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The Purview Effect: Feminine Gender on Inanimates in Halkomelem Salish

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1 Introduction

Halkomelem is a Central Salish language spoken by around sixty elders in south-western British Columbia, Canada. The data used in this study are based on fieldwork with speakers from the Island dialect, Hul’q’umi’num’, whose territory extends from Nanoose to Malahat on Vancouver Island and to the neighboring small islands. Halkomelem has been described as having a natural gender system: singular female humans take feminine determiners and other nouns take masculine determiners. However, feminine gender “leaks” onto hundreds of inanimate nouns, especially if they fit into certain semantic categories, as discussed in section 2. Interestingly, feminine gender is optional for feminine inanimates as they often also appear with masculine determiners. This raises the question: when will an inanimate appear in the feminine gender?

Research based on texts and elicitations has revealed three factors that affect gender choice. The first is the sex of the speaker, as discussed in section 3. The second is the sex of the possessor of a noun, as discussed in section 4. The third is the cognitive setting in which the NP occurs, as discussed in section 5. The Halkomelem data show that NPs that come into the feminine purview are more likely to appear with feminine determiners.

2 Halkomelem Gender

Morphologically, Halkomelem has two genders—masculine and feminine. Halkomelem encodes gender on determiners (articles and demonstratives) and the pronouns and auxiliaries formed from them. For simplicity, we limit examples in

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1 Thanks to the Halkomelem speakers who provided data for this project, especially Ruby Peter, Bill Seward, and the late Margaret James. Thanks to Zoey Peterson and Charles Ulrich for editorial assistance. Funding was provided by SSHRC, SFU, and Jacobs Research Fund.
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this paper to NPs with determiners. The masculine and feminine forms of the proximal and distal articles in the Cowichan sub-dialect are given in Table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROXIMAL</td>
<td>(\theta)</td>
<td>(\theta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISTAL</td>
<td>(k\theta)</td>
<td>(l)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of gender is illustrated in the following table giving the articles used with proximal human NPs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td>(t\theta) sw(\theta)(\theta)qe'</td>
<td>(\theta) sl(\eta)ni'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLURAL</td>
<td>(t\theta) s(\omega)(\omega)(\theta)qe'</td>
<td>(t\theta) sl(\eta)ni'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The feminine determiner \(\theta\) is used with singular female nouns, and the masculine determiner \(t\theta\) is used elsewhere, including with nouns referring to plural females. Thus, the masculine serves as the default gender in the sense of Corbett (1991:205).3

Halkomelem has been described as having a natural gender system: singular female animates take feminine determiners, and other nouns take the default determiner (Galloway 1993, Suttles 2004). This generalization seems to be supported by data in which inanimate nouns appear with masculine determiners:4

4 (1) \(\omega\)we:č q\(\omega\)aq'-\(\omega\)t \(t\theta\) \(\theta\)qet \(\gamma\) a\(\eta\) s\(\omega\)\(\omega\)m\(\omega\)l,  
NEG.2SG.SUB hit-TR DT tree OB DT.2POS paddle  
\(\omega\)\(\omega\)w h\(\omega\)k\(\omega\)s-\(\omega\) č \(\gamma\) a\(\eta\) \(t\theta\) š\(\omega\)q\(\omega\)m.  
LNK use-TR 2SG.SUB MIT DT axe  
‘Don’t hit the tree (M) with your paddle (M)! Just use the axe (M)!’5 (BS)

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2 The Cowichan sub-dialect is spoken in the vicinity of Duncan, British Columbia. The form of determiners vary from village to village in Halkomelem and is one of the main shibboleths used to identify where a speaker is from.

3 Most languages with two-way systems are like Halkomelem in that, when there is convergence, the masculine serves as the default gender Corbett (1991:195).


5 Note, to aid in following the discussion, I have placed an (M) for masculine or an (F) for feminine after the translations for some of the relevant nouns.
However, our data show that feminine gender “leaks” onto hundreds of inanimate nouns, for examples the words for ‘car’, ‘house’, ‘coat’, and ‘fire’:

(2) liq-t θən ənəx-əl ə ə leləm!
move-TR F.DT.2POS canoe OB F.DT house
‘Move your car (F) closer to the house (F)!’ (RP)

(3) nəm ɬə ʃəm-ət θən ᵇəpu ə ə ᵇə ɬəqʷ!
go IMP dry-TR F.DT.2POS coat OB F.DT fire
‘Go and dry your coat (F) by the fire (F)!’ (RP)

As Gerdts (2009) elaborates, feminine gender forms a complex semantic network, selecting objects on the basis of their size, shape, and function. Most feminine inanimate nouns fit into the following semantic categories: buildings, containers, small round objects, flexible objects, fluids and abstract objects associated with the metaphor of flowing (song, story, dance), and forces of nature. So, for example, the following inanimates are feminine:

    sʔiləm ‘dress’, ɬəxʷtən ‘blanket’, ʃxʷiləm ‘rope’, ɬəmələqət ‘sun’

In contrast, most objects—especially those referring to long, large, flat, or rigid objects—are masculine, for example:

    ɬətem ‘table’, ʃəɬəqəɬən ‘chair’, ɬəməɬ ‘wall’, ɬəməxʷ ‘ground’

An added degree of complexity to the gender system is that inanimate NPs show a great deal of fluidity in how they are marked for gender. In neutral situations, masculine nouns do not appear with feminine determiners.

