# Tsakhur

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## Contents

Abbrevia	Abbreviations3				
0.	Introduction	4			
1.	General data on Tsakhur	5			
1.1	Location	5			
1.2	Dialects	8			
1.3	Sociolinguistic informations	9			
1.4	A brief look at the genetic background	10			
1.5	General typological remarks	12			
2.	Phonology	14			
2.1	Phonemes	14			
2.1.1	Consonants				
2.1.2	Vowels	18			
2.1.3	Phonotactics	20			
2.1.4	Phonetic processes	21			
2.1.5	Prosodic features	22			
2.1.6	Morphophonemics	22			
3.	Word formation	23			
4.	Inflectional Morphology				
4.1	Noun Classes				
4.2	Nouns	_			
4.2.1	Number	28			
4.2.2	Case System	29			
4.3	Adjectives	33			
4.4	Pronouns				
4.4.1	Personal pronouns				
4.4.2	Demonstrative Pronouns	38			
4.4.3	Reflexives				
4.4.4	Interrogatives	41			
4.5	Numerals	42			
4.6	Adpositions	44			
4.7	Adverbs	44			
4.8	Verbs	45			
4.8.1	Stem formation	45			
4.8.2	Class markers	45			
4.8.3	Preverbs	47			
4.8.4	Tense and aspect	48			
4.8.5	Personal inflection	53			
4.8.6	Participles and converbs				
4.8.7	Infinitive and masdar				

7.2

Reflexive

Non SAP

guages Singular "under" (locative)

Topic
Thematic vowel
Vowel

Stem augment
Speech Act Participant

"over" (locative)
Tense, aspect, mood

South East Caucasian

South East Caucasian lan-

3

•	Syntax	54
.1	Structure of the NP	
.2	Structure of the clause	
.2.1	Word order and attention flow	
.2.2	Semantic roles	
.2.3	Agreement	
.3	Major sentence types	
.4	Pragmatic functions	
.5	Negation	
.6	Questions	
.7	Coordination of NPs and clauses	66
.8	Subordination	
•	Sample text	68
	Bibliography	71
.1	A brief look at the history of Tsakhur linguistics	

2

## Abbreviations

ADT	A15 .*	
ABL	Ablative	REFL
ABS	Absolutive	SA
AD	"at" (locative)	SAP
AFF	Affective	¬SAP
ALL	Allative	SEC
AOR	Aorist	SECL
ATTR	Attribute marker	
AUX	Auxiliary	SG
C	Consonant	SUB
CAUS	Causal converb	SUPER
CL	Class	TAM
CM	Class marker	TOP
COND	Conditional	TV
CONF	Confirmed	V
CV	Converb	
DAT	Dative	
ECL	East Caucasian Languages	
ERG	Ergative	•
ESS	Essive	
FOC	Focus	
FUT	Future	
GEN	Genitive	
GER	Gerund	
hum	human	
I,II,III,IV	Noun Class (inherent: (I), (II),	
2,11,111,1 V	(II), (IV))	
IMP	Imperative	
IMPERF	Imperative Imperfect(ive)	
IN	"in" (locative)	
INF	•	
	Infinitive	
LOC	Locative (undifferentiated)	
m(ask)	masculine	
MASD	Masdar (verbal noun)	
NARR	Narrative	•
NEG	Negation	
NP	Noun phrase	
OBL	Obliquus	
PART	Participle	
PAST	Past tense	
PL	Plural / Proto-Lezgian	
PP	Postposition	
PRES	Present tense	
PROH		
	Prohibitive	
PV		
PV Q	Prohibitive	
	Prohibitive Preverb	

#### 0. Introduction

Tsakhur is spoken by some 13.000 people who dwell in about 30 villages or settlements at the headwaters of the river Samur (valley of Gorgin Magal) in Southern Daghestan. This area is confined in the west by the Guton and Gjultydag mountains, in the north by the Alaxundag mountain range (the southern part of the Samur Range). Towards the east the area touches a Rutul speaking population near Luček. An important group of Tsakhur speakers can also be found on the southern slopes of the Kjabak-Tepe range in Northern Azerbajdzhan (along the two tributaries of the Agri-Čaj river (Katex-Čaj and Kurmux-Čaj) and south of them). "Tsakhur" is the (somewhat disputed) name for a dialect continuum, that is named for the village of Tsakhur (in the Samur valley). Together with Rutul, the language forms the western branch of the Samur languages, itself being a subgroup of South East Caucasian (Lezgian). Though Tsakhur is only sporadically written (a new "written language" has recently been reintroduced), it is quite vivid in ordinary life (competing especially with Azeri).

Tsakhur is a "typical" Lezgian language, operating through a system of (partly) semantic ergativity and noun classification, based on extensive case marking and a complex verbal paradigms. Though Tsakhur is heavily agglutinating, inflectional features can often be observed. As opposed to some other Lezgian languages, Tsakhur shows a tendency towards personal agreement (restricted, however, to the first person), ergative case marking of personal pronouns (in Gelmets), and the development of focus particles.

The booklet informs on the basic structure of Tsakhur (phonology, morphology, syntax, morphosemantics, and syntax), which is (at least partly) explained on the basis of internal and external reconstruction. But it should be born in mind that the scope of this book does not allow a comprehensive treatment of all features of Tsakhur grammar. This limitation is especially valid for the sections on verb morphology and on syntax. Many aspect of Tsakhur syntax such as word order with relation to attention flow and view point, pragmatic functions (esp. focusing strategies), and personal agreement patterns have had to be treated quite rudimentarily. Much more work has to be done on these problems before a more complete picture can be drawn. Still, the informations given cover most of the prototype of Tsakhur syntax. Finally, a sample text (taken from Ibragimov 1968) together with interlinear glosses helps to illustrate the linguistic structure of the language.

The dialect covered by the present booklet is that of the village of Caxur  $(ts'a^2y)$  which is the perhaps most representative variety of the Tsakhur dialect continuum. However, if necessary, reference is also made to the dialects of Sabunči (Sabunchi) and Gel'mec (Gelmets).

The language data stem either from written sources mentioned in the bibliography or from my own fieldnotes gathered during three stays in Makhatchkala and Southern Daghestan. The written sources have been checked with informants during these stays (except for Ibragimov 1990, but most of the data given there conform to my own field notes). The Tsakhur phrases quoted in the text are taken from Ibragimov 1968, žeiranišvili 1983/84, Ibragimov 1990 as well as from my own field notes. In order to keep the text within the limts of the LW/M series no specific references for the single citations have been given (also because many of them can be easily checked with the help of Ibragimov's publications).

As for transcription and transliteration: Place names etc. are given as transliterations of the corresponding Russian names, language names, however, appear in their English form. Language data are given in a broad IPA version. Due to the fact the pronunciation of Tsakhur

is conditioned by a remarkable degree of idiosyncrasy, lexical entries may vary within the text of this booklet. These varieties are especially related to the degree of palatalization and pharyngealization of lexical forms. Consequently, every lexical entry is quoted just as it has been noted in the field or found in the descriptions of Tsakhur. No efforts have been made to normalize them.

Linguistic research on Tsakhur started with some (lexical) entries in Erckert 1895 which had been exploited by G. Hüsing in order to substantiate his claim that Elamic originated from Tsakhur (Hüsing 1910). In 1913 A. Dirr published the first grammar on the language (Dirr 1913), the material of which was used by N. Trubetzkoy is his famous article on the consonant systems of East Caucasian languages (Trubetzkov 1931). The short period of written Tsakhur (1934-38) saw some (pedagogical) works by A. N. Genko and S.A. Džafarov (cf. 1.3). Later, Ev. žeiranišvili treated the language in the light of his theory that Tsakhur and Rutul form a close dialectal continuum (culminating in žeiranišvili 1983/84), whereas G. X. Ibragimov (a native speaker) concentrated on the language itself which he treated for its phonetics in Ibragimov 1968. Ibragimov 1990 perhaps is the most comprehensive (and best) treatment of Tsakhur at all. The present booklet represents the first consideration of the language from outside the former Soviet Union (as far as I know). The reader should bare in mind that it is written by a non native (English) speaker, so some awkward expressions etc. may occur. I hope that this fact does not effect the description of Tsakhur grammar itself, which is worthwhile to be studied in a much more comprehensive way than it could have been done here.

#### 1. General data on Tsakhur

#### 1.1 Location

LM/W 133

Tsakhur has some 13.000 speakers who dwell in about 30 villages or settlements situated at the headwaters of the river Samur (in the valley of gorgin magal) in Southern Daghestan (Russia). An important group of Tsakhur speaking people can also be found in Nothern Azerbajdzhan (between the two tributaries of the Agri-Čaj river, namely Katex-Čaj and Kurmux-Čai). They represent one third of the Tsakhur speaking population. The following villages and auls are inhabited by Tsakhur speakers<sup>1</sup>:

Official name	Tsakhur name	Mainly Tsakhur Speakers	Mixed with
Daghestan:		•	
Kurdul Gel'mec	(ourdul) lek gelmets', gemits',	yes yes	
	gimits', gelmez,	•	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Tsakhur speakers in major towns such as Baku, Maxačkala etc. are not mentioned in this list, which gives only the names of those villages and auls that constitute the geographical area of Tsakhur. It should be born in mind, however, that in the larger villages Zakatal' (zagatala) and Kaxi (qah) (Northwest Azerbajdzhan) Tsakhur speakers form an important minority.

k'irmits', gəlimets', gəblits' Mikik mix:ey, mixey yes	
Xijax χο <sup>5</sup> je, χο <sup>5</sup> ja <sup>5</sup> κ yes	
Caxur ts'a <sup>5</sup> χ yes	
Sjugjut soglut, søgyt, yes	
χοjik	
Muslax məslax, muslar, yes	
məslar, mətslaq	
Mišleš məsles, misles yes	
Korš k(')orf yes	
Džynyx dzinix, dzinou, yes	
dzina <sup>r</sup> r, dzinij, dzini(j)	
Attal at:'al yes	
Kaljai kalel <sup>j</sup> yes	
Baš-Kaljal bajkalel <sup>j</sup> yes	
Baš-Muxax (baš-) $m \Rightarrow^{\varsigma} \chi a^{\varsigma} \chi$ yes	
Azerbajdžan:	
Agdam-Kaljal ardam-kaleli yes	
Suwagil' səwagəli, suwagyl yes	
suwagei, suwagøl,	
sewagel	
Nižne-Suwagil' k'as, q'as ?	
Jeni-Suwagil' teze-səwagəl <sup>j</sup>	Azeri
Karkay k'ark'waj, q'arq'waj, yes	
q'arq'aj	
Kalalu galal, q'um yes	
Sabunči sap'unt∫i, sap'əndʒi yes	
Alaskar ælæsk'ær, halasq'ar yes	
Muxax mɔ²χa²χ	Azeri
Mamrux mamroj, mamrij, yes	
χermam / (j)iremam	
Gezbarax gølbarax, gøzbarax, yes	
gudbarax, gutsbarax,	
gud <sup>j</sup> barag	
Mišleš (Činčar) tj'inar yes	
Ljakit-Ketjuklju lekit, lækit(-køtykly)	Azeri
Emirdžan	Azeri
Uzjumlju <sup>2</sup> uzymly	Azeri
Alibajramly	Azeri,
	Udi

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Uzymly is a quite recent settlement founded by some forty families from Caxur in the late sixties.

<u>-</u>			
Azgil	æzgil	?	
Čobankol	***		Azeri
Alibeglo	alibejlo		Azeri

**TSAKHUR** 

LM/W 133

Alibeglo alibejlo Azeri
Džimdžimax --- Azeri
Čardaxlar tJa<sup>5</sup>rdaxbə Awar
Tala tala Awar,
Gjulljuk gull<sup>1</sup>uk Azeri
Zarna zarna Azeri

The actual distribution of these villages and auls can be seen as the reflex of older economical traditions: The Tsakhur people mainly were sheep-breeders, using the pasture-grounds of the Samur valley in summer times only. In October they left these pastures and, using the passes of Dindi, Attagaj, and Baljakada, they moved south up to the river Iori and to the left bank of the river Kura. Consequently, they occupied the vast region of the Alazani valley, the Iori plateau, and the Džejrančel' plains. Historically, Tsakhur settlements in Azerbajdžan could be found down to the region of Mingečaur in the East and Dedoplis-Ckaro in the West, Later, however, the inhabitants of the more southern settlements have switched to Azeri, whereas those of the villages in the Alazani valley maintained their native language. Thus we can hardly tell what the original "homeland" of the Tsakhurs has been: We may think of the Alazani valley and the Iori plateau to be the fist candidates, also because these regions show a much more developed economy (horse breeding, gardening etc.). However, the linguistic links of Tsakhur especially with Rutul (spoken nearly exclusively in the Samur valley (cf. fn.7)) hint at an intermediate "homeland" north of the Great Caucasus mountain range. We have to assume that the speakers of Proto-Rutul-Tsakhur once dwelled just in those places in Nothern Azerbajdžan that are now (again?) occupied by Tsakhur speakers. Here they constituted one part of the Proto-Lezgian (later Proto-Samur) dialect continuum. The region of the Alazani valley and its surroundings are now thought to represent even the "Urheimat" of Proto-East Caucasian<sup>3</sup>.

The strong ties between the Samur and the Alazani regions is also documented by the fact that historically the villages mentioned above formed six "free communities", five of which disregarded the mountain barriers:

- 1. The community of Gel'mec (Gel'mec and Lek)
- 2. The community of Caxur (Caxur, Xijax, Mikik, Sjugjut, Muslax; Kum, Činar, Ljakit- Ketjuklu, Zarna...)
- 3. The community of Mišleš-Tala (Mišeleš; Tala, Činčar...)
- 4. The community of Džynyx (Džynyx, Korš; Gjulljuk, Gezbarax)
- The community of Muxax (Baš-Muxax, Kjalal; Agdam, Kjalal, Sabunči, Muxax...)
- 6. The community of Suwagil' (Suwagil', Kas, Karkaj...)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Cf. Schulze 1997a and especially Nichols 1997.

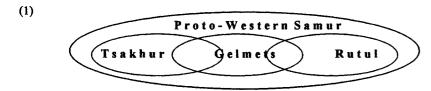
These (partly feudal) communities which were also characterized by a different degree of endogamy can be seen as forming the starting point for the dialectal differentiation of Tsakhur (cf. below). Due to collectivization and the administrative separation of the two territories (Daghestan vs. Azerbajžan) these free communities have become distorted, contacts between the villages have slowed down, and - as a result - regional dialects developed.

#### 1.2 Dialects

"Tsakhur" is the (somewhat disputed<sup>4</sup>) name for a dialect continuum, that is named for the village of Caxur (in the Samur valley), a common self-denomination does not exist<sup>5</sup>. Today, the dialect continuum has two extremes, namely Tsakhur proper and Gelmets. Whereas Gelmets is exclusively spoken in Daghestan (Gel'mec and Lek (Kurdul)), Tsakhur has many dependencies in Azerbajdžan, which can be grouped according to subdialects:

- 1. Tsakhur-Kum<sup>6</sup>: Caxur, Xijax, Sjugjut; Kum, Činar, Ljakit, Uzjumlju, Kaxi;
- 2. Tsakhur-Mišleš: Mišleš; Tala, Zakatal';
- 3. Džynyx: Džynyx, Korš, Attal; Alaskar, Mamrux, Gezbarax, Gjulljuk;
- 4. Muxax-Sapunči: Muxax, Kaljal; Sapunči;
- 5. Suwagil': Suwagil', Karkaj, Kas, Kalal; Zakatal' (region).

The differences between the Tsakhur subdialects are marginal, though they may identify the provenience of a speaker. However, Tsakhur and Gelmets differ considerably: Gelmets is sometimes thought to have a Tsakhur grammar/lexicon with Rutul phonetics. In fact, Gelmets is the relict of a transitory dialect within the old Tsakhur-Rutul continuum ("Proto-Western Samur", cf. below):



The strong ties between Gelmets and Rutul<sup>7</sup> resulted in the claim, that both Tsakhur and Rutul form a single language (thus e.g. žeiranišvili 1983). However, according to my informants,

even between Gelmets and Rutul a mutual intelligence is hardly given. Many people in Gel'mec and Lek (Kurdul) claim that they speak both Rutul and Gelmets. In fact, the differences between Gel'mets and Rutul are as great as those between Gelmets and Tsakhur proper (though mutual intelligence between Tsakhur und Gelmets speakers still is given).

Tsakhur proper differs from Gelmets also with respect to the degree of foreign influence. Whereas Gelmets is influenced only from Rutul (and partly from Azeri), the Tsakhur subdialects show language contact with Azeri, the Zakatal' and Kusur dialects of Awar, and the Ingiloi dialect of Georgian. The Sabunchi subdialect of Tsakhur has perhaps undergone the strongest pressure from Azeri, which accounts for the fact that Sabunchi is sometimes regarded as a separate dialect.

#### 1.3 Sociolinguistic informations

LM/W 133

Like many other indigenous East Caucasian languages, Tsakhur hardly has any written tradition. There are hints at a possible use of Tsakhur to translate some medieval Arabic sources (in the 13th century<sup>8</sup>). Unfortunately, no such documents have ever been found. However, there are (esp. in the villages of Caxur and Kurdul) some inscriptions on grave stones (dating from the 15th century and later) that contain at least some authentic Tsakhur names as well as some (very short) informations on the person buried, which can be regarded as Tsakhur (written in Arabic). Lateron, either Arabic, Osmanic, or Russian have been used as a means for written communication (as well as in education).

In 1931 efforts have been made to introduce a literary language based on the dialect of Tsakhur<sup>9</sup>. Since 1934 Tsakhur had been taught in primary schools, but these efforts were abandoned in 1938. In 1989 the language once again obtained the nominal status of a literary language though its use seems to be very limited at least until now.

In everyday life Tsakhur speakers use Russian in Daghestan and Azeri in Azerbajdžan as their written language (which corresponds to the language of education in each area). Still Tsakhur is quite vital, not only as a language of communication within the family, but also as a means to communicate among the villagers. The Tsakhur lexicon covers the needs of both the material culture of traditional Tsakhur society and the modern economy (using many loans from Russian and Azeri). In 1979, 95.1% of the Tsakhurs claimed Tsakhur to be their first

on the name of the economically most important village of Rutul at the Samur river. Together with the speakers of Muxad, Kufa, Kiče, and Xnjux (in the east of the area) it constitutes the largest dialectal variety, called Muxad (5,000 speakers). Further north the dialect of Shinaz is represented by the settlements of Sinaz and Una (some 2.000 people). A third dialect (west of Shinaz) is spoken in the villages of Murxek, Cudikde (also Novyj Muxrek), Nacma, Fartma, and Džilixur (2.600 speakers). A quite different dialect is spoken in Ixrek in the northwest. Another important dialect is that of Borch-Khnov, situated in the mountains of Kjabjak-Tepe (in the villages of Borč and Xin or Xnov). Cf. Ibragimov 1978 and Maxmudova/Van den Berg (in preparation) for details.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Cf. the discussion by \*eiranisvili 1983:23-29 and Ibragimov 1990:13-15.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> The name ts'a<sup>f</sup>γ can be analyzed as on old locative (\*-γ) of \*ts"'a which means "fire" or "hearth". It also denotes "group of people using a common hearth". Place names in -2 are typical for Tsakhur (cf. məslax, dzinix, məsxasx, mamrəx, and gølbarax.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> The dialectal area of Tsakhur-Kum corresponds to the extension of the former sultanate of Cax (or Ilisu).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> "Rutul" is the name for a group of dialects the 12.000 speakers of which dwell along the rivers Samur, Korš-Samur, Kara-Samur, and the headwaters of Axty-Čaj and Šin rivers in the southeast of the Republic of Daghestan. Furthermore, four villages are found in Northern Azerbaidzhan. The denomination Rutul is based

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> E.g. Zakariyā al-Qazwīnī, see Šixsaidov 1987.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See Genko 1934. Some important documents are the publications of S. Çəfərov ("Alifbej" (Baku 1935), "Zettijn kitab" (Baku 1936), "Oødesin kitab" (Baku 1936), "adabijiatan xrestomatija" (Baku 1937), and the school grammar "Zəxni mizen grammatika va okanasın qajdabı" (Baku 1937)).

LM/W 133

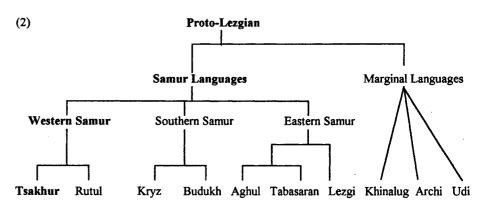
language (compared to 96.6% in 1970). Contrary to the speakers of some other Lezgian languages (like Rutul or Aghul), statistics show an increasing use of Tsakhur even among urbanized people (cf. 88.2% in 1970 against 57.7% in 1959). The recent introduction of radio broadcasting in Tsakhur (though some hours the week only) together with efforts to publish Tsakhur periodicals reflect this increasing interest in the Tsakhur language.

10

As it can be observed in many (especially southern) East Caucasian languages there is a strong tendency among Tsakhur youngsters to use a modified Tsakhur vernacular mixed with both Russian and Azeri. This language is characterized by a reduction of the grammatical inventory (class markers, tense forms etc.), by an "azerification" of Tsakhur phonetics (e.g. by substituting pharyngealized vowels through palatals), and by introducing Russian and Azeri phraseologies. However, the reputation of the parents' language may prevent this "young people's Tsakhur" to become the future means of overall communication.

#### 1.4 A brief look at the genetic background

Tsakhur belongs to the southern (Lezgian) branch of the East Caucasian language group. The nine or ten Lezgian languages which form this southern branch (also called "South East Caucasian languages" (SECL)) are spoken in a quite compact area that is centered by the river Samur. Reflecting their closer genetic relationship we can subdivide this group into three smaller subgroups (forming the "Samur" branch of the SECL<sup>10</sup>), joint by three marginal languages the speakers of which seem to have left the area of the common proto-language quite early. Most of the languages are quite vital and in everyday use. The Samur branch consists of seven languages, which are clearly interrelated. Three subgroups can be established: Eastern Samur (three languages), Western Samur (two languages), and Southern Samur (two languages). The following schematic "stammbaum" may clarify the position of Tsakhur within the SECL group<sup>11</sup> (it should be noted that this "stammbaum" does not reflect migration processes within the Samur branch. Moreover, the subsumption of Archi, Xinalug, and Udi under the label "Marginal languages" is not intended to signalize any closer relationship among them. The term is only used to separate these (abherent) languages from the other members of the language family):



The question whether all southern Daghestanian languages belong to a single language group genetically, which then could be interpreted as one of the offsprings of the East Caucasian proto-language (PEC), has been debated since long<sup>12</sup>. Today, the subgrouping of the Samur languages as shown above can be substantiated by well-established sound laws both for lexical items and morphemes. They hint at the fact that the Eastern and Southern Samur languages have undergone important innovations, whereas the western branch seems to be more archaic. The basic characteristics of Proto-Samur are best conserved in Western Samur, and we may conclude, that Proto-Samur was very much like Proto-Tsakhur-Rutul. If we include the three marginal languages, however, the picture changes dramatically (both in phonetics and morphology). The status of Archi as "Lezgian" seems now to be no longer disputed<sup>13</sup>, though its obvious Awaro-Andian "look" has not yet been sufficiently explained. As had already been said. Archi is still more archaic than the Western Samur languages, and when we include it into our considerations regarding the type of Proto-Lezgian, we have to conclude, that all Samur languages share common innovations which have changed this type in many respects<sup>14</sup>. Udi, on the other hand, has not been as strongly disputed as Khinalug or Archi. The more people knew about Udi, the more came clear that it is a Lezgian language which left the dialect continuum of the proto-language quite early (but cf. fn.11). In its isolation, Udi has perhaps been the most innovating of all Lezgian languages. Khinalug, however, seems to be so far away from the Lezgian prototype that many researchers had and still have serious doubts concerning its Lezgian character. Yet, in some respects Khinalug can serve as a "missing link" in order to substantiate some claims on Proto-Lezgian that else can only be made hypotheti-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> The term "Samur" is taken from Dirr 1928, though he includes Udi and Khinalug which is (at least geographically speaking) incorrect. Naturally, "Samur" reflects the actual geographical location of the languages in question only (which is problematic regarding Kryts and Budukh). Historically seen, all Lezgian languages now spoken along the Samur river result from the migration of the speakers of Proto-Samur (or Proto-Lezgian) into this area from the South of the Great Caucasian mountain range (cf. fn.3).

