DEMO: Purchase from www.A-PDF.com to remove the watermark **Slovene**

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1 Introduction

Standard Literary Slovene (slovénski knjižni jézik) is the official language of Slovenia; Slovene, in its various forms, is the native language of nearly 2 million speakers in Slovenia and in adjacent parts of Italy, Austria and Hungary, and of another 400,000 speakers in emigrant communities. For an overview of the demography, and a precise definition of the geographic area involved, see Lencek (1982: 15–22). The name 'Slovene' (ethnonym: Slovénoc; language: slovénščina or slovénski jézik) has been used in this sense since the early nineteenth century.

Available descriptions and lexical compilations of Slovene (in, for instance, Lencek 1982, Toporišič 1984, the Academy Dictionary, the *Pravopis*) are of the prescribed, standardized *zbôrni jézik* (common language). The diversiform *splóšni pogôvorni jézik* (general colloquial language) remains to be adequately described. Contemporary varieties of Slovene display significant and interesting differences.

The earliest Slavonic settlements in this region were in the sixth century AD. At first, Slovene shared a number of developments with Kajkavian and Čakavian Serbo-Croat (see Lencek 1982: 59-74). From about the twelfth century in general, and prior to that in some localities, the Slovene lands were politically controlled by speakers of Romance and, especially, Germanic; this control restricted the use of Slovene to strictly localized (dialect) forms, and resulted in extensive but sporadic bilingualism. There are only a few extant texts from before the Reformation; among them, the Freising Fragments (about AD 1000) are especially noteworthy. In the sixteenth century a written form of the Slovene language was developed by Trubar, Dalmatin, Kreli, Bohorič and others, and some fifty books were printed in Slovene between 1550 and 1598. The Counter-Reformation decelerated the expansion and codification of this written language, but in the nineteenth century the literary forms were reinforced and adopted as the language of a creative intelligentsia. Since then, there has been much discussion (and some disagreement) about the form that the standard language should take; there is still a lively interest in the language question.

The nineteenth-century language planners were faced with many problems, including the results of bilingualism, the heterogeneity of the Slovene dialects, the attractions of competing contemporary theoretical approaches and practical considerations. In particular, there was, on the one hand, pressure for Slovene to surrender to varieties of Slavonic with wider application and, on the other, competition between geographic and historical varieties of Slovene itself; also, there were the puristic influences known elsewhere in Slavonic (see Lencek 1982: 257-78). Eventually, those with influence (re-)modelled the language on the Slovene of the sixteenth century, and adopted many of the archaic features which distinguish it from the colloquial variants in use today. The language of Reformation Slovene had (in the main) been based upon the 'dialect bases' of Gorenjsko, Dolenjsko and (to a lesser extent) Notranjsko (see section 6); the first two of these, being the most central, contributed much to the eventual development of Contemporary Standard Slovene. The standard language thus offers a mixture of both spatially diverse and temporally diverse features. The spatial compromise is well exemplified by the coexistence of two equally authorized phonological systems, one with tonemic distinctions and one without, the first typical of some dialects, the second of others. The diachronic compromise can be seen in, for example, the pervasiveness of the dual category, which without learned intervention would not have survived in its full contemporary use. A large number of features that occur in most or all Slovene dialects, such as 'vowel reduction', are absent from the standard.

In the former Yugoslavia, the official use of Slovene was supported more by the letter of the law than in practice: as a minority language in the country as a whole, it was exposed to the substantial pressure of a modern bilingual situation as well as the general effects of population movements, mass communications and the like. The subject is complex and unresolved: see Tollefson (1981), Lencek (1982: 278–93), Paternost (1984).

2 Phonology

2.1 Segmental phoneme inventory

The two phonological systems of standard Slovene differ only with respect to prosodic phenomena. The **tonemic system** is here described first, then the **non-tonemic system**. A comparative table shows the relationship between the two. Thereafter all forms are cited according to the tonemic system (with one modification). Non-tonemic transcriptional forms (including the contemporary orthography) may be derived from them by the algorithm provided.

