Haida Pronouns - Hydaburg Dialect

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Introduction

Since Swanton published a linguistic account of the Haida language spoken on the Queen Charlotte Islands of British Columbia, three dialects have been generally acknowledged. These are the Masset, Skidegate and Ninstints dialects. There is no published account of Ninstints which has no known living speakers. The other two dialects are primarily spoken in the towns for which the dialects were named, both of which are on Graham Island. According to Swanton (1911:209), the Haida who live in Alaska on Prince of Wales Island speak Masset dialect.

Swanton points out that a large number of Haidas moved from the northwestern Queen Charlotte Islands to Alaska around 1700-1760. At the time he was studying the Haida, these Alaskan Haida, sometimes referred to as Kaigani, were living in three villages. About 1911 the Christian community of Hydaburg was formed when the residents of Howkan, Klinkwan and Kasaan were brought together.

Haida as spoken by residents of Hydaburg appears to differ from the Masset dialect reported by Swanton. It is difficult to determine at this time whether such changes are currently reflected in Masset speech or whether differences are part of a larger dialectal drift which has occurred within the last century. Despite Swanton's claims, it remains to be seen whether Kaigani speech was

1

identical with Masset even at the turn of this century.

This paper¹ is an attempt to describe the pronoun system of Haida now in use in Hydaburg and to make a preliminary analysis of the changes which seem to have occurred since the accounts of Swanton and Harrison (1895). References to Haida will be to Hydaburg dialect unless otherwise specified.

Pronoun Types

Pronouns occur in three syntactic relationships within the Haida sentence, as subjects of predication, as objects of predication, and to denote possession. These correspond to Harrison's three relations of nominative, accusative and genitive, which are clearly modeled on Latin grammar (1895:131 ff., 135). However, Haida pronouns are not used in precisely the Indo-European sense of nominative and accusative as Harrison's grammar suggests. Broadly characterized, there are two classes of promouns used as subjects of predication. I refer to these as active and inactive.

Generally, inactive pronouns are used with predicates denoting states of being, quality or condition. Active pronouns are used with verbs of motion or activity as well as many transitive verbs. There may be a small class of neutral verbs which also take active pronouns (cf. Eastman, Welsch and Vaughan 1975).

Verbs which are transitive in English may take either class of pronoun subject depending upon what the predication denotes, action or condition. Thus, "I am eating fish" and "I am going out" will take active pronouns, but "I am fat" and "I love my wife" (i.e., "I am in the state of loving my wife") will take inactive

2

pronouns.

The distinction between active and inactive pronouns corresponds closely, but not identically, to what Swanton (1911:256) has called subjective and objective series of pronouns.

> The subjective series is used as subject of the transitive verb and of active verbs, even when there is no object expressed. Objective pronouns are used to express the subject of verbs expressing states and qualities.

Table 1 lists the forms of the two series of Masset pronouns given by Swanton. Table 2 lists Harrison's three nominative pronoun forms. Harrison suggests that Series A and B may be used interchangeably.

The single emphatic form of Swanton's subjective series (2nd sing.) is reflected throughout the active series of pronouns in Hydaburg. These contrast with a full set of non-emphatic active forms, and both sets appear to be derivationally related. I have referred to them as declarative and emphatic. Choice of an emphatic or declarative pronoun seems to be conditioned solely by the focus of the sentence. Focus is also reflected in the word order when objects are expressed. There are the following contrasting word orders for active verbs with pronoun subjects:

(obj.) + declar. pronoun subj. + pred. stem + tense/aspect suff. emph. pronoun subj. + (obj.) + pred. stem + tense/aspect suffixes

Focus falls in both cases upon the first element of the sentence.

120

	Subjective	O bjective
1st singular	F	di
2nd singular emphatic	dAñ da	dAñ
3rd singular	la	la
1st plural	tlal A' ñ	ilł
2nd plural	dal A' n	dalA'n
3rd plural	Lt	Li

Table 1. Masset Pronoun Series, After Swanton (1911:256).

Table 2. Masset Nominative Pronouns, After Harrison (1895:158, 170).

	Series A	Series B	Series C
I	Tlaou	Lth	Di
Thou	Dahou	Dung	Dung
He	Laou	Il	Il
We	₩aluma	Ītil	Ī til
MAR	Talung	مل السل الم ا	ᆂᅛᅶᄮ
Ye	Dalung	Dalung	Dalung
They	Ltha	Ltha	Ltha

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121

An arrangement of Haida pronouns from our data appears in Table 3. There are, in addition, several demonstrative or deictic pronouns which will be discussed later in this paper. 166

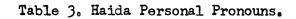
With the exception of the 1st singular possessive giagen, it appears that all the possessives, objects and inactive pronouns may be derivationally related. Indeed, with the exception of the 1st person forms, all of the pronoun series seem derivationally related.