<sup>11</sup> There are some important hints at a possible closer link of Western and Southern Samur, though the details are still not very well understood. Interestingly enough Tsakhur (partly together with Rutul) shared some remarkable isoglosses with Udi. We may assume that these isoglosses are due to language contact during a time when Proto-Tsakhur-Rutul still was spoken in a region in neighborhood with the Udi area in Nothern Azerbaidžan (that is, northwest of the Agri-Čai river).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> For a more detailed account see (among others) Talibov 1980, Alekseev 1985, Schulze 1988a, Schulze 1997a, and Nikolayev/Starostin 1994 (with some problematic claims).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Earlier, Archi was sometimes seen as an Awaro-Andian language (thus Trombetti 1922:128, Mikailov 1968, 1972, somewhat skeptical Deeters 1963:11) or as a "mixture" of Awar, Lak, and Lezgian languages (Dirr 1928, Bokarev 1961:32, Gigineišvili 1977). Trubetzkov 1922:186 gave Archi the status of an independent East Caucasian ("tchétchène-lesghienne") branch.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> With respect to phonetics, Proto-Samur is characterized by the total loss of laterals (see below), which Archi has retained because of its strong convergency towards Awar. In morphology, the Samur languages have leveled the semantic distinctiveness of noun classes as well as the techniques to mark aspectual categories.

cally<sup>15</sup>. When we consider the obviously late arrival of the Khinalug speakers in their present settlement the abherent character of Khinalug described e.g. by Alekseev 1984 und Alekseev 1985<sup>16</sup> can be explained in two ways: Either: Khinalug was a Lezgian language which met a heavy substratum in the new surroundings of the Shah-Dagh mountains, which itself is not yet identified. Or: Khinalug was not Lezgian in ancient times but was "lezgified" lateron in the Shah-Dagh. Both proposals have their pros and cons. However, there are some features in Khinalug which at least remind us of the Nakh languages (Chechen, Ingush, and Bats), and which cannot be explained through later convergencies. Thus, the status of Khinalug could best be described as being "lezgoidic", though it remains unclear, whether the "Lezgian" characteristics of the language are due to divergency or convergency.

## 1.5 General typological remarks

The Lezgian languages share many of the typological features that are claimed to be characteristic for all East Caucasian languages. In phonetics we can observe the typical series of glottalized and/or rounded stops and affricates, an extensive use of velar, uvular, and pharyngeal features, in morphosyntactic terms we can speak of the Lezgian languages as being heavily agglutinating, operating through complex case systems with extensive distinctions within locatives and through a quite differentiated system of verbal inflection. The "operating system", that is the canonical way of construing simple sentences, is ergative, though not as much semantically or pragmatically motivated as that of other typical ergative languages. In fact, Lezgian languages are very much accusative with respect to syntax and pragmatics. The principle of noun classification which was dominating nearly all morphosyntactic categories in the proto-language has been formalized or reduced to a mere formal criterion in many languages. Lexically, all languages have suffered from heavy pressure by neighboring languages, starting in ancient times with Classical Armenian (especially important for the southern languages) and Iranian (Middle Persian). Later, Arabic loans entered the lexicon via Persian and Turkish which themselves also shaped the present lexical inventories. Nowadays it is Azeri which not only serves as an important source for new words but also exerts a strong influence on the morphosyntax and the phonological systems of the languages in question.

Though Tsakhur can be regarded as being a representative of the "Lezgian" type of languages, it yet shows some grammatical particularities, which sets the language somewhat

apart from its sister languages. On the one hand ablaut phenomena due to specific morphophonological processes are much more salient in Tsakhur than in any other Lezgian language (except for Rutul). Ablaut effects noun inflection as well as verbal paradigms. On the other hand Tsakhur has developed some specific grammatical categories, unknown to most of the other languages: First, Tsakhur knows a complex system of indexing attributes (and locatives) according to pragmatic features (Determination, focus etc.). Second, the language has introduced a technique of marking the first person ("EGO") on the verb, which is unique within the language group. It is based on the attributive morphology and restricted to the (topicalized) first person. The other Lezgian languages either follow the canonical type of verbal agreement (via class markers), or they do not know any agreement technique at all (Aghul, Lezgi). Only Tabasaran and Udi have a system personal inflection, which in Tabasaran is restricted to Speech Act Participants. Contrary to Tsakhur, both paradigms are based on the agglutination of enclitic pronouns which at least partly serve to encode focus (or topic) functions.

13

The morphosyntax of Tsakhur has a considerable semantic component which is especially relevant in the case system: The categorial procedure of noun classification is intertwined with those grammatical functions which a noun covers in a sentence. The most important classification is that of "control": This prototypical feature can have its specific radial extensions depending on which role a classified noun plays. Moreover, the ergative strategy to encode simple sentences is highly role dominated, referring to semantic roles rather than to aspects of subject assignment. Consequently Tsakhur lacks (as far as we know) any strategy of perspectivization (passives or antipassives). Even the so-called "binominative" construction<sup>17</sup> common to some (S)ECL is completely unknown. However, the semanticity of case marking and agreement tends to decrease and to become a mere grammatical feature even in Tsakhur. Instead, pragmatic features such as topicalization or focusing gain some considerable importance.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> The status of Khinalug can thus be compared to the role that Hithite plays in the reconstruction of Indo-European, cf. Schulze 1988a, Schulze-Fürhoff 1994a. The first comprehensive treatment of Khinalug as Lezgian is given by Talibov 1960. Nikolayev/Starostin 1994 opt against the inclusion of Khinalug into the Lezgian group.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> In a lexico-statistical analysis Alekseev 1985:23 tries to show that Khinalug shares only 22% (with Lezgi) up to 28% (with Tabasaran, Budukh, and Udi) of its basic vocabulary with the other Lezgian languages (as opposed to rates between 40% and 69% (Tabasaran-Aghul) elsewhere in this group). However, Alekseev disregards many important sound laws which would increase the rates considerably, cf. Schulze 1988a. - For Tsakhur, Alekseev gives the following figures: Lezgi 38%, Tabasaran 41%, Aghul 45%, Rutul 50%, Kryts 38%, Budukh 36%, Archi 34%, Udi 33%, Khinalug 24%. The rate for Rutul is quite remarkable, because it seems quite low compared to the strong correspondencies in grammar. We may conclude from that that Tsakhur has met a substrate (or adstrate) different from that of Rutul (basically some representatives of Kartvelian and/or Armenian).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> A term which is quite misleading in the context of ergativity. An alternative could perhaps be "foreground focusing" or "doubled subject construction", because the strategy of "binominatives" involves the foregrounding of the transitive agent without backgrounding the patient, e.g. Lak pru bawxunu ur tfu (father.ABS III.buy.AOR I.AUX.PRES.3.SG horse.ABS) "Father has bought a horse" (instead of brutal bawxunu bur tfu (father.ERG III.buy.AOR III.AUX.PRES.3.SG horse.ABS)).

## 2. Phonology 18

#### 2.1 Phonemes

#### 2.1.1 Consonants

Tsakhur (dialect of Tsakhur) shows the following system of consonants<sup>19</sup>:

(3)	Stops vl pl	ej	gem	vd	Affric vl pl	ates ej	gem	vd	Fricat vl pl	gem	vđ
1	p	p'	p:	b					f		w
2 3 3p	t [t <sup>j</sup> ] t**	t' [t <sup>j</sup> '] [t <b>w</b> ']	ti	d di	ts [ts <sup>i</sup> ] [ts*]	ts' [ts <sup>i</sup> '] [ts <sup>w</sup> ']	ţs:	ďz	s [sʲ]	s: [s: <sup>j</sup> ]	z [z <sup>j</sup> ] [z <sup>w</sup> ]
31 4 41	τ-	լւյ			រៀ ព្រ	ពិ ពិ.	[t]:"]	d3 [dz*]	[[~] [	[;w]	•
5 5p 5l	k k <sup>j</sup> [k*]	k' [k <sup>j</sup> '] [k"']	k: [k: <sup>j</sup> ]	g g <sup>j</sup> [g <sup>w</sup> ]					x x <sup>j</sup> x <sup>w</sup>	x: [x: <sup>j</sup> ] [x:*]	Y
6 6l	q q*	q' qw'	q: [q: <b>"</b> ]	G [G <sup>w</sup> ]		•			χ χ <b>*</b>	χ: [χ:ʷ]	R
6ph 7 7l	d <sub>t</sub> [R <sub>m</sub> ]	q°'	[d:¿]	$\mathbf{G}_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}$					χ <sup>°</sup> h [h <sup>w</sup> ]	[x; <sup>5</sup> ]	$\mathbf{R}_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}$
7ph		۲'							hs		

14

Nasals, liquids, and glides: m, n, [n<sup>j</sup>], l, l<sup>j</sup>, r, y.

The phonemes in question partly show a restricted distribution. Geminates only occur in intervocalic position.  $\gamma$  is quite rare,  $\beta$  is rare in the beginning of a word.  $\beta$  appears only initially and in intervocalic position, being replaced by  $\beta$  in final position. Labialized phonemes do not appear as systematic as e.g. in Tabasaran or Aghul, but some of them have clear phonemic status. The strong tendency to use palatalized sounds is typical for Tsakhur, palatalization is not bound by equivalent contexts. Though minimal pairs are sometimes difficult to establish,

their phonemic value seems to be transparent (those sounds the phonemic status of which is not yet proved are shown in square brackets).

What we in fact can describe is the prototypical system of Tsakhur consonantal phonemes. It may have its idiosyncratic or regional extensions as well as modifications, the functional status of which still is not fully clarified. Below examples for those consonants are given that belong to the prototypical system<sup>20</sup>.

```
balag "bag", bəzbəzaj "fly", abaj "mother-in-law", eb "blood";
b (i.m.f):
                pifni "lip", pəxi "saliva", Garas "small roof", kup "container";
p (i,m,f):
                pilp'ili "little lamp", sap'ən "soap", sip' "nip";
p' (i,m,f):
p: (m):
                t'opzi "small container", ts'epza "first", xepza "much";
                waz "moon", weren "sun", q'awa "table", xiw "village"21;
w (i,m,f):
                only in loans<sup>22</sup>: fəkər "thought", təfanq "gun";
f (i,m,f):
                tesii "wooden dish", tawasar "pan", top "ball", axtona "high", lit "burka";
t (i,m,f):
t' (i,m,f):
                t'et' "flower", t'ab "finger", sat'al "steal", q'at' "beam";
                abat:ej "father-in-law", at:a "(thrashing) floor", xat:e "wooden trough";
t: (m):
d (i,m,f):
                dama "river", dix "son", adi "grandmother", ad "inside", dadal "cock";
                tsəbeli "autumn", tsəts "a "grave stone", jats "bull", məts "wind";
ts (i,m,f):
                ts'e?"goat", ts'a "fire", muts'ul "thread", nats' "reed";
ts' (i,m,f):
               kj'ots:es "to cast", ots:e "hive";
ts: (m, rare):
                gandz "rock", dzidziler "sort of khinkali", odza "stick";
dz (rare):
                sa "one", sili "tooth", səwa "mountain", sos "bride", q'asda (def.) "old";
s (i,m,f):
                məs: "hungry", tes: i "wooden dish", ades: e "scissor";
s: (m):
                zer "cow", gozgali "itching", waz "moon", jiz "snow";
z (i,m,f):
                didiej "grandmother", adii "grandfather", gadie "boy", diolez "near";
dj (i,m):
                it" "honey", get"i "hit";
tw (m,f):
               t/od3 "brother", xot/e "snake", it/i "girl", et/ "apple", gat/ "horn";
tf (i,m,f):
               tf'ar "hair", tf'ulfu "clay", itf'es "to enter", k'atf' "button";
t[' (i,m,f):
               q'at[:i "hat", sat[:es "to close";
t[: (m,rare):
                dzilj "floor", dzod "rough", dzedzim "tapestry", u ldzu m "week", sadz "frying-
d3 (i,m,f,):
               pan", gard3 "splinter", ofd3 "wickedness";
               fi "we", fu "you", jifda "our", fif "spit", q'əf "butter";
[ (i,m,f):
               xunas:e "woman", was:aq' "leopard", bos:u- "deaf";
f: (m):
               het/"i "sowing", giet/"i "cooking of meat";
t[w (m,rare):
t[w' (rare):
               it/"'i "entrance", g'et/"'i "chewing";
k (i,m,f):
                kəts'a "leg", kun "dish", kok- "fat", kuklak "castle", dakruk "roller";
               k'at'e "chicken", k'uk' "spoon", k'os:a "cough", k'əlik'am "liver";
k' (i,m,f):
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> A quite comprehensive (though partly controverse) treatment of Tsakhur phonology is given by Ibragimov 1968, cf. also 3eiranišvili 1983, Ibragimov 1990:18-54. The phonemic systems of all SECL are monitored briefly by Kibrik/Kodzasov 1990:335-347. Diachronic aspects with respect to Proto-Lezgian are discussed by Talibov 1980, Schulze 1988a, and Nikolayev/Starostin 1994:139-140.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> 1 labial, 2 labiodental, 3 dental, 4 palatals, 5 velar, 6 uvular, 7 laryngeal; 1 labialized, p palatalized, ph pharyngealized; vI = voiceless, vd = voice; pI = plain, gem = geminate, ej = ejective.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> The abbreviations "i,m,f" denote the possible position of each phoneme within a word (initial, medial, final). However, the distribution indicated below is not always balanced statistically.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> When followed by a patalal vowels, w tends towards a labiodental realization ([v]): Thus we have  $\gamma i w = \gamma i v e^{-\gamma i} v e^{-\gamma i}$  in the village".

f is always secondary in the Lezgian languages. In Tsakhur, it appears only with (recent) loans, accept for Gelmets five - fora "raspberry" (Tsakhur xura). While Tsakhur x- is the regular reflex of Proto-Lezgian \*f\*-, f- is exceptional. Perhaps five is an old loan from Lezgi fivu-fular "berries". For Proto-Lezgian we have to assume a form \*f\*-or-(Rutul xur, Tabasaran urxar(pl.tant.).

- k: (m): aka "door", əkas "to love", hikin "narrow";
- g (i): gunt "shirt", gandz "rock", gnej "bread";
- x (i,m,f): xa "skin", xax "handful", xan "ground", juxan "springtime", o-oxanas "to eat", exal<sup>j</sup> "at night";

- x: (m): qox:aras "to boil", gix:es "to lay down";
- Y (i,m): yali "mouth", wi:yaras "to bear", yaryar "sheep", yam "awn";
- ki (i,m,f): kiira "reward", kiidiki "swelling", kierkii "mattock", o'ki "yoke", daki "father";
- g<sup>i</sup> (i,m,f): g<sup>i</sup>a:zas "to milk", g<sup>i</sup>a?as "sit down (sg.)", g<sup>i</sup>oharas "to fall (from a tree)", g<sup>i</sup>b<sup>i</sup>xa<sup>i</sup>s "to fall", g<sup>i</sup>e:d "much", g<sup>i</sup>u<sup>i</sup>x "defamation", ma<sup>i</sup>g<sup>j</sup> "hairdressing";
- xi (i,m,f): xian "water", xiid "dried manure", dexie "necessary", t'ixi "pimple", wixi "flea", k'uxi "beak":
- xw (rare): xwar "hole";
- q (i,m,f): qales "to come", quf "nose", gaqa "outdoors", məfq "worm", afq "schadow", məfq "worm";
- q' (i,m,f): q'uq' "egg", q'om "hight", q'aff:i "hat", q'əf "butter", q'ədim "winter", jəq' "broth", amq'al "turned around", lefq' "eagle";
- q: (rare): zaq:a "under me", zaq:um "bitterness", tawaq:a "request";
- G (i,m): Garg "ram", Gok "consumables", Gul "window", Goff "summer", mangal "heat";
- χ (i,m,f): χiw "village", χa<sup>s</sup>m "night", diχ "son", alijχas "to fly", hoχas "to run", sirəχ "seam":
- χ: (m): hex:en "too much", qəzax:as "to meer", lax:a "stoven";
- ви "you (sg.)", вигві: "gravel", воп ~ con "partridge", jiв ~ jэв "day", n/aв "tear", baв "twig";
- qw (rare): niaqw "straw", masqw "oak";
- qw' (rare): aqw'a "face", nlaqw' "earth", q'arqw' "lip";
- $\chi^{\mathbf{w}}$  (i,m,f):  $\chi^{\mathbf{w}}a$  "dog",  $me\chi^{\mathbf{w}}$  "tale";
- $q^{f}$  (i,m,f):  $q^{f}a^{f}tq^{f}e^{-r}$  "reading",  $q^{f}a^{f}$  "badness",  $q^{f}a^{f}n^{r}$  "raven",  $mo^{f}q^{f}$  "oak<sup>23</sup>",  $a^{f}q^{f}$  "schadow" ( $\sim a^{f}q$ ),  $jo^{f}q^{f}$  "ashes";
- $q^{\Gamma}$  (i,m):  $q^{\Gamma} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^{\Gamma} d^{\Gamma} d^{\Gamma}$
- $G^{f}$  (rare):  $G^{f} g^{f} g^{g}$  "hare",  $G^{f} g^{f} g^{g}$  "summer" (~  $G^{f} g^{f} g^{g}$ );
- $\chi^{c}$  (i,m,f):  $\chi^{c}$  "big",  $\chi^{c}$  "flour",  $\chi^{c}$  "aw "sky",  $a^{c}\chi^{c}$  "wool (of sheep in springtime)",  $i \alpha \gamma^{c} a \sim i \alpha \gamma^{c} a$  "mill";
- **Β**<sup>f</sup> (i,f): **B**<sup>f</sup> a bref "blackberry", jə β f "bridge", a β f a f "hair comb";
- ? (m,f): ha?as "to do", ts'e? "goat", ma? "bakon", glu?re "have a sit (man)!";
- h (i,m,f): hag "as "to show", hik in "small", hoxas "to run", hor "lies", lahar "home work", ma h "brain";
- h<sup>s</sup> (i): h<sup>s</sup>af "dirt", h<sup>s</sup>a<sup>s</sup>nka "wine-skin", h<sup>s</sup>e<sup>s</sup>wa<sup>s</sup> "lentil";
- j (i,m,f): jik' "heart", jats' "stone", afjne "glas", wejba "needle", abat:ej "father-in-law";
- m (i,m,f): mok "ice", ma? "fat", mas "ploughshare", mots "wind", miz "language, tongue", G<sup>f</sup>uma n "warm", kuma "smoke", q'əd<sup>f</sup>im "winter";
- n (i,m,f) nak ~ n<sup>j</sup>ak "milk", nats' "reed", nas ~ n<sup>j</sup>as "tear", nis:e "cheese", t'enk' "drop", ok'anas "to write", k'on "game (animals)", k'ut'un "kidney"<sup>24</sup>;

- l (i,m,f) lə<sup>f</sup>q' "eagle", lal "dumb", luk'un "bark of the birch", balkan "horse", dalk" "container", gul "slave", fal "cloth", gal "the ara tree", gəfl "summer"<sup>25</sup>;
- l<sup>j</sup> (i,m,f) l<sup>j</sup>iga "front", l<sup>j</sup>amba "fence", kəl<sup>j</sup>k "remains of wool", wuk'ul<sup>j</sup> "head", yal<sup>j</sup> "mouth", gul<sup>j</sup> "window", gal<sup>j</sup> "on us", səkəl<sup>j</sup> "fox";

17

r (m,f): k'asrə "50 pounds", k'ira "reward", pəran "dark", werəκ "sun", χ'e'ra "big, old", uxur "barley-water", wuhur "narrow street", paχər "oxidization", t'el'amp'er "musik instrument"<sup>26</sup>.

The consonants given in brackets in (3) show that secondary correlations such as palatalization, labialization, and pharygealization play an important role in the system of Tsakhur consonants, though it is hard to tell to which extent this role is phonematic. In many cases labialization has to be treated as biphonematic (C+w), whereas pharyngealization of consonants may be the result of an assimilation to pharyngeal vowels. Palatalization, finally, is often conditioned by the adaptation of Russian articulation.

Archi is the only Lezgian language that shows a series of laterals. This series, common to all Awaro-Andian and (in part) to all Cezian languages, must also be reconstructed for Proto-Lezgian, it is, however, generally changed elsewhere (either to uvular or to velars). Tsakhur has the following reflexes of these laterals<sup>27</sup>:

PL \* $\underline{t}$ ' > Tsakhur k' / Gelmets q'
PL \* $\underline{t}$ ' > Tsakhur k' ~ g / Gelmets q'
PL \*t > Tsakhur x.

Except for the treatment of old laterals, Gelmets as well as the (sub)dialect of Sabunchi differ from the Tsakhur system of consonants only marginally. Gelmets has changed Proto-Tsakhur \*G to B in all positions (cf. BOJje "hare" (Tsakhur GJje "hare"), BOJn "partridge" (Tsakhur GON ~ BON), Bijna "today" (Tsakhur Gijna) etc.). Sabunchi has retained the uvular stop G in initial position and after n, elsewhere it shows the same change as Gelmets. Both (sub)dialects have a distinct phoneme 3 (which merges with d3 in Tsakhur proper except for loans): Gelmets: hosiwa "cream", gieze "hive", q'abasur "carrot", tfo3 "brother"; Sabunchi: 3e3a4 "wasp", 3e3a7 "dragon-fly".

The tendency to eliminate labialized phonemes, which can already be observed in Tsakhur, is much stronger in Sabunchi, though unpredictable. The same is true for the palatalization of final consonants in Gelmets: Although final palatals are much more preferred than plain consonants, it is hard to tell what conditioned this tendency (the vowel quality does not

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> mə<sup>f</sup>q<sup>f</sup> or mə<sup>f</sup>q<sup>f</sup>w is a free variant of ma<sup>f</sup>q<sup>w</sup> "oak".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> With some lexemes, a palatalized nasal  $(n^{j})$  seems to be preferred. But there are no minimal pairs  $(n \text{ vs. } n^{j})$  which would allow us to propose a phoneme  $n^{j}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Final (non palatal) -/ does violate an important sound law of Tsakhur: PL \*-/> -w when preceded by a non palatal vowel. Else the reflex is -// (also resulting from PL \*-/i). Hence, most of Tsakhur lexemes with final -/ should be regarded as possible loans.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> PL \*r- is either dropped in Tsakhur or developed to j-. Some "Tsakhur looking" items like rab "awl", rexj"saliva", and rosts "cradle" are loans (mostly from Rutul, some (like rosts) from Armenian. However, the case of rosts seems to be somewhat complicated, as we must assume that the reduction of arm. ororoc "cradle" > rosts took place at a time when initial r-still was allowed.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> I only mention those laterals the reconstruction of which can be taken for granted.

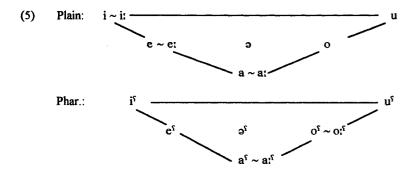
LM/W 133

play a role, as can be seen from examples like was "buffalo", nasəli" "lineage", and pəli "money").

18

#### **2.1.2 Vowels**

The vowel chart of Tsakhur (proper) draws the following picture:



Tsakhur has developed a quite complex system of vowels, contrasting long from short, and plain from pharyngealized phonemes (nasals are not known).

In general it can be claimed that the basic system of vowels in the proto-language was very much like that of present Eastern Samur<sup>28</sup>. Most labialized vowels (except y) are secondary, often introduced through pressure from Azeri (o mainly resulted from \*-C\*- complexes). Long vowels came in because of vowel contraction or because of the lengthening of vowels in stressed positions.

In Tsakhur, long vowels resulted especially from the contraction of vocalic class markers with surrounding vowels, though sometimes we can also find non secondary contrasts (mainly  $a \sim a$ ), e.g.  $\partial k'ar$  "illness"  $\sim \partial k'ar$  "being ill", ma "on"  $\sim ma$ : "there",  $aj\chi an$ "moving" ~ ajxa:n "saw" (GEN). The main source for long vowels are complexes of the type Vw(V)(i) and Vy(V). (5) gives a list of the resulting phonemes:

These processes which are of considerable importance regarding the emergence of ablaut phenomena will be exemplified in the appropriate chapter of morphology.

The question of the phonematic status of pharyngealized vowels still remains unsolved. In many cases we have to treat them as reflexes of surrounding pharyngealized consonants. However, sometimes these vowels appear with consonants, which clearly are non pharyngeals, e.g.:

Hence it must be concluded, that pharyngealized vowels may have an independent status within the phonemic system. Perhaps this system is based on a (former) strategy to differentiate lexical items through suprasegmental features, which themselves had been realized by pharyngealization. This can also be seen from the fact that if pharyngealization appears in polysyllabic words this feature spreads over nearly all syllables, cf.

ና'a <sup>ና</sup> da <sup>ና</sup> t	"habit, custom" (< arab. cadat "dto.")
q <sup>s</sup> a <sup>s</sup> dq <sup>s</sup> ə <sup>s</sup>	"having read"
x <sup>s</sup> i <sup>s</sup> ma <sup>s</sup> n	"wild"
jox: <sup>s</sup> a <sup>s</sup>	"mill"
mi <sup>s</sup> tʃa <sup>s</sup> d	"in the morning"
ja <sup>s</sup> q:e <sup>s</sup>	"on the road"
	q°a°dq°ə° n°am'irx a°:xoj n°t]a°d

The feature [+phar] seems to start with the accentuated syllable and then spreads to the following syllables. That is why in some words, the vowel of the first syllable (mostly a preverb) is not pharyngealized, whereas all other vowels are, cf. alt'ax: 'if' "swelling", bode 'k "gossip", jiq's n χew "heavy burden" (from jiq's "heavy").

The (sub)dialect of Sabunchi tends to substitute pharyngealized vowels by palatals, a process that is well known especially in those SECL that are in closer contact with Azeri<sup>30</sup>. This tendency can be interpreted as a try to imitate the Azeri system of articulation without loosing the distinctiveness of the vowels in question, cf.  $(a^{f} > x, o^{f} > \emptyset, u^{f} > y)$ :

(8)	Tsakhur	Sabunchi	
	a <sup>s</sup> jne	æjnæ	"glas"
	o <sup>r</sup> d্ত	ød3	"badness"
	o <sup>r</sup> ru¹∫	øry∫	"driving in"
	tʃuˤmk	t∫ymk	"whip"
	o <sup>r</sup> k'	øk'	"yoke"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Proto-Lezgian probably had \*a, \*i, \*u, and \*y. It must be said, however, that the system of vowels in Proto-Lezgian did not have that degree of functional load that was characteristic for the consonants. In this respect, Proto-Lezgian equaled very much present-day West Caucasian languages (cf. Schulze 1988a for details, as opposed to the views of Nikolayev/Starostin 1994, claiming that West Caucasian is a strongly innovating descendent of Proto-North Caucasian, which itself is thought to be very close to Proto-East Caucasian).

<sup>29</sup> is only if \*ej was in a non initial syllable and preceded by i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> Also, this is a typical feature of what can be called "Young People's Tsakhur" (cf. 1.3).

The use of palatalized vowels is not restricted to old pharyngealized vowels. Sabunchi (and partly) Gelmets have extended this technique to plains vowels (even if they do not meet a palatal surrounding). Hence, palatalization can also be regarded to be at least partly a suprasegmental feature, which indicates an articulation mode "à la turque" rather than the emergence of true palatalized vowel phonemes.

20

#### 2.1.3 Phonotactics

Tsakhur allows the following types of C/V-distribution within single syllable words<sup>31</sup>:

