Introduction

In several recent papers (Eastman 1976, 1978; Eastman & Edwards 1979; Eastman, Weisch & Vaughan 1975; Edwards 1978a, 1978b), we have analyzed non-complex utterances in Haida with respect to aspects of word order in the language. In our description of Haida so far, we consider the language to be Topic prominent (in the sense of Li & Thompson 1976). We see contrastiveness as a Topic function in Haida, while the communication of new information can be conveyed without topic-marking (see Edwards 1978a, Eastman & Edwards 1979).

In this paper we turn our attention to complex sentences. We will describe how elements that are subordinate to an utterance's main predication are delimited in the language. Complex utterances (as concatenations of simple sentences) are "manifested by means of different grammatical devices on the level of the sentence, such as coordination, apposition, some nominalizations, some relative transformations, etc..." (Danes 1974:115)

In complex sentences in Haida, the particle g appears to signal or mark a number of these grammatical devices. We hope that by analyzing the Haida g we may be able to supply a structural explanation of the grammatical devices it marks in the language.

Just as the function of new information is conveyed by the order of elements and contrastiveness is conveyed by topic-marking, other communicative functions are manifest in the Haida sentence. One such function is subordination, e.g.,

(1) nang 'iddanjuus uu 1 guilaagan'  
   person short T she like did  
   (Topic)  
   (S) (V)  
   She liked a short person. (i.e., a short person is who she liked.)

(2) nang 'iddanjuus uu 1 guilaagan  
   person short T she like did  
   (S) (V)  
   She liked the short person.

In (2), note that g occurs between the noun phrase 'short person' and the topic marker uu. The g shows up in a number of different contexts in Haida sentences and has been analyzed variously in the extant literature. In this paper, we will describe the sentences in which g occurs and propose an analysis of g as everywhere marking the elements which precede it as subordinate to the main
predication. In (2) the g signals that the NP (short person) is to be interpreted as a dependent or subordinate clause (i.e., the person who is short) as well as Topic (i.e., ...is who...). This is in contrast to (1) where the Topic is a simple noun + adjective construction rather than an embedded clause (a separate predication). In (2) we assert that the main predication is "She liked (something)" and what that is (i.e., the object here) is subordinate to that main predication and hence marked g. We will claim that the g marks what it is attached to as what should be interpreted as a syntactic unit.

We will attempt to account for g as it delimits these syntactic units within larger discourse units. Levine (1977) and Leer (1977) indicate that dependent clauses are morphologically marked in Haida and that g may function as such a marker. We will describe the Haida g according to how it fits into a sentence's Topic/Comment structure to delimit the scope of subordination.

Our hypothesis is that, in complex sentences, whether or not they contain a Topic, whatever is subordinate is marked by a following g. If what is subordinate to a main clause is marked g, it may be seen as outside the main predication of the sentence.

1. Prior Analyses of the Haida g

Levine (1977) analyzes the Skidegate dialect of Haida in terms of discourse units in the language. In his analysis, which is essentially morphological in nature, there are a number of different g as described. We hope to show that many of these are instances of a single g which marks syntactically determined semantic subordination - that whatever occurs within the scope of g is subordinate to the rest of the sentence's Topic or Comment (depending on whether the g at issue occurs in the Topic or Comment). The following examples show the use of g in Skidegate Haida:

(3) piwitk bags git'asalang Isdaas t'salang asilalagaap plastic bags in we do g we (PI_BAGS_P) We put it in plastic bags and we freeze it.

Sentence (3) which occurred in text (connected speech) is a sentence without a topic. Of this example Levine (1977:235) notes that the verb 'isdaas requires g rather than the tense marker ausk so as to not break up "a descriptive sequence of two actions conceived as interconnected." He continues, "Such considerations of the relative interconnectedness of events -- which belong to extra linguistic culture -- are very likely responsible for the division of discourse such as this text into sentential units and further into dependent and independent clauses."

Thus, the g in (3) marks what precedes it as subordinate to the following main clause in the sentence.
(4) I know you came.

The g in (4) may be seen to function in the same way — as marking that which precedes it as subordinate to what follows. However, examples such as (4) are analyzed by Levine as marked dependent predicate structure determined by the sentence’s internal syntax rather than by the “relative inter-connectedness of events — which belong to the extra-linguistic culture.”