Vowels and prosodic phenomena. Slovene (in both the tonemic and the non-tonemic systems) has eight vowel phonemes: /i e ϵ a a o u/. Seven (all except /ə/) occur as long vowels, and six (all except /e o/) occur as short, namely [i: e: ϵ : a: o: o: u:] and [i ϵ a a o u] respectively. Long vowels are always stressed; short vowels may be stressed and unstressed.

Phonetically, /e: o:/ are high-mid and /ɛ: ɔ:/ are low-mid; short /ɛ ɔ/ are normally low-mid, but are realized as mid before tautosyllabic /j v/ respectively. /e: o:/ do not occur before tautosyllabic /j v/ respectively. For further phonetic details see Toporišič (1984: 39-44).

The tonemic system has distinctive stress, length and pitch. A phono-

The tonemic system has distinctive stress, length and pitch. A phonological word normally contains either one long vowel, or no long vowels; if it contains a long vowel, this is stressed; if it contains no long vowels, the final vowel is normally stressed; non-final short vowels also are stressed in a brief list of words (see Stankiewicz 1959: 74–5). The long vowels /i: e: ϵ : a: ϵ : o: u: / are tonemically either low or high; tonemically high / ϵ : ϵ : / are relatively uncommon. The short vowels /i ϵ a ϵ u/ are always tonemically high; the short vowel / ϵ /, however, shows the tonemic high versus low contrast on non-final syllables, especially before /r/, compare /pərstnica/ 'phalange' (with stressed tonemically high / ϵ -/) and /pərstanəc/ 'ring finger' (with stressed tonemically low / ϵ -/). Normally however, / ϵ -/ has predictable tonemicity: high in final syllables and low in non-final syllables. The tonemically high and tonemically low syllables have traditionally (and in part misleadingly) been referred to, respectively, as 'falling' and 'rising'. Phonetic details are very complex: see Srebot-Rejec (1988) and Toporišič (1989).

The distinction between long and short vowels thus generally obtains in final syllables, and exceptionally elsewhere. The distinction between high and low tonemicity obtains on final and non-final syllables. The total number of possible phonetic combinations of vowel with length/brevity and high tonemicity/low tonemicity is as in table 8.1.

The standard transcription for the **tonemic system** cited in the Academy Dictionary (normally in parentheses after the headword) and also provided by Lencek (1982: 'phonemic tone system') and Toporišič (1984: 'tonemski naglas'), is as follows. First, as in Serbo-Croat, **superscript** diacritics are used to indicate differences in pitch on stressed vowels; in Slovene, the acute is marked on long low-pitch, the circumflex on long high-pitch, the grave on short low-pitch and the double grave on short high-pitch vowels. Second, the distinction between /e:/ and /ɛ:/, and the distinction between /o:/ and /ɔ:/, are shown with **subscript** marks, namely with a subscript dot marked beneath the more close vowel of each pair. In this system, therefore, \hat{i} , \hat{e} , \hat{e} , \hat{o} , \hat{o} , \hat{u} represent long low-pitch (traditionally, 'rising') vowels; \hat{i} , \hat{e} , \hat{e} , \hat{o} , \hat{o} , \hat{u} represent long high-pitch ('falling') vowels; and \hat{i} , \hat{e} , \hat{o} , \hat{o} , \hat{u} represent short stressed high-pitch ('falling') vowels. The shwa /ə/, represented orthographically as e, carries the double grave or the

Table 8.1 The tonemic vowel system

			L	ong					Sho	rt		
Stressed High topolity	i							:				
High tonality		e				o	u	1				u
		C	ε		э	U			ε	ə	э	
			·	a	·				·	a	Ü	
Low tonality	i						u					
•		e				o						
			ε		Э					Э		
				a								
Unstressed								i				
Unstressed								1	ε	Э	э	u
									E	a	J	
										а		

single grave, if stressed. The combination $/ \operatorname{or} / \operatorname{is}$ represented as if it were a 'syllabic r': long low-pitch \hat{r} , long high-pitch \hat{r} . Vowels without diacritics are unstressed. Note also the use of the macron, for example $\bar{\imath}$ in $nj\bar{\imath}hov$ 'their', for long vowels which may be either tonemically high or low.

