

Lessons from an isolate: Chitimacha diachrony in areal perspective

Daniel W. Hieber

University of California, Santa Barbara

(handout and slides available at danielhiebert.com/cv)

1. Introduction

- Chitimacha is a language isolate in the Southeast linguistic area
- Spoken in Louisiana until the death of its last native speaker in 1940
- Archival materials from documentation from 1802–1934:
 - 1802: word list (Duralde 1802; Jefferson 1808; Du Ponceau 1820)
 - 1881–1882: lexicon, a few texts (Gatschet 1881a; 1881b)
 - 1907–1921: dozen texts, sketch grammar (Swanton 1908; 1920)
 - 1930–1934: 120 texts, 3,500-word lexicon, 200-page grammar (Swadesh 1939a; Swadesh 1939b; Swadesh 1939c)

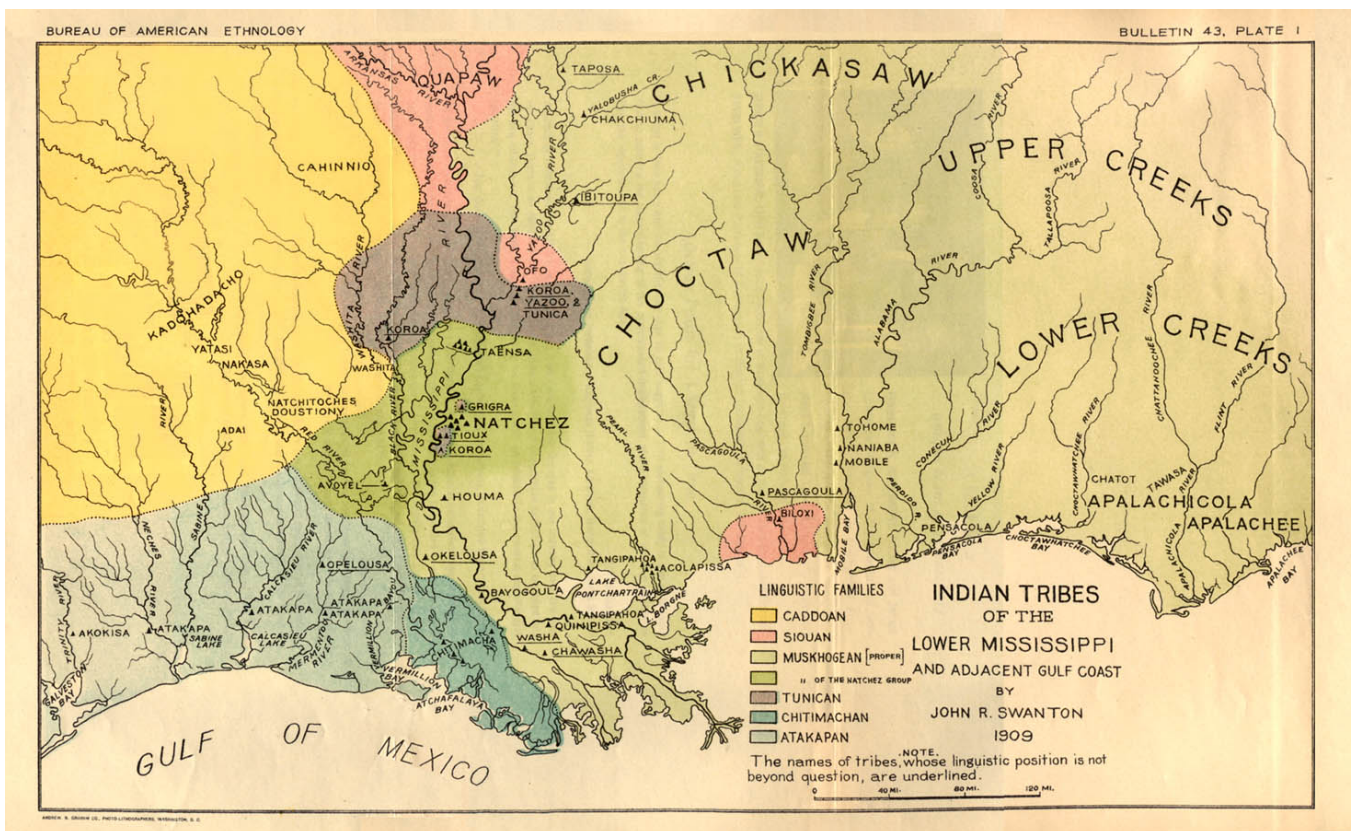


Figure 1. Languages of Louisiana and the surrounding region (Swanton 1911)