Of sentences like (4) he asserts:

“Dependent predicate structure is marked in constructions which are the translation objects of [gaa], [tsuul], [tsa], [t’sal], and [tsal ‘like’] by replacing the inflectional suffixes of the sixth position class with a suffix- [g].” (1977:166)

The use of g in Levine’s analysis functions to mark off what he calls “object clauses”. He contends that predicates so marked “appear to be factive; that is, they presuppose the truth of the information contained in the embedded clause” (op. cit., 156).

That is, what is known, told, or liked is marked with an g as in (4) and is presupposed by both speaker and hearer to be true.

Sentence (5) illustrates yet another type of g in Levine’s analysis:

(5) I know you came.

In (5) a delimits what are “adverbial clauses” according to Levine. It differs from the g of “object clauses” in that,

“The constant meaning of this suffix is that the predicate so marked is of subordinate status to some other element in the sentence. When adverbial particles follow the subordinate predicate, the subordinated information translates as a modification of the information given in the independent clause.”

(1977:166)

The g in (6) functions like the g in (3) except that it is followed by another particle ii often associated with g in the language.

(6) We put it together and bundle it up.

Levine (op. cit., 170) sees ii to be an “old information anaphora suffix” that “can appear following [s]”. In our analysis, we consider ii to be a particle with a plural sense denoting that the ‘thing’ it refers to is one out of many similar things rather than the one only. Thus the ‘it’ in Levine’s sentence that is being put together is one of many ‘its’ which may or may not also end up being put together. We will discuss this particle in somewhat more detail below when we demonstrate that the particle need not be involved in an analysis of the function of the g at issue here.

The remaining function of the g in Haida as discussed by...
Levine appears to be quite different from the others and is illustrated by:

(7) nang 'ihiingas the man
  "the man"

vs.

nang 'ihiinga a man
  "a man"

To Levine, the \( \alpha \) in this example is a distinct suffix denoting "old information" and he characterizes it as associated with the determiner nang used to "particularize" nouns:

"In order to construct the form which translates 'the woman', a nominal structure ... containing nang must be used. The old information status of such a form is marked by a suffix \(-\{\alpha\}\)." (1977:97)

Levine analyzes nang as a particle indicating 'singular' that in combination with a following noun denoting type of person refers to that person in an "indefinite or unspecified" way (op. cit.,91). When such a nominal construction has the \( \alpha \) suffix attached to the noun following nang as in (7) then the construction translates in a definite sense. Levine uses the terms old and new information after Chafe (1970) such that elements mentioned for the first time are new information (e.g. 'a man'); in subsequent discourse they are "old information" (Ibid.). Thus when nang + \( \alpha \) a form is used, the assumption is made that what the noun refers to has already occurred in discourse or belongs "to the stock of cultural information all speakers of the language share."

(op. cit.).

To summarize the above, we might interpret Levine as having described four distinct functions for the Haida \( \alpha \):

1. Extra-linguistic or context dependent as in (3) - this is the "compound sentence" \( \alpha \)
2. Sentence dependent as in (4) - this is the "object clause" \( \alpha \)
3. Clause dependent as in (5) - this is the "adverb clause" \( \alpha \)
4. Category dependent as in (7) - this is the "old information NP" \( \alpha \)

In his analysis of Alaskan (Kaigani) Haida, Leer (1977) also sees \( \alpha \) as having a general subordinate function which he relates to what he calls the participial form of the verb - a form used only in the present and past tenses. According to him, \( \alpha \) may be used "... in place of the present tense ending as the form of the present participial" (1977:129). With regard to this present or participial, Leer points out that it is "used with prepositions and preposition-like particles to form subordinate verb clauses which are used as a modification or extension of the main clause." (Ibid.)

Thus, he associates the suffix \( \alpha \) with prepositions, which he observes follow the verb and come at the end of subordinate clauses. In contrast, we claim in our analysis that \( \alpha \) may occur as suffixed to the prepositions themselves as well as on the verb.
depending on the scope of what is subordinate in the sentence e.g., the object of the preposition or the whole prepositional phrase. Further we will show that the scope of a in a sentence extends leftward to either initial position or the point where another particle with a communicative function is encountered.