1st Singular (Active Series)

(1)	cin al tagən	I am eating fish.
		cin (fish) ta (to eat)
(2)	lao cin tagen	I am eating fish.
		lao (emphatic pronoun)
(3)	lao gutagen	I am eating.
		gu (intransitivizing particle)
(4)	al gutagen	I am eating.

Neutral verbs taking <u>gu</u> do not always take emphatic pronouns, though there is a tendency to do so (cf. Eastman, Welsch and Vaughan 1975). There is reason to interpret <u>gu</u> as an indefinite pronoun but it appears an object or as a relative pronoun (cf. Edwards 1975).

<u>al</u> frequently contracts to $\underline{1}$ and usually merges with the prior syllable. In such instances the pronoun is never stressed though the preceding syllable may receive stress on its own accord. This merging does not appear to be distinctive as (1) above may occur as: (5) cint tagen, I am eating fish. There are two stresses in (5) and three in (1). These seem to be in free variation and determined by speaking speed. The contraction



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	Act	ive	Inactive		Posse	ssives
	declarative	emphatic		<u>Objects</u>	Series 1	Series 2
<u>1st Singular</u>	al	. lao	di	di	dina di	giagən
2nd Singular	d Uŋ	da(o)	dUŋ(k)	dUŋ	da	d Uŋgia
<u>1st Plural</u>	t?alUŋ t?əl X ^U ŋ	λυύνι	ix		it	ixia
2nd Plural	λUn	չ Սո ս	λUn			λiŋgia
3rd Person	hUl	lao	hUl	la	la	lagia

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may occur with preceding vowels as well.

(6) dalai da?an

I have money.

dala (money)

There are also examples in which the declarative pronoun $\underline{1}$ may be seen to have merged with the subsequent syllable.

(7) lqaidUnsan I will go.

qait (to go)

Harrison (1895:135) mentions a pronoun <u>ou</u> which he glosses as "it." Since he gives no examples of its use, it is difficult to understand precisely its grammatical significance. There is a particle with the same phonological shape in Hydaburg speech which frequently follows nouns and pronouns.

(8) cin u dun tágən You ate the fish.
It is uncertain at this time how to gloss the particle, though it seems to indicate an added emphasis. Probably a gloss of "is the one" or "is what" is most appropriate, though it is usually not necessary to translate it.

As I have noted the underlying form of the 1st singular declarative pronoun <u>al</u> is frequently realized as <u>l</u>. In cases where the particle <u>u</u> precedes <u>al</u>, contraction occurs, the pronoun retaining its stress. Thus:

cin u al tagon -> cin ul tagon

7

1st Singular (Inactive Series)

(9)	di qaskit lagƏŋ	1	am	pretty.
(10)	di lamgatəŋ	I	am	drunk.

lamga (to be drunk)

(11) di c?iagəŋ I am slim.
(12) lam nEl di gulagəŋ I like to drink whiskey.
lam (whiskey) nEl (to drink)

In (10) and (11) there is a simple attribution involved. Werbs which take <u>di</u> may, however, take objects but the sentence must denote a condition, state of being or quality. In such cases, word order is identical with that of declarative-active sentences. (13) tan di <u>l</u>?hUgəŋ I'm afraid of bears.

tan (bears) 1?hU (to be afraid)

160

3rd Person

Gender is not marked in Haida pronouns. In addition there seems to be no distinction between singular and plural personal pronouns in the 3rd person; plurality is marked by an aspectual suffix of the verb (cf. Eastman, Welsch and Vaughan 1975). Harrison (1895:158) notes the use of the 3rd singular pronoun for 3rd plural "if only a few persons, places or articles are referred to." Both Harrison (1895:158) and Swanton (1911:256) note the presence of a 3rd plural pronoun, distinct from 3rd singular, but I have recorded no instances of a 3rd plural form.

Emphatic - Active Pronouns

The following are examples of the emphatic pronouns:

(14)	l ao hialgəŋ	I am dancing.
(15)	dao hialUŋksan	You (sing,) are going to dance.
(16)	da guta	You eat. Are you eating?
(17)	lao hialUŋksan	He is going to dance.
(18)	⊁U ŋwu hialUŋsan	We are going to dance.

(19) AUn wakuwan u k?ðjaUnsan You are all going to sing.

λUn (2nd pl.) waλuwan (all)

(20) lao hial wansan They are going to dance.