The famous dictionary of Pleteršnik (1894-5) used both subscript dots and subscript reversed-cedillas to mark both close /e/ and close /o/; this usage had comparative-historical relevance. Pleteršnik showed shwa with a special graphic variant of e. In this chapter, the 'tonemic' transcription (as just described) is used, except that 'shwa' is consistently represented as ə.

The non-tonemic system has distinctive stress and length but does not have distinctive pitch. A phonological word contains either one long vowel, or no long vowels; if it contains a long vowel, this is stressed; if it contains no long vowels, the final vowel is normally stressed (for exceptions, see Stankiewicz 1959: 74-5). The total number of possible phonetic combinations of vowel with length/brevity is thus as in table 8.2.

The normal contemporary transcription (non-tonemic), used – except in the citations in parentheses – in the Academy Dictionary, and used for most of the data in Lencek (1982: 'CSS norm system') and Toporišič (1984: 'jakostni naglas'), is as follows. Subscript diacritics are not used, and the superscript diacritics are used in two ways. The grave, as before, designates short stressed vowels. Long stressed vowels all bear the acute, except for ϵ of thus represent stressed /e: o:/, while ê, ô represent stressed /e: o:/. The schwa /ə/ is represented orthographically as e. Stressed /ər/ is represented by f.

The relationship between the tonemic and non-tonemic systems, for

Unstressed

			Lo	ong					Sho	rt		
Stressed	i						u	i				u
		e				0						
			3		э				ε	ə	Э	
				9						а		

Table 8.2 The non-tonemic vowel system

stressed vowels, can be exemplified as in table 8.3. u and a follow the pattern exemplified here for i; o/ο follow that shown here for e/ε.

The Slovene forms presented in the modified tonemic transcription in this chapter can be rewritten according to the usual non-tonemic transscription (also modified to show shwa) by the following ordered rules:

- rewrite é, ê as ê and ó, ô as ô; 1
- 2 rewrite é, ê as é and ó, ô as ó;
- 3 rewrite â, î, û, r as á, í, ú, r;
- 4 rewrite i, e, b, a, o, u as i, e, b, a, o, u;
- leave other vowel diacritics unchanged. 5

Let us now consider how these prosodic distinctions arose. Slovene inherited Proto-Slavonic phonemic length, phonemic pitch and phonemic stress, but - as the result of a number of changes in vocalic length and pitch, and also three major accent shifts with further concomitant changes in pitch – the incidence of prosodic phenomena became very different. In brief (see Lencek 1982: 81–117, passim) the following sequential changes occurred subsequent to the 'neoacute' accent shift (see chapter 3, section 2.26):

- long rising vowels became short (rising); 1
- short falling vowels became long (falling); 2
- stress shifted from long falling non-final syllables one syllable to the 3 right, producing new long falling vowels;
- stress shifted from short final syllables one syllable to the left onto 4 preceding long vowels, producing new long rising vowels; old neoacute and all short rising vowels in non-final syllables were
- 5 lengthened:
- short rising vowels in final syllables became short falling; 6

Table 8.3	Compari	ison of	the	two	systems
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Tonemic	Transcription	Non-tonemic	Transcription
Long HT /i/ Long LT /i/	î }	Long /i/	ſ
Short HT /i/	î,	Short /i/	ì
Long HT /e/ Long LT /e/	ê } ê } ê }	Long /e/	é
Long HT /ε/ Long LT /ε/	ê) é}	Long /ε/	ê
Short HT /ε/	è	Short /ε/	è
HT /ə/ LT /ə/	ð} è}	/ə/	\$
HT /ər/ LT /ər/	r̂ }	/ər/	ŕ

HT = High Tonality, LT = Low Tonality.

All the above changes occurred over the whole Slovene-speaking territory. The following accent shifts were localized:

- stress shifted from short final syllables one syllable to the left onto preceding short $/\epsilon$ σ , producing new long rising low-mid vowels;
- 8 stress shifted from short final syllables one syllable to the left onto preceding short /ə/, producing new stressed shwa.