Issues in the study of isolates

- Data from other languages aren't applicable
- Internal reconstruction is limited in its utility
- Isolates are a problem to be solved via the comparative method

Today's talk: Isolates are a bountiful treasure trove of diachronic insights! (Hombert & Philippson 2009)

Three features of Chitimacha grammar:

- I. positional auxiliary verbs ('sit', 'stand', 'lie')
- II. switch-reference
- III. agent-patient alignment

2. Positional Copular/Auxiliary Verbs

Chitimacha has three different copular verbs which are also used as auxiliaries. The choice of verb depends on the physical position of the subject:

- *hi-* 'be sitting (neutral)' (default form)
- *či-* 'be standing (vertical)'
- *pe-* 'be lying (horizontal)'

The auxiliary verb follows the main verb, which is marked with a participial suffix *-k*, *-:k'*, *-tk*, or *-nt'k*, depending on the phonological environment.

Glossing Note: Verbs distinguish first (1) vs. non-first (NF) person. Glossing abbreviations are provided in the Appendix. The translations are from Swadesh, but the glosses are my own.

hi-, default, neutral use

- (1) Waʔaš his kečmi-:k' **hi-ʔi-n.**
other 3SG wait-PTCP **NEUT-NF.SG-PROG**

'He **was** waiting for the others.'

(Swadesh 1939a:A35 4.16)

- (2) Kaye **hi-ʔuy-i.**
alive **NEUT-PAST.IPFV-NF.SG**

'He **was** alive.'

(Swadesh 1939a:A19 2.7)

hi-, sitting

(3) Hi tey-k'-š **hi-?**uy-ki-n.
DIST sit(SG)-PTCP-SUBORD **NEUT-PAST.IPFV.1SG-PROG**
'I was **sitting** down.' (Swadesh 1939a:A65 6.3)

(4) Tey = k'iš **hi-?**i.
sit(SG) = alone **NEUT-NF.SG**
'He just **sat** [there].' (Swadesh 1939a:A30 4.3)

či-, vertical

(5) We ?akšuš ku: = ki **či-?**i.
DET cypress water = LOC **VERT-NF.SG**
'That cypress **stands** in the water.' (Swadesh 1939a:A9 2.4)

(6) ?uybi = nk pi:hni:k'-š **či-?**uy-i we šuš = ki.
blood = NOM be.red-PTCP-SUBORD **VERT-PAST.IPFV-NF.SG** DET tree = LOC
'The blood was red **on** that tree.' (Swadesh 1939a:A9 2.1)

pe-, horizontal

(7) ?iš ?inč' ?atin kiš nat'i:k'-š **pe-?**e sa šuš kuti = nki.
1SG father big dog lie-PTCP-SUBORD **HORIZ-NF.SG** DEM tree head = LOC
'My grandfather's dog is **lying** in the top of that tree.' (Swadesh 1939a:A55 1.10)

(8) Him čiski nowa = nki ?apš šaht'i:k'-š **pe-?**e.
2SG pumpkin mellow = LOC CIRC crawl.in-PTCP-SUBORD **HORIZ-NF.SG**
'He **crawls** about amongst your watermelons.' (Swadesh 1939a:A67 4.4)

All three positional auxiliaries have the same plural forms:

- *naka* 1PL 'we are sitting/standing/lying'
- *na?a* NF.PL 'y'all/they are sitting/standing/lying'

Plural Auxiliaries (with 'sit', 'stand', and 'lie')

(9) ?iš ?inč'i ?iš ne we k'inkk'ank kin hi teni:k' **naku-n.**
1SG father 1SG and DET girls with DIST sit(PL)-PTCP **AUX(1PL)-PROG**
'My father and I and those girls were **sitting**.' (Swadesh 1939a:A65 1.3)

(10) We kimi sek'is tapšmi:k' **na-?**uy-na.
DET branch among stand-PTCP **AUX(PL)-PAST.IPFV-NF.PL**
'They were **standing** among those limbs.' (Swadesh 1939a:A38 1.19)

- (11) Kamčín namč'emí-:k'-š na?a šuš tapšn keta = nki.
 deer be.camped-PTCP-SUBORD AUX(NF.PL) tree upright side = LOC
 'Deer are lying beside that upright tree.' (Swadesh 1939a:A66 2.1)

Chitimacha also shows evidence of an earlier auxiliary system:

Irrealis

- (12) Kaya = nk ni k'ap-čuy-i.
 rain = NOM DEF get-IRR(SG)-NF.SG
 'The rain will get you.' (Swadesh 1939a:A9 2.3)