```
V: o: "up", a: "going";
CV(:) do "name", sa "one", zə "I", xa: "at home", fa: "there", sio "bear"; tiu "spittle";
VC ad "inside", al "devil", eb "blood", etf' "apple", u'm "ring", it" "honey", uli "eye", ok' "hay", os "log, chunk", o'ki "yoke", o'd3 "evil";
VRC urg "lamb", a'rd "fat-tail";
CVC daki "father", culi "window", c'e'l "summer", miz "language", məts "wind", niak "milk"; waz "moon", jiz "snow";
CVRC32 dalk" "sort of meal", gan "rock", carg "wether", q'arq" "furs", gurt "shirt", kəlik "remnants of leather", k"'art ["manger", t'enk' "drip".
```

Another important phonotactic restriction is observed in connection with r. Whereas Eastern and Southern Samur as well as Rutul allow it in every position, it is changed in the other languages under specific conditions: Archi, Khinalug, Udi and (partly) Tsakhur do not allow r initially, changing it to d- (in Archi) or z- (under certain conditions in Khinalug), or dropping it completely (in Udi). In Tsakhur, there is a tendency to replace r- by j-, but contrary to all other SECL is does not allow r in (absolute) final position. (9) lists three word pairs in order to demonstrate the facts:

(9) Lezgi rib, Tabasaran rib~ riw, Aghul reb, Rutul rab, Tsakhur rab (loan from Rutul), Kryz ræb, Budukh ræb, Archi dab "awl", Udi e b-sun "to sew"; Aghul raq', Rutul riq', Tsakhur jəq', Archi diq', Khinalug ze, Udi opt'aj "soup"; Lezgi ruq', Tabasaran ryq, Aghul ryq; Rutul riq', Tsakhur jiq', Kryz ræq', Budukh req, Archi diq', Khinalug zek', Udi (Vartashen) iq' "ashes".

As it has been said above, final -r is quite weak in Tsakhur, being either dropped, changed to -j, or retained before an epithetic vowel (often -a). Some exceptions are ar "inside", BarBar "sheep", ABar "homework", BarBar "syness", BarBar "oxidation", BarBar "oxidation", BarBar "barley-water", BarBar "narrow street", BarBar "hole", BarBar "oxidation", BarBar "illness". Final ABar "behaves quite similar in Tsakhur: Generally, it is changed to ABar0 but it is retained before epithetic ABar1 or when heavily palatalized by a (then dropped) final ABar2.

## 2.1.4 Phonetic processes

LM/W 133

There is a tendency towards vowel harmony in Tsakhur, though it is not as systematized as e.g. in Turkish. The language shares this feature especially with Rutul and the Eastern Samur languages, it is less observed in Southern Samur, Archi, and Udi. Vowel harmony mainly effects suffixes, e.g. the class marker -yd (class IV): it appears as -d after non labial vowels, as -ud after labials, and as  $-V^{T}d$  after pharyngealized vowels, cf.

(10) Tsakhur:  $\chi^{j}eb$ -pd "three",  $ji\chi$ -pd "six", joq'-ud "four",  $mol^{j}$ -ud "seven".

The vowels of the plural morpheme -Vr, however, depends on the quality of the foregoing consonant (-er goes with palatalized, -ar with non palatalized consonants). Final pharyngealized phonemes prefer -a<sup>f</sup>r. Yet, It has to be stressed that vowel harmony is still a quite unpredictable tendency in the language, and in many cases it depends on the idiosyncrasy of the speakers.

Another important process is the labialization of consonants due to the loss of unstressed labial vowels following them. This process can be observed in all SECL that have labialized consonants, and in many cases it is even not bound by stress conditions. (11) lists some examples from Tsakhur:

(11) Tsakhur: balwan "fish-" (cf. baluw "fish"), tfarxwan (genitive of tfarux "bast-shoes"), qeq:was "to dry" (< \*qeq:was), qidekwij "immortality"(< \*qidek'wij), hekwas "to bake" (< \*hek'was), hadwas "to tear" (< \*hadwas).

Another process often described for the SECL is that of assimilation. Especially clusters like -mb-, -nb-, -r+C-, -l+C-, -n+C-, and so on tend to be homorganized on the basis of the second consonant. Examples from Tsakhur are:

(12) Tsakhur: dʒammə < \*dʒam-bə "meals", q'ommu < \*qom-bu "peaks", k'ən-na < \*k'əl-na "small, class I-III), semmə < \*sen-bə "years".

Finally, a quite typical feature of all SECL is that of metathesis. In many cases it seems that (especially with loans) the order of phonemes within a word is relatively free. There are not yet any detailed studies on this topic available, but we can observe the tendency to place homorganic consonants into a closer contact or to avoid -CR-structures, cf. Tsakhur:

(13) t'aq'ra > q'at'ra > q'art'a "drip", qelezəm > q'eleməz "brine", garxudali > garduxali "corn", k'əbərx > k'ərbəx "long-eared", sək'əl<sup>j</sup>> səl<sup>j</sup>ək' "rye".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> Cf. Ibragimov 1981 for details (his data stem from the dialect of Gelmets and slightly differ from those given here).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> In loans, Tsakhur also allows final clusters without sonants, cf. mast "sheep milk" (geo. mast'ao "a meal made out of butter-milk and rice" (?)), regs'q' "food" (aw. rizqii "food"), dost "friend" (Persian).

Tsakhur, as most other (Nothern) SECL has a dynamic word accent<sup>33</sup>, which falls on the second syllable of polysyllabic words<sup>34</sup>. Suffixes normally are unstressed (with the exception of the plural morpheme -Vr and -es encoding the future tense<sup>35</sup>), cf.

(14) k'umk'úm "saucepan", LOC k'umk'úm-e balkán "horse", DAT balkán-as, but balkan-ár "horses" aká "dooryard", LOC aká-la

Verbs are always stressed on the first syllable (with the exception of the future tense), which is also true for monosyllabic nouns of the type CVC or CVRC, cf.

(15) sos "daughter-in-law", ERG sós:-e q'om "peak", LOC q'óm-ali boz "grey", GEN bóz-un ~ bóz-na

However, monosyllabic words either starting with a vowel (VC or VRC) or which are open (CV) are stressed on the (first) suffix in inflection, cf.

(16) uli "eye", LOC uli-él, uli-él-χα urg "lamb", PL urgú-bə tṣ'a "fire", DAT tṣ'aj-is

As had been said above (2.1.2) labialization, palatalization, and pharygealization can at least partly be regarded as prosodic features in Tsakhur. This procedure which is typical for some other SECL is not yet well enough understood. However, there is clear evidence that in some cases lexical items are placed under a "pharyngealized" or "labialized" tone to contrast them with words in plain pronunciation. Moreover, this "tone" clearly depends on the pace of word stress: Only in vary rare instances the above mentioned secondary articulations start before a stressed syllable.

#### 2.1.6 Morphophonemics

Morphophonemic features play an important role in Tsakhur, especially in verb inflection. Ablaut phenomena met here are of relatively recent origin (resulting from the contraction of

LM/W 133 23 TSAKHUR

sonants and surrounding vowels. They shall be discussed in the appropriate chapter (cf. 4.7.2). However, in some cases (especially in noun inflection and in TAM formation) an older type of ablaut can be recorded (cf. ABS  $de\chi \sim di\chi$  "son", ERG  $du\chi e: \sim di\chi awe$ , GER.PRES -a vs. GER.PAST -u etc.). However, alternation of stem vowels is much rarer in Tsakhur than in many other ECL. In general, the nominal ablaut in SECL still needs an explanation.

#### 3. Word formation

The word formation of nouns in Tsakhur follows the general pattern of word formation in the Samur languages: Both suffixation and composition can be met. The following suffixes are more or less productive:

-aj ~ -a<sup>c</sup>j ~ ej ~ ij: A quite productive morpheme used for ethnonyms, family names, relatives, nomina agentis, nomina instrumenti etc. Very often the basic lexeme is no longer used, cf. jix-ij "a Tsakhur speaker", mutur-ij "Georgian", waz-aj "Wazaj" (fem. P.N., cf. waz "moon"), t'ik'-ij "a little wine-skin" (cf. arm. tik "wine-skin"), s'urt'ul-ij "gullet", did-ej "grand-mother", ab-aj "mother-in-law". The prototypical meaning of this suffix perhaps simply is relational, in some cases such as adam-ij "man" it seems to have a singulative function.

-lla ~-walla: Abstract nouns from adjectives: jig-walla "goodness", mek'-walla "youth", kasib-walla "poverty", bat'ra:-lla "beauty", G'uma:\(^1\)-lla "heat".

-ulaj ~laj: Nouns referring to specific properties of the basic lexeme:  $wa^rq^{r'}a^f$ -laj "simple minded" ( $wa^rq^{r'}a^f$ - "sheep"), jaba-laj "devoted" (cf. jaba "gelding"), q'otf'e-laj "gossip" (cf. q'otf'e "leathern bag").

-at'aj ~ t'aj: Same as -laj with a negative connotation wuxun-t'aj "glutton" (cf. wuxun "stomach"), n'as-ət'aj "quarrelsome" (cf. n'as "tear").

-ebaj ~ abaj ~ baj: Denominals referring to some characteristic features of the basic lexeme: <u>tsioj-ebaj</u> "burdened" (cf. sio < \*sioj "bear"), sile-baj "biting" (cf. sili "tooth"), yali-baj "gaper" (cf. yali "mouth").

-qan ~  $q^s a^s n$  ~ aqan: Nomina agentis (like the loans suffix -tfi (< az.  $\tilde{c}i$ ):  $jo^s x^s ra^s - q^s a^s n$  "miller"<sup>36</sup>, gew-aqan "shepherd" (cf. gew "sheep").

-alij ~ -lij: Nomina agentis:  $\sigma^{s}a^{s}n$ -alij "shepherd caring for milk sheep".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> This stress pattern is contrasted e.g. in Udi by a strong tendency towards an ultima accent (which can also be found in Kryz and Budukh). Thus Tsakhur behaves much more like the typical East Caucasian languages than those more southerly languages. - Kodzasov/Murav'eva 1982 have described tonal features (four tones) for Tabasaran, yet they seem not to have any functional value. During my fieldwork I never noted such a discriminating function of tones in SECL (nor do mention them the written sources, as far as I can see). In Tsakhur, stressed syllables tend to have a high pitch, which is eventually reserved for long vowels in Gelmets.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> Stress does not depend on the vowel quantity in Tsakhur. Thus short and long vowels can both be met in (un)stressed position.

<sup>35</sup> In fact, it is the theme vowel -e- which is stressed in the future tense forms, cf. below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> This is the form as given by Ibragimov 1990:84. Normally, "mill" is jox:  ${}^{5}a^{5}$ , and jox:  ${}^{5}a^{5}-q^{5}a^{5}n$  for "miller" has been confirmed by my informant.

LM/W 133

In many instances, case morphemes (genitive and locatives) are uses as word formation suffixes. Moreover, a number of loan suffixes (esp. from Azeri) has entered the Tsakhur paradigm (among others: -lo (nomina originis), -soz (\alpha-privativum), -dar (pers., only in loans). Composition involves two nouns, the first of which is either in the absolutive (rare) or in the genitive. Examples for genitives are ulena-x<sup>f</sup>afne "pupillary" (eye.GEN-star), k'orajn-xeb "temple" (ear.GEN-fundament), wuxnen-dan "navel" (stomach.GEN-cheek)<sup>37</sup>.

24

Finally, reduplication plays an important role in word formation. Either full reduplication appears, or only parts of the lexeme are reiterated (sometimes changed phonetically). Full reduplication is e.g. given in t'a-t'a: "stick", k'um-k'um "dish", var-var "empty nut", tf'iw-tf'iw "song-bird". Modifications are k'eli-k'am "liver", zəl-zam "milt", q'an-q'aj "raven". Prereduplication appears e.g. in sir-sifat "a kind", zir-zibili "fat", p'a p'al "bark of a fruit".

Verbal word formation is based on two principles: First, the metaphorical extension of preverbial forms (cf. 4.7.3), and second, nouns incorporation, cf. if-ha?as "to work" (work-to make), uba-ha?as "to kiss" (uba "kiss"), miz-ɔ<sup>r</sup>wx<sup>r</sup>a rs "to lick" (miz "tongue").

## 4. Inflectional Morphology

#### 4.1 Noun Classes

Except for Udi, Aghul, Lezgi, and Southern Tabasaran all SECL know a system of morphologically marked noun classification. By this is meant that nominal as well as pronominal referents are classified according to nowadays somewhat obscured semantic categories. The morphological means to encode this classification form the basis for agreement phenomena in the single languages. As the system of noun classification is one of the basic aspects of the morphosyntactic and morphosemantic operating systems of the languages, it will discussed in more detail here than the other linguistic categories.

Prototypically, all SECL in question operate on a four class system<sup>38</sup>, which is reduced only in Nothern Tabasaran (leading to a system of two classes). The semantic allocation of nouns with respect to the different classes today is highly formalized, though some specific features of the single classes can still be enumerated. The first class (CL I) includes only human males, sometimes also the names for superficial beings, cf. for Tsakhur:

(17) CL I: adamij "man", wəyəl<sup>j</sup> "male being", tfod3 "brother", deχ "son", dak<sup>j</sup> "father", didej "grandfather", gade "youngster", yenif "god", ida:g "prophet", mal<sup>j</sup>a?ik "angle".

CL II includes all female human beings, as well as some mythic names, cf.:

(18) CL II: xunaf:e "woman", jed<sup>j</sup> "mother", adej "grand-mother", mamasij "sister of father", itfij "girl", jitfi "sister", jif "daughter", sos "daughter-in-law", q<sup>f</sup>'a<sup>f</sup>j "concubine", tfenqij "prostitute", maqadzin "witch", tsitsij "doll".

Whereas the distribution within these two classes is quite predictable (at least in the SECL)<sup>39</sup>, the two remaining classes are far from having a clear semantic specification. Both classes include animals as well as different types of objects and abstract nouns. However it has been shown that the two classes can be seen as the poles of a (hierarchic) parameter, which is prototypically defined by the following cluster of features: {[±important];[±large];[±socially relevant];[±active]}. The more these features are activated within the (connotational) semantics of a noun, the more likely is its inclusion in CL III<sup>40</sup>. This prototypical system together with its radial extensions can be retrieved from many subparadigms within the vocabularies of the SECL, cf. e.g. the distribution of domestic animals and their young ones in Archi:

(19)	III		IV	
	x <sup>c</sup> on	cow"	bi∫	"calf"
	no⁵∫	horse"	uri	"foal"
	t∫'an	sheep"	t̞ł:'al	"lamb"
	ts'aj	goat"	motol	"kid"
	g <sup>w</sup> at∫i	dog"	k'onts'ol	"whelp"
	gatu	cat"	gatulin lo	"kitten"
	x:enne-heleku	hen"	helekulin lo	"chicken"

In Tsakhur, this parameter no longer functions on a synchronic level. (20) lists some words for each class in order to show the degree of formalization that the paradigms have already attained (CL IV includes only a small number of animals):

(20) CL III: q'arg "wether", g'ə'je "hare", dadal "cock", xotse "snake", uli "eye", gəməli "rheumatism", also "cloud", xiw "village", t'us' "twig", nawur "lake", sifat "face", d3ik'rə "tail", mets "wind", ma'ma's " wealth", wuk'uli "head", ə'mə'r "life".

CL IV. balus "fish", aslan "lion", a rdawa "drake",  $\chi \circ l^i$  "hand, arm", jik' "heart", ts'a "fire", jiz "snow", xan "water", jiwa "iron", kalle "head", bo t "tail", jaajif"life".

The assumption of four classes in Tsakhur as well as in the other SECL in question is based on a paradigm of agreement morphemes, which will be discussed below. However, it has to be stressed that many languages including Tsakhur use specific paradigms to encode quite different types of semantic subcategorization. Whereas the feature of class differentiation can be described as being basic for agreement morphemes, some morphosyntactic paradigms such as plural and case marking, attributive inflection and so on show a secondary tendency to use the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> This type appears especially for body part terms.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> The system of noun classification in the SECL is discussed e.g. by Alipulatov 1974, Xajdakaov 1980, Magometov 1980, Drossard 1982, K'axase 1984, Schulze 1988b, Schulze 1992, Schulze(-Fürhoff) 1992, and Schulze (in preparation).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> In Nothern Tabasaran these two classes are unified, now including all human beings (in the singular).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup> A semantic motivation for class III and IV has first been proposed by Mel'nikov/Kurbanov 1964 (for Tsakhur). However, their is system seems quite vague (they propose a parameter of "importance") and shall not be discussed here in detail. Kibrik et al. 1977:55-66 have tried to show that this parameter works at least partly also in Archi (though the distribution of nouns in Archi is influenced much more by secondary processes than e.g. that of Tsakhur). In Schulze 1992 I have argued that the overall principle of noun classification in the East Caucasian languages is the allocation of nouns according to the question to which degree their referents are thought to exert a controlled activity in society (cf. also Klimov 1977:29 who treats the distribution of CL III and CL IV in terms of his "active typology").

inherent semantic aspects for class differentiation. In Tsakhur this is especially true for the ergative case and for adjectives. Here, we can meet e.g. the following types of (overt) noun classification<sup>41</sup>:

26

(21)		Agreement	ERG	Adjectives	OBL SA <sup>42</sup>
	CL I	a	a	a	a
	CL II	a	a	a	ь
	CL III	b	ь	а	С
	CLIV	c	b	c	c

Thus, in case marking there is a strong tendency to separate male human beings from the rest of the referents, whereas with attributive adjectives most of the animates are subsumed in one class. This technique is probably old (and sometimes even reestablished in SECL) and can only be explained by assuming a period when the basic classificational procedures were still vital (when a specific subparadigm induces noun classification, this will be indicated in the following chapters).

The interaction singular and plural noun classes plays an important role in Tsakhur as well as in every SECL. Basically, the singular morphemes are used to encode plurals as well, referring to specific aspects of the singular class encoded by the morpheme. Plurals are less distinctive than singulars that refer to discrete entities. Thus we have a merger of classes in the plural by reducing the distinctiveness of the semantic features in question. Human and males and females are fused in one class ([asex;+hum]) and are encoded with the help of the singular class morpheme, that is next to class I and II in the hierarchy, i.e. by class III. The same holds for the plurals of class III and IV which merge into one class encoded by the singular class IV morpheme. (22) indicates the facts schematically:

(22) Singular: I 
$$<$$
 II  $<$  III  $<$  IV Plural: [I+II]

Because there is a decisive clear cut between the human classes I and II and the rest of the referents, the class markers used as plural morphemes thus establish a simple dichotomy, separating human beings from the other referents. The basic formula for the prototypical distribution of class markers in given in (23):

Tsakhur - as the other SECL - has varied this formula considerably. Historically, the single classes had been encoded by means of one morpheme each, cf. (24) which gives the proposed reconstruction of those morphemes for Proto-Lezgian:

LM/W 133

The technique of class marking based on the system in (24) which is generally covert in the SECL: the noun that triggers class marking is not marked itself<sup>43</sup>. The basic strategy for agreement is to mark those constituents in a phrase that are thought to stand in a close or central relation with a head noun. Outside the noun phrases agreement plays a considerable role with respect to syntactic functions. Normally, a verbs goes with a noun in subject function (mostly marked by the absolutive, see below). However, in some languages, an ergative marked noun can trigger class marking even outside the NP (e.g. on adverbs, dative pronouns and so on). In this case, we have to assume that class agreement does not depend on the subject function of a noun exclusively, but can be dominated by certain pragmatic features (standard topics, attention flow etc.).

The Tsakhur inventory of class markers is given in (25), the list is neutral with respect to distributional aspects:

(25) CL I: r, j, w, 
$$\emptyset$$
, e, a, u, -na, -da CL III: r, j,  $\emptyset$ , e, ə, -na, -da CL III: w, b, a:, e:, -na, -da CL IV: d, l, j, i,  $\emptyset$ , -n CL I/II.PL d, b, w, a:, e:, o, o:,  $\emptyset$  CL III/IV.PL d, j, w, i, a:,  $\emptyset$ 

The distribution of these morphemes together with informations on their degree of semantic distinctiveness is given in the appropriate chapters (see adjectives, pronouns, and verbs).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> The system here proposed is by no means complete. There are many subtypes to be observed in nearly every SECL. "a", "b", "c", and "d" symbolize any difference in the inventories of morphemes used for class marking, they do not indicate *real* class markers.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup> Oblique stem augments of nominalized adjectives (singular): CL I -c"-, CL III -c-, CL III/IV -tfi-, see below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>43</sup> There are, however, some important exceptions: As many other ECL, the Lezgian languages have used class markers to identify the sex e.g. of brothers/sisters, boys/girls and so on (cf. Archi ufdu "brother" (< \*w-of-du-w) vs. dofdur "sister" (< \*r-ofdu-r); Khinalug fi "son" (< \*w-ifii) vs. r-ifii "daughter" (Lezgi rif, Tabasaran rif, Aghul ruf, Rutul rof, Tsakhur jof, Kryz and Budukh rif, Archi difdur ("new-born daughter")). The system is much better preserved in the Nothern ECL and is based on old adjectives ("belonging to the same family", "young" etc.) - In Tsakhur nouns can be class marked secondarily when focused. But this is not a case of overt classification as the noun itself does not trigger the class marker, cf. 5.4.

#### 4.2 Nouns

#### 4.2.1 Number

Like Tsakhur, all SECL have a simple dichotomy, separating a plural from the singular. In some languages (e.g. in Udi) a tendency to encode collectives separately can be encountered. There is no clear evidence for a dual neither synchronically nor diachronically.