Of these two developments, item 7 occurred in the dialects which formed the base of standard Slovene. Although item 8 did not generally occur in those dialects, it is now reflected in optional variants in the standard language, for example $m g l \dot{a} \sim m \dot{g} g l a$ 'mist'.

Developments in the vowel system are extremely complex; in brief, the following changes occurred at different times but all at a relatively early date. In the dialects which were to form the base of standard Slovene, */ĕ/results in /e:/, */ę o/ change to /e: o:/, and the two strong jers (see chapter 3, section 2.25) change to /a:/ when long, and to /ə/ when short. Examples for the strong jers: dân < *dbnb 'day', məglà ~ mègla 'mist' < *mbgla; for other examples, see below.

In addition, all mid vowels tended to be raised and/or diphthongized whenever they occurred both stressed and long, which (see above) was for historical periods of greatly varying duration, depending on their qualitative origin and the syllable in which they occurred. This is why the details of individual changes are so complex (see Rigler 1963, 1967; Lencek 1982: 92–121, passim). The distinction between /e: o:/ and /ɛ: o:/ arose

(in the Gorenjsko dialects, which contributed this feature to standard Slovene) because of the relatively recent date of prosodic change 7 above: by this time, all stressed mid vowels had been raised to mid-high [e o]; the newly lengthened mid vowels remained mid-low [ε o]; hence words like žéna 'wife' < *žená, góra 'mountain' < *gorá, the stressed vowels of which contrast with those of words with original jat' and nasals, for example césta 'road' < *cěsta, mèta 'mint' < *meta, móka 'flour' < *moka.

Further, unstressed and most short stressed vowels were 'reduced' (that is, many of their mutual oppositions were neutralized) and in some instances elided in most dialects, and especially the central ones. Although the standard pronunciation avoids reduced and elided vowels, these are very common in conversational styles, as in [kap] 'heap' (kup, [praumo] 'we say' (pravimo).

Among other vocalic changes, vowel + liquid sequences (both initially before consonants and interconsonantally) were metathesized: $*\bar{o}ldi$ -changed to $l\bar{a}dja$ 'boat', $*b\bar{e}rza$ to $br\dot{e}za$ 'birch' and $*b\bar{o}lto$ to $bl\dot{a}to$ 'mud'. Syllabic /r/ gave /ər/ and syllabic /l/ gave /ov/ (pronounced [ou]): *krt-> $k\hat{r}t$ 'mole', *dlg-> $d\hat{o}lg$ 'debt'.

Consonants. Slovene has twenty-one consonantal phonemes, as in table 8.4. Their distribution is as follows (here, C/# = consonant or word-boundary and V = vowel):

/dž/ occurs in words of non-Slovene origin; it is not given phonemic status by some analysts.

/c x/ have voiced allophones [dz γ] occurring before voiced obstruents, for example vzlıc gróžnji [...dz gr...] 'in spite of the threat', vr̂h drevệsa [...rγ dr...] '(at) the top of the tree'.

/n/ is realized as [n] before /k g x/.

/v/ is realized as [u] between V and C/#; [w] between C/# and a resonant or voiced obstruent; [m] between C/# and voiceless ob-

Table 8.4 The consonant system

	Lab	ials	Der	ıtals	Alv	eolar-palatals	Veld	ars
Stops Fricatives Affricates Nasals Glide Roll Lateral	p f	b v m	t s c	d z n r	š č j	ž dž	k x	g

struent; [v] before V. Between V + /r/ and C/#, /v/ is variously realized as [u] \sim [w] \sim [v].

/j/ is realized as [i] before C/# and [i] ~ [j] before V.

The voiceless obstruents /p f t č s š k/ do not occur before a voiced obstruent; the voiced obstruents /b d dž z ž g/ do not occur before a voiceless obstruent, before a word boundary followed by a vowel or a resonant or in pre-pausal position.

/s z/ do not normally occur before /š č ž dž/.