- (13) ?ampi = nk kin k'ušmi-:t'i-naka.
 what = ABL with eat-IRR(PL)-1PL.A
 'With what shall we eat it?' (Swadesh 1939a:A15 5.1)

Irrealis Reflexes

- (14) Č'a: šahyn = iš hup čuy-i?i.
 sun going.in = TOP to go(SG)-NF.SG
 'He went toward the sunset.' (Swadesh 1939a:A2 1.5)

- (15) K'ast'a = nk hi t'ut-na?a.
 north = LOC AND go(PL)-NF.PL
 'They went toward the north.' (Swadesh 1939a:A3 2.1)

Past Imperfective

- (16) ?iš = k šuš hup nuhč-k ša-?uy-ki-n.
 1SG = NOM tree to run-SS sleep-PAST.IPFV-1SG.P-PROG
 'I used to run off to the woods and sleep (there).' (Swadesh 1939a:A52 1.4)

- (17) We = nki hi šak'it-k hi-?uy-i.
 DEM = LOC DIST hang-PTCP AUX(NEUT)-PAST.IPFV-NF.SG
 '[During the flood], he hung there.' (Swadesh 1939a:A10 4.2)

Past Imperfective Reflex

- (18) Hatka = nkiš hi ?uy-naka.
 six = alone DIST arrive(PL)-1PL.A
 'Only six arrived (there).' (also 'happened upon there') (Swadesh 1939a:A3 9.2)

Present Imperfective

- (19) Ha nasta kap tohw-ʔiš-i.
DEM root INCH break-PRES.IPFV-NF.SG
'This root is breaking.' (Swadesh 1939a:A75 10.3)
- (20) Kaya kap tey-ʔiš-i.
rain INCH stop-PRES.IPFV-NF.SG
'The rain is stopping.' (Swadesh 1939a:A84 8.4)

Present Imperfective Reflexes

ʔiš- COP

- (21) Kaye ʔiš-iki-n.
alive COP-1SG-PROG
'I'm still alive.' (Swadesh 1939a:A10 5.2)
- (22) ʔus = k ka:kumi-:k' ʔiš-naku-n ʔuš nitiya.
1PL = NOM know-PTCP COP-1PL-PROG 1PL master
'We knew that it was our master.' (Swadesh 1939a:A7 1.4)

= (i)š TOP

- Originally a cleft construction, i.e. 'it was TOPIC that...'

- (23) Hus na:nča:kamank = š we-t = k hi hokm-i?i.
3SG brothers = TOP DET-ANA = NOM DIST leave-NF.SG
'He left his brothers.' (Swadesh 1939a:A1 1.1)
- (24) ʔašant'i ʔunk'u = š nus = up kun namki-:k' hi-ʔuy-i-n.
old one = TOP west = to some live-PTCP AUX(NEUT)-PAST.IPFV-NF.SG-PROG
'A certain old man lived in the west.' (Swadesh 1939a:A5 1.1)
- (25) Ho kačm = iš = hiš načpi-:t'i-na-n hesik'en.
DEM doctor = TOP = ERG cure-IRR-NF.PL-PROG again
'Those doctors will cure you.' (Swadesh 1939a:A80 3.4)

ʔiška 'they say'

- Invariant discourse marker
- Original meaning was probably 'it is (the case)', developing into 'it is said (that)', and then finally (with the addition of the plural *-ka*) 'they say (that)', as in (26).

- (26) Kutnehin č'ah ʔiš-ka.
 God bird COP-PL
 'They say it is God's bird.'

(Swadesh 1939a:A10 2.3)

Table 1. Summary of diachronic origins of Chitimacha aspectual markers

Aspectual Marker		Diachronic Origin	
-čuw- / -t'i-	IRR	čuw- / t'ut-	'go'
-ʔuy-	PAST.IPFV	ʔuy-	'happen'
-ʔiš-	PRES.IPFV	ʔiš-	COP

Chitimacha auxiliaries (if they were in fact auxiliaries to begin with) were reanalyzed as aspectual markers, but underwent a process of renewal. The positional verbs 'sit', 'stand', and 'lie' underwent auxiliatation (cf. Kuteva 2001) to replace the original auxiliary system.

Positional auxiliary verbs are an areal feature of the Southeast.