In Leer's analysis, the a or participial form of the verb "can also be used to change a verb clause to a noun expression meaning roughly 'the fact that...'" (1977:131). This function of a parallels that of Levine's "object clause" a discussed above, Leer also observes that participles may be used nominally to change "a verb clause into a noun phrase" (op. cit., 132). Such NPs with -a or -all denote definite nouns made from the present participles. Thus,

(8) nang itil'asgdaa the chief

according to Leer, comes from nang itil'asgdaa 'a chief' which in turn is from hal itil'asgdaang 'he is chief' (hal 'he', itil'asgdaa 'chief', -ang 'is'). The a participial verb form (here itil'asgdaa 'being chief' one would assume), in Leer's analysis, when occurring on "descriptive" verbs translates adjectivally in English. Further, when more than one participial form occur together, the -a occurs on the last form of the series (op. cit., 133).

Another interesting use of the participial is with the demonstratives a as 'this', h as 'that' (near you), and ma as 'that (distant), which are followed by the noun plus is, which is the participial form of the verb 'to be' (is + -a-is; the two a's merge)." (op.cit.,135)

(9) exemplifies this latter form:

(9) a nang jaadaa is this woman
    this (eg.) woman is

In addition to the participial suffix -a used in these various ways in Kalagni Haida, Leer describes a "categorial suffix" -a describing "the kind of material something is made of" (op.cit.). This is the a in (10).

(10) gwaahl buglinaa the paper sack
    paper sack

Somewhat similar to this 'categorial suffix' -a is an 'adjectival' -a as in (11);

(11) chilinax 'laas il h gudnay ilk
    fish the good a in X box the in Def. put (timeless)
    X put the good fish in in [sic] the box! (Leer 1977:134)

According to Leer, this a "adjectivalizes" verbs of description. Thus, (11) may be interpreted as "the fish is good (adjectivalized to 'the good fish') - I - in the box - put in". Similarly, the NP which constitutes example (10), from Leer's point of view is, "A sack is paper (categorized to 'the paper sack')". From this perspective, 'laas 'to be good' and kusinaa 'to be paper' are...
treated as verbs which 'become' adjectival or categorical through the suffixation of ~.

To summarize Leer's analysis of the ~ suffix in Haida, we may say that, to him, the ~ is the present participial form of a verb and it is used:

1. To denote subordinate clauses (when) followed by a preposition —this we may call the subordinate ~ which may be illustrated by (12).

(12) gas 'laa dili gulas'angs k'yananuu 'laa as hl Neg him I like Neg ~ even though T him to I
gyu'aalsangaang (Leer 1977:131)

Even though I don't like him, I'll listen to him.

or

I don't like him, but I'll listen to him.

2. To denote nominalized verbs of "fact". As noted above, this parallels one of the ~ functions described by Levine as well.

One of Leer's examples of this is (13).

(13) dang hl k'ing ahl kil 'laagsang (Leer 1977:132)
you I see ~ for I thankful as

I'm thankful to see you (I'm thankful for the fact that I see you).

3. To denote NPs formed from verb clauses. This is the NP -~ exemplified above in (8).

4. To denote "adjectivalized" verbs of "description" as in (11).

5. To denote "verbalized" demonstratives as in (9).

2. ~ and the Semantic Scope of Subordination

We have seen above that while ~ has been analyzed as having to do with subordination in Haida sentences by previous researchers, it has been so analyzed from a morphological rather than syntactic or semantic point of view. Thus, both Levine and Leer see there to be a number of different ~ morphemes with different grammatical meanings despite their common form. Implicit in those analyses, however, and explicit in the examples of ~ provided therein, is the idea that ~ in Haida functions at the sentence level with actually a single function or meaning —to mark what precedes it as subordinate to what follows.