In the standard consonantal orthography of Slovene the symbols used in table 8.4 are employed orthographically to represent their corresponding phonemes, except as follows:

When affected by the positional voicing and devoicing constraints just described; in these circumstances, the orthography is morphophonemic.

Orthographic v represents /v/, as above, except that the preposition v is optionally pronounced as [v], [u] or [u] before V.

Orthographic I is pronounced [u] or [u] (that is, it represents /v/) in many pre-consonantal and pre-pausal environments; there is some inconsistency in this (see Toporišič 1984: 73; and Lencek 1982: 168). It is always /v/ in the following circumstances: (a) in the masculine singular *l*-participle; (b) in masculine adjectives ending in el /əv/; and, normally, (c) in nouns ending in el /əv/ and in deverbal derivatives containing the sequence lc denoting inanimate agents, and in further derivatives therefrom containing the sequences lč, lk, lsk, lstv. Otherwise, its occurrence has to be specially listed.

Orthographic lj and nj represent respectively /l/ /n/ in pre-consonantal and pre-pausal position, and /lj/, /nj/ - that is, lateral + glide and nasal + glide - in pre-vocalic position.

Orthographic r represents the sequence /ər/ initially before a consonant and interconsonantally.

Orthographic h is used for the phoneme /x/.

When we consider the system from a diachronic perspective, we see that consonantal innovations in the dialects which form the base for the standard language were few in number, and in some cases changes that had occurred were excluded from it. The most important changes were as follows:

All palatal and potentially palatalized consonants were, earlier or later, resolved as non-palatal and non-palatalized. */ń f [/ changed to /nj rj lj/ pre-vocalically, /n r l/ elsewhere: *koń- > könj /kòn/, kónja /kónja/ 'horse'; *čuvár- > čuvár, čuvárja 'keeper'.

*/dl tl/ resulted in /l/, except in past verbal forms: *mydlo > milo 'soap';

- *pletla > plétla 'knit (l-PART F SG)'.
- */dj tj/ changed to /j č/: *medja > méja 'border', *svetja > svéča 'candle'; however, */zdj/ > /ž/ ~ /žj/: *dъzdj- > dɔ̃z, dɔžjä 'rain'; */stj skj/ > /šč/: *isk-j- > iščem 'search (1 SG PRS)'.
 */v/ gave /v/ with allophonic distribution as described above.
- */l/ gave /v/ in the limited conditions described above.
- */ž/ changed to /r/ sporadically, for example, in */možete/ > mórete 'be able' (2 PL PRS)', */kbdo + že/ > kdôr 'who (REL)'.

 Voiced obstruents were devoiced before voiceless obstruents, before a word boundary followed by a vowel or a resonant and in pre-pausal position, while voiceless obstruents were voiced before voiced obstruents.

Morphophonemic alternations inherited from Common Slavonic 2.2

Alternations in the **position of stress** (reflecting the Proto-Slavonic movable-stress pattern) are preserved in some nouns, for instance, gradom (INST SG), $grad\hat{o}v$ (GEN PL) 'castle', and in some verbs, such as $stop\bar{t}ti$ (INF), stópim (1 PRS) 'tread'.

Vowel-zero alternations, usually reflecting developments of jers, occur in the following environments: obstruent + obstruent, obstruent + sonorant, and sonorant + sonorant.