Table 2. Comparison of positional auxiliary verbs in several Southeastern languages

Language	'sit'	'stand'	'lie'
Chitimacha (isolate; Swadesh 1933)	hi-	či-	pe-
Atakapa (isolate; Swanton 1929)	kē	ta	tīxt
Choctaw (Muskogean; Broadwell 2006:209–211)	átta-	hikíya-	ittóla-
Tunica (isolate; Haas 1946:349–351)	-na	-hki 'exist'	-ra
Biloxi (Siouan; Kaufman 2013)	naḳi	nê	maḳi
Yuchi (isolate; Linn 1994)	či	fa	e

- The forms in each language are unrelated, but the pattern is the same. (Some also possess a fourth 'move' category.)
- The positional auxiliary system was likely borrowed into Muskogean from Siouan (Watkins 1976:36).
- In the Muskogean languages, the positional auxiliaries also replaced an earlier set of auxiliaries (Booker 1980:187ff). Those earlier auxiliaries were incorporated into the verb, and reanalyzed as various voice markers.
- Chitimacha followed a parallel grammaticalization process.

3. Switch Reference

Chitimacha has a means of distinguishing same-subject vs. different-subject in clause chains (Hieber 2016).

[T]he compound sentence is not common. Instead subordination, particularly participial subordination, is used. For example, a closely connected sequence of events is commonly put into a series of participial clauses except for the last one, which is expressed as the main clause[.] The same device is used in the connection of ideas into a subordinate group[.] (Swadesh 1946:331)

Same-subject (SS) is marked with *-k*, *:-k'*, *-tk*, or *-nt'k*, depending on the phonological environment. Different-subject (DS) is marked with a full set of person suffixes.

- (27) Piya ših hi k'a:ct-k, wetk we nuš k'apt-k ?utp =k
 cane belly DIST cut-ss then DET stone take-ss leather =LOC
 ?apš wa:ct-k, huyk'i ?apš ?uti:-k', wetk we piya k'a:cn =ki
 SOC wrap-ss good SOC tie-ss then DET cane cut.piece =LOC
 hi šahčt-k, wetkš huyk'i kas hukt-k, wetkš hesik'en ?utp
 AND put.in-ss then good back close-ss then again leather
 hi k'apt-k, we piya k'a:cn we ?utp =ki ?apš wa:ct-k,
 DIST take-ss DET cane cut.piece DET leather =LOC SOC wrap-ss
 huyk'i ?apš ?uti:-k', wey-t huk'u kas nučmi:-k',
 good SOC tie-ss DEM-ANA COP(EMPH) back work-ss
 kas hamča-iš-na?a.
 back keep-PRES.IPFV-NF.PL(DS)

'They cut a cane joint, take the stones and wrap them in hide, tie them well, put them into the section of cane, cork them well, again take hide and wrap the cane section in the hide, tie it well, and, having prepared it in that way, they save it.' (Swadesh 1939a:A71 3.3)

- (28) Wenk hi ču:-k'=š ku: k'apt-k we ?akšuš
 now DIST go(SG)-ss=TOP water take-ss DET cypress
 hi t'eyktepi-ču-ø-iš, kayi pa:hmpa him ni k'apt-iš-i.
 AND splash-IRR-NF.SG(DS)-COND thunder 2SG DEF get-PRES.IPFV-NF.SG(DS)

'Now if you go there, take water, and (if) you splash that cypress, thunder gets you.'

(Swadesh 1939a:A9 2.5)

The ss marker developed out of a participle (Hieber 2016):

- (29) Kiš ?atin nuhčpa-pa k'iht-k hi-?i ?
 dog big make.run-NZR want-PTCP AUX(NEUT)-NF.SG

'Do you want your horse to run?'

(Swadesh 1939a:A67 6.2)

- (30) Ka:cpa = nk ?am ?oonak = hiš k'et-k ?ap t'ut-š-na?a.
 stick = ABL everything = INSTR beat(SG)-PTCP VEN go(PL)-PRES.IPFV-NF.PL
 'They came beating him with sticks and so forth.' (Swadesh 1939a:A9 1.2)

The participle in turn developed from a locative nominalizer *-(n)k* (Hieber 2016), which is still in use synchronically:

- (31) Še:ni-nk hup hi ničwi-?i.
 pond-LOC to DIST move(VERT).to.water-NF.SG
 'He came to the edge of a pond.' (Swadesh 1939a:A2 1.2)

- (32) Hi čuy-i?i namu hi kuti-nk.
 AND go(SG)-NF.SG town DIST end-LOC
 'He went to the end of that village.' (lit. 'the village's end') (Swadesh 1939a:A86 2.11)

This locative can also be suffixed to a fully-conjugated verb (33), and is sometimes metaphorically extended to the temporal domain (34):