In this paper we will present an analysis of ~ as a subordinate marker delimiting the scope of what is outside a sentence's main predication. Our analysis accounts for all instances of ~ described by Leer and Levine as well as for occurrences of ~ in our own data on Kaigani Haida. We will show that the four separate functions of ~ described by Levine and the five participial ~s (with different functions) and categoric ~s from Leer's analysis are all examples of a single particle ~ with a communicative function limiting the semantic scope of subordination in a sentence.
We will relate subordination and foregrounding as two grammatical devices in Haida at the sentence level which function to distinguish degrees of communicative importance. What is foregrounded is intended by the speaker to be an introduction of a new element to the conversation (discourse), hence, to convey new information (see Edwards 1978a). What is 1-marked as subordinate is never new information. It is communicatively important in a different sense, namely, that it delimits a reference to a prior (hence, "old") or subordinate predication.

3. Analysis of 1 from a sentence perspective in Haida

In this section we will look at a number of different sentences in which 1 occurs in Haida. We will see that in all cases, 1 refers back to the boundary of the syntactic category in which it occurs and delimits the range (or scope) of elements of lesser import to the speaker’s message than the main clause. According to this analysis, 1 forms the rightmost boundary of a sentence constituent that is outside the main predication.

An 1-marked constituent (whether it is a category such as an NP, a phrase, a clause) can act as a sentence element as well. Thus 1-marked constituents, in addition to being subordinate element(s), may simultaneously function syntactically as prepositional phrases, subjects, objects and so forth. In Haida, 1-marked constituents may never function as verbs since Haida is a verb-final language. If a verb were to be 1-marked, the entire sentence would thus be marked as subordinate - a functional anomaly. Non-main verbs (Leer’s participials, for example) insofar as they do not function syntactically as verbs, on the other hand, may be included in the semantic scope of subordination (i.e., be 1-marked). Though 1-marked constituents have syntactic functions they are analyzable as separate predications.

Just as 1-marked constituents never involve a sentence’s main verb, likewise, in topic-marked sentences topic-marking particles may not suffix an 1 since Topics are never subordinate to a sentence’s main predication but rather stand outside it altogether. Within a sentence’s Topic (to the left of the topic-marking particle) an 1-marked constituent may occur just as 1-marked constituents may occur anywhere within a Comment as well, as long as it is to the left of the main verb. The scope of a topic-marking particle extends leftward to the beginning of the sentence while the scope of a subordination particle extends leftward until another delimiting particle is encountered. Thus, in (14) below the scope of 1 encompasses only ‘the woman’; the scope of the preposition 11 ‘in’, on the other hand, extends to sentence-initial position and encompasses the phrase ‘inside the house’ (thus, ‘in the inside of the house’).
The woman threw a rock into the house.

By so analyzing these topic-marked and g-marked constituents, we may determine the semantic range or scope of the particles used for marking by subtracting what is g- (and what is topic-) marked from the main predication. To this extent, grammatically marked constituents in general and g-marked constituents in particular are embedded components of complex sentences.

The following examples show the scope of g in a number of different sentences:

(14) (shown above)
When the g follows jaada in the NP nang jaada (sg. woman), it means 'there was a woman who', but when there is no g, nang jaada by itself means 'a woman'. When nang jaada is g-marked, we know that the speaker has a particular person in mind. However, that person the speaker has in mind is not the main point of the communication, what was done is (here, the fact of a rock being thrown into the house). Without g, 'a woman' remains a part of the sentence's main predication. Thus, in (14) what is communicated is that someone threw rocks into the (inside of) the house and what is important is what happened, not who did it. In (15), the point of the communication includes the who as well as the what.
g-marked NP is an Object (red canoe) and one is a Subject (the woman). Yet in both cases these syntactic functions are marked as less communicatively important than in the sentences without g-marking.

It is possible for u to delimit larger constituents in Haida sentences.

(17) atlin 1 is diuus diuu uu dii aan sablo11 gaalunggank here she is when g when T me for bread she fries

When she is here(is when) she fries me bread.

In (17), the main predication is dii aan sablo11 gaalunggank ‘She fries bread for me’. The time she does it is outside the main predication, in the topic, signified by the rightmost diuu ‘when’ plus the topic-marking particle uu. The time she does it is also in an g-marked phrase, ‘when she is here’. This g-marked phrase, outside the main predication, is part of the topic-marked constituent and thus also contrastive. ‘When she is here (g-marked) is when it is that (topic-marked) she fries bread for me’.