It is possible that the emphatic pronouns are morphologically complex. They may contain an underlying emphatic pronoun form plus an emphatic particle <u>u</u>. Thus we would find:

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\frac{1}{2}a + u \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}ao
da + u \rightarrow dao
la + u \rightarrow lao
\frac{1}{2}un + u \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}unwu
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This interpretation is supported by (16) above where the emphatic form is <u>da</u> rather than <u>dao</u>.

Neutral verbs (e.g., <u>guta</u> "to be eating") as well as intransitive active may take either form of the active pronoun subject. This is especially true of the 3rd person.

(21)	lao gutagəŋ	He is eating
		lao (emphatic pronoun)
(22)	hUl gutagəŋ	He is eating.
		hUl (declarative pronoun)
(21)	above seems to carry with	it greater emphasis on the
subje	ect as the focus of the sen	tence.
	Focus is better understood	with another example.
(1)	cin al tagon	I am eating fish.
		al (declarative pronoun)
(2)	lao cin tagen	I am eating fish.

lao (emphatic pronoun)

pronoun

126

Typically (2) is the response to a question like "What are you doing?" (1) is a better response to "What are you eating?" In fact, Haida speakers often gloss (1) as "Fish, I am eating." Another example of this is:

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(23) lq?inggen gwa I am looking at it.
q?in (to look)
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This verb usually takes an object but in this case the object is implied by the use of the declarative pronoun.

Declarative - Active Pronouns

(24)	gusu dUŋ Isdaŋ	What are you doing?	
		gusu (what?)	
(25)	cin u dUn tagəŋ	You (sing.) are eating the fish.	
(26)	k?iu kUŋ tagəŋ	We are eating clams.	
		k?iu (clams)	
(27)	kokgai t?alUŋ tagigƏn	We already ate the cake.	
		kekgai (cake)	
(28)	la t?Əl q?iŋgƏn	We saw him.	
(29)	kek l tagəŋ	He is eating cake.	
(30)	kek l tawan	They are eating cake.	
(31)	cin ul tawan	They are eating the fish.	

The 2nd singular <u>dUn</u> varies with <u>dUn</u> according to environment.

 $dU\eta \rightarrow dUn / - + C + voiceless + alveolar$

The 3rd person declarative pronoun is realized in several surface shapes. These all derive from an underlying form <u>hUl</u> which is often heard as <u>hel</u>. As with the 1st singular form, contraction

is frequent, producing $\underline{?l}$ or \underline{l} . This form generally stands alone receiving its own stress. When the particle \underline{u} is in the environment assimilation usually occurs, especially incrapid speech.

 $u + hU1 \longrightarrow u + ?1 \longrightarrow u1$

The 1st person plural form is somewhat of an anomaly since it takes either of two underlying forms, <u>t?alun</u> and <u>kUn</u>, <u>t?al</u> seems to be a contraction of <u>t?alun</u>. Some speakers use either of these forms of <u>t?alun</u> while others use only <u>kUn</u>.

Inactive Pronouns

1st person pronouns are the distinctive members of this class, appearently being unrelated to their active counterparts. 2nd and 3rd person pronouns are generally very similar to the active series forms.

(32)	di qaskit lagəŋ	I am pretty.
(33)	d Uŋ qaskit lagəŋ	You (sing.) are pretty.
(34)	du n k hais l asa	You (sing.) are getting fat.
(35)	l hai slan	He is getting fat.
(36)	ļ hai słUņ	They are getting fat.
(37)	ik hai s l aŋ	We are getting fat.
(38)	hUl qaskit lagəŋ	She is pretty.
(39)	λUn qaskit lag əŋ	You (plural) are pretty.

The shape of the 2nd singular form is determined by environment.

$$dU\eta k \rightarrow dU\eta / - + C + stop + post-palatal$$

Demonstrative or Deictic Pronouns

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Though my data is incomplete, Kaigani Haida appears to have three demonstrative pronouns.

(40) anIs	This	one.
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(41) hUnIs That one.

(42) wUnIs That one over there.

Robert Levine (personal communication) has referred to cognate forms in Skidegate Dialect as deictic pronouns. There use in Hydaburg is similar to English demonstratives, except that there are three distances implied. When used to refer to people they may stand alone.

(43)	anIs kukujangan	This one is smoking.
(44)	hUnIs cin tagən	That one was eating fish.
(45)	wUnis h ialgəŋ	That one (over there) is dancing

These three forms contrast with <u>lao</u> and <u>hUl</u>.

Used with nouns they act as deictic adjectives.

(46) anIs qidai jingən This tree is tall.

(47) hUnIs qidai skəpjugən That tree is bent over.