28

The SECL do not have means to indicate a nominal "singulative" morphologically, the singular is unmarked (at least in the absolutive). However, nominalized adjectives sometimes are marked with such a morpheme (see below). The plural morpheme itself is heavily allomorphic in many SECL (except the Eastern Samur languages)44. The reason for this can be a semantic classification (e.g. in Rutul), phonological or phonotactic restrictions, or simply a lexical distribution without any clear motivation. It has to be born in mind that many plural morphemes or allomorphs are restricted to the absolutive case. Plural marking with oblique cases can further complicate the paradigms. In these cases the languages in question show a considerably strong tendency away from agglutination towards a polyfunctional marking technique. Tsakhur plurals operate on the following set of morphemes/allomorphs:

The distribution of these elements is essentially based on the syllabic structure of nouns: -bo and -bu are used with nouns ending in open syllables, -er and -ar follow finals consonants. However, there are as many exceptions to these conditions as instances which match them, so that the given formulation must be taken with care. (27) lists a couple of examples:

(27)	Plural -bV:			Plural -Vr:	
	ak:a-bə xotʃe-bə do-bə sio-bu dam-mə k'ut'um-bə jats-bə t'et'-bə zer-bə	"dooryards" "snakes" "names" "bears" "cheeks" "kidneys" "bulls" "colors" cows"	(< *dam-bə) (< *k'ut'um-bə)	miz-ar balkan-ar et∫-er k'uk'-ar χiw-ar jiw-ar	"languages" "horses" "apples" "spoons" "villages" "trees"
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The system of plural marking in Tsakhur comes close to that of Rutul, but this language shows, that the distribution of -bV(r) vs. -Vr can be based on pure semantic reasons: Here the morphemes with labials are restricted to inanimates, and -Vr to animates. It is hard to decide,

whether the semantic systematization in Rutul is old or an innovation<sup>46</sup>. The morphemes themselves probably are of Proto-Lezgian origin, they can (at least) partly be traced in all SECL.

#### 4.2.2 Case System

LM/W 133

All case systems in the SECL are mainly based on three principles: First, they are basically ergative, opposing an ergative case to the absolutive. Second, a considerable number of nouns in inflected on the basis of a "stem augment" (SA), which sometimes is identical with the ergative case. Third, there is a relatively strong opposition between "functional" and "local" cases<sup>47</sup>.

Contrary to most other ECL, nouns in Tsakhur can be secondarily marked by class markers irrespective the case form in which they appear. The only restriction is that the noun must be in focus function. The class marked on the noun in question is determined by the syntactic role "subject" (hence nominal class agreement goes along with verbal class agreement, cf. 5.4). The general scheme would be:

If the noun in subject function of an intransitive sentence is topicalized itself, the resulting structure is somewhat alike an overt class marking technique (though secondary), cf. a sentence like

deγ-Ø-ər qar-ə son(I)FOC-ABS-I return-PAST "The BOY returned."

As for the functional cases, all SECL know an (unmarked) absolutive, an ergative, a genitive, and a dative. Contrary to Tsakhur the genitive is subcategorized according to the feature of (in)alienability in Kryz, Budukh, and (partly) in Khinalug, there are two functional relevant forms of the dative in Udi. The paradigm of case inflection in Tsakhur comes close to the Lezgian prototype, it has, however, reduced the system of stem augments considerably 48. Here a nominal SA -n- appears for nouns[-hum,+sg], cf. n/uq'-n- (OBL) "soil", n/uq-n- (OBL) "straw", n/ik'-n- (OBL) "dream", n/ik-n- (OBL) "milk". It is quite remarkable, but not yet explained, that in Tsakhur the SA -n- nearly exclusively appears with nouns of the structure nVCf+velar/uvular stop]. Nouns[+hum.+sg] have -aj- as a stem augment. Normally, SA starts with the ergative case, however, the SA -aj- may be excluded from this case, cf.:

<sup>44</sup> Topuria 1973, 1995 gives detailed information on the formation of plurals in the ECL.

<sup>45</sup> The morphemes in brackets have a very limited distribution (-app appears with paired body parts (ull-app "eves", xul-ap: "hands"), -ba ~ -abar is restricted to kinship terms (tfu-ba "brothers", jif-ba "daughters", diy-ba "sons", xən-abar "second born brothers/sisters")).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>46</sup> Cf. Ibragimov 1978:46-51 for details.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup> A quite recent overview on case inflection in the ECL is given by Topuria 1995.

<sup>48</sup> The system of stem augments in the SECL is somewhat simplified in Eastern Samur, Khinalug, and Udi, but highly allomorphic in Rutul, the Southern Samur languages, and Archi. The distribution of stem augments probably was semantically motivated in Proto-Lezgian (as it is still in the Nothern ECL). However, the different means (perhaps originally based on an opposition [±male(human)]) has been very much obscured in the single languages, so that nowadays it seems more appropriate to consider them lexicalized.

LM/W 133

(30)	ABS	ERG	OBL	
` ,	deχ ~ diχ	duχ-e:	duχ-aj-	"son"
	n <sup>j</sup> aq <sup>w</sup> '	nua*'-n-en	nuqw'-n-	"soil"

The ergative case in Tsakhur is semantically sensitive, it operates on the dichotomy [±human] (= class I/II vs. III/IV). Nouns [+human] are encoded by means of the morpheme  $-e \sim -e$ ; nouns [-human] are marked by  $-n \sim -an \sim -an$ , cf.:

30

(31)		ABS	ERG	
•	I	tʃoðʒ	tʃodʒ-e	"brother"
	II	ji∫	ji∫:-e	"daughter"
	Ш	χotʃe	χot∫e-n	"snake"
	IV	aslan	aslan-an	"lion"

In the plural the ergative marker -e is used exclusively. The genitive morpheme is highly functional in Tsakhur. It is sensitive for noun classes as well as for the syntactic role of the head noun. Regarding class we have a distinction between class I-III (-(V)na) and class IV (-(V)n) (the trigger is the (singular) head noun, if it is not inflected)<sup>50</sup>. If the head noun is inflected, the genitive morpheme is -(V)ni, regardless the class of the head noun. (29) gives the basic paradigm:

(32)	ABS	GEN	$[+NP_{ABS}]$	GEN	[+NP <sub>OBL</sub> ]
` '	t∫odʒ	tʃodʒ-na	[+ NP I]	t∫odʒ-ni	[+ NP I]
	"brother"	tʃodʒ-na	[+ NP II]	tʃodʒ-ni	[+ NP II]
	Or Other	tʃodʒ-na	[+ NP III]	tʃodʒ-ni	[+ NP III]
		tJodz-un	[+ NP IV]	tJodz-ni	[+ NP IV]

The following examples demonstrate the distribution of the different case forms:

q'urban-na t[od3 t['alag-a Ø-əxa-wu Qurban-GEN(I) brother(I).ABS wood-LOC I-be-PAST.CAUS "Because Ourban's brother was in the woods..."

> q'urban-na ji [t['alag-a j-ixa-wu Qurban-GEN(II) sister(II).ABS wood-LOC II-be-PAST.CAUS "Because Ourban's sister was in the woods..."

q'urban-ni tsod3-us kitab hi-wu Qurban-GEN<sub>OBL</sub> brother(I)-DAT book(IV).ABS IV.give-PAST.CAUS "Because he gave Ourban's brother the book..."

The dative (-(V)s) is one of the most consistent case morphemes in all SECL. Thus we have dak:i-s "to the father", dux-aj-s "to the son", jif:-es "to the daughter" etc. Just like in Tsakhur, it also forms the verbal infinitive with a quite strong telic meaning in most of the other SECL. Table (34) summarizes the case forms in the singular discussed so far:

In the plural case forms are added to the plural morpheme, which has a supplementary stem augment -/- in the oblique cases. To -/-, a foregoing -r- (plural) is assimilated, leading to the lengthening of a preceding vowel, cf.

(35)		SG	PL	
	ABS	t∫odʒ	t∫u-ba <sup>51</sup>	"brother"
	ERG	t[odz-e	tʃu-bi-∫-e	
	GEN	tʃodʒ-na/-un/-ni	tʃu-bi-ʃ-da/-in/-di <sup>52</sup>	
	DAT	tʃodʒ-us	tʃu-bi-ʃ-is	
		SG	PL	
	ABS	balkan <sup>53</sup>	balkan-ar	"horse"
	ERG	balkan-an	balkan-a:-ʃ:-e	
	GEN	balkan-ana/-an/-ani	balkan-a:-ʃ:-ina/-an/-ani	
	DAT	balkan-us	balkan-a:-ʃ:-is	

The system of local cases in Tsakhur is no longer as systematic as for instance in Lezgi or Tabasaran. These languages exhibit quite refined paradigm which iconically differentiates the relational setting of a trajector with respect to its landmark (called "series") from the type of movement that is exerted with respect to the landmark (called "case"). The local cases are

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup> deχ "son" has an alternative ERG diχ-aw-e (perhaps from \*diχ-aj-e:).

<sup>50</sup> There is a strong tendency in Tsakhur towards a formal and functional syncretism effecting the non-human ergative (-(V)n) and the genitive of class IV heads (-(V)n). This type of syncretism is often observed in ECL, especially in Lak, Dargwa, and the in pronominal systems of SECL, cf. Schulze 1997b for details. At least historically we can assume that the opposition of -e-marked and -n-marked ergatives mapping the dichotomy [+sg, ±human] was related to two different degrees of agentivity. Whereas a human agent was thought to have a high and autonomous control of a transitive action, non-human agents were seen much more in the light of a (natural) possessive structure (see 5.2.2).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>51</sup> The drop of -d3 in the plural forms is exceptional. The opposition of -ba (PL.ABS) and -bi- (PL.OBL) shows that in some cases the ABS is morphologically marked in Tsakhur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>52</sup> The genitives tfubifda and tfubifdi show the replacement of -na/-ni by -da/-di after palatal fricatives.

<sup>53</sup> This word is often thought to have a Proto-East Caucasian background (cf. Nikolavey/Starostin 1994:285 < \*bsaltkre "a big hoofed animal"), cf. lezg. balk'an, kryz. balkæn "horse". However, we might think of it as being a loan perhaps from Arabic (via Osmanic and/or Persian), cf. arab. ablaq "pied", pers. balay "pied horse", osm. eblaq "pied horse", belga: "mare with white trammels", balaq "pied", balkan could then stem from a Persian plural balay-am.

marked by the interaction of these two aspects. (36) gives a quite rough formula of the coding strategy:

32

(36)		Series	On	Under	In	In front of	Behind
. ,	Case		-a-	-b-	-c-	-d-	-e-
	<b>ESS</b>	-x	-ax	-bx	-cx	-dx	-ex
	ALL	-у	-ay	-by	-cy	-dy	-ey
	ABL	-z	-az	-bz	-cz	-dz	-ez

In Tsakhur this has been reduced to basically four local distinctions: Subessive, Superessive, Adessiv, and Inessive, cf.

(37)	Series	SUB	SUPER	AD	IN <sup>34</sup>
	Case	-Vk <sup>j</sup> -	-Vli-	-Vs-	-e:/-a:
	ESS -Ø ALL -qa ABL -(ntʃ)e	-Vk <sup>j</sup> -Vq:a -k <sup>j</sup> -e	-VI¹ -V-I-qa -VI³-e	[-Vs] -Vs-qa -Vs:-e	-e:/-a: -e:-qa/-a:-qa -e:-ntʃ-e -a:-ntʃ-e

The basic semantics of these complex forms are still vital in Tsakhur, though they are sometimes hard to discriminate. Most of the case forms can also be class marked, cf. 5.2. and the following examples:

t[od3 daxa-l-e-r gi?it['u ark'ən-na brother(I).ABS roof<sub>FOC</sub>-SUPER-ABL-I I.descend.PAST I.go-away-PAST.GEN "Having descended from the ROOF the brother went away."

t[od3-us:-e-b balkan alja-b-t'u brotherFoc-ABL-III horse(III).ABS PV-III-take.PAST "He took the horse from (his) BROTHER."

tsaj-e:-qa-d kabab-əs t[ura gix:-> fireFOC-ALL-IV shashlik-DAT meat(IV). ABS I/II(PL).lay-PAST "They laid the meat for the shashlik into the FIRE."

The trigger for class coordination always is the absolutive marked noun. In these cases class marking has focus function (basically, the "Daghestanian type" of CM being used). There is, however, a second paradigm of local cases, in which the markers of the series are followed by the class sensitive genitive morphemes. In these cases, the trigger noun is clearly definite. The following morphemes are used:

Subessive -k<sup>j</sup>-na/-in/-ni -li-na/-an/-ni Superessive

-l-qa-na/-n/-ni	Superessive/Ablative
-na-na/-n/-ni	Adessiv (membership) <sup>56</sup>
-s-ana-na/-n/-ni	Adessiv (location) <sup>57</sup>
-s-da/-in/-di	Dative (also used as a comparative)
-s-qa-na/-n/-ni	Adessive/Ablative

#### Cf. as an example:

LM/W 133

(40) jorka balkan-nana adamij q<sup>5</sup>'a<sup>5</sup>s qeqe-na de ambling horse-GEN.AD-I man old become FUT-I NEG "The man who has an ambler does not age."

> jug-na balkan-na-n yaw məs qeqe-n def good-III horse-GEN.AD-IV family(IV).ABS hunger become.FUT-IV NEG "The family (lit. "home") which has a good horse, will not suffer from hunger."

There are another two cases which structurally belong to the paradigm of local cases which, however, own a quite specific semantics: -Vk"a is used as a comitative, whereas -Vk'-le encodes certain experiencers in so-called affective constructions, cf.:

dak:-ikwa-r jedi idak'ən-na father-COM-II mother(II).ABSFOC II.NEG.go-out-PAST.GEN "MOTHER did not go out with (our) father."

> jed-ik'le urus miz w-ats'a wo-b mother-AFF Russian language(III). ABS III-know.PRES AUX.PRES-III "Mother knows Russian."

#### 4.3 Adjectives

As had been said before, adjectives are not inflected as attributes in many SECL. Some languages still allow class agreement, especially Western Samur and Archi. When nominalized the adjectives often follow the inflectional paradigm of nouns, however, there are considerable peculiarities to be observed. Tsakhur itself shows one of the most complex system of adjective inflection in all SECL. The attributive of a nominal head agrees with its head according to different paradigms. The most productive system is based on the above mentioned genitive morphemes, it classifies nouns according to the inferential feature [±important]. The distribution is given in (43):

(43)	SG			PL	
	I	a	[+important]	d	[aimportant]
	II	а	[+important]	d	[aimportant]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>56</sup> Probably a doubled genitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>54</sup> Only used with nouns [-anim].

<sup>55</sup> The morpheme -q:a resulted from a contraction of the group \*-k\(^1\)-qa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>57</sup> Adessive plus doubled genitive.

Ш	а	[+important]	d	[aimportant]
IV	d	[-important]	d	[aimportant]

Accordingly, there is a sharp clear cut between the first three classes (prototypically [+anim;+singular]) (-na) and the rest, including all plurals (-na). As with genitives, the dichotomy is canceled in the oblique cases (-ni), cf.:

(44)	ABS I II III IV	SG jug-na gade jug-na xuna∫:e jug-na carg jug-un χaw	PL jug-un gade-bi jug-un jedar <sup>58</sup> jug-un carg-əbə jug-un xaj-bə	"nice boy" "nice woman" "beautiful wether" "beautiful house"
	ERG I II III IV	SG jug-ni gade: jug-ni xunaʃ:e: jug-ni garg-an jug-ni aw-an	PL jug-ni gade-bi∫:e jug-ni jeda:∫:e jug-ni carg-əbi∫:e jug-ni χa <sup>j</sup> -bi∫:e <sup>59</sup>	"nice boy" "nice woman" "beautiful wether" "beautiful house"

The NPs showing this type of agreement mostly involve so-called relational adjectives, some of which are simply nominal genitives<sup>60</sup>. Especially with loan adjectives which can also be used without any agreement morpheme, this type of classification can indicate definiteness, cf.<sup>61</sup>:

(45)	kasib adamij	"poor man"
	kasib-na adamii	"the poor man (of whom I talked)"

The genitive based type of agreement within NPs competes with the original, East Caucasian paradigm of noun classification, which in Tsakhur has undergone considerable changes. This type, already addressed in chapter 4.2.1 appears in two variants: 1) class marker as a prefix, 2) class marker as a suffix. The so-called short adjectives in Tsakhur are marked by suffix CM plus a final -a (probably an old auxiliary \*-q'a); they often appear as predicative adjectives or as adverbs, cf.:

(46)		SG	PL	
	I	jug-r-a	jug-b-a	"(is) good"
	II	jug-r-a	jug-b-a	
	Ш	jug-b-a	jug-d-a	
	IV	ina-d-a	iug-d-a	

<sup>58</sup> jedar (itself jed-ar "mothers") is the suppletive plural of xuna se "woman".

In the plural, the class marking follows the canonical type of East Caucasian (cf. again (22)). An innovation of Tsakhur is the syncretism of the singular classes I and II, which creates a subclass [+human]. A restricted number of adjectives combines the two procedures mentioned so far, cf.:

(47)		SG	PL	
	I	ts'ele-r-na adamij	ts'ele-b-ən adam-er	"naked man"
	II	ts'ele-r-na xunas:e	ts'ele-b-ən jedar	"naked woman"
	Ш	ts'ele-b-na balkan	ts'ele-d-ən balkan-ar	"miserable horse"
	IV	ts'ele-d-ən gel <sup>j</sup>	ts'ele-d-ən gel <sup>j</sup> -bə	"naked leg"

Contrary to the genitive based class marker, the CM of the East Caucasian type are preserved in the oblique cases, too (cf. <u>ts'elemi adame:</u>, <u>ts'elemi xunaf:e:</u> etc.). Used as prefixes, however, a decisive sound change has taken place, which led to the syncretism of class I and class IV, cf.:

(48)		SG	PL	
	I	Ø-ək'ar-na adamij	w-uk'ar-an adam-er	"ill man"
	II	j-ik'ar-na xunaʃ:e	w-uk'ar-an jedar	"ill woman"
	III	w-uk'ar-na balkan	Ø-ək'ar-an balkan-ar	"ill horse"
	IV	Ø-ək'ar-an cel <sup>j</sup>	Ø-ək'ar-an gelj-bə	"ill leg"

Synchronically we thus can observe two different types of classification based on the paradigm of East Caucasian class markers. Whereas the suffixed type probably has some semantic reality, the classification by prefixes is purely formal (at least in the singular). When nomina-lized the adjectives of most SECL undergo quite complex operations of case inflection, cf. the paradigm given for Tsakhur ts'er-na "the new one" (here only class I is given for the cases):

(49)	SG					PL				
		$CM_1$	$CM_2$	SA	Case		$CM_1$	$CM_2$	SA	Case
ABS	ts'e	-r	-na	-Ø	-Ø	ts'e	-b	-ən	-Ø	-Ø
ERG	ts'e	-r	-un	-Gw	-e:	ţş'e	-b	-ən	-bi∫:	-е
GEN	ts'e	-r	-un	-G <sup>₩</sup>	-CM <sub>2</sub>	ţş'e	-b	-ən	-bi∫:	-CM <sub>2</sub>
DAT	ts'e	-r	-un	-G <sup>w</sup>	-əs	ts'e	-b	-ən	-bif:	-is

The whole paradigm without further analysis is given in (50):

(50)	SG		Ι.	II	III	IV
	ABS		ts'erna	ts'erna	ts'erna	ts'erən
	ERG		ts'erungwe	ts'erance	ts'ebənt∫in	ts'edənt∫in
	GEN	I	ts'erunguna	ts'erancana	ts'ebont[ina	ts'edəntsina
		II	ts'erunguna	ts'erəncəna	ts'ebəntsina	ts'edənt∫ina
		Ш	ts'erunguna	ts'erəncəna	ts'ebənt∫ina	ts'edənt∫ina
		IV	ts'erungun	ts'erəngən	ts'ebənt∫in	ts'edənt[in
		PL	ts'erunguni	ts'erəngəni	ts'ebənt[ini	ts'edənt∫ini
		III IV	ts'erunguna ts'erunguna ts'erunguna ts'erungun	ts'erancana ts'erancana ts'erancana ts'erancan	ts'ebentsina ts'ebentsina ts'ebentsina ts'ebentsin	ts'edəntʃina ts'edəntʃina ts'edəntʃina ts'edəntʃina

<sup>59</sup> yaw "house" has its labial regularly changed to -j- before the plural morpheme.

Examples are numerous, cf. ituna "sweet" (it" "honey"), bofuna "deaf" (bof "deafness"); in some cases these adjectives are derived participles (akanna "beloved", dikaranna "small", benanna "drunken").

<sup>61</sup> The suffix -na ~ -n also appears with demonstratives to indicate exact reference, cf. hama-na "just that one", ina-na "just this one" etc.

DAT		ts'erungus	ts'erəncəs	ts'ebənt∫is	ts'edənt∫is
PL ABS ERG GEN	I II III IV PL	I  g'ebən  g'ebənbife  g'ebənbifda  g'ebənbifda  g'ebənbifin  g'ebənbifin  g'ebənbifii	II  g'ebən  g'ebənbife  g'ebənbida  g'ebənbida  g'ebənbifin  g'ebənbifin  g'ebənbifii	III  tg'edən  tg'edəntfile  tg'edəntfina tg'edəntfina tg'edəntfin tg'edəntfin tg'edəntfini tg'edəntfis	IV  g'edənt ije g'edənt ina g'edənt ina g'edənt ina g'edənt ina g'edənt in g'edənt ini g'edənt ini

(50) shows that - as in many other ECL - the nominalization strategy in Tsakhur operates on a decisive dichotomy in the oblique cases, which separates humans from non humans in both numbers. Again, humans are marked for [±mask]. The following morphemes - used as stem augments - appear:

(51)		SG	PL
` ,	[+mask;+hum]	-G <sup>w</sup> -	-ʃ-
	[-mask;+hum]	-G-	-J-
	[-hum]	-tʃi-	-tʃi-

This type of nominalization also works for pronouns, numerals and so on and represents one of the basic strategies to classify referents in oblique functions. It can be shown that the stem augments probably represent older ergative morphemes<sup>62</sup> which led to a secondary type of classification competing with that one used with absolutives. The opposition SA[+mask] - c"vs. SA[+fem] -G- is obviously based on a strategy to mark a "male connotation" through labialization (whereas the "female" semantics is left unmarked). Perhaps this labial element is related to the (old) class marker PL \*-w- ([+mask,+hum]), though its position would be quite unexpected. One assumption is that this morphemic cluster results from a time when the proto-language (PEC?) did not discriminate the functional cases ergative, genitive, and dative, instead using an obliquus for all of them. Hence we would have had a pair ABS \*NOUN-Ø vs. OBL \*NOUN[+mask;+hum]-o(2)-w. However, the fact that the feminine (CL II) is left unmarked (instead of a hypothetical form  $*-G^j - < *G(2)-j$ ) seems to question this assumption<sup>63</sup>.

#### 4.4 Pronouns

LM/W 133

#### 4.4.1 Personal Pronouns

The paradigm of personal pronouns in Tsakhur should be treated in the light of Proto-Lezgian. In general, the system of indexing speech act participants (SAP) in SECL is based on the distinction between <SPEAKER> and <HEARER>, both singular and plural. Historically, the proto-language knew the discrimination of "inclusive" ("I/we plus you") vs. "exclusive" ("I/we plus them (without you)"). This system has been structurally preserved in Tabasaran, Aghul, Khinalug, Archi, and (partly) in Southern Samur, though Archi (and perhaps Khinalug) have developed formally new inventories<sup>64</sup>. As for case marking, some SECL show the (functionally expected) syncretism of absolutive and ergative<sup>63</sup>. It must be said, however, that the reconstruction of the inflectional paradigm of personal pronouns in Proto-Lezgian hints at a quite systematic differentiation between absolutive (marked \*-Ø or \*-n) and ergative (marked by the "pronominal ergative" \*-a)66. In this respect the Tsakhur dialect behaves quite innovating: It has given up both the inclusive/exclusive and the case dichotomy. The paradigm is give in (52):

(52)		ABS	ERG	GEN
	1	zə	zə	jiz-da / jiz-ən / jiz-di
	2	Rn	Rn	jir-ua / jir-ən / jir-ni
	4	ſi ∼ ſ:i	ſi ∼ ſ:i	jiʃ-da / jiʃ-in / jiʃ-di
	5	ſu	ſu	wuʃ-da / wuʃ-ən / wuʃ-di

Table (53) contrasts this system with the paradigm proposed for Proto-Lezgian:

(53)		Tsakhur (7	ſs.)	Proto-Lezgian		
		ABS	ERG	ABS	ERG	
	1	zə	zə	*z <sup>w</sup> ə-	*z <sup>w</sup> ə-a	
	2	ĸu	RO	*R <sub>*</sub> 9-	*r <sub>*</sub> 5-a	
	4i	ſi ∼ ſ:i	ſi ∼ ſ:i	*xiə-	*x:ə-a	
	4e			*ʒiə-	*ʒ <sup>j</sup> ə-a	
	5	∫u	ſu	*3 <sup>w</sup> ə-	<b>*</b> ʒ <b>*</b> ʻə-a	

The dialect of Gelmets has reestablished the ABS/ERG-dichotomy (perhaps under influence from Rutul), cf. 67:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>62</sup> An assumption that is based on the hypothesis that once the East Caucasian proto-language had a simple category "obliquus", which stood in binary opposition against the absolutive (casus rectus), and which was subcategorized lateron (cf. Topuria 1995 for details).

<sup>63</sup> It should be noted that the opposition "labial" > [+mask] vs. "non labial" > [+fem] can also be traced in the lexicon of Proto-Lezgian. Thus we can reconstruct a form \*f"a- "man" (e.g. Aghul xuj ~ fuj ~ ["ui, Kryts firi, Budukh furi, Udi ic(u), perhaps Tsakhur jer "man") which stands against \*10-(-n/d-) "woman" (> Tsakhur xuna-f:e "woman", xər-un (< \*xəd-un) "little woman").

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>64</sup> For the system of personal pronouns in the SECL and in Proto-Lezgian see Schulze 1997b and the bibliography given there.

This "expectation" is based on the well-known Silverstein Hierarchy and is well attested in many ergative languages. The basic claim is that SAP are prototypically agentive and that in the cognitive representation of States of Affair the "view point" is naturally based on the (agentive) SAP if present.

<sup>66</sup> Cf. Schulze 1997a for details, Within SECL, a dichotomy ABS/ERG (sometimes restricted to certain SAP) is found in Lezei. Tabasaran (only in verbal inflection), Aghul (only dialect of Richa), Rutul (partly), Archi (only SAP(1)), and Khinalug (only singular).

<sup>67</sup> See Ibragimov 1990:193-194, žeiranišvili 1984:558.

(54) Tsakhur (Gelmets):

	ABS	ERG	GEN
1	zə	za-s:a	zəni
2	Rn	wa-s:e <sup>68</sup>	jອ <sub>ເ</sub> ຂ,ua ∖ -ວມ
4	ſ:i	∫:a-s:a	ji∫na / -ən
5	Ĵu	∫wa-s:æ69	ju∫na / -un

The forms of the ergative are isomorphic with those e.g. in Mukhad (Rutul). The (innovated) suffix -sx ~-sxe follows the old pronominal ergative marker -a, the distribution of which still reflects the Proto-Lezgian conditions. As compared to Tsakhur (dialect of Tsakhur) the Gelmets paradigm seems to be older (though the ergative morpheme itself is surely an innovation). Tsakhur has reduced the whole system, whereas Gelmets still strengthened the ergative organization of the paradigm. For Proto-Tsakhur we can assume the following system of personal pronouns:

38

(55) Proto-Caxur:

	ABS	ERG
1	*zə	*zə-a
2	*R_5	*R*3-a
4i/e	*x:i	*x:i-a
5	*∫u	*ʃu-a

## 4.4.2 Demonstrative Pronouns

Just like the system of personal pronouns, the demonstrates should be explained with the help of Proto-Lezgian. The prototypical paradigm of demonstratives in the SECL represents a system of indexing trajectors in landmarks established from the point of view of the speaker. Historically, they were not sensitive for any SAP orientation. As many other ECL some SECL subcategorize the (horizontal) distal relation vertically, referring to entities far away from the speaker, but higher or lower as himself. This system is not preserved in all SECL, its basic paradigm for Proto-Lezgian is given in (56)<sup>70</sup>:

Proximal	*mV-
Distal (horizontal)	*dV-
	*Gu- / *ĸu-
Distal (lower)	*gu-
	Proximal Distal (horizontal) Distal (higher) Distal (lower)

<sup>68</sup> Surely developed from \**B*\*\**a-s:e*.

<sup>70</sup> Cf. Schulze 1997b for details.

Tsakhur uses the following deictic pronouns which, however, no longer reflect a vertical orientation<sup>71</sup>.

(57)	1	ina (I-III) / in (IV)	SAP(1)	"this here"
	1'	hajna (I-III) / hajin (IV)		"this exactly here"
	2	mana (I-III) / man (IV)	SAP(2)	"that"
	2'	hamana (I-III) / haman (IV)		"exactly that"
	3	fena (I-III) / fen (IV)	$\neg SAP$	"that over there"
	3'	hoʃina (I-III) / hoʃin (IV)		"exactly that over there"

The basic structure reveals a tripartite system, which historically was not dependent of the location of speech act participants, but reflected the speaker's subjective interpretation of a referent's location, cf. 72:

(58)	Proximal	i-
	Medial	ma-
	Distal	ſе- <sup>73</sup>

LM/W 133

ma-n-/fe-n- also encode the opposition [+visible] (man-) vs. [-visible] (fen-). The inflection of the nominalized demonstrative pronouns is basically that of the adjectives (cf. 4.3) The table in (59) lists the absolutive, ergative, and genitive forms of the pronoun ma-n- (the other pronouns are inflected analogically):

(59) ma-n- [2, medial, [+visible]]:

	ABS	ERG	GEN
I	ma-na	man-rw-e 74	mau-kn-ua / -u
П	ma-na	man-ĸ-e	man-kə-na / -n
Ш	ma-na	man-tʃ-ən	man-tʃə-na / -n
IV	ma-n	man-tʃ-ən	man-tʃə-na / -n

## 4.4.3 Reflexives<sup>75</sup>

Syntactic reflexivity in quite marginal in the SECL, as generally expected for patient oriented systems of ergativity. Still, every SECL has a specific reflexive pronoun that is basically used to emphasize the role of the agent (much rarer that of the patient or addressee). Lezgian lan-

<sup>69</sup> Kibrik/Kodzasov 1990:223 mention a 2.PL ERG only for Mikik (fo-s:e). 3eiranišvili 1984:559 has fe (<

<sup>\*</sup>fi-æ). The form f"asæ was confirmed by my informants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>71</sup> There are many free variants of these demonstratives (e.g. himan-instead of haman-) which are hard to systematize.

To all pronouns secondary emphatic particles can be added.
 Tsakhur fe-forms an important isoglosse with Udi fe-(distal, only nominalized).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>74</sup> The SA -g<sup>w</sup> and -g- often become -y<sup>w</sup>- and -y- after nasals.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>75</sup> Comparative research on reflexives in the SECL is still needed. Some general (and preliminary) informations on the single language paradigms, on the degree of their functionality, and on their Proto-Lezgian background is given by Schulze 1997b.

guages that tend towards a strong accusativization of their operating system often use this pronoun as a subject based, "true" reflexive<sup>76</sup>.

40

In some languages the reflexive pronoun is subcategorized either according to the question whether it refers to SAP or not, or with respect to semantic criteria ([ $\pm$ human] or [ $\pm$ mask]). In the absolutive class differentiation is common, though not always functionally preserved. A good example is the system of Rutul (Mukhad)<sup>77</sup>, which is based on the pronoun \*- $d_3$ " $a_7$ -(absolutive)<sup>78</sup>:

(60)		I	II	Ш	IV	PL
()	ABS	wud3	ridʒ	wid3	jidʒ	d₃ <sup>w</sup> ær
	ERG	dzu-da	dzi-dæ	dʒi-dæ	dzi-dæ	dʒ <sup>w</sup> ær-∫-æ
	GEN	dʒu-du	dʒi-də	dʒi-də	dʒi-də	dʒ <sup>w</sup> ær-∫-də
	DAT	dzu-s	dzi-s	₫ʒi-s	dzi-s	dʒ <sup>w</sup> ær-∫-is

In Tsakhur the paradigm is somewhat more complex. First, the class differentiation shows a very exceptional distribution of Class I+III vs. II+IV (absolutive singular only)<sup>79</sup>; second, the sexus differentiation of human referents is kept in the ergative, and third, there is a strong dichotomy to be observed between human and non human referents in the oblique cases (\*43"-2;-vs. \*tfi-). As in many other SECL the inflectional paradigm is that of nouns. Also note that the OBL of non human referents (tfi-) is the same as the SA [-hum] (-tfi-), cf.

(61)	SG	I	II	Ш	IV
()	ABS	wud3 <sup>80</sup>	jidʒ	wudʒ	jidz
	ERG	wudz-e:	jid3-e:	t∫i-n	t∫i-n
	GEN	dʒu-nan	dze-nan	t∫i-nan	t∫i-nan
		dʒu-ni	dze-ni	t∫i-ni	t∫i-ni
	DAT	dzu-s	dze-s	t∫i-s	t∫i-s
	PL	1/11	PL III/IV		
	ABS	ქვი <sup>81</sup>	jidz-bə		
	ERG	<b>d</b> 30	tʃi-n		
	GEN	d30-nan	t∫i-nan		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>76</sup> On this cf. chapter 5.3.

	d30-ni	t∫i-ni
DAT	d30-s	t∫i-s

#### 4.4.4 Interrogative Pronouns

LM/W 133

As most other Lezgian languages, Tsakhur has to different paradigms of referential interrogatives, encoding the opposition [±human]. In the plural only the absolutive pronouns are marked, which is another argument for the basically patient oriented ergativity in Tsakhur, see below. The paradigms for "who" and "what" are given in (62):

(62)		SG		PL	
` ′		"who"	"what"	"who"	"what"
	ABS	ha∫:u-ne	hidʒo:-ne	ha∫-bə-ne	hidzo-bə-ne
	ERG	∫aw-a-ne <sup>82</sup>	ni∫-e-ne	∫aw-a-ne	ni∫-e-ne
	GEN	∫aw-na-ne	ni∫-ina-ne	∫aw-na-ne	ni∫-ina-ne
		∫aw-ən-ne	ni∫-in-ne	∫aw-ən-ne	ni∫-in-ne
		∫aw-ni-ne	ni∫-ini-ne	∫aw-ni-ne	ni∫-ini-ne
	DAT	∫aw-us-ne	ni∫-is-ne	∫aw-us-ne	ni∫-is-ne

The absolutive forms are marked by a deictic element ha-, which has become hi- in the non-human question word out of analogy (OBL nif-). The final morpheme -ne is an innovation of Tsakhur. With the help of this element the speaker directly questions a SAP(2), whereas -je asks for a  $\neg$ SAP (via SAP(2)), cf.:

(63) has:u-ne ma: who.ABS-Q there "Who is there?"

> ho:ra Ø-ats'a-xe haʃ:u-je ak:a-s I.go.IMP I-know.PRES-COND who-Q dooryard-AD.ESS "Go (to) know who is (there) in the dooryard!" 83

The element ne- also forms the basis for the expression of "which (one)". The interrogative nen- is composed out of the original question particle ne-, to which the attributive (definite) class markers (-na/-n) are added. It is inflected like nominalized adjectives, cf.:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>77</sup> Cf. Ibragimov 1978:79f.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>78</sup> Borch-Khnov has neutralized the class differentiation on the basis of the highly unmarked class III (wid3).

This distribution is based on phonetic reasons only: CL III < \*b-ud3, CL IV < \*dLid3 < \*d-id3). But note that the reflexive pronoun is the only instance in which the old PL distinction of CL I and CL II markers is still preserved. The vocalism in the oblique cases reflects this opposition: The ergative form had its accent on the root whereas the other case forms were accentuated on the suffix. This let to the loss of the first vowel and to the reduction of the second one which then was colored according to the phonetics of the CM (\*w-d3-n4n) > \*u-d3-n4n) > d3u-n4n0 etc.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>80</sup> Gelmets has ABS 8113, ERG 8113e, perhaps composed out of \*811-+ \*-d30-. Else, the paradigm equals that of the dialect of Tsakhur.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>81</sup> d30 is a reflex of the "simple" stem \*-d3'''3- joint by the plural morpheme -a (> \*d3''a> d30). The hypothetical plural ergative \*d3'''3-a-e (> \*d3'''a-e > \*d30-e) has been substituted by the absolutive form out of phonetic reasons.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>82</sup> The old pronominal a-ergative is preserved with (potential) human referents. The use of the nominal ERG[+hum] (-e) for "what" ([-hum]) is probably based on the fact that asking for a potential agentive non human being still refers to its possible function to control a transitive action.

<sup>83</sup> Both particles also function as indicators of yes/no-questions (cf. χaij-e dak/(house.LOC-Q father.ABS)
"Is the father at home?"). They are then cliticized to the word questioned, and differ in this respect e.g. from the Udi question particle -a, which is restricted to third persons.

(64) ABS ERG GEN DAT	"Which (one)" SG I nena-ne nen-gw-e:-ne nen-gu-na-ne nen-gu-ni-ne nen-gu-ni-ne nen-gu-s-ne	II nena-ne nen-G-e:-ne nen-G-ena-ne nen-G-eni-ne nen-G-en-ne	III nena-ne nen-tʃi-ne nen-tʃi-na-ne nen-tʃi-ni-ne nen-tʃi-s-ne	IV nen nen-tʃi-ne nen-tʃi-na-ne nen-tʃi-ni-ne nen-tʃi-ni-ne
ABS ERG GEN	PL I + II nen-ba-ne nen-bi-ʃ-e-ne nen-bi-ʃ-da-ne nen-bi-ʃ-in-ne nen-bi-ʃ-di-ne nen-bi-ʃ-is-ne	III + IV nen-bə-ne nen-tʃi-ʃ-e-ne / nen- nen-tʃi-na-ne nen-tʃi-n-ne nen-tʃi-ni-ne nen-tʃi-s-ne	tʃi-n-ne	

#### 4.5 Numerals

In this section first the cardinals for 1 - 10 and 20 are given together with the reconstructed forms of Proto-Lezgian (dialectal variants are mostly neglected):

"One":

Lezgi sad, Tabasaran sa-w, Aghul szar / sad, Rutul sa-, Tsakhur sa-, Archi os PL \*sa-: (ATTR s:ei-), Krvz sa-, Budukh s-, Khinalug sa-, Udi sa.

"Two":

Lezgi  $q^{w'}$ æd, Tabasaran  $q^{s'}u$ -, Aghul  $q^{s'}u$ r, Rutul  $q^{sw'}a$ -, Tsakhur  $q^{s'}o$ -, Archi PL \*q'w'a: asw'e-, Kryz aw'a-, Budukh a'a-, Khinalug k'u-, Udi p'as.

"Three":

Lezgi pud, Tabasaran sibbu-, Aghul subur (Burkhikan), xibud (Richa), Rutul PL \*/2b2-: xiibo-, Tsakhur xeb-, Archi feb-, Kryz fibo-, Budukh fubu-, Khinalug phfwa-, Udi xib.

"Four":

Lezgi q'ud, Tabasaran jaq:'u-, Aghul jaq'ud/r, Rutul juqu-, Tsakhur joqu-, PL \*//baq\*\*'a-: Archi eba'a-, Kryz jug'u-, Budukh jug'u-, Khinalug phxu-, Udi bip'.

"Five":

Lezgi wad, Tabasaran xu-, Aghul jif wur / safud, Rutul xu-, Tsakhur xo-, Archi PL \*f"a-: ko-, Kryz fo-, Budukh fu-, Khinalug pxu-, Udi qo.

"Six":

PL \*(jo)rol"o-: Lezgi rogid, Tabasaran jirxu-, Aghul jerxid, Rutul rixe-, Tsakhur jixe-, Archi dil-, Kryz rəxə-, Budukh rəxə-, Khinalug zækh-, Udi ufq.

"Seven":

LM/W 133

PL \* w/jərk-: Lezgi erid, Tabasaran ursu-, Aghul yerer/d, Rutul jiwe-, Tsakhur jiye-, Archiwith, Kryz jiyo-, Budukh jiji-, Khinalug jik', Udi wu'k.

"Eight":

PL \*mərk-: Lezgi mizid, Tabasaran mizzi-/mizzu-, Aghul mujar/d, Rutul moje-, Tsakhur moli-, Archi metle-, Kryz miye-, Budukh mojo-, Khinalug 1k', Udi mu's.

"Nine":

PL \*v/wət/"'-: Lezgi tf'yd Tabasaran hurt/"'u-, Aghul jert/"'u-, Rutul hut/'u-, Tsakhur ju'tf'u-, Archi utf'-, Kryz iitf'i-, Budukh witf'i-, Khinalug joz, Udi wuj.

"Ten":

PL \*y/wəts'-: Lezgi ts'yd, Tabasaran jits'u-, Aghul jic'ur/d, Rutul jits'e-, Tsakhur jitsə'-, Archi wits'-, Kryz jits'o-, Budukh jots'o-, Khinalug jæ?iz, Udi wits'.

"Twenty":

PL \*q:a-/\*ca-: Lezgi q:ad, Tabasaran q:a-/ca-, Aghul q:ar/d, Rutul ca:-, Tsakhur ca-, Archi q'a-, Kryz Ga-, Budukh qa-, Khinalug q'an-, Udi q'a.

The numerals 21 and higher are formed on the basis of ca-(20), xebts'al' (30), jog'ts'al' (40),  $xots'al^{j}$  (50),  $jaxts'al^{j}$  (60),  $jiyts'al^{j}$  (70),  $molits'al^{j}$  (80), and  $ju'tf'a'l^{j}$  ( $< *ju'tf'-ts'al^{j}$ ) (90). For 11-19 the following forms are used: jits'əss:a- (11), jits'əq'w'a- (12), jits'əxeba-(13), jits'a:q\*"a- (14), juts'ux:a- (15), jits'ijxa- (16), jits'ijya- (17), jits'əmole- (18), iits'iitf' af- (19). The basic counting system is TEN+X for the tens, and X-TEN-SUPER.ESS-X (e.g. "three on ten [and] two" = 32) for the twenties and higher<sup>84</sup>.

When used attributively all numerals except was "hundred" add the morpheme -le to the class marked stem, which is assimilated if possible. Thus we have q<sup>c</sup>'o<sup>c</sup>-b-le zer "two cows", xei-ib-le zer "three cows" etc. In the oblique cases, class markers and -le are replaced by the OBL morpheme  $-ni(a^{r}/o^{r}-ni/xeb-ni/zer)$ . As it can be seen the numerals do not invoke a nominal plural which is an economic procedure common to most SECL (except for Udi which sometimes uses plurals with animate nouns).

Ordinal numbers are indicated with the help of the suffix -esda (I-III) ~ -eson (IV) which - as in many ECL - is derived from the verb e-hes "to say". The numeral itself is inflected by class markers. Thus we have:

"The first one" (64) I sa-r-esda II sa-r-esda Ш sa-p'-esda < \*sa-b-hesda IV sa-t'-esən < \*sa-d-hesda

In many instances, the Tsakhur ordinals are replaced by their Russian or Azeri counterparts.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>84</sup> Ibragimov 1990:94 assumes that the element -l<sup>j</sup> in -ts'al<sup>j</sup> results from a "neutralized CM", which is neither structurally nor morphologically understandable. The prefix (?) ji- is dropped in the decades.

#### 4.6 Adpositions

As all other SECL languages Tsakhur knows a quite complex system of (mostly local) postpositions. In many cases they can be regarded as grammaticalized nouns, often additionally marked by (local) case suffixes. (65) lists some of these postpositions which have their nominal head either in the genitive or in a (appropriate) local case:

44

awu-r (I/II), awu-b (III), awu- (IV) (65)"under" "on" "onto" o:qa "from above" ointfe "between" æræ "after" diira "aside" suralj ar (I/II), ab (III), ad (IV) "in" "till"

The class marked postpositions are triggered by a noun in the absolutive ("class attraction"),

daki yaj-ən a-r wo-r-or (66)father(I).ABS house-GEN in-I AUX-I-PRES.CONF.I "Father is at home."

> kitab sandux-ən a-b wo-b-ob book(III).ABS box-GEN in-III AUX-III-PRES.CONF.III "The book is in the box."

balux xian-on a-d wo-d-od fish(IV).ABS water-GEN in-IV AUX-IV-PRES.CONF.IV "The fish is in the water."

#### 4.7 Adverbs

Most of the adverbs in Tsakhur are derived from either adjectives or nouns marked by a locative (such as Gij-na "today", Gij-qa "tomorrow", əxa-li "in the evening", and many local adverbs). However, there are some (tough very few) non derived adverbs, e.g. o'ej- "much", sana- "together", ts'ele- "naked", dioles "near", k'ane "near", qijha "in the future". Adverbs derived from adjectives are marked by a suffix CM (-r, -r, -b, -d) instead of the attributive suffix -na/-Vn (cf.  $\ni k'$ -r-a (I,II),  $\ni k'$ -b-a (III),  $\ni k'$ -d-a (IV) "quickly" (vs.  $\ni k'$ -na  $\sim \ni k'$ - $\ni n$ "quick"). The class marked adverbs always agree with the syntactic function "subject", i.e. with the absolutive marked noun phrase, cf.

dex ək'-ra maktab-e:qa qarə son(I).ABS quickly-I school-IN.ALL I.come.PAST "The son came quickly to school."

balkan Gei-ba w-uk'ar-o-b horse(III).ABS very-III III-ill-AUX-III "The horse is very ill"

zə hajna karəz ək'-ba ojk'an-nij I.ABS this letter(III).ABS quickly-III III.write-PAST.1.SG "I have quickly written this letter."

zaz c<sup>j</sup>ej-da d-ək:anan-bi jizən t[oʒ-er-əj jit[i-bi-j<sup>85</sup> I.DAT much-I/II.PL I/II.PL-love.PRES-PL my brother-PL-and sister-PL-and "I love my brothers and sisters very much"

#### 4.8 Verbs

LM/W 133

In an optimized account the verbal paradigm in the SECL is characterized by the following, often interacting features: A verbal stem which in many cases consists only of a quite minimal phonetic body (V, C, VC, CV) is marked for tense, aspect, aktionsart, mode, localization, pluralization, and agreement. Historically, all these categories except aspect were indicated by agglutinating prefixes or suffixes, aspect, however, was encoded either by root ablaut or by a specific set of infixes<sup>86</sup>. Personal inflection is quite marginal, it can be found fully paradigmatic in Tabasaran and Udi, partly in Tsakhur, and - differently motivated - in many paradigms of the imperative mood.

#### 4.8.1 Stem Formation

In Tsakhur, as well as in the other SECL, there is only a small number of underived verbal stems. Mostly, they are marked by preverbs which originally denoted locational aspects, but which are often lexicalized today (see below). There is clear evidence for what is called "thematic stem yowel" in Tsakhur, a phenomenon that is highly characteristic for Eastern Samur. Secondary stems are formed with the help of auxiliaries, which sometimes incorporate nouns or adjectives. In Tsakhur, ha?as "to make" and ixes "to be(come)" are used in this respect.

#### 4.8.2 Class Markers

Class markers play an important role in the agreement system of all SECL that differentiate noun classes morphologically. Normally, they are conditioned by the absolutive NP in a phrase (see chapter 5.2 for details). In Tsakhur class markers interact in a very complicated way with

<sup>85</sup> This is an Gelmets example. The form d-ek:anan-bi had been used instead of b-ak:anan-bi, which would be the expected verb form (CM b- for CL I/II.PL).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>86</sup> A general overview on morphological aspect marking techniques in the SECL is given e.g. by Schulze-Fürhoff 1994c.

other verbal morphemes or with the verbal stem so that it is difficult to give a comprehensive account of this feature here. In fact, it is the position of the class markers which is decisive for its final representation, but we have to bear in mind that the resulting morphophonemic processes already started when the original shape of the class markers (cf. (24)) still was preserved.

Class markers can appear either as prefixes, infixes, or suffixes. In Tsakhur the position between preverbs, if present, aspect markers, and stem initials. (67) gives a simple example for alia-CM-t'-as (INF) "to carry":

(68)		SG	PL
` '	I	al <sup>j</sup> a-r-t'-as	al <sup>j</sup> a-b-t'-as
	II	al <sup>j</sup> a-r-t'-as	al <sup>j</sup> a-b-t'-as
	Ш	al <sup>j</sup> a-b-t'-as	al <sup>j</sup> a-Ø-t'-as
	IV	al <sup>j</sup> a-Ø-t'-as	al <sup>j</sup> a-∅-t'-as

The underlying paradigm is given in (69):

(69)		SG	. PL
` ,	I	*ala-w-t'-as	*ala-b-t'-as
	п	*ala-r-t'-as	*ala-b-t'-as
	Ш	*ala-b-t'-as	*ala-d-t'-as
	ΙV	*ala-d-t'-as	*ala-d-t'-as

When the class marker is the first element in a verbal chain, then there is a different type of class distribution, showing the merger of class I and IV, cf. the verb CM-ax-es (INF) "to become":

(70)	SG .		PL
	I	Ø-ix-es	w-ux-es
	II	j-ix-es	w-ux-es
	Ш	w-ux-es	Ø-ix-es
	IV	Ø-ix-es	Ø-ix-es

The phonetic processes that result from an interaction of class markers and aspect morphemes leads to highly lexicalized types of ablaut, cf. as an example k'e-CM-(j)x-as (INF) "to fall" (here k'e-je-CM-x-a (present tense durative), only the singular forms are given, as the plurals can easily be derived from them):

The class marking types given in (69) and (71) sometimes appear as free variants within the same paradigm, which hints at still relatively unstable conditions, cf. for *gloqas* "to suck" (*gloqu* "sucked"):

#### 4.8.3 Preverbs

The system of preverbs is much more productive in the Nothern SECL than e.g. in Southern Samur or in Udi. Tabasaran has strongly grammaticalized this pattern by using it for aspectual differentiation<sup>87</sup>. The material of preverbs is somewhat related to the local cases suffixes, though there is not always a complete identity. In Tsakhur we meet for instance the following preverbs:

```
(73) VV- "away from the speaker"

VIV- "up"

Vt'V- unsure meaning

Vts'V- unsure meaning

at∫'i- unsure meaning

sV- "towards something" (= adessive)

GV- "action away from the speaker"

gV- "down"

k'V- "down into"

qV- "action separating something from something"

hV- "away from something"
```

The functions of these preverbs indicated by the glosses cannot be taken for granted. In many cases - as said above - the preverbs are highly desemantisized, forming a lexical unity with their verbal stem. Moreover, many verbs show preverbial clusters, combining different preverbs or using them with now obsolete locational morphemes. (68) gives the paradigm for - k'al'n-as "to jump", which is still sensitive for locational preverbs (only class I is given here):

o-k'alas	"to jump"
Go-k'alas	"to jump over something"
kj'o-k'anas	"to jump down into the deep"
il <sup>j</sup> o-k'alas	"to jump down"
il <sup>j</sup> qo-k'olas	"to jump up repeatedly"
	Go-k'alas k <sup>j</sup> 'o-k'anas il <sup>j</sup> o-k'alas

<sup>87</sup> In a way that is fairly common in Slavic languages. Forms with preverb denote a perfective aspect, whereas the bare forms are used to indicate imperfectiveness.

LM/W 133

## 4.8.4 Tense and Aspect

As in most other SECL there is a strong interdependency to be observed between tenses forms and aspect markers in Tsakhur. In fact, it is often hard to discriminate both categories morphologically. The structure of TAM paradigms in the SECL is often based on a tripartite system, which can be described as follows:

48

#### **PAST GERUND** PRESENT GERUND (75) INFINITIVE

These three basic forms are followed by secondary morphemes the status of which can hardly be described in the context of PL88. Present and past gerund represent the prototype of the aspectual system in SEC ([±durative]). As expected, in Tsakhur the durative is the morphologically marked category. It can be indicated either by infixing -i-, -a-, or -r-, by ablaut (mostly -i-, -a-> -e-; -a-> -i- (especially for the vowels of preverbs)), by reduplication or by lexical suppletion. The distribution of durative and non-durative forms is conditioned by the semantics of the actual tense form, however, in many cases either the durative or the nondurative stem is lexicalized, so that it is difficult to tell whether a verb in question still operates on the aspectual category or not without knowing the whole paradigm.

The temporal category is of secondary origin in nearly all SECL. It is based on the (old) aspect system, which then is enlarged by different tense morphemes often stemming from case forms, adjective markers and so on. The resulting TAM complexes can play the role of real temporal forms, as participles, or as converbs. The interaction of tense, aspect, and mood leads to often very complicated or at least very sophisticated paradigms, for which Tsakhur gives a good example.

The two basic gerunds are marked by ablaut of the final stem ("thematic") vowel, if present. If the verbal root is augmented by a suffix -an, -ar, or -al, then the prefinal vowel is changed accordingly. The following system of ablaut operates:

(76)	PRESENT-GERUND	PAST GERUND
	-a	-u
	-a	<del>-</del> ə
	<b>-е</b>	-a
	-e	-u
	-an, -ar, -al	-un, -ur, -ul
	-an, -ar, -al	-n, -r, -l (< *-ən, *-ər, *-əl)

The distribution of the ablaut variants with thematic vowels is depending rather on the lexical entry in question than on morphological or phonological reasons (at least on a synchronic level)89. The decision for whether a given verb form is a present or past gerund is supported by the internal structure of the root: Present gerunds often reflect the (older) morphology of duratives, the morphemes of which are lacking in the past gerund. The fact that the old aspects markers (\*-i-, \*-r/l-) were prefixes led to complexe morphophonological processes due to the interaction of aspect markers, stem initials, class markers, preverbs, and stress. The structure of the Tsakhur verb ixes "to be(come)" may clarify this:

(77)	Present Gerund:	CM-i:-x-e	<	*CM-já-əx-e
	Past Gerund:	CM-áx-a	<	*CM-Ø-áx-a
	Future/Infinitive:	CM-ix-és	<	*CM-jə-əx-és

The stem initial shwa (-2-) is than effected by the phonetics of a preceding class marker or a preverb, cf. for class markers:

(78)		PRES	PAST	FUTURE
	I	Ø-é:xe	Ø-áxa	Ø-ixés
	II	j-é:xe	j-ixa	j-ixés
	Ш	w-é:xe	w-úxa	w-ixés
	IV	Ø-é:xe	Ø-áxa	Ø-ixés

(79) gives an example for a structure "preverb + CM + aspect + verb" (giats'és "to fill)90:

(79)	PRES:	I II III IV	g <sup>j</sup> ájts'e g <sup>j</sup> ájejts'e g <sup>j</sup> áwejts'e g <sup>j</sup> ájts'e	< < <	*gió₄-Ø-əj-ts'e *gió₄-j-əj-ts'e *gió₄-w-əj-ts'e *gió₄-Ø-əj-ts'e
	PAST:	I	g <sup>j</sup> áts'ə	<	*g <sup>i</sup> á"-Ø-ts'a
		П	g <sup>j</sup> ájts'ə	<	*g <sup>j</sup> á"-j-ts'ə
		III	g <sup>j</sup> áwts'e	<	*g <sup>j</sup> á"-w-ts'ə
		IV	g <sup>j</sup> áts'ə	<	*giá"-Ø-ts'ə
	FUTURE:	I	g <sup>j</sup> ats'és	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ə"-Ø-j-ts'és
		П	g <sup>j</sup> ajets'és	<	*g <sup>j</sup> əa-jə-j-ts'és
		Ш	g <sup>j</sup> awats'és	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ə,-wə-j-ts'és
		IV	g <sup>j</sup> ats'és	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ə₄-Ø-j-ts'és

saran show that the system was originally based on a simple ablaut PRES \*-a, PAST \*-u (cf. Aghul aq'-a "making", aq'-u-ni (AOR) "made"). The vowel alternations (-a/-u/-i etc.) within one tense form are due to secondary processes of assimilation, though in many cases the phonetic motivation is very much obscured. The two markers of the durative aspect -a and -e may perhaps reflect an old dichotomy [±transitive].

<sup>88</sup> As far as I know there is no comparative treatment of the tense systems in the SECL up to now (but see Alekseev 1985, who informs about this topic though rather briefly). A first more general attempt has been made by Xajdakov 1975, though his data are very limited.

<sup>89</sup> Ablaut variation within thematic vowels is one of the basic features of tense formation in the Eastern and Western Samur languages, cf. Moor 1985:69-82 for Lezgi, Ibragimov 1978:102 for Rutul. Aghul and Taba-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>90</sup> With the verb *glats'és* the aspect marker \*-*jo*-shows metathesis (\*-*oj*-).

<sup>91</sup> In the future tense the aspect marker \*-oj- (< \*-jo-) has been reduced to -j- in prestressed position. It has been dropped then before -ts'. CL III glawats'es shows further vowel harmony (under stress, as in the imperative, the form is once more reduced, cf. q-a:ts'e "fill!" (< \*q-b<sub>a</sub>-w-a-ts'e)).

LM/W 133

(80)	PRES:	I	g <sup>j</sup> íwajχan	<	*g <sup>j</sup> э́-wэ-∅-χan
` ′		11	g <sup>j</sup> iwe:χan	<	*gʲá-wə-j-əj-χan
		III	g <sup>j</sup> íwa:χan	<	*gʲá-wə-w-əj-χan
		IV	g <sup>j</sup> íwajχan	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ó-wə-Ø-χan
	PAST:	I	gjíwarxən	<	*g <sup>j</sup> á-wə-r-χən <sup>92</sup>
		· II	g <sup>j</sup> íwar <b>x</b> ən	<	*igiá-wə-r-χən
		Ш	g <sup>j</sup> iwabxən	<	*g <sup>j</sup> á-wə-b-χən
		IV	giwadχən	<	*g <sup>i</sup> ó-wə-d-χən
	FUTURE:	I	g <sup>j</sup> iwaχanás	<	*g¹ə-wə-∅-χanás
		П	g <sup>j</sup> iwe:χanás	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ə-wə-j-xanás
		Ш	g <sup>j</sup> iwa:χanás	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ə-wə-w-χanás
		IV	g <sup>j</sup> iwa xanás	<	*g <sup>j</sup> ∋-wə-∅-χanás

These three basic forms are followed by a complexe set of morphemes, indicating tense, mood, and sometimes aktionsart. Often, the produced verb forms play the role of converbs. As the tense and/or mood inflected verbs do hardly differ structurally, it seems appropriate to discuss the paradigm altogether<sup>93</sup>. Normally, the gerunds and the infinitive are followed by a set of morphemes the semantics of which are heavily affected by the tense/aspect form of the verbal root itself. Still, the following generalizations can be made:

(81)	Verbal stem + ATTR.CM:	-na / -n	PARTICIPLE
(01)	Verbal stem + SUFFIX:	-ni	CONFIRMED
	•	-i	PAST
		-xe	CONDITIONAL
		-wu	CAUSE
		-ji	UNCONFIRMED
		-oxu-CM	UNWITTNESSED
		$-G_{\ell}\mathbf{a}_{\ell}$	ASSUMED
		-let:i	EQUAL IN TIME
		-me(gə)	OPTATIVE
		-(j)kum	CONSECUTIVE
		-d3ar	SEPARATE ACTION94

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>92</sup> The fact that the CM series -r-, -r-, -b-, -d- appears in the past gerund (instead of -Ø-, -j-, -w-, -Ø-) is perhaps conditioned by the strongly lexical character of the morpheme -wa-. Also note its position before the CM which hints at a possible preverbial character of this element.

-kan CONDITIONAL CONFIRMED

Supplementary TAM forms are construed with the help of the auxiliary wo-CM (which itself appears only as a present gerund), and with case markers, which are added to the infinitive or to the masdar (verbal noun). The interaction of TAM suffixes, case markers, and auxiliaries with the stem forms of the verb produces the following TAM categories and converbs<sup>95</sup>:

(82)	PRESENT GERUND	Ø-e:x-e	
	Participle	Ø-e:x-e-na	(IV Ø-e:x-e-n)
	Confirmed	Ø-e:x-e-ni	
	Confirmed imperfect (specific)	Ø-e:x-e-ni-j	
	Confirmed imperfect (general)	Ø-e:x-e-na-ni-j	(IV Ø-e:x-e-jn-ni-j)
	Unconfirmed	Ø-e:x-e-ji	
	Conditional	Ø-e:x-e-xe	
	Conditional imperfect	Ø-e:x-e-xi-j	
	Iterative	Ø-e:x-e-na-xe	(IV Ø-e:x-e-n-xe)
	Iterative optative	Ø-e:x-e-na-xi-j	(IV Ø-e:x-e-n-xi-j)
	Unwittnessed	Ø-e:x-e-na-oxu-CM	
	Assumed	Ø-e:x-e-n-g <sup>r</sup> a <sup>r</sup>	
	Equal in time	Ø-e:x-e-let:i	
	Optative	Ø-e:x-e-me:	
	Strong optative	Ø-e:x-e-me:-gə	
	Separate action	Ø-e:x-e-dʒar	
	Causal	Ø-e:x-e-wu	
	Narrative	Ø-e:x-e-wo-CM	
	PAST GERUND:	Ø-əx-a	
	Participle	Ø-əx-a-ni	(IV Ø-əx-a-n)
	Confirmed	Ø-əx-a-jni	
	Confirmed past (specific)	Ø-əx-a-nij	
	Confirmed past (general)	Ø-əx-a-nan-nij	(IV Ø-əx-a-jn-ni-j)
	Unconfirmed	Ø-əx-a-ji	
	Conditional	Ø-əx-a-xe	
	Conditional past	Ø-əx-a-xi-j	
	Iterative	Ø-əx-a-na-xi-j-ni	(in-j-ix-nj-a-xe-Ø VI)
	Unwittnessed	Ø-əx-a-oxu-CM	
	Assumed	Ø-əx-a-jn-g <sup>r</sup> # <sup>r</sup>	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup> As an example the verb *ixes* "to be(come)" has been taken. Only class I forms are mentioned, as the other classes can easily be derived from them with the help of the informations given above. Also note that the suffix *-nij* is restricted to first person agents (else *-ij* is used). When an attributive CM appears, the appropriate class IV marker will be indicated.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>93</sup> The syncretism of TAM forms and participles and converbs is a typical phenomenon of the (S)ECL. It can be regarded as one of the basic isomorphic features in the area.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>94</sup> In fact the CV -d3a-CM has a strong contrastive connotation, from which its secondary function as a CV of negation is derived.

(IV Ø-əx-aj-n)

Equal in time Ø-əx-a-letii
Optative Ø-əx-a-me:
Strong optative Ø-əx-a-me:-gə
Consecutive Ø-əx-a-(j)kum
Causal Ø-əx-a-wu
Narrative Ø-əx-a-wo-CM
Narrative past Ø-əx-a-CM-a

52

## MASDAR: Ø-əx-aj

Comparative

Dependent

CV causal

CV causal confirmed

CV causal conditional

CV causal (reason)

CV interesting constitutions

CV causal conditions

CV causal (reason)

CV interesting constitutions

CV interesting constitutions

CV causal conditions

CV causal (reason)

CV causal (reason)

CV causal conditions

CV causal (reason)

CV causal conditions

CV causal conditi

Participle (confirmed) Ø-əx-aj-ni
CV telic Ø-əx-aj-s

## FUTURE (INFINITIVE): Ø-ix-es

General future Ø-ix-es
CV causal Ø-ix-es-wu
Near future Ø-ix-es-se

Participle Ø-ix-es-da (IV Ø-ix-es-ən)

Confirmed Ø-ix-es-di

Future past I Ø-ix-es-da-nij (IV Ø-ix-es-ən-nij)

Conditional unconfirmed I Ø-ix-es-da-(a)n-g<sup>f</sup>a<sup>f</sup> (IV Ø-ix-es-n-an-g<sup>f</sup>a<sup>f</sup>)

Conditional unconfirmed II

Future dubitative

Optative

Strong optative

Separate action

Narrative

O-ix-eskan-njij

O-ix-es-oxu-CM

O-ix-es-oxu-CM

O-ix-es-me:

O-ix-es-me:-go

O-ix-es-dʒar

O-ix-es-wo-CM

The semantic description of the above mentioned categories is only tentative. In many cases it depends on the idiosyncrasy of the speaker whether a specific TAM form is preferred. Thus the paradigm given in (82) can be regarded as the optimal system of TAM inflection in Tsakhur, incorporating both highly frequent forms (like the narratives) and rarely used, but still

productive categories (like the unconfirmed future conditional II (best to be translated by "if he (perhaps) will have done this or that...")).

The system of TAM formation in Tsakhur is further complicated by the fact, that some verbs show reduplication especially in the durative aspect, i.e. in present and future TAM forms. The technique of reduplication is somewhat unpredictable, it may affect the first consonant of the root as well as the whole root<sup>96</sup>. (83) gives an example for the verbs "to beat" and "to give birth".

(83)	"to beat":	MASDAR: INFINITIVE: PAST: PRESENT:	əʻχʻ-əʻj əʻχʻ-aʻs əʻχʻ-əʻ əʻχʻ-əʻ'-χʻaʻ
		MACDAD	

"to give birth": MASDAR: ux-uj INFINITIVE: ux-as PAST: ux-u

PAST: uχ-u PRESENT: uχ-oχ-a

#### 4.8.5 Personal inflection

Most SECL do not mark verbs for speech act participants<sup>98</sup>. If agreement is present, this is done with the help of class markers. As Aghul and Lezgi lack class agreement, too, their verbal paradigms are highly isolating, cf. the Aghul (Richa) example:

wun iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"you sit"
mi iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"he/she/it (here) sits"
xin iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"we (incl.) sit"
t[in iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"we (excl.) sit"
t∫un iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"you (pl.) sit"
mur iq <sup>w</sup> 'aja	"they (here) sit"

The indication of persons on the verb is quite marginal in most of the SECL<sup>99</sup>. Sometimes it appears with imperative forms (e.g. in Khinalug and in Budukh). In Tsakhur we can observe a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>96</sup> Reduplication in the SECL still remains an unstudied matter.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>97</sup> Ibragimov 1990:133 limits reduplication to the present gerund, to the negative indicative, and to the prohibitive. There is, however, clear evidence, that reduplication also occurs with future TAM forms. cf. -ak'ar-"to be ill": fena Ø-cik'ar-(w)-or (Present narrative) "he is ill (he says)", but fena Ø-cik'ar-ás-(w)o-r (Future narrative) "he will be ill (he says)".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>98</sup> The "unpersonal" character of the East Caucasian verb is often treated as one of the basic typological features of this language group.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>99</sup> Udi is the only SECL that has developed a complete system of personal agreement also incorporating the non-personne, i.e. the third person. The SAP markers are clearly derived from the corresponding per-

tendency to separate the first person from the rest of the paradigm, reflecting a strategy to mark the central speech act participant out of pragmatic reasons 100. The underlying technique is based on the use of the (determinating) attributive element -na /-n (cf. 4.3), which focuses the first person, cf. the paradigm of the auxiliary wo-CM ("to be", present tense):

54

(85)		I	II	Ш	IV
` ,	1	zə wo-r-na	zə wo-r-na	zə wo-b-na	zə wo-b-on
	2	ku wo-r-or	Rn mo-t-ot	Rn Mo-p-op	rn mo-q-o-q
	3	fena wo-r-or	Jena wo-r-or	∫ena wo-b-ob	fen wo-d-od

Obviously, the attributive marker -an/-n replaces the final tense morpheme -o-CM (< \*-wo-CM) in the first person (plural -n). Consequently, this technique can only be applied with other verbs, if the TAM form is based on this auxiliary, i.e. the narrative forms. As these forms are highly frequent, it can be assumed that person marking will start from them and will spread over the whole paradigm some days. (86) contrasts the person marked (past) narrative verb form  $\varnothing$ -ax-a-wo-CM with its unconfirmed past ( $\varnothing$ -ax-a-ji) of the verb ixes "to be(come)": (86)

1 2 3	zə ⊘-əx-a-na su ⊘-əx-a-wo-r ∫ena ⊘-əx-a-wo-r	II zə j-ix-a-na ʁu j-ix-a-wo-r ʃena j-ix-a-wo-r	III zə Ø-ux-a-na ʁu w-ux-a-wo-b ʃena w-ux-a-wo-b	IV <sup>101</sup> zə Ø-əx-a-n ʁu Ø-əx-a-wo-d ʃena Ø-əx-a-wo-d
1 2	I zə Ø-əx-ji ĸu Ø-əx-a-ji	II zə j-ix-a-ji ku j-ix-a-ji	III zə w-ux-a-ji ĸu w-ux-a-ji	IV zə Ø-əx-a-ji su Ø-əx-a-ji
3	∫ena Ø-əxa-ji	∫ena j-ix-a-ji	∫ena w-ux-a-ji	∫ena Ø-əx-a-ji

The syntax of personal agreement will be discussed in short in chapter 5.2.3. It is difficult to decide whether this type of personal agreement reflects only an actual pattern that pragmatically marks the SAP(1), or whether it is the starting point for a fully inflected system. The tendency towards an *egocentric* marking technique itself (opposing the SAP(1) to all other persons) in well known in ECL.

sonal pronoun, whereas the third person morphemes are shortened demonstratives. Tabasaran, too, has developed a system of (partly poly)personal agreement, though it is limited to speech act participants (i.e. to the first and second person). The *non-personne* is left unmarked iconically. Cf. Schulze 1997b for the whole question (with bibliography).

#### 4.8.6 Participles and converbs

LM/W 133

As it has been said above, participles and converbs can hardly be discriminated from TAM forms in Tsakhur. In fact, any TAM form can be used in subordinated clauses. Thus, no further informations are given here.

#### 4.8.7 Infinitive and Masdar

The overall technique in the SECL to mark (telic) infinitives is to add the (PL) dative -Vs to the verbal stem<sup>102</sup>. This technique has also survived in Udi which has lost the morpheme in case inflection (cf. tad-es "to give", but adamar-a "to the man"). In Tsakhur like in other SECL the infinitive is used to form future TAM paradigms (see above). The morphemes to mark verbal nouns (masdar) can hardly be traced back to the proto-language, in Tsakhur - as we have seen - the element -Vj is used to indicate masdars. It is then inflected as an ordinary noun and forms the basis for converbs, see above.

## 5. Syntax<sup>103</sup>

#### 5.1 Structure of the NP

The basic order within NPs in the SECL is determinans - determinatum, i.e. a dependent element precede its head. If class marking is possible, it appears with any sort of attribute (cf. 4.3). In Tsakhur, the following order of elements in NPs is observed:

(87) mana q<sup>s</sup>'o<sup>s</sup>j-re j-ik'ar-na xunaʃ:e that(II).ABS two-II II-ill-II woman(II) "Those two ill women"

 $q^v$ 'o $^v$ -ni w-uk'ar-ni balkan-a-n k'ar-ən gel $^j$ -bə two-OBL III-ill-OBL horse(III)-SA-GEN.IV black-ATTR.ABS.PL leg(IV)-PL "The black legs of the two ill horses"

As participles are treated like adjectives, they appear in the same position, forming subordinate relative clauses, cf.

(88) tʃodʒ-us aliwʃes-da balkan za-k'le he:ge brother-DAT buy.INF-PART.III horse(III).ABS I-AFF show.IMP "Show me the horse that you will buy for your brother!"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>100</sup> Perhaps, this strategy has to be regarded as an areal feature: It is also shared by the Zakatal dialect of Awar and - what is perhaps more important - by the isolated dialect of Kusur (Awar), spoken in the northwest of Caxur.

The forms with first and second person and class IV are naturally "odd", as referents of class IV can hardly function as speech act participants. Still, my informants accepted them saying that they could be used with anthropomorphic referents (for instance zə (aslan) Ø-əx-an "I (the lion) was....").

 $<sup>^{102}</sup>$  Khinalug and the Southern Samur languages Kryz and Budukh have developed new forms of the infinitive.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>103</sup> It is not intended to give either a complete description of Tsakhur syntax nor its comparative treatment with respect to the other Lezgian languages. In fact, a comparative syntax of the SECL is still urgently wanted.

LM/W 133

zə q<sup>r</sup>a<sup>r</sup>da<sup>r</sup>q:<sup>r</sup>-a<sup>r</sup>n kitab maraxlə-da wo-d<sup>104</sup> I.ABS read-PART.IV book(IV).ABS interesting-PART AUX.PRES-IV "The book I'm reading is interesting."

Possessives too take the position of attributes and hardly differ from them structurally (cf. 4.3). This basic and unmarked ordering of NP constituents cannot be changed within NPs. The only elements that can follow a nominal head are postpositions (cf. 4.6).

56

#### 5.2 Structure of the clause

#### 5.2.1 Word order and attention flow

Word order in Tsakhur follows the expected accusative routines established by the appropriate type of attention flow. Thus a sentence normally starts with an agent (if present) or an addressee (with verba sentiendi). This place can (tough rarely) be occupied by other NPs (esp. locatives) in order to topicalize them. This syntactic strategy is contrasted by the fact that Tsakhur - as it had already been said - like most other SECL operates on the basis of an ergative syntax, cf.:

(89) balkan q'iwk'u horse(III).ABS III.die.PAST "The horse died."

> dak:j-e: balkan aliwfu father(I)-ERGhum horse(III).ABS III.buy.PAST "The father bought a horse."

The absolutive case is used to mark intransitive agents and transitive patients whereas the transitive agent is encoded with the help of the ergative case. It is, however, difficult to tell whether these case forms indicate semantic roles or the syntactic functions subject and object. Tsakhur like most other SECL meet the conditions of morphological ergativity by using the appropriate case markers. The system of agreement discussed below hints at the fact that the view point starts from the transitive patient, that is, the patient plays the role of the subject, the ergative marked agent that of the object. This "patient-oriented" type of ergativity, however, involves (at least in the Tsakhur dialect of Tsakhur) - as it had been said - some aspects of accusativity. The most important split is invoked by the fact that the phrasal attention flow starts with the transitive agent and not with the patient (as expected for syntactic ergativity 105). Thus the basic word order is more or less European-like, cf.:

dak:j-e: χaw alja?u father(I)-ERG<sub>hum</sub> house(IV).ABS IV.build.PAST "The father built a house "

\*(?) yaw dak:j-e: alja?u106

The second position in a simple sentence is taken either by the verb or (if present) by a second NP. There seems to be no perceivable difference between a NP-V-NP and NP-NP-V ordering at least on the syntactic level, cf.

57

(91) jizin do t'ak'u wodun my.IV name(IV).ABS Taku IV.AUX "My name is Taku."

jizin do wodun t'ak'u mv.IV name(IV) IV.AUX Taku "Dto."

However, a verb final structure is generally preferred in pragmatically unmarked sentences. Locatives, addressees, and adverbs are normally placed before a transitive patient (if present). Thus the overall scheme would be:

AGENT - LOCATIVE - ADDRESSEE - PATIENT - VERB

An example (not always excepted by my informants) would be:

dak: j-e: sanəxa yaj-a hajna karəz ojk'an-ij father-ERGhum yesterday house-IN.ESS one-III letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-FOC "Father has written this letter at home yesterday."

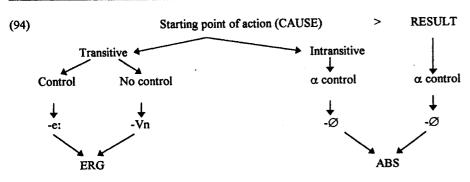
#### 5.2.2 Semantic roles

In general the semantic (hyper)roles AGENT and PATIENT are encoded on the basis of an ergative coding strategy. However, it must be noticed that - as it has been said - the ergative case itself is split according to the dichotomy [±hum] (-e: vs. -Vn) in the singular. In fact, only referents [+hum] are thought to have a true agentive potential, whereas non-humans are seen as entities without an inherent feature of agentivity. The aspect of agentivity or of control seems to be relevant only when referring to transitive states of affairs. Accordingly, the morphemes -e; and -Vn can be subsumed under a label "starting point of action towards another entity" (CAUSE). The intransitive "agent" itself is left unmarked, because it lacks this orientation ([acontrol]). It is treated just like the entity that lies in the RESULT (or EFFECT) domain of transitive actions, cf.

<sup>104</sup> But cf. 22 kitab q'a'da'q'a'n maraxleda wod "It is interesting that I read I book."

<sup>105</sup> The most common example for the matching of the (ergative) view point (centered on the transitive patient) with the attention flow is given by Dyirbal, cf. Dixon 1994 for details.

<sup>106</sup> My informants have generally denied the possibility of placing the patient at the beginning of the proposition in an unmarked context. A rough glance through the data of the other SECL gives a similar impression, though the rigidness of placing the (in)transitive agent in front of the verb may vary from language to language.



Cf. the following two sentences, the first of which denotes that the man has destroyed the bridge on purpose, whereas in the second sentence the river "does" it hazardously:

(95) adam-e: ji<sup>1</sup>k<sup>5</sup> alebt's man-ERG<sub>hum</sub> bridge(III).ABS III.destroy.PAST "The man destroyed the bridge."

> dama-n ji<sup>s</sup>s<sup>s</sup> alebt'ə river-ERG-<sub>hum</sub> bridge(III).ABS III.destroy.PAST "The river destroyed the bridge."

Contrary to some other SECL Tsakhur hardly knows any means to encode the transitive agent other than by the ergative case. An example for such variations is given by Archi, cf. the two following sentences, which differ in the degree of affectedness and reference 107:

(96) q'u't'i-li lo e'wq'ni thunder-ERG boy(III).ABS III.frighten.AOR "The thunder frightened the boy."

> q'u't'i-li-tt:'if lo e'wq'ni thunder-SA-SUB.ABL boy(III).ABS III.frighten.AOR "The boy was afraid of the thunder."

One exception is the verb a \( \chi \chi a^r s \) "to be able", which has its agent in the AD.ABL, cf.

(97) dek:<sup>1</sup>-is:e a<sup>5</sup>χa<sup>5</sup>n qa<sup>5</sup>tqa<sup>5</sup>s kitab father-AD.ABL can.PRES IV.read.INF book(IV).ABS "Father can read the book." The transitive patient is always unmarked with respect to case forms. There are no means to subcategorize the patient (e.g. like Udi ([±definite]). Hence, it comes clear that (with non-SAP referents) Tsakhur exhibits a relatively strong patient oriented system which allows to assign the syntactic function "subject" at least partly to the transitive patient, whereas the ergative case serves to denote the object. This ergative typology is again split by another aspect of accusativity which is introduced by the fact that the Tsakhur dialect (not Gelmets) today follows some of the predictions of the well-known Silverstein Hierarchy: With agentive speech act participants the case marking is at least "non ergative" (though agreement still is), cf.:

(98) κυ χα:-qa qa-r-ə
you(I).ABS house-ALL return-I-PAST
"You returned home."

gu balkan gio:tu-wo-b I(I).ABS horse(III).ABS III.beat-PAST.NARR-III "You have beaten the horse."

xunaʃ:-e; ʁu g<sup>j</sup>etu-wo-r woman(II)-ERG<sub>hum</sub> you(I).ABS I.beat-PAST.NARR-I "The woman has beaten you."

The accusativity is still strengthened if a first person is involved as an agent, as now the verb (in single tense forms, cf. 4.8.4) also agrees with the pronoun, cf. 108:

2.SG<sub>AG</sub>:

zə dex gietu-na [su dex] gietu-wo-r

I(I).ABS son(I).ABS I.beat.PAST-SAP(1)
I.beat.PAST-NARR-I"
I have beaten the son."

zə jif g<sup>j</sup>e:tu-na [ku jif] g<sup>j</sup>e:tu-wo-r I(I).ABS girl(II)ABS II.beat.PAST-SAP(1) II.beat.PAST-NARR-II

"I have beaten the girl."

(99)  $1.SG_{AG}$ :

zə balkan gio:tu-na [gu balkan], gio:tu-wo-b I(I).ABS horse(III).ABS III.beat.PAST-SAP(1) III.beat.PAST-NARR-III

"I have beaten the horse."

zə aslan g<sup>j</sup>etu-jn [ʁu aslan] g<sup>j</sup>etu-wo-d I(I).ABS lion(IV).ABS IV.beat.PAST-SAP(1<sub>IV</sub>) IV.beat.PAST-NARR-IV

"I have beaten the lion."

However, the Silverstein Hierarchy does not operate in all SECL, and probably did not affect case marking in PL. Thus case syncretism with personal pronouns should be regarded as a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>107</sup> Alekseev 1979:87. This is the example for only one type of variation in Archi. The language offers a great range of possibilities to reduce the (assumed) agentivity of an agent by changing case marking (and hence valence).

<sup>108</sup> The glossing of the complete phrases with second person agent is neglected as it can easily be construed.

TSAKHUR

natural strategy that may be observed by single languages but not by the whole language group or by PL. This also comes clear from Gelmets which not only has preserved the old ergative morphology of personal pronouns (20 vs. 2a-, 8u vs. wa- etc., cf. (54)), but which has even strengthened this morphology by introducing the innovated ergative morpheme -s:a.

#### 5.2.3 Agreement

The agreement pattern - as it has been said above - is basically ergative, though aspects of accusativity appear with pronominal agents. The function of verbal class markers is to indicate the syntactic center of a phrase, i.e. the absolutive marked NP. The centrality of this NP is additionally marked by the fact that it can serve as a agreement trigger for nearly every other constituent in a sentence (see below). A secondary aspect of agreement is introduced in Tsakhur by the expansion of (nominal) plural markers to verbs, especially with intransitive agents or transitive patients, cf.:

(100) Ji tJ'alaga-qa w-u<sup>r</sup>q: <sup>r</sup>a<sup>r</sup>-n-bə we(I/II).ABS wood-ALL I/II.PL-go.PRES-SAP(1)<sub>PL</sub>-PL "We go into the woods."

zə it[ij gje:t'u-na
I(I).ABS girl(II).ABS II.hit.PAST-SAP(1)
"I hit the girl."

zə itf-er g<sup>j</sup>e:t'i-jn-bə <sup>109</sup>
I(I).ABS girl-PL.ABS II.hit.PAST-SAP(1)<sub>PL</sub>-PL
"I hit the girls."

zaz jizən jit[ij-bə b-ək:anan-bə I.DAT my.II.PL sister(II).ABS-PL II.PL-love.PRES-PL "I love my sisters."

This type of plural marking can occur even if a open NP is not present, cf. (Gelmets):

(101) dʒes-qa abajen-bi məsla's'-a't-əz
REFL-ALL I/II PL.come.PRES-PL advice-AUX-INF
"(They) come to HER for advice."

#### 5.3 Major sentence types

As had been said above the ergative coding strategy dominates nearly every sentence type in Tsakhur. Consequently the dichotomy [±transitive] plays an important role. Tsakhur is not a good example for other processes of syntactic derivation in the SECL, as passives, antipassives, pseudo-transitives, labile constructions, etc., which can occur some of the other languages. In fact, Tsakhur lacks all these procedures, it is much more "role dominated" than e.g. Udi<sup>110</sup>. Causatives are marked analytically with the help of the transitive auxiliary ha?as "to make", added to the infinitive. The embedded agent is either demoted to an absolutive or maintained as an ergative, cf.

(102) jis:-e karəz ojk'an-ij daughter-ERG<sub>hum</sub> letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-FOC "The daughter wrote a letter."

dak:\(^1-e:\) (\(^1\) ji\) ka\(\text{sz}\) ojk'as ha:\(^2a\) haj\(^2a\) father-ERG\(^hum\) daughter-ERG\(^hum\) (\(^ABS)\) letter(III).\(^ABS\) write.INF III.\(^hum\) make.\(^PAST\) "Father had (his) daughter write a letter.\(^hum\)

One major exception to the stableness of ergative marking is the well-known dative or "inverse" construction which is a typical feature of all East Caucasian languages. With verbs of perception and affection the experiencer is encoded by the dative and/or a locative case form, whereas the (absolutive) patient still is the agreement trigger. In Tsakhur we have two different types of verba sentiendi: Verbs of affection have their experiencer in the dative, whereas verbs of perception show the affective case form<sup>111</sup>, cf.:

(103) dak:-is dex Ø-ək:an
father(I)-DAT son(I).ABS I-love.PAST
"The father loved the son."

dak:-is-əd pəl la:zim-da wo-d-on father(I)-DAT-IV money(IV).ABS need-ATTR AUX-IV-PRES.IV "The FATHER needs money."

<sup>109</sup> But not \*fi itfij gle:tena-bo"we hit the girl" etc., a hypothetical form of agent agreement in Tsakhur that sometimes is allowed in the neighboring Awar dialect of Kusur.

<sup>110</sup> In this respect, Tsakhur behaves much like Khinalug, which is relatively role dominated as well(cf. Schulze(-Fürhoff) 1994a). True antipassives are not attested in SECL, passives only in Udi and (perhaps) in Kryz. Analytic procedures such as "binominatives", which foreground the agent of a transitive phrase but do not background the patient are known from Archi, Rutul, and Khinalug (cf. fn.17). Practically, all processes related to the strategy of grounding have to be described in terms of single language grammars, if they are present at all.

<sup>111</sup> The affective case is used to encode the addressee with the verbs *ehes* "to say" and *hag* "as "to show", cf. 22 direktor-ik'le-d kitab hagu-jn (I.ABS director-AFF-IV book(IV).ABS IV.show-PAST.NARR.SAP(1)<sub>IV</sub>) "I have shown the book to the director<sub>TOP</sub>").

Mansur-e-k'le ji∫ glidʒ-esda

Mansur-e-k'le ji Glidy-esda Mansur-SA-AFF girl(II).ABS II.see-FUT "Mansur will see the girl."

ji[-e-k'le Mansur Gadz-esda girl(II)-SA-AFF Mansur.ABS I.see-FUT "The girl will see Mansur."

za-k'le Ø-atsa de∫ I-AFF IV-know.PRES NEG "I do not know (it)."

The dative case also serves as the normal means to encode any sort of addressee in all SECL. Contrary e.g. to Archi the dative is rarely involved in class agreement in Tsakhur (except for focus, see below), cf. as an example:

62

(104) dak:/-e: dux-aj-s maʃin aliwʃu
father-ERG<sub>hum</sub> son-SA-DAT car(III).ABS III.buy.PAST
"The father bought [his] son a car."

Q'urban-ni-d tʃodʒ-us kitab hiwu Qurban-GEN<sub>OBL</sub>-IV brother(I)-DAT book(IV).ABS IV.give.PAST "He gave the book to QURBAN's brother."

In general, reflexivization as a syntactic procedure is quite marginal in most SECL. The use of reflexive pronouns in patient position is found only in some languages, cf. e.g. the Budukh examples<sup>112</sup>:

(105) gədə-z ug-ug irqadʒ-i boy(I)-DAT REFL-REFL.ABS see-PRÄT "The boy saw himself."

> riz-əz gədə-rə ug na<sup>r</sup>rə-sy?y la:zim i girl(II)-DAT boy(I)-ERG REFL.ABS call-make.INF necessary AUX.III "The girl must be called from her brother [lit. "her boy]."

In Tsakhur, the reflexive pronoun is basically used to emphasize a subject NP and appear very often as substitutes for the possessive (genitive) pronouns. Sometimes, the reflexive pronoun can even replace the non emphatic demonstratives used to indicate a ¬SAP, cf.

(106) d30 adam-er REFL(I).PL.ABS man(I)-PL.ABS "The men themselves..." jidg-bə balkan-ar REFL(III)-PL.ABS horse(III)-PL.ABS "The horses themselves..."

(107) ji na suz ki jugna-j ki jamanə-j wor-na 113
our.I REFL EMPH good-and EMPH bold-and I.AUX.PRES
"He<sub>TOP</sub> (which is our [father]) is very good and very bold."

If the reflexive is use attributively (in the sense of "his/her/its own...") the normal trigger operates on an accusative scheme, i.e. it nearly always is the agent of a sentence, cf. the example in (114). However, such a type of reflexivization is quite marginal.

63

#### 5.4 Pragmatic functions

LM/W 133

In many cases agreement is extended to focus functions: Any noun, adverb, or (partly) post-positional phrase can be class marked in order to be focused or topicalized 114. Obviously the focus function then has been transferred from the absolutive marked noun (which is in topic function in unmarked positions) to the noun, adverb etc. agreeing with it. Though there are practically no limits as for which constituent can be in focus, the first NP or adverb of a phrase, i.e. the starting point of the attention flow is the preferred target of focus by class agreement, cf.:

(108) deχ-ər q<sup>c</sup>a<sup>c</sup>dq<sup>c</sup>a<sup>c</sup>s ark'ən son(I).ABS-I learn.INF I.go.PAST "The SON went to learn."

> it[ij-r χα:-qa qa-r-ə girl(II).ABS-II house-ALL return-II-PAST "The GIRL returned home."

dak:<sup>j</sup>-is-ər jed-is-ər ţʃu-bi-ʃi-s-ər, jitʃe-bi-ʃi-s-ər zə Ø-ək:an-o-r-na father(I)-DAT-I mother-DAT-I brother-PL-SA-DAT-I sister-PL-SA-DAT-I I(I).ABS I-love-NARR-I-SAP(1)
"[My] FATHER, MOTHER, BROTHERS, and SISTERS loved me."

(109) dak: j-e:-r jif q<sup>r</sup>a<sup>r</sup>dq<sup>r</sup>a<sup>r</sup>s gaxo father(I)-ERG<sub>hum</sub>-II daughter(II).ABS learn.INF II.send.PAST "FATHER sent [his] daughter to learn."

<sup>112</sup> Alekseev 1994b:268.

<sup>113</sup> This is a Gelmets example.

This technique is unique within the Samur languages, but partly attested for Archi (e.g. adverbs and addressees can be class marked here).

Another technique of focusing or topicalizing constituents is the use of the particle (i)j (-nij with first person participants). As for position this element is much more free than agreement markers, cf.:

(110) zə karəz ojk'an-n-ij