Note that g may not occur on the preposition diuu ‘when’ when only one diuu is used to delimit a clause. This is because the contrastive function of the topic-marking particle uu makes it impossible to subordinate what has just been topic-marked.

(18) atlin 1 is diuus dii aan sablo11 gaalunggank here she is when s when T me for bread she fries

When she’s here she fries me bread.

Here the main predication is ‘She fries bread for me when she’s here’. The clause ‘when she’s here’ is not subordinate to the main predication but instead may be analyzed as topic-marked for emphasis. In fact, the ‘preposition’ diuu is perhaps best analyzed as a topic marking particle in so far as whatever precedes it are the leftmost elements in a sentence and are contrastive in function. Dluu delimits temporal topics, while uu delimits topics in general. There are other topic-marking particles in Haida that may allow us to subcategorize topic-marking in general as well as analyze instances of multiple topic marking although this awaits further research.

Let us return to the examples Levine and Leer used (repeated here for convenience) and reanalyze g as delimiting constituents embedded in sentences with a subordinating semantic function.

(3) pi’atik bogs g1 t’aslang l1das t’aslang gaahldaagaa

plastic bags in we do a we freeze + Pres.

We put it in plastic bags and we freeze it.

(4) daa gyaa k’idis gaan dii unsiidaa

you Poss. once a it I know

I know you came.

(5) Hlaa gaads gyaa dii k’imaangaa
di when I/me warm get do (and)

When I run it makes me warm.
guud gas t'asalang t'asalang t'asalang k'unuchidanggas together at we do sii we shape can do

We put it together and bundle it up,

nang 'l'ihlingas the man
goodman

person man

nang titlaakdaas the chief
goodman

person chief

naa nang jaadaa is this (sg) woman

this (sg) woman

gwahal hugimaas the paper sack

sack

jimnay 'laa s hl gudaay 1kk isdaas fish the good in I box the in + Def. put (timeless)

I put the good fish in the box.

gas 'laa dl1 gulaa'angs k'yaanaan uu 'laa as hl Neg his I like Neg g even though T him to I

gyuu'alaangaasang listen will

Even though I don't like him, I'll listen to him.

dang hl kingas an hl kil 'laagang you I see g for I thankful as

I'm thankful to see you.

In (3), the clause 'we put (it)' marked by g (t'asalang isdas) is outside or subordinate to the main predication 'we freeze (it)' marked by g (t'asalang gaahldaagaa) and the prepositional phrase 'in plastic bags' marked by sii 'in' shows where the semantic scope of g stops in the sentence. Since 'we' both 'put it' in plastic bags and 'freeze it' in plastic bags, the phrase 'in plastic bags' is not included in the scope of g since it is part of the main predication, i.e., 'we freeze it in plastic bags'.

In each of the examples of g-marked constituents in Haida sentences we may analyze the g-marked constituent as a distinct syntactic unit. The following English glosses illustrate how a number of the examples above may be interpreted if we separate the g-marked constituents:

(3) In plastic bags [we put (it)\textsubscript{g} we freeze (it)].

(4) [You came\textsubscript{g}] I know it.

(5) [I run\textsubscript{g}] and I am warm.

(6) [we put it together\textsubscript{g} we shape the 'its' into bundles.

(12) [I don't like him\textsubscript{g} even though (Topic) I will listen to him.]

In (12), the subordinate clause 'I don't like him' is also topic-marked with the thrust of the predication being that 'there is a mitigating circumstance (I don't like him) the specifics of which are not important to the main message (I will listen to him)'. 'I don't like him' is g-marked, a subordinate fact to the main predication, and a constituent of the topic (the mitigating circumstance).

(13) [I see you\textsubscript{g} I am thankful for (it).]

In (13) we interpret that the speaker is thankful for something (the main message) and that something is the subordinate predication 'I see you'.