- (33) ?iš hi-ki-nk na?a.
 1SG COP(NEUT)-1SG-LOC COP(NF.PL)
 'You [pl.] are at my place.' (Swadesh 1939a:A38 1.13)

- (34) [...] ža: kap šan-i-nk k'iš.
 sun up go.out-NF.SG-LOC until
 '[...] until the sun comes up.' (Swadesh 1939a:A64 1.5)

However, these uses appear to be fossilized leftovers from a time when the use of *-(n)k* on verbs was more common:

- The use of *-(n)k* with copulas, as in (33), has clearly lexicalized. *Hikink* 'my place' and *hi?ink* 'your/his/her place' are highly frequent, and often translated as 'my home' and 'your/his/her home'.
- Cases like (34) are very rare in the synchronic corpus, and occur mostly with the postposition 'until'.

It seems that, except in the fossilized constructions above, the verbal use of *-(n)k* continued its metaphorical extension into the temporal domain, and was reanalyzed as either of two distinct functions that were in complementary distribution¹:

- When *-(n)k* co-occurred with the generic nominalizer *-i*, it was reanalyzed as a temporal subordinator:

(35) Ney kap šanšw-i-nk-i, [...] [Swadesh 1939a:A10 8.1]
 earth up go.out-NF.SG-TEMP-NZR
 ‘When the ground emerged, [...]’

(36) K’ast’a ʔap ho: k’ih-čuy-i-nk-i weyži:k’ yeht-’iš-iki. [Swadesh 1939a:A10 10.11]
 north.wind VEN blow want-IRR(SG)-NF.SG-TEMP-NZR thus cry-PRES.IPFV-1SG.A
 ‘That is why I cry out when the north (wind) is going to blow.’

- Otherwise, *-(n)k* was reanalyzed as a participle:

(37) Wetkš ni k’ast-k, [...] weytenk’enkš t’ut-naʔa hesik’en. [Swadesh 1939a:A3 2.3]
 then DEF plant-PTCP after.that go(PL)-NF.PL again
 ‘Then they planted, [...] and after that went on again.’ (lit. ‘planting, they went’)

(38) Kap ten-tk ni k’as-mi-naʔa. [Swadesh 1939a:A3 2.4]
 STAT stop(PL)-PTCP DEF plant-PLACT-NF.PL
 ‘They stopped and planted (again).’ (lit. ‘stopping, they planted’)

Additional evidence for the development of the locative > participle is found in their phonological conditioning environments, presented in Table 3.

¹ A similar complementary split in functions occurred for nominal uses of *-(n)k* as well: When *-(n)k* appeared with the nominalizer *-i*, the two affixes were reanalyzed as a single unit, with scope over the noun phrase rather than just the noun; this became the postposition = *(n)ki* ‘at, on’. Otherwise, *-(n)k* remained a locative nominalizer, as shown in (31)–(32).

Table 3. Phonological conditioning environments for the locative and participial suffixes

Environment	Locative	Participle
N_	-tk	-tʔk
V_	-nk	:-kʔ
/w, y/_	-k	-kʔ
C_	-k	-k

- The glottalized versions of the participle likely arose from a reanalysis of the morpheme boundary separating the person markers and the locative:
 - Synchronically, non-first person forms alternate between glottalized and non-glottalized forms: *-i* vs. *-iʔi* (sg.), and *-na* vs. *-naʔa* (pl.). The glottalized forms typically appear only in careful speech.
 - The copula also has the glottal stop (*hiʔi* (sg.) and *naʔa* (pl.)).
 - Assuming that the glottalized version represents the original form of these morphemes, then the glottal stop may have been reanalyzed as glottalization of the following consonant – the /k/ of the participle. Swadesh (1939c:13) in fact notes that the glottalization with *-kʔ* actually precedes the oral closure.
 - This analysis explains why *-kʔ* lengthens the preceding vowel: it is the result of compensatory lengthening that occurred when the glottal stop in the non-first person markers was reanalyzed as glottalization of the following consonant. This lengthening was then extended to the first person markers as well.
 - This analysis also explains why the participle does not have an /n/ after vowels like its locative counterpart: the suffix would have originally been preceded by a glottal closure rather than a vowel.
- In sum, there is a plausible pathway for the phonological development of the forms of the participle out of the forms of the locative suffix.

Recap: Switch Reference < Participle < Locative

Switch reference is also a prevalent feature of the Southeast, e.g. in Choctaw:

(39) Kaah sa-nna-haatokoosh, iskali' ittahobli-li-tok.
 car 1SI-want-because:ss money save-1SI-PAST
 'Because I wanted a car, I saved money.'

