty	táxkirku	táχkiri'htch
máka ⁿ fat	makáχku	maká'htchi
rix'sa spotted, dotted	ríχ'saku	ríχ'satch

The sex of the substantive is not by any means always expressed in the adjective accompanying it, and this appears to be dictated either by the run of the sentence or be a matter of pure convenience. Thus we have tashkará χ poni (fem.) rówa white stocking, though t. is feminine; tí χ shuma mákan or t. maká'htchi fat meat; tí χ shuma sépi lean meat, instead of sépi'htch. Especially the sign of the masculine is frequently omitted.

Of the *Terms of relationship*, which correspond to each other in both sexes, many appear in this language with the sexual affixes appended, and are always connected with their possessive prefixes *my*, *his*, *her*, just like the parts of the human and animal body:

é'hkutuhuk my son, é'hkutuhuktch(i) my daughter.

 \acute{e}_χ kutu wálikmy step-son, \acute{e}_χ kutu wáliktch my step-daughter.

ixtchaku my grandfather, ixtchaktch my grandmother.

étuku mashiku my father-in-law, étuku mashi'htchi my mother-in-law. Thus in the formation of the degrees of relationship we perceive a close analogy with the sex-distinction in adjectives.

Terms designating male persons, their occupations, employments, generally show no affix designating sex, or if they do, it is -ku, -k^u. Terms descriptive of women, their occupations, etc., have either no affix, or tí'h-, -'htchi or some other of the above-mentioned feminine affixes.

Quadrupeds and birds (kúa) are of the masculine gender, unless the female sex is pointed out by a noun standing appositively. There is no word in the language corresponding exactly to our term animal, unless it should be contained in sán, which now means dog; sá tä'n horse would then be "large animal." Examples: yánish cattle, yánish káxshi buffalo, pä'ha sán wolf, tchúla fox, yá, í-a deer, yátän elk, lit. "large deer," núxki beaver, rushtán rabbit, rushtán tä'n sheep, lit. "large rabbit," iyushäla opossum and woodrat, kíwa weasel, íyutä hog, mínu cat, híxku mouse; kúa tú bird (lit. "small bird"), kúa tú and túxku humming-bird, kúa míli cardinal, éla, ä'la buzzard, yé'hta tän turkey, shími pigeon; but ä'xka crow is represented to be a feminine.

The *lower animals*, as amphibians, reptiles, fish, insects and mollusks, appear to be considered as of the masculine gender: kóxku turtle, kó'hsuki crab, ná-aran snake, nā'ran tä'n rattlesnake, viz. "snake large," níni fish, ä'ya fly, í-unari salmon, ómaxka alligator, sutáxshu grasshopper, shírixka ant, lúpiran chamaeleon, námi louse, shíla pä'xka bedbug, lit. "fat beast," kē bee, kē mírka, míx'ka wasp, kē wísta honey, takírka mollusk, úxshik shell. The generic term for all the smaller animals is shíla or shíla tú, which the French Creoles call "le petit bétail," and is of the male sex. The term for frog, udshéxka, is said to be feminine.

Plants, trees, bushes and zweeds are of the masculine sex also, and rixku tree and zwood is masc. as well. The term for plant, tápa and tápaktch, is fem. and means "what grows" or "is planted"; tapákani I plant. Examples of plants, all masculine, are as follows: rixku sánu pacan-tree, and sánu pacan-nut, ú'hshpa zwhite oak, rixku kíru peach-tree, ráyi mulberry-tree, yúgmoxku herb, grass, zweed; erá, rá tobacco, yítä batate, szweet potato, shúlik ótaka melon, shúxka pumpkin.

Of rocks, stones and minerals the following are masculine: $\sinh\chi$ ka stone, rock, flint-stone; $\hbar\chi$ tchu salt, $\hbar\chi$ spi, $\hbar\chi$ spi metal, iron, $\hbar\chi$ ta bluff on a river, etc.

The *celestial bodies* and the divisions of *time* are considered feminine by these Indians, as is also háliktch, abbrev. háli, hál *earth*, and

its derivatives, perhaps because the personified Earth is regarded as the mother of all beings.

We mention the following instances: táχtchiksh, abbr. táχtchi "luminary" and sun; áχshukun t. sun, lit. "day-luminary"; lá-u t. moon, lit. "night-luminary"; táχtchi tipulá star; láhoni morning, te'hkalugéki noon, tohónagi afternoon, lá-aki, lā'ki evening, tíhika summer and year; tíhika tú spring, lit. "little summer"; táχsaba τωinter, táχsaba tú autumn, lit. "little winter"; rúina heat, yúpaχta the cold, alutápan harvest also belong to the feminine order. Among the derivatives and compounds of háli earth we have: halúpish mud, háli-sáman brick, lit. "earth baked"; halú'hta sole. But the term hal-ukíni village, district, lit. "placed upon the earth," is masculine.