In (3), the clause 'we put (it)' marked by g (t'asalang isdas) is outside or subordinate to the main predication 'we freeze (it)' not marked by g (t'asalang gaahldaagaa) and the prepositional phrase 'in plastic bags' marked by sii 'in' shows where the semantic scope of g stops in the sentence. Since 'we' both 'put it' in plastic bags and 'freeze it' in plastic bags, the phrase 'in plastic bags' is not included in the scope of g since it is part of the main predication, i.e., 'we freeze it in plastic bags'.
(11) [The fish is good] I put (it) into the inside of the box. What is being communicated in (11) is that something was put into the box, what it was (the good fish) is not the main part of the sentence.

In the other examples of the many functions of g cited in earlier sections, we see g only at the level of the constituent it delimits rather than in the context of an entire sentence. Thus with

(7) nang iithlinga +g the man
(8) nang iitl’aaahdaa +g the chief
(10) gwaahl kuglimaa +g the paper sack

in isolation we are unable to see how these g-marked NPs function as subordinate to the main predication of the sentences they are in. Sentences (2) and (14) above, however, serve to indicate that the proposed analysis of g-marked constituents applies as well to these constructions that at first glance appear to be definite NPs. In (2) and (14), nang iitaahdaa and nang jaadas refer to a particular short person and a particular woman respectively when g-marked but only a short person and a woman when not g-marked as explained above. The scope of g-marking an NP is such that a delimits or particularizes the NP apart from its other communicative functions in a sentence.

Leer’s verbalized demonstrative as exemplified in (9) above bears some further comment. It appears that we may analyze the phrase (9) aa nang jaadas is ‘this woman’ as to/at eg. woman is (i.e., ‘to be’).

The phrase is equivalent to the English ‘the woman is at (or present)’. According to such an analysis, we can see that the g in (9) is not an example of marked semantic subordination at all. In a similar vein, consider

(18) satlin l is diu / dii san sabili l gaeleggank here she is when me for bread she fries

When she’s here she fries me bread.

In this sentence the phrase ‘aa...is’ is equivalent to ‘she is at this place’.

(19) anis gutaatsal daa dii gula8gan (anis = aa + n + is)

this coat the your I like

I like this coat of ours.

An analysis of demonstrative pronouns and their morphological complexity has yet to be done for Haida, yet it is likely that they are composed initially of prepositions and finally of the morpheme is ‘to be’. As Welsch (1975a) observed with regard to Kaugnit (Alaskan) Haida, there are three demonstrative pronouns: anis ‘this one’, hunis ‘that one’, and wunis ‘that one over there’ with cognate forms in the Skidegate dialect which are used as deictic pronouns. When used alone anis, hunis and wunis refer to people in an ‘absolute’ pronominal sense. “Used with nouns
they act as deictic adjectives

*ani̱* kilisdax jinggan 'this tree is tall'

*hunis* kilisdax skapjuugan 'that tree is bent over' 

(Welsch 1975a:11)

*ani* and *hunis* have plural forms *atldaa* 'these ones' and *huldaas* 'those ones' respectively. It may be that 11 and *tldaa* mark number (e.g. *huldaas* 'persons, they indef., pl.').

The *g* on

(7) nang ihlingas 'the man' (ag. person + man + is)

(8) nang ihtlaaddas 'the chief' (ag. person + chief + is)

(10) gwaahl huglinaas 'the paper sack' (sack + paper + is)

likewise is perhaps best analyzed as a reflex of *is* 'to be'.

However, in these examples, each of the 'particularized' nouns or NPs may be considered to exemplify instances of *g*-marking and be analyzed as syntactic units. Ultimately if the demonstratives are more thoroughly analyzed and more data are available it may turn out to be the case that they too are syntactic *g*-marked units.

E.g., *ani* might be best seen as 'at + ag. person + is' and interpreted as 'this' ('a ag. person is at) while *atldaa* 'these, these ones' (= pl., persons are at).

Our analysis of the *g* on "particularized" NPs and on demonstratives as likely examples of this same subordinating *g*

conflicts with Levine's view that the *g* on nouns and NPs is neither a subordinating particle nor an allomorph of 'is (to be)'.

He analyzes this *g* as a morpheme denoting "old information" (1977:97). As Welsch (1975b) observed:

"Levine's analysis asserts that both nominal and predicate elements are marked for old information in SkH by one of several old information suffixes.