- /ə/ ~ /Ø/ is very frequent, but is not automatic; compare in nouns: pɔ̃s (NOM SG), psɑ̃ (GEN SG) 'dog' versus kɔ̃s (NOM SG), kɔ̄sa (GEN SG) 'repentance'. Other examples in nouns: stəbə̃r (NOM SG), stəbrɑ̃ (GEN SG) 'pillar'; kɑ̂pəlj (GEN PL), kɑ́plja (NOM SG) 'drop'; in adjectives, təmə̃n (M NOM SG INDEF), tə̃mni (M NOM SG DEF) 'dark'; in preposition + clitic groups, third person singular masculine: nɑ̂nj 'onto him' nɑ̂dənj 'above him'; and in *l*-participles, *plētəl* (M) *plétla* (F) 'knit'. /i/ ~ /Ø/ occurs in nouns, before /j/: zârij (GEN PL), zárja (NOM SG)
- 'dawn'.
- /a/ ~ /Ø/ occurs in a few nouns, like dân (NOM SG), dnệ (GEN SG) 'day'; ovāc (GEN PL), óvca (NOM SG) 'sheep'; and, as a variant of the /ə/ ~ /Ø/ alternation, in some adjectives, such as təmân ~ təmən (M NOM SG INDEF), təmni (M NOM SG DEF) 'dark'.
- The /o/ ~ /e/ alternation with the latter vowel occurring after /c č dž ž š j/ - is automatic in the context of what were, historically, 'hard' versus 'soft' stems. For examples in declension, see section 3.1.2 (*prijātelj* 'friend', *srcē* 'heart'), section 3.1.4 (*vróče* 'hot'). The alternation also occurs in derivative suffixes; see section 3.3.3 (*prepisováti* 'copy' versus izboljševáti 'improve').

The first palatalization and the influence of following *j are extensively preserved in verbal inflection and the formation of comparative adjectives, but are vestigial in nominal inflection. Together they give the following alternations, some of which show specific Slovene post-Proto-Slavonic developments:

```
/p ~ plj, b ~ blj, f ~ flj, v ~ vlj, m ~ mlj/;

/t ~ č, st ~ šč, d ~ j, zd ~ ž, z ~ ž, s ~ š, c ~ č/;

/n ~ nj, sn ~ šnj, l ~ lj, sl ~ šlj, r ~ rj/;

/k ~ č, sk ~ šč, g ~ ž, zg ~ ž, h ~ š/.
```

In verbs they are most apparent in two conjugation classes:

- 1 Class IIIb: in infinitive versus present forms: gibati, gibljem 'move', rę́zati, rę̂zem 'cut', klicati, klicem 'call', iskati, išcem 'search', lagati, lázem 'tell lies';
- 2 Class IV: in infinitive versus past passive participial forms: pozdrāviti, pozdrāvljen 'greet', branīti, bránjen 'defend', misliti, mišljen 'think', udáriti, udârjen 'strike'.

They also occur elsewhere, as in the present versus *l*-participle forms of réčem, rékla 'say', lêžem, légla 'lie down'.

The alternation occurs in the inflection of only three nouns, see section 3.1.2 ($uh\hat{q}$ 'ear', $ok\hat{q}$ 'eye', $ig\hat{q}$ 'yoke'); it remains common in the comparison of adjectives (see section 3.1.4).

The second palatalization is preserved, but only barely, in verbal and nominal inflection. It comprises the following two alternations: $/k \sim c$, $g \sim z/$. The alternants /c z/ occur in derivatives; in the imperative forms of verbs with infinitive in $-\ddot{c}i$, such as $r\dot{e}\ddot{c}i$, $r\dot{e}kla$, $rec\hat{c}ie$ 'say', $stri\ddot{c}i$, strigla, strizite 'cut (hair)'; and in the plural of two masculine nouns: $v\hat{o}lk$, nominative plural $volcj\hat{e}$ 'wolf' (now considered archaic) and the standard $otr\ddot{o}k$ 'child, baby' (see section 3.1.2).

2.3 Morphophonemic alternations resulting from changes after Proto-Slavonic

Many of the numerous and complex changes listed in section 2.1, when added to an inherited system which already featured prosodic alternations, gave rise to even more of the same; none of these alternations are automatic, and very few are regular. Note should be taken especially of the following.

Of the length alternations, one is regular in nominal morphology: short vowels in final syllables alternate with long vowels when these syllables are non-final; for examples, see sections 3.1.2 (hlëb 'loaf', deklë 'girl', miš 'mouse') and 3.1.4 (növ 'new'). Length alternations also occur in verbs: začněm (PRS 1 SG), začnémo (PRS 1 PL) 'begin'; končál (l-PART M SG), končála (l-PART F SG) 'finish'. Alternations of position of stress are