The points of the compass are derivatives of verbs or nouns, and all of the feminine sex: táxsapash north, lit. "cold"; táxtchi píkatish east, tíhikash south, lékatish west, lit. "loss (of the sun)."

Some other *objects of nature* are of the feminine order also: wi'hshi water, liquid becomes tá-ush(i) when the article ta is placed before it: tá-ush míli river, lit. "red water"; háxpushi ashes, ontétish milk, tóra ice, toratíni hoarfrost, yáxku vegetable poison, shíxtika venom, télia and télia'htch shadow and soul, also reflection on the water. The term yí pain, invisible sickness is feminine, and hence all names of diseases are of the same gender: íni yí toothache, e'htiníyu yí heart disease, táshki- rúpa diarrhwa. Yúri visible sickness is of the same sex.

Abstract nouns are all considered as of the female sex, for they are feminine adjectives made into substantives: $k\acute{a}\chi$ shi true and truth, reality; ri χ ki'htch force, strength, from ri χ ki strong; ta χ kiritchi filth, from tá χ kir dirty; náka war, battle is masculine and appears to be considered as a concrete, not as an abstract noun.

The names for the parts of the human and animal body and of plants are about equally divided between the two sexes.

Of masculine nouns we have: ini my tooth, éruk my neck, i'hstuksuk my eye, iri'hshi my nose, inishi my breast, é'htuka my shoulder, i'hkeni my hand, i. lábu my right hand, lit. "good hand," eyumä'ra my verist, hanimu fist, úyun bowels, ilákashi my hair, táxki bone, ishki my posteriors, é'hshka my foot, and ó'hshka stalk and root of plant, yúxtar feather, plumage, óxsa tail of animal, axkatini pimple.

Of feminine nouns there are: i'hkin tirwash my finger-nail, e'htiniyu my heart, e'hsini my head, itaxkishi my skin (and bark of plants),

óli'hka and ólika'htch my liver, tá-idsha flesh, meat, éyu and éyu'htch my arm, ópushka lung, tchára toe, túxsu grain, seed, rú nut.

Natural objects classed into the masculine order of inanimates are as follows: éshku rain, éshku rahíni thunder, tóa snow, hóxka hole, áyi, á-i fire, húri wind, ta húri ku the wind blows, apáru sky and clear sky; hí'hshuka dew appears to be of both sexes.

Manufactured objects are thought to belong to both sexes, but the number of those belonging to the feminine possibly prevails over that of the opposite sex.

Masculines are: hässán saw, pólu'hki bottle, takáxti key, tíra táruhi clothes-brush, tanáhan back (of chair), kún kúrini drum, lit. "noise to assemble," tchúhi cushion, pillow, áyi wotchúra chimney, héyutana bed, ta póxku bed-cover, kóti lodgement, wúxku hat, rí áwähan doorway.

Feminines are: wishkatáhi bow, lit. "bow with cord"; róhina book, paper, newspaper, etc., from rówa white; íra cloth, clothing, garment, úshik spoon, skálaχk shilling, from Span. escalino; láχspi ta éyu beads, hí'hturak táran spider-web, yúnka and yúnka'htch rope, rí house, lodge, rí káhi floor, rí pókuni roof, thatch.

Readers perusing this long list of nouns will obviously notice that some of these terms have lost such endings as -i or -u, and that others have a long and an abbreviated form used simultaneously. There are whole categories of nouns which distinctly belong to one grammatic sex only, like the names for the points of the compass, all of which are feminine exclusively, and moreover end in -sh throughout. But outside of the terminals of sex, -ku and -ktchi, with their phonologic alterations, no suffix can be found which gives an indication of sex by itself, as we observe it, e.g. with Latin -tas and German -heit.

The problem now confronts us: do we have in the Tonika language a division of nouns into an animate or vitalistic and an inanimate or non-vitalistic class, or a real sex-division into male and female nouns? To this I reply:

Had the originators of the gender-system embodied in Tonika started from the purpose of separating the objects showing life from those of the inanimate world, they would not have placed animals, plants, minerals, many objects of nature and the body's organs into the same class. Neither would they have done this, if they desired to distinguish the noble from the ignoble (whatsoever this distinction may amount to in an Indian's mind), the active from the non-active, or the organic from the inorganic, a conception which could hardly

originate in minds untrained in natural science. That the feminine sex contains, or originally embraced, only such terms which describe objects hidden within others, or not on the surface, or enclosing other objects, and abstract ideas, is a theory agreeing with many terms of the list, but not with all the facts on hand, and has therefore to be discarded.

The best we can do in our present state of knowledge is to assume that the early Tonikas started from the two sexes observed among men and animals, and found in all the other objects of nature, and in abstract ideas, some fancied analogy to males and females, and thus classified their nouns.

PD 8.8