In Hydaburg Haida (HbgH) these same suffixes occur but do not in my view mark the presence of old information." (p. 82)

Levine's "old information" suffixes (including this *g*) indicate that the elements to which they are suffixed (in this case nouns) represent "information shared by speaker and hearer at a given point in a stretch of discourse" (Welsch, 1975b:83). They have the effect, in Levine's view, of making indefinite NPs (e.g. a woman) definite (the woman). The speaker and hearer already share the information when 'the woman' is communicated but they don't when the non-*g* form is used. In our analysis, we agree that *g* on nouns does "particularize" (and thus one could justify an "old information" function for *g*) yet *g* does not particularize in a determiner (the versus *g*) sense but instead by forming embedded sentences out of the NPs to which the *g* is suffixed.

Singular Ns or NPs which have this *g* suffix also frequently
occur in Haida with a following 11 (not to be confused with the preposition 11 'in') which (as in (3) above) functions to distinguish a 'one from many' singular noun from a 'one and only one' singular noun.

4. Conclusion

The morpheme 11 in Haida delimits embedded constituents in complex sentences which are less communicatively important in the sentence as a whole than is the main (non 11-marked) predication. What is marked 11 is a syntactic unit in its own right. 11-marked constituents may occur in either (or both) the Topic or Comment of a sentence although neither Topic nor Comment per se as units may be 11-marked since, by definition, they are not subordinate elements in any sentence. Consider (19) and (20) as examples of sentences with 11-marked constituents in the Topic:

(19) dlung k'asalings ginaan yu dl dii ginunggang you (PL) write 11 like T I also want

I want to write like you people do.

We may interpret (19) as "I want (to write) and how I want (it) is 'like you write'. The separate predication is 'you write' (dlung k'asalings) and the main predication is 'I also want (something). What it is 'I want' is topic-marked and is 'like 11'.

Thus, the topic-marker refers to or encompasses everything to the left of it (dlung k'asalings ginaan), the 11 marks the subordinate clause within the Topic (dlung k'asalings). The topic-marker and the subordinate marker thus differ in their scope or semantic range in the sentence. 11 always delimits a syntactic unit, while a topic-marker may encompass a broader semantic range.

(20) gwa dang 1 k'insil uu Bill ging guudang there you he see 11 T Bill thing think (wonder)

Seeing you there caused Bill to wonder.

In (20) the subordinate clause is 'he sees you there'. The Topic is 'seeing you there of all the places you could be' (as indicated by 11). That is, seeing you there is what the thing is that Bill thought.

The Haida 11, then, functions to delimit the syntactic constituents in complex sentences which are subordinate to the sentence's main predication. It always marks embedded sentences which in English are "manifested by means of different grammatical devices on the level of the sentence such as coordination, apposition, some nominalizations, some relative transformations etc." (Daneš 1970:115). In Haida, in contrast to English, it appears that these different 'grammatical devices' (usually transformations in English) are handled through the use of particles to mark off what elements are encompassed within specific semantic functions such as subordination and topic-marking.
1. The data here represent our own work on Kalgani Haida as well as material from the work of Leer (1977) and of Levine (1977) on Skidegate.

2. Complex utterances may be analyzed as
   "a textual concatenation of grammatically independent sentences in which a transitional zone exists, comprising cases of sentence units that reveal a more complicated (or composed) T-R structure, i.e., units that, from the point of view of FSP, reveal a textual character, which, however, represent a single grammatical unit, one sentence only." (Dansé 1974:115)

   T-R structure refers to a Theme- Rheme dichotomy which we are calling Topic-Comment in these pages.

3. The orthography in all examples is a modified form of that proposed by the Haida Language Workshop (Sitka, Alaska 1972) currently being used to prepare practical Haida Language materials. See Leer (1977) for the phonological equivalents of the symbols and Edwards (1978b) for the modifications.

4. It is convenient to gloss the topic-marking particle as "it is" or "is who" because of the semantic prominence of the topic-marked unit.

5. We wish to thank Ms. Lillian Pettviel for acting as our Haida language consultant for this research and the Graduate School Research Fund (GSRF Award #GSRH455162) for providing partial support through consultant fees and travel money for a visit to Hydaburg, Alaska (summer, 1978).