common in nouns; for examples, see section 3.1.2 (jézik 'language', srebro 'silver', vréme 'weather', žéna 'wife', kôst 'bone'). Note also the stress retraction in prepositional phrases with some nouns, as in primêr 'example (ACC SG)' but na prîmer 'for example'; vodô 'water (ACC SG)' but v vôdo 'into the water'. Stress alternations occur also in pronouns (see jäz in section 3.1.3) and in adjectives, see mlâd 'young' in section 3.1.4. They also occur in verbs: vôzi (IMP 2 SG), vozîte (IMP 2 PL) 'drive'; razvesêlil (M PAST), razveselila (F PAST) 'gladden'; grešîl (M PAST IMPFV), pogréšil (M PAST PRFV) 'sin, err'. Pitch alternations occur frequently; see, for example, the nouns grâd 'castle', mésto 'town', žéna 'wife', kôst 'bone' in section 3.1.2; the pronoun óna 'she' in 3.1.3; and the adjective médol 'faint' in section 3.1.4. Examples in verbs include umŕla (PAST F), umŕlo (PAST N) 'die'; víti (INF), vît (supine) 'twist'; dêlate (PRES 2 PL), délajte (IMP 2 PL) 'work'. In numerals: pêt (NOM), pétih (GEN) 'five'.

Alternations between low-mid and high-mid vowels occur in nouns: kôst (NOM SG), kósti (DAT SG) 'bone'; in adjectives: vélik (M NOM SG INDEF), véliki (M NOM SG DEF) 'big'; and in verbs: kréneš (PRES 2 SG), kréni (IMP 2 SG) 'set out'; prósiš (PRES 2 SG), prósi (IMP 2 SG) 'ask'.

The regular consonantal alternation /1 ~ v/ occurs in l-participial

The regular consonantal alternation /l \sim v/ occurs in *l*-participial forms: bil /bi:v/ (M SG), $bil\ddot{a}$ (F SG, M DU), $bil\ddot{i}$ (F DU, M PL) 'be'; and in nominal morphology also: misol /mi:səv/ (NOM), misli (GEN) 'thought'. The sporadic change */z/ >/r/ results in the unique alternation /g \sim r/ in the verb moci (INF): moci (PAST F), moci (PRES 1 SG). The neutralization of the voiced \sim voiceless opposition creates frequent

The neutralization of the voiced \sim voiceless opposition creates frequent automatic alternations: /d/ in $h\dot{u}di$ $br\ddot{a}t$ '(the) evil brother (DEF)', $h\ddot{u}d$ $br\ddot{a}t$ '(an) evil brother (INDEF)' versus /t/ in $h\ddot{u}d$ stric '(an) evil uncle', $h\ddot{u}d$ $o\ddot{c}e$ '(an) evil father', $h\ddot{u}d$ $m\ddot{o}\ddot{z}$ '(an) evil husband'; $/\ddot{s}/$ in $izvr\ddot{s}t\dot{t}$ 'to execute' versus $/\ddot{z}/$ in $izv\ddot{r}\ddot{s}ba$ 'execution'.

The alternation /k ~ x/ occurs in the preposition k 'towards', with /x/ occurring before /k g/: $h kov\acute{a} \check{c} u / xk-/$ 'towards the smith', $h gr \hat{a} du / xg-/$ [$\gamma g-$] 'towards the town'; and occasionally elsewhere, as in $nik \hat{\rho} gar$ (GEN) < * $ni + koga + \check{z}e$ versus $nih \check{c} \check{e}$ (NOM) < * $ni + kbo + \check{z}e$ 'nobody'.

3 Morphology

3.1 Nominal morphology

3.1.1 Nominal categories

Nouns, adjectives and pronouns are inflected for number, case and gender (including subgender); also, adjectives are inflected for definiteness and derive comparative and superlative degrees. For the relative frequency of the different subclasses within most of these categories, see Neweklowsky (1988).

Three **numbers** are distinguished: singular, dual and plural. There is dual/plural syncretism in the genitive and locative cases in nouns and adjectives, but no such syncretism obtains in pronouns. For limitations on the use of the dual, see section 4.10.