(Broadwell 2006:263)

(40) Kaah banna-haatoko, iskali’ ittahobli-li-tok.
 car want-because:DS money save-1SI-PAST
 ‘Because he wanted a car, I saved money.’ (Broadwell 2006:263)

- The forms in Chitimacha are different from those in Muskogean, but the function is the same.
- Munro (1983) also notes a connection between embedded participial forms and same-subject markers in Muskogean (cf. Broadwell 2006:217 for Choctaw).
- Chitimacha followed a parallel grammaticalization process.

4. Agent-Patient Alignment

Chitimacha shows agent-patient alignment in verbal person marking in the 1st person (Hieber, in revision).

- Non-first person markers in Chitimacha exhibit nominative-accusative alignment, where the nominative is marked, and the accusative unmarked.
- It is common for languages to have agent-patient alignment in just the 1st, or 1st and 2nd, persons (Siewierska 2013).
- Languages and even individual lexical items in a language vary as to how productive the agent-patient alternation is. Chitimacha appears to be fairly productive in this regard.
- Languages vary as to the semantic basis of the agent-patient alternation. In Chitimacha, the alternation is conditioned primarily on control rather than other factors like active/stative (cf. Hieber, in revision for details).

Nominative-Accusative Alignment in the Non-First Person

(41) T’ut-naʔa hesik’en. (intransitive)
 go(PL)-NF.PL again
 ‘They went on(wards) again.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A3 2.3)

(42) Waštik k’et-naʔa. (transitive, accusative unmarked)
 cow kill-NF.PL
 ‘They kill a cow.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A20 1.1)

The primary difference between the agent and patient suffixes in Chitimacha is their position, not their form.

PREVERB	STEM	<u>PATIENT</u>	ASPECT	<u>AGENT</u> / SUBJECT
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Figure 2. Chitimacha verb template

The agent and patient suffixes do however differ in their morphophonological behavior, so it is always possible to distinguish one from the other (cf. Hieber, in revision).

The agent-patient alternation occurs with intransitives, transitives, ditransitives, causatives, reflexives, nonfinite verbs, deverbal nouns, dynamic verbs, and stative verbs (Hieber, in revision). For brevity, only a few examples from intransitives and transitives are shown below.

Intransitive with 1st Person Patient vs. Agent

(43) ?iš = k ne:m-ki
 1SG = NOM be.afraid-1SG.P
 ‘I am afraid’ (Swadesh 1939a:A30 4.5)

(44) ?iš šuš sek’is ?apš ču:-m-iki
 1SG wood in CIRC go(SG)-PLACT-1SG.A
 ‘I have gone about in the wood sufficiently.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A28 1.5)

Transitive with 1st Person Patient vs. Agent (ex. 1)

(45) ni-kint-ki-ču:-š
 water-drop-1SG.P-IRR(SG)-COND
 ‘If you drop me into the water’ (Swadesh 1939a:A1 3.3)

(46) ni-kin-ču-ki-nk’
 water-drop-IRR(SG)-1SG.A-DEB
 ‘I must drop you into the water’ (Swadesh 1939a:A1 3.2)

Transitive with 1st Person Patient vs. Agent (ex. 2)

(47) k’et-ki-?i we ko:š = iš
 beat-1SG.P-NF.SG DET switch = INSTR
 ‘she beat me with the switch’ (Swadesh 1939a:A60 1.6)

(48) we ka:ci ?atin kap k’et-iki
 DET owl large STAT kill(SG)-1SG.A
 ‘I killed the horned owl’ (Swadesh 1939a:A80 5.6)

Transitive with 1st Person Patient as Subject

(49) Huykš ?am ?o:nak ni šik-ki.
 yet thing all DEF forget-1SG.P
 ‘I have not forgotten everything yet.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A5 10.3)

In many languages, the agent and patient forms are phonologically distinct. **In Chitimacha, the forms are phonologically similar, but different in their distribution and morphophonological behavior. Why?**

- We have already seen that Chitimacha aspectual morphemes were once auxiliary verbs.
- When the MAIN VERB + AUXILIARY construction was reanalyzed as a single verb, some of the singular person markers on the main verb were caught in the middle.