I(I).ABS letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-SAP(1)-TOP
"I wrote<sub>FOC</sub> a letter."

ви какэz ojk'an-ij you(I).ABS letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-TOP "You wrote<sub>FOC</sub> a letter."

fen-G<sup>w</sup>-e: kaʁəz ojk'an-ij he-SA<sub>m</sub>-ERG letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-TOP "He wrote<sub>FOC</sub> a letter."

The following focus variants can be observed:

(111) 1.SG zə karəz<sub>FOC</sub>-nij ojk'an, zə<sub>FOC</sub>-nij karəz ojk'an 2.SG ru karəz<sub>FOC</sub>-ij ojk'an, ru<sub>FOC</sub>-ij karəz ojk'an

3.SG [engwe karəzfoc-ij ojk'an, fengwefoc-jij karəz ojk'an

Other particles used for emphasis or focusing are e.g. bes (placed after any word in a phrase<sup>115</sup>), le (in the sense of "but"), mer (I,II) / meb (III) / med (IV) (indicates an iterative action), -ma: ~-me: (emphasis), cf.

(112) fen-bə me-b tʃalaga-qa habk'ən-ob
DEM-PL again-I/II.PL wood-ALL go.PAST-AUX.I/II.PL
"They again went into the wood."

zə bes karəz ojk'an-nij I.ABS EMPH letter(III).ABS III.write.PAST-FOC.1.SG "I wrote the letter."

zə ts' a<sup>5</sup>χa-qa-ma: qa-r-ə I.ABS Caxur-ALL-EMPH come-I-PAST "I came to Caxur."

In fact, bes can be used as a simple affirmative particle is the sense of "yes", cf.

(113) bes bes h<sup>c</sup>a<sup>c</sup>ma<sup>c</sup>x<sup>c</sup>u<sup>c</sup>d he?e EMPH EMPH so make.IMP "Yes, yes, do it this way!"

#### 5.5 Negation

LM/W 133

Negative clauses follow the same word order as affirmatives, because negation is basically bound on verb morphology. Tsakhur uses the prefix -de- with variants, which is placed after a CM (if present). Thus we have  $\varnothing$ - $\infty$ a "was (I)" vs. de- $\varnothing$ -xa "was not (I)", j-ixa "was (II)" vs. j-d-z-xa "was not (II). In normal speech an analytical construction is preferred using the negative auxiliary def (restricted, however, to the present, perfect, and future tense forms). Prohibitives are construed with the help of the prefix m- $\sim mV$ - added to present gerunds exclusively. Its position with the prefix chain is that of the ordinary negation de- (cf. above). The scopus of negation can be clarified with the help of negative pronouns, e.g. hafu-d3a-CM "nobody", hid3o-d3a-CM "nothing"  $^{116}$ , hitfub "nothing", cf.:

(114) [awadʒar dʒuna dost galeratʃ:e-na de]
nobody.ERG REFL.GEN friend(I).ABS I.abandon-PART NEG.AUX
"Nobody abandons his friend."

fawnidʒar χa: imaχ<sup>w</sup>a nobody GEN house LOC stay PROH "Do not stay in anybody's house!"

nisedyar ajts'e-na des 117 nothing.ERG satiate-PART NEG.AUX "A nothing does not satiate [anybody]."

## 5.6 Questions

Questions are formed either with the help of the Q-words haf:u "who", hidzo "what" (and their derivatives), or - for yes/no questions - by using the particles -ne / -je (cf. (58), for the distribution of -ne /-je see examples in (63)):

(115) karəz ok'ne-ne letter(III).ABS III.write.IMP-Q "It there a letter to write<sub>FOC</sub>?"

> kasəz-ne ok'ne letter(III)-Q III.write.IMP "It there a letter<sub>FOC</sub> to write?"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>115</sup> Like many other particles and junctions, Tsakhur *bes* is a loan (< pers. *bas*, originally a particle used to indicate limitation).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>116</sup> The element -d3a- is clearly related to the suffix for "separate action" -d3ar. In fact, it basic semantics is covered by something like "except" (cf. also zo-d3ar "except me" etc.).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>117</sup> A proverb giving a rare example of patient deletion in a transitive sentence.

dzamalij Ø-ats'a-γe-ne<sup>118</sup> t'ak'u bazara-qa u'q'a's h'a'zər-qa-je Dshamaliy I-know-COND-Q Taku. ABS bazar-ALL go. INF ready-AUX-Q "Dshamaliy, do you know whether Taku is ready to go to the bazar?"

66

#### 5.7 Coordination of NPs and Clauses

Coordination of NPs and clauses in the SECL often is asyndetic, that is constituents are chained without any morphological means. Tsakhur uses particles like  $ji \sim ij$  "and", wa "and", de "or", if necessary.

The NP junction -ij ~ -ji either appears after the first NP or reduplicated after both of them, cf.

(116) dak:j-ij jedj dak: i-ii jedi-ij father-and mother-and father-and mother "Dto " "Father and mother"

> tsoz-er-əj jitsi-bi-ij 119 t[oz-er-əj jit[i-bi brother-PL-and sister-PL-and brother-PL-and sister-PL "Dto." "brothers and sisters"

The sentence junction wa is not as common as in some other SECL. Especially in folk tales the asyndetic structure is preferred. However, in conversation wa often indicates that the speaker intends to add another sentence to his talk, but that he is still unsure about it. The particle is also used to link to adverbs or predicative adjectives, cf.

(117) man-bi-s-e: if jug-ba wa ək'-ba ha:?a DEM-PL-SA-ERG work(III).ABS well-III and quickly-III III,do.PAST "They did (their) work well und quickly."

#### 5.8 Subordination

Subordination is very limited in the SECL (except for Udi). Instead, converbs, infinitives, and participles are used. Examples have already been given throughout the text, so that only some additional data are given here. Participles are used to encode relative clauses, cf.:

(118) zə tʃodz-u-k'le gagu-jn kitab maraxlə-da wo-d I(I).ABS brother(I)-AFF show-PART<sub>IV</sub> interesting-ATTR AUX-IV "The book that I have shown [my] brother is interesting."

ji[ wud3-e: dak:j-e: alja?u-jn γa:-qa qa-r-ə girl(II).ABS REFL(I)-ERGhum father-ERGhum build-PART.PASTIV house(IV)-ALL return-II-PAST "The girl returned to the house that her father had built."

hajna zə aliw [u-na balkan de [ this(III).ABS I(I).ABS buy-PART.PAST-ATTR<sub>III</sub> horse(III).ABS NEG.AUX "This is not the horse that I have bought."

67

zə Ø-e:xe-ni χa: paprəs tṣə<sup>r</sup>tṣə<sup>r</sup>a?an deſ I(I).ABS I-be-PRES.CONF room.LOC cigarette smoke-PART.PL NEG.AUX "In the room in which I am they don't smoke."

t'et' des-di bar-e: buljbulj ho:k'a-na des flower.ABS NEG.AUX-ATTROBL garden-LOC nightingale(III).ABS III.sing-PRES NEG.AUX "In a garden without flowers a nightingale does not sing."

Agreement patterns and case marking is also preserved with converbs and infinitives, often the nominal head (agent) of the superordinate clause is placed in the first position of the phrase, if it is coreferential with the agent of the embedded clause (i.e., cross referencing operates on an accusative pattern):

(119) xaj-bə alja?as gaje si dam-e:ntse alqa?u house(IV)-PL.ABS build.INF stone.PL.ABS we river-IN.ABL IV.lift.PAST "In order to build houses we took stones out of the river."

ku ixes-wu zə qa-r-ə you(I).ABS I.be-there-CV(CAUS) I(I).ABS come-I-PAST "I came because [I hoped that] you were there."

wa-s:e ixes-xe: he?e you(I)-AD.ESS be.INF-COND do.IMP "If you can, do [it]."

balkan w-uk'ər-wu qiwk'u horse(III).ABS III-ill-CV(CAUS) III.die.PAST "Because the horse was ill it died."

Due to Azeri (and Russian) influence more and more subordinating particles enter the Tsakhur grammar. Moreover, Tsakhur tends to imitate their functionality by using specific suffixes (often in second position). Thus we have *gora* "because", -xe "if", -k"a "how", alla "as" etc.

<sup>118</sup> Ibragimov 1990:136 has ats'axee:le instead of ats'axene in a quite parallel example. However, such a form never occurred in my notes. What we have is a form ats'axe-le which is a conditional followed by an element -le denoting something like "so that", cf. ilek:e-le hima uftanna itsije "look, what a nice girl!" (lit. "look (so that I can ask you:) is she a nice girl?" (cf. "Look! Isn't she a nice girl?")).

<sup>119</sup> Again a Gelmets form. Tsakhur would have tsu-ba-ij jitsi-bi(-ij).

These elements often simply support the converbial form or serve as modal adverbs, chaining two sentences by coordination rather than subordination. An example would be:

(120) zə q<sup>r</sup>a<sup>r</sup>la-k<sup>w</sup>a worna mant[i-qa gora jifon-aʔa def I.ABS angry-how I.AUX.PRES DEM.SA-ALL because talk-AUX.PRES NEG "I am angry, that is why I do not talk."

#### 6. Sample text

LM/W 133

The following text is taken from Ibragimov 1968:106<sup>1-15</sup>. The dialect is that of Tsakhur-Suwagil' (village of Mišleš), though "Tsakhurisms" can sometimes be observed (e.g. the ERG<sub>hum</sub> -e: instead oft -i:) The text is slightly corrected with the help of informants. Due to the morphoponological processes typical for Tsakhur the glossing of many words cannot be done via a simple segmentation. Thus the heavy portmanteau structure especially of verb forms is maintained in the glosses. Most of the forms, however, can be analyzed with the help of the informations given in the appropriate chapters. In some cases an additional interpretation is given in the notes. The inherent class of a noun is indicated only if it is the trigger for any sort of agreement. Contrary to the examples given in the grammar accent is always indicated in this text.

The text itself demonstrates the typical way Tsakhur people talk about (historical) events in their villages. It is basically asyndetic. The informant switches from past to present tenses more than once in order to tell about the fate of a man from Mišleš, called Kawkha  $(kaw\chi a)^{120}$ .

Kawxá miʃléʃ-ni xiw-é jedike əx-á. Kawkha.ABS Mishlesh-GEN(IV) village(IV)-IN/ESS born I.AUX-PAST "Kawkha was born in the village of Mishlesh."

k'əliwál-e: daki qik'-ú jetírma aχ-ú. youth-IN.ESS father.ABS die-PAST orphan(I).ABS I become-PAST "[His] father died, when he was young, [and] he became an orphan."

moli-ni je j-é pe jakár əx-á. eight-ATTR(IV) age(IV)-IN.ESS shepherd(I).ABS I.AUX-PAST "By the age of eight he became a shepherd."

Kawχá jits' śmolie-ni 121 sen-ei bəkər-na adamij e:xi-e. Kawkha.ABS nineteen-ATTR(IV) year(IV)-INESS adult-ATTR(I) man(I).ABS I.AUX-PRES Kawkha was an adult, when he was nineteen years old." Kawχá-is Asíijat-uka dawát-bə ha?-á.
Kawkha-DAT Assiyat-SUB.ADESS marriage(III)-PL.ABS III.make-PAST
"Kawkha married Assivat."

Kawχá wa<sup>5</sup>q'á<sup>5</sup>-bi-ʃi-kwa q'ə<sup>5</sup>dim-əs ajk'án Galá-qa. Kawkha.ABS sheep-PL-SA-COM winter-DAT I.go-PRES Gal-IN/ALL "In winter time Kawkha goes with the flock of sheep to [the village of] Hala<sup>122</sup>."

As:ijat χiw-é abáj-kwa é:χw-a.

LM/W 133

Assiyat village-IN.ESS mother=in=law(II)-COM II.stay-PAST

"Assiyat stayed in the village with [her] mother-in-law."

bak'istáw-ən duχ-jé glé:lles χiw-ó-ni á:χw-a-m-mə <sup>123</sup>. Shepherd-GEN.PL son-PL.ABS must.INF village-IN.ESS-IV stay-PAST-OPT-PL "The shepherd's sons had to stay in the village." mám-mə me-b χiw-é-ni. <sup>124</sup> DEM.ABS-PL again-I/II.PL village-IN.ESS-IV "They were in the village again."

duχ-iʃ-da sa As:ijat-ni qihná i:kár g<sup>j</sup>iʁál. son-PL-GEN(I) one.ABS Assiyat-GEN.OBL after I.go.GER PV.IV.begin.PRES<sup>125</sup> "One of the sons pursues Assiyat."

sa jiʁəli As:ijat tʃawrá-jsqa j-i<sup>c</sup>q:á<sup>c</sup>n-oa<sup>c</sup> ga-ts'a:k<sup>w</sup>'-an ja<sup>c</sup>q. one day-SUPER Assiyat cattle-AD.ALL II-go-PRES-ASSUME PV-III.block-PRES way.ABS
"One day, as Assiyat goes to the cattle, he blocks the way."

As:íjat-ni xɔˤwáʿ ajrqú gʲliʁál ubá-bə haʔ-á. Assiyat.ABS-ATTR.OBL hip(III).ABS III.take.PAST PV.IV.begin.PRES kiss(III)-PL.ABS III.PL.make-PAST<sup>126</sup>
"He embraces Assiyat und gives her a kiss."

Assijat man-gú-s ſillé ɔśwχ-əs hé:χwa-na. Assiyat.ABS he-SA<sub>m</sub>-DAT box(III).ABS III.give-PAST II.go=away-PRES "Assiyat gives him a box on the ear [and] goes away."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>120</sup> A much more complexe textual structure is given e.g. in the tale recorded by Dirr 1913:124-127. However, this text is full of errors. It has not been quoted here because I did not check it with informants.

<sup>121 \*</sup>jits'-é-mol/i-ATTR ("ten-plus-nine-"), cf. 4.5.

<sup>122</sup> A village in Azerbajdzhan.

<sup>123</sup> Assimilated form of \*á:\(\chi^na-m-b\)\(\phi\), which itself has to be interpreted as \*á-w-\(\chi^n-a-me:-b\)\(\phi\) (PV-I.PL-stay-PAST-OPT-PL).

<sup>124</sup> Literally: "They were in-village-beings".

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>125</sup> The verb *g-lisales* "to begin" often indicates an inchoative. Its class IV agreement refers to the whole embedded sentence.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>126</sup> ha?á "made" contains the CM  $-\varnothing$  for PL III (\*ha- $\varnothing$ -?-a). In the singular it has assimilated the infix \*-b-(ha:?a < \*ha-w-?-a).

χa: abá-is χabár há:?-a. at=home mother=in=law-DAT news(III).ABS III.make-PAST "At home she informs [her] mother-in-law."

ab-é <sup>127</sup> ejhén. mother=in=law-ERG<sub>hum</sub> III.say.PRES "The mother-in-law says:"

Assijat! Kawχá-is negáhba χabár hi-ma-?-a. Assiyat Kawkha-DAT nothing news(III). ABS PV-PROH-make-PAST "Assiyat, do not inform Kawkha!"

du $\chi$ -áj-k'le <sup>128</sup> gaj-x'é eb w-úx<sup>j</sup>-es jí $\gamma$ -on-gu-ni o'g<sup>j</sup>il<sup>j</sup> sán-c<sup>w</sup>-e: hid3ó ha?-é:. son-SA-AFF IV.know-COND blood(III).ABS III-be-FUT seven-SA<sub>m</sub>-ATTR.PL against one-SA<sub>m</sub>-ERG<sub>hum</sub> what.ABS do-PRES.Q "If [my] son knows [it], [there] will be blood, what can a single [person] do against seven!"

70

Kawχá a<sup>r</sup>zázil<sup>j</sup> insán wó-r-na. Kawkha.ABS rigorous man(I.ABS) AUX-I-PRES "Kawkha is a rigorous man."

dʒan balá ses-de-ná gřijor-e <sup>129</sup>. love child voice-NEG-ATTR PV-II-AUX-IMP "Dear child! Be silent!"

bak'é-qa abij-ni cor?ána:-ʃ-e: Kawχá-is χabár há:?-a. sheep-ALL going-ATTR.OBL shepherd-PL-ERG Kawkha-DAT news(III).ABS III.make-PAST.
"The shepherds going to the flock of sheep told Kawkha the news."

Kawxá dajánmif de-x-á qájl-e xiw-é-qa. Kawkha calm NEG-become-PRES I return-PRES village-IN ALL. "Kawkha does not rest calm [and] returns to the village."

## 7. Bibliography

LM/W 133

## 7.1 A brief look at the history of Tsakhur linguistics

As it has been said in the introduction linguistic work on Tsakhur started with the grammar of A. Dirr (Dirr 1913). Though it is full of mistakes and errors, it still contains some valuable information which should be once again checked with native speakers. The best reference book on Tsakhur surely is Ibragimov 1990. It describes in extenso the dialect of Tsakhur and also deals with the Gelmets dialect and two other (sub)dialects (Sabunchi and Suwagil). Due to the shortness of paper, however, this book is written in a very condensed form and not easy to use. The alternative would be žeiranišvili 1983/84, published in Georgian (with a Russian summary). Yet, this grammar does not reach the standard of Ibragimov's work. Moreover, it concentrates on the author's thesis that Rutul and Tsakhur are two dialects of a single language, which hinders him to give a mere descriptive treatment of these "dialects". There is another overview on Tsakhur by B.B. Talibov in the series Jazyki narodov SSSR, vol. 4 (Talibov 1967). Its fragmentary character does not allow its use as a primary source.

Some papers on Tsakhur can be found in the journals *Iberijsko-Kavkazskoe jazy-koznanie* and *Ežegodnik iberijsko-kavkazskogo jazykoznanija* (mainly by Ibragimov and žeiranišvili), as well as in some collections of the Daghestan Institute of Languages and Literature (Makhatchkala), which today is the center for Tsakhur studies besides the Georgian Institute of Linguistics (Georgian Akademy of Science).

A dictionary is still urgently wanted. The only collection of words we have is given by Dirr 1913 (some 500 words). Kibrik/Kodzasov 1990 as well as Starostin/Nikolayev 1994 list a number of Tsakhur word for comparative reasons, however, the lexical information is quite marginal. We are also in need for a text collection. Dirr 1913 gives one longer text, one anecdote, and some verses, Ibragimov 1968 has one text and eight (shorter) poems, and Ibragimov 1990 offers one poem, some proverbs, and one shorter text (from Gel'mec). Perhaps new material will be accessible when publishing in Tsakhur starts on basis of the new written language.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>127</sup> As every noun showing the word formation suffix -ij (cf. 3.) abaij "mother-in-law" looses this element in the obliquus. The final -a is then contracted with the ergative morpheme -e:.

<sup>128</sup> A tsakhurism. Mishlesh would have duxajk'li.

<sup>129 -</sup>de- is here used as an α-privativum. The resulting form then is used as an nominalized attribute ("the voiceless one"). The whole phrase would read: "Dear child, be you (CL II) a voiceless one!".

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72

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LM/W 133 74 TSAKHUR

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Tsakhur is spoken by some 13.000 people who dwell in about 30 villages or settlements at the headwaters of the river Samur (valley of Gorgin Magal) in Southern Daghestan. An important group of Tsakhur speakers can also be found in Northern Azerbajdzhan (along the two tributaries of the Agri-Chay river (Katekh-Chay and Kurmukh-Chay)). "Tsakhur" is the somewhat disputed) name for a dialect continuum, that is named for the village of Tsakhur (in the Samur valley). Together with Rutul, the language forms the western branch of the Samur languages, itself being a subgroup of South East Caucasian (Lezgian). Though Tsakhur is only sporadically written (a new "written language" has recently been reintroduced), it is quite vivid in ordinary life (competing especially with Azeri).

Tsakhur is a "typical" Lezgian language, operating on a system of semantic ergativity and noun classification, based on extensive case marking and a complex verbal paradigms. Though Tsakhur is heavily agglutinating, inflectional features can often be observed. As opposed to some other Lezgian languages, Tsakhur shows a tendency towards personal agreement (restricted, however, to the first person), ergative case marking of personal pronouns, and the development of focus particles.

The booklet informs on the basic structure of Tsakhur (phonology, morphology, and syntax), which is (at least partly) explained on the basis of internal and external reconstruction. The material stems either from written sources or from own field notes. A sample text together with an interlinear interpretation helps to illustrate the linguistic structure of the language.

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