There are six cases: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, instrumental and locative. There is no separate vocative case. The locative (as in other Slavonic languages), and also the instrumental, occur only in prepositional phrases. As compared with the other Slavonic languages that have full declensions, there is relatively little case syncretism, but two points may be mentioned: in the singular, most nouns and some pronouns have dative–locative syncretism; and in the dual (which also shows number syncretism, see above) there is nominative–accusative syncretism in nouns and adjectives, and dative–instrumental syncretism in nouns, adjectives and pronouns. A few nouns, adjectives and pronouns are indeclinable.

There are three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. Nouns and some pronouns have inherent gender. Gender is expressed by inflection in other pronouns and in adjectives; it is also expressed in the nominativeaccusative of one numeral and in the nominative of two others. The gender of nouns is partly predictable from their endings. A very few nouns may have more than one gender; and a very few have gender varying according to number. There is extensive gender syncretism, as in other Slavonic languages, but note that adjectives do not fully neutralize gender oppositions in the nominative-accusative dual and plural. Unusually within Slavonic, gender is expressed in personal pronouns other than the third person singular, namely in all persons dual and plural. The neuter tends to non-productivity: borrowed words normally become either masculine or feminine. The opposition between the two animacy subgenders - animate and inanimate - which is expressed in nouns and their co-referent adjectives and in some pronouns, occurs only in the singular. Only masculine nouns are marked for animacy; animate nouns include, as well as human and animal referents, also makes of car, kinds of illness, names of wines and some other semantic categories (see Toporišič 1984: 212). Pronouns, and also adjectives used pronominally, are marked as animate for masculine and neuter referents (see section 4.7).

The opposition between definite and indefinite is expressed in some adjectives. Where it is expressed, it is generally very limited; in most instances its overt marking is restricted to the masculine nominative singular. Nearly all adjectives (and adverbs derived from them) form analytic or synthetic comparatives and superlatives.

3.1.2 Noun morphology

There are three major classes of declension, labelled here according to their main Proto-Slavonic progenitor classes. The first continues the Proto-Slavonic *o-stems, masculine and neuter; representatives of Proto-Slavonic

*u-stems and *i-stems are in this class, the latter marked by automatic desinential alternations; nouns deriving from Proto-Slavonic consonantal stems are also subtypes of this class. The second continues Proto-Slavonic *a-stems, *i-stems, *i-stems, and consonantal stems in *i-er-. The third is the continuation of the Proto-Slavonic *i-stems. In addition to these classes, there are the following: (a) indeclinable nouns, for example acronyms such as TAM (Tovarna Avtomobilov Maribor) 'Maribor Auto Factory'; and (b) nouns with adjectival declensions (such as dežurni 'male person on duty', dežurna 'female person on duty' and many place names such as Dolénjsko (N) Dolénjska (F) 'Lower Carniola').

Declensional type and gender are closely related: o-stem nouns are almost all masculine and neuter; a-stem nouns are typically feminine, but a few are masculine; all but one i-stem nouns are feminine. Neither gender nor declension class is predictable from the nominative singular form: nouns with nominative singular in a consonant are either masculine o-stems or feminine i-stems, whereby gender is largely predictable from derivative suffixes; nouns in -a are typically feminine and atypically masculine; and nouns in -o, -e are neuter (long-established words) or masculine (more recent borrowings). Some nouns have more than one gender and/or more than one declension, for instance $p\phi t$ 'path', which may be masculine (as $k\phi t$ 'corner') with a variant nominative plural, $p\phi ta$, or feminine (as $k\phi st$ 'bone'). Indeclinable nouns may be masculine, feminine or neuter.

The most productive noun declensions are the masculine o-stems like $k\phi t$ 'corner' (table 8.5), the a-stems like lipa 'linden' (table 8.11), and the i-stems like $sm\hat{r}t$ 'death' (table 8.12). There is usually syncretism of the dative and locative singular (the exceptions being some o-stem nouns). Moreover the genitive dual is always identical to the genitive plural, while the locative dual has the same form as the locative plural and so the former are omitted in the paradigms given.

O-stem class. The regular paradigm of **o-stem (masculine)** nouns is illustrated with