Harrison (1895:136) notes only two forms <u>anis</u> and <u>wunis</u> and remarks that these are used only with persons. In addition to these, he lists several impersonal demonstratives, but I have not dealt with them here.

anIs, <u>hUnIs</u> and <u>wUnIs</u> are probably morphologically complex; they seem to have plural forms and be related to several adverbs. (48) hUkdas Those ones.

(49) hUkin There.

(50)	hUxina	Right	there.
(51)	akdas	These	ones.
(52)	akin	Here.	
(53)	axina	Right	here.

Pronoun Objects

Pronoun objects are related to the inactive series. I have no instances of 2nd plural or 1st plural forms; but this is likely an omission in the data.

(54)	la di quiada	I love him.
		la (him) di (I)
(55)	di kal di quiaden	My husband loves me.
		di (me) kal di (my husband)
(56)	la al gusu?Əŋ	I'm talking to them.
		la (them) gusu (to talk)
(57)	adal dUn l q?iŋsan	I'll see you tomorrow.
		adał (tomorrow)

Possessive Pronouns

Swanton gives the following possessive pronouns for Masset

(1911:257):

(58)	d i 'na	my
(59)	dA'ñ?a	thy
(60)	l`ā °na	his
(61)	ī'L! ana	our
(62)	Llā "na	Their

The forms which Harrison cites as possessives are given in Table 4.

	General	Definite	Reflexives
my	Dī	Dina	Giang Kiagin
your	Dung		Dunğiou
his, hers	11	Langa	Lagiou
ours	Ītil	Ītlanga	Ītilgiou
yours	Dalung	Dalanga	Dalunğiou
Theirs	Ltha	Lthanga	Lthágiou

Table 4. Masset Possessives, After Harrison (1895:136).

The two series of possessives in Table 3 seem to be reflected in Harrison's grammar by the definite and reflexives. The general <u>Di</u> is retained in Hydaburg, though the other forms seem to have merged with contracted definite forms. Certain questions remain regarding the choice of one series over the other and further research will be necessary for a complete analysis. Forms such as <u>lagia</u>, seem to be morphologically complex, and may contain a possessive particle gia.

(63) lagia nai His (their) house.These forms always precede the nouns they possess.

In the other series there appears to be a general shortening of both Swanton's and Harrison's forms, except for <u>dina</u> which remains distinct from <u>di</u>. This latter form is used with parts of the body, kin terms, and inalienable possessions.

(64)	nai dina kəgən	My house is burning.
(65)	nai da həgən	Your (sing.) house is burning.

(66) nai la həgən His (their) house is burning.
(67) hai ix stUngən We have two dogs. (lit. Our 2 dogs) hai (dog) stUngən (two)

To indicate possession of plural count nouns where plurality is expressed numerically, the form of (67) is very frequent. <u>Discussion</u>

There are recognizable similarities between the Harrison grammar of Masset and current Hydaburg speech. To a somewhat lesser extent this is the case with Swanton's pronoun data for Masset. This suggests that while there is an unmistakably close relationship between Masset Dialect (ca. 1900) and Hydaburg Dialect as presented here, there may have been independent development.

From Swanton's analysis it would appear that an incipient emphatic series of active pronouns was represented solely by the 2nd person singular <u>da</u>. By contrast, Harrison, whose analysis preceded Swanton's, notes the existence of a full series of pronouns (Table 2, Series A) cognate if not identical to the emphatic series presented here. He suggests that the two are interchangeable. If focus was marked by pronouns and word order in Harrison's time it is surprizing that he fails to note it, especially since so much of his analysis is exceptionally detailed.

The 1st plural forms still pose questions for further research but suggest a temporal trend toward reduced forms (i.e. $\underline{1?21}$ for $\underline{1?alUn}$). The 2nd plural form is now reduced to $\underline{\lambda Un}$ from <u>dalung</u> There seems to be a complete shift away from distinctive 3rd person plural forms, in favor of a 3rd person pronoun whose number is

15

There has been a general streamlining of forms in the possessive series.

Danga \longrightarrow da (your sing.) laña \longrightarrow la (his)

The absense of a 2nd plural possessive noted by Swanton seems to persist.

We may conclude that dialectal differences cannot be demonstrated without recent data from Masset. But there have been significant developments in the various pronoun series since the researches of Harrison and Swanton.

Note

I wish to acknowledge the much appreciated assistance of Bertha George of Seattle. Materials collected by Carol M. Eastman and Paul K. Aoki in 1972 have also been used in the analysis. Advice and criticism has also been received from J. Daniel Vaughan, Carol M. Eastman, and Elizabeth Edwards.

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