(6) ᵇə/ʷθə təməxʷ
dt/F.DT ground
‘the ground’

In contrast, inanimate feminine nouns regularly appear with determiners of either gender.

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6 Thus, Halkomelem is fairly typical of languages that have semantic gender systems (Lakoff 1987).
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In fact, the occurrence of feminine determiners with inanimate nouns is relatively rare, especially for some speakers. It is thus worthwhile to approach the issue from the point of view of actual usage of determiners in texts. For example, in four hours of recorded stories, Samuel Tom used feminine determiners on inanimate nouns only eight times and on only four different nouns, each of which also appeared with masculine determiners.\(^7\)

Table 3: Masculine vs. feminine for four nouns in Samuel Tom’s texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>smeːnt</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tɪwɪʔaɬ</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telə</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>həɬyqʷ*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sum, inanimate nouns can be classified as masculine or feminine according to which determiner they appear with in neutral situations. However, the issue of gender is complicated by the fact that feminine determiners are not obligatory for feminine inanimates, which often appear with masculine determiners instead. Furthermore, sometimes inanimates that test to be masculine in neutral situations appear with feminine determiners. This raises the question: when is an inanimate likely to appear in the feminine gender? The following sections provide some observations on this issue.

3 Sex of the Speaker

One important factor in determining the use of gender on inanimates is the sex of the speaker. Anecdotally, speakers mention that use of feminine on inanimate nouns is something that women speakers tend to do. Text counts show that female speakers do use more feminine determiners than males. For example, we can contrast the overall use of masculine versus feminine determiners in four hours of texts by Samuel Tom with four hours of texts from Ruby Peter.\(^8\) These results show the preponderance of masculine determiners and the relative rarity of

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\(^7\) Wayne Suttles recorded Samuel Tom of Malahat in 1962, when Mr. Tom was 102 years old. Ruby Peter and Donna Gerds transcribed and translated these texts in 2004. Thanks to Sarah Kell for her help with this project.

\(^8\) Ruby Peter of Quamichan has recorded many hours of texts and I just randomly selected four hours of them in order to compare her speech to Samuel Tom’s.
feminine determiners for both male and female speakers. Nevertheless, the female speaker used feminine determiners in 15% more cases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Samuel Tom</td>
<td>1256</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>1328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruby Peter</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>1730</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turning specifically to the topic of inanimates, we can see a difference when we compare the use of determiners with inanimates by Samuel Tom, see Table 3 above, and Sophie Micheal.\(^9\) In thirty-four minutes of texts, Mrs. Micheal used feminine determiners on five inanimate nouns, and one of them, \(hə'y̱q^w\) ‘fire’, did not appear with a masculine determiner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lələm</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hə'y̱q^w</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>šyə̌̌ə̌̌mtən</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sk*e'yl</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stiləm</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though Sophie Micheal’s recordings are one-twelfth the length of Samuel Tom’s, she used more feminine inanimate nouns.

In sum, text counts support the impression that female speakers use feminine gender more often than males do. Thus, Halkomelem appears to be another Native American language exhibiting sex-based inflectional differences, like Koasati (Haas 1944, Kimball 1990), Yana (Sapir 1949), Gros Ventre (Flannery 1946), Lakhota (Trechter 1996), and Mexicano (Hill 1987). In particular, Munro (1998) reports sex-based differences in uses of gender on inanimates in Garifuna.

4 **Inanimates and Possession**

Another factor influencing the use of gender on inanimates is the sex of the possessor of the noun. For example, the abstract noun \(sne\) ‘name’ appears in the masculine gender if the possessor is male:

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\(^9\) Sophie Micheal’s texts were also collected by Wayne Suttles in 1962.
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(8) ni³ k*θə/*lə sne-s ɲə-s-ši³? Ɂəəas tei⁻naə*
3PRO DT/F.DT name-3POS 1SG.POS-N-want DT.1POS.N know-LCTR
‘I’m trying to remember his name.’ (RP)

However, if it is possessed by a female, then it can appear with a feminine determiner:

(9) ni³ k*θə/*lə sne-s ɲə-s-ši³? Ɂəəas tei⁻naə*
3PRO DT/F.DT name-3POS 1SG.POS-N-want DT.1POS.N know-LCTR
‘I’m trying to remember her name.’ (RP)

The long object šaptən ‘knife’ appears only with masculine gender when possessed by a male:

(10) ni³ Ɂəncə k*θə/*lə šaptən-s tɵe’y swiwiəs?
AUX where DT/F.DT knife-3.POS DT boy
‘Where is that boy’s knife?’ (MJ)

However, when the possessor of the knife is female, it can appear instead with a feminine determiner:

(11) ni³ Ɂəncə k*θə/*lə šaptən-s θe’y qəmi³?
AUX where DT/F.DT knife-3.POS F.DEM girl
‘Where is that girl’s knife?’ (MJ)

It is clear that it is the sex of the possessor, not the speaker, that is relevant because both examples (10) and (11) were uttered by the same female speaker (Margaret James). Furthermore, we can rule out the possibility of a copying rule whereby the gender of the possessor is copied onto the head noun, since we also see the same effect in examples with first and second person possessors:

(12) ni³ Ɂəncə k*θə-ɲə/*lə-ɲə ɁəQalstən?
AUX where DT-1SG.POS/F.DT-1SG.POS fork
‘Where is my fork?’ (BS)
[male speaker/possessor]

(13) ni³ Ɂəncə k*θə-ɲə /*lə-ɲə ɁəQalstən?
AUX where DT-1SG.POS/F.DT-1SG.POS fork
‘Where is my fork?’ (RP)
[female speaker/possessor]
Thus, we see that some erstwhile masculine nouns can appear with feminine determiners when possessed by a female person.

To my knowledge, the phenomenon of the possessor determining the gender of the head has not been reported for other languages of the world. The converse—the possessor agreeing with the head—is fairly cross-linguistically.

5  **Cognitive Setting of the Noun**

We have also observed the same speaker using both masculine or feminine gender on the same noun, even within the same section of narrative, depending on the way the speaker perceives the object. The speaker uses feminine gender on a noun if a particular setting highlights an aspect of the noun that is associated with feminine gender, e.g. its smallness, roundness, fluidity, etc.

Thus, for example, we see a table, being wide, hard, and rigid, is masculine, but a diminutive table is marked feminine:\(^\text{10}\)

\[
\text{(16) } \text{nei} \text{ } \text{ce} \text{ } \text{za} \text{ } \text{letem} \text{ } \text{zeka} \text{ } \text{zex} \text{ } \text{leletem}.
\]

\[
\text{go } \text{FUT } \text{lengthen } \text{DT } \text{table } \text{OB } \text{F.DT } \text{little } \text{table.DIM}
\]

‘You will lengthen the table (M) by adding the small table (F).’ (RP)

The word for ‘road’ is canonically masculine, since it is conceived of as long, thin, and rigid (17), but it can also be marked feminine when a road is being described as unusually curvy (18):\(^\text{10}\)

\[
\text{(17) } \text{koli} \text{ } \text{zow} \text{ } \text{sowothekw} \text{ } \text{thak} \text{ } \text{seil}.
\]

\[
\text{really } \text{LNK } \text{straight } \text{DT/F.DT } \text{road}
\]

‘The road (M) is very straight.’ (RP)

---

\(^{10}\) French grammarians have noted associations between the size of an object and its gender in sets of related terms such as *la chaise* (‘chair’)/ *le fauteuil* (‘armchair’), *la maison* (‘house’)/ *le masure* (‘mansion’), *la route* (‘road’)/ *l’autoroute* (‘highway’), where the feminine member is smaller than the masculine one (Romaine 1999:82).
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(18) naʔat xʷiʔpay-θat ʔθə/θə ʔəl.
AUX.DT unusual bend-REFL DT/F.DT road
‘The road (M/F) is unexpectedly curved.’ (RP)

Water when it is contained is marked masculine (19), but, when it is running water acting as a force of nature, it is marked feminine.

(19) naʔat wəl xʷ-čiməm ʔθə ʔəməwəłəʔ ʔə ʔθə qaʔ.
AUX.DT PERF PRFX-full DT tub OB DT water
‘The tub is almost full of water (M).’ (MJ)

(20) ʔəʔəθ wəl hiʔu ʔθə qaʔ wəl qʷəłqʷəł ʔθə qʷəqʷiʔiʔ.
AUX.F.DT PERF flood F.DT water PERF drift.PL DT log.PL
‘The high tide (F) has drifted the logs to shore.’ (RP)

In sum, a Halkomelem speaker uses either masculine or feminine gender on the same noun, even within the same section of narrative, depending on the cognitive setting.11

6 Conclusion: The Purview Effect

Halkomelem gender is somewhat unusual in that inanimates exhibit fluidity of gender marking, unlike European languages where “the gender of a noun, qua lexical item, is decided once and for all, rather than on each occasion when the noun is used” (Dahl 2000:110).12 Halkomelem nouns in the feminine purview can be marked feminine. These include (i) nouns referring to singular female humans, (ii) nouns referring to inanimate objects that are semantically feminine (based on their size, shape, or function), (iii) nouns that appear in a context that is feminizing, i.e. cognitively perceived as being feminine in size, shape, or function, (iv) inanimate objects that belong or relate to a female, and (v) feminine inanimate nouns spoken by a female.

References


11 Payne (1998) classifies Maasai nouns into three types—masculine, feminine, and those that swing either way depending on “the speaker’s construal of the intended referent”.

12 Algonquian languages also show some fluidity in gender agreement; see Dahlstrom (1995), Dahl (2000), Goddard (2002), and references therein.


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