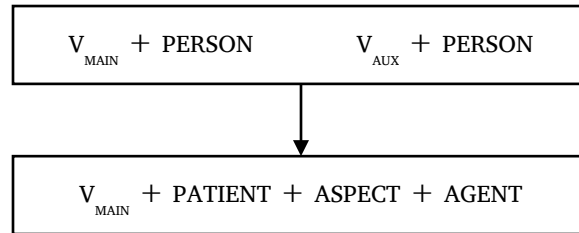


Figure 3. Univertation of main verb plus auxiliary

- The first person marker *-ki* was reanalyzed as a patient marker, while the non-first person marker *-i* deleted after stem-final consonants. Stem-final vowels, however, always change to /i/ before aspectual markers, providing evidence that the non-first person *-i* was at one point present in this position as well:

Stem-Final /e/ → /i/ Before Aspectual Markers

(50) ?iš kiča hokšt_i-ču-ki. < hokste- ‘feed’
 1sg wife feed-IRR(SG)-1SG.A
 ‘I shall feed my wife.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A15 6.2)

- The deletion of the non-first person *-i* in these contexts explains why the agent-patient system is at work only in the first person.
- The process of univertation explains the similarity between the agent and patient forms: Originally they were the same form, just in different places (one on a main verb, and one on an auxiliary).

What caused the reanalysis from nominative-accusative to agent-patient?

Recent work lays out a diachronic pathway whereby *transimpersonals* (transitive verbs with an impersonal subject; Sapir (1917:85); Haas (1941)) can be reanalyzed as patient verbs (Holton 2008; Malchukov 2008; Mithun 2008).

Mithun (2008:329) posits that “a reanalysis of transitives with zero subjects as intransitives could have occurred” in Chitimacha.

In a language in which (i) intransitive and transitive verbs are not distinguished formally, (ii) topical 3rd persons are usually not mentioned, (iii) few nouns are marked for case, and (iv) word order is predicate final, it would be a simple matter to reanalyse a nominative-accusative system as an agentive one or vice versa. [...] Transitive clauses with omitted 3rd person subjects could be reanalysed as intransitive, and objects could be reanalysed as grammatical patients. (Mithun 2008:308–309)

Chitimacha meets all these criteria, and thus it is no surprise that Chitimacha shows evidence of the transimpersonal > patient pathway as well. A limited set of verb forms (intransitive patientive verbs which contain an aspectual marker) still retain a pleonastic / expletive non-first singular suffix *-i*, which I gloss as ‘ \emptyset ’ to indicate that it contributes no meaning to the construction.

(51) Wey ne ʔapš kimikiš wekka:ši.
 wey ne ʔapš kima-iki-š wek-ki-ʔiš-i.
 DEM just REFL think-1SG.A-SUBORD laugh-1SG.P-PRES.IPFV- \emptyset
 ‘I laugh when I think about it.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A49 3.9)

(52) ʔaštkaŋki k’an ni šik-ki-čuy-i.
 sometimes NEG DEF forget-1SG.P-IRR(SG)- \emptyset
 ‘I shall never forget.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A60 2.2)

Cases like these suggest an earlier, transimpersonal stage for Chitimacha verbs, where forms like (52) would have been interpreted as having an expletive subject, meaning something like ‘it forgets me’.

However, morphophonological changes deleted this suffix in many contexts.

In (53) the /i/ is deleted, but its effect on the irrealis morpheme remains (*-čuw* > *-čuy*).

(53) Nu:p-ki-čuy hi kimi:k’-š huk’u hi šankint-ki.
 die(SG)-1SG.P-IRR(NF.SG) DIST think-PTCP-SUBORD COP(EMPH) DIST put_out-1SG.P
 ‘You put me out thinking I would die.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A10 5.5)

In (54) the *-i* is deleted.

(54) Pa:kine-ki-ču:-š, [...] be.tired-1SG.P-IRR(NF.SG)-COND
 ‘If I get tired, [...]’ (Swadesh 1939a:A1 3.2)

Without an aspectual marker, it’s unclear whether the *-i* is present. Example (55) could be glossed as *-ki* 1SG + *-i* NF.SG, where the /i/ of the non-first singular replaces the /i/ of the first singular, or simply as *-ki* 1SG.P.

(55) Wetkš we nitiya = nk = š ʔiš hi šankint-ki.
 then DET master = NOM = TOP 1SG DIST put_out-1SG.P(-NF.SG.A???)
 ‘Then the (boat) master put me off.’ (Swadesh 1939a:A10 10.3)

The vanishingly rare presence of the non-first singular *-i* suffix in patientive constructions would have hastened the reanalysis from transimpersonal > patientive.

Agent-patient alignment is a strong areal feature of the Southeast. It is present in 13 out of the 14 languages listed as belonging to the linguistic area by Campbell (1997:341–344).

- The agent-patient morphology in Chitimacha follows a different pattern, and has different forms than, that of Muskogean and the other isolates in the area.

5. Mechanisms of Change

Chitimacha shares these 3 features (and others) with languages of the Southeast.

- In each case, Chitimacha recruited native lexical / grammatical material rather than borrow material from other languages directly.
- In each case, there are significant differences between the structure of the Chitimacha feature and that of other languages, even though their overall function is the same.

How did this happen? Contact is the obvious answer, but what's the precise mechanism?

5.1. The Southeast as a Contact Area

- The Southeast is a well-known linguistic and cultural area (Jackson & Fogelson 2004).
- Both Creek and Mobilian Jargon were used as *linguae francae* and trade languages (Dreschel 1983; Dreschel 1997; Martin 2004).
- There were robust trade networks in the region (Hudson 1976:313–316; Brown 2004).
- Exogamy was common (Speck 1907).
- Movement of peoples was common, with speakers of different languages known to live amongst one another (Swanton 1911:360–364).
- Spanish loanwords are known to have spread via the above pathways (Martin 1994; Brown 1998).
- In sum, the Southeast was ripe for **multilingualism**.

5.2. Discourse, Multilingualism, & Grammaticalization

- In cases of multilingualism, stylistic discourse preferences are easily borrowed (Matras & Sakel 2007; Mithun 2008; Mithun 2012).
- It is not the grammatical structures themselves that are borrowed, but rather a preference / tendency for packaging information in discourse in ways that parallel the grammatical structures in the source language (Matras & Sakel 2007; Johanson 2008).
- As these information-structural preferences become increasingly frequent, they become routinized and eventually grammaticalized (with corresponding expansions in distributional contexts, increases in frequency, etc.) as the dedicated construction for that function (Heine & Kuteva 2003, 2005; Matras 2011).

- **Positional Auxiliaries:** Bilingual speakers used the lexical verbs ‘sit’, ‘stand’, and ‘lie’ in Chitimacha as rough equivalents of positional auxiliaries in other languages, until they were reanalyzed as auxiliary verbs themselves.
- **Switch Reference:** Because the subject of a participle is the noun it modifies, chains of participial clauses share the same subject, making them the obvious choice for continuing topics in a manner analogous to switch reference in Muskogean. This pattern gradually became more frequent in Chitimacha, until it was possible to have long stretches of text with only a single main verb.
- **Agent-Patient Alignment:** The reanalysis of transimpersonals in Chitimacha would have been greatly bolstered by bilinguals who already spoke a language with semantic alignment.

6. Conclusion

- Chitimacha is sometimes viewed as peripheral to the Southeast linguistic area (e.g. Martin 1994). The structural features and shared grammaticalization processes examine here situate Chitimacha firmly within the Southeast linguistic area.
- The forms and internal histories of these grammatical structures suggest contact-induced grammaticalization rather than genetic inheritance.
- Despite being an isolate, data from other languages are useful in understanding diachronic developments in the language. Contact phenomena illuminate language-internal histories as much as areal ones.
- Internal reconstruction can be quite robust, especially when reflexes of past forms remain in the language (Givón 2000).
- Stylistic preferences in discourse can completely restructure grammar.
- Chitimacha’s isolate status is precisely what gives us this window into the history of contact in the Southeast. While internal evidence suggests what seems *prima facie* to be a fairly comprehensive story regarding how these structural features arose, when we step back and examine these histories in light of their larger historical and social context, we gain a much deeper understanding of the area.

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Appendix: Glossing Abbreviations

∅	pleonastic morpheme	PROG	progressive
1	first person	PTCP	participle
2	second person	SOC	sociative ('together')
3	third person	SG	singular
A	agent	SS	same-subject
ABL	ablative	STAT	stative / change-of-state
ANA	anaphoric	SUBORD	subordinator
AND	andative	TOP	topic
AUX	auxiliary	VEN	venitive
BEN	benefactive/malefactive	VERT	vertical position
CAUS	causative		
CIRC	circumlative ('about')		
COND	conditional		
COP	copula		
DEF	definite		
DEM	demonstrative		
DET	determiner		
DIST	distal		
DS	different-subject		
EMPH	emphatic		
ERG	ergative		
HORIZ	horizontal position		
INCH	inchoative		
INSTR	instrument		
IPFV	imperfective		
IRR	irrealis		
LOC	locative		
NEG	negative		
NEUT	neutral position		
NF	non-first person		
NOM	nominative		
NZR	nominalizer		
P	patient		
PAST	past tense		
PL	plural		
PLACT	pluractional		
PRES	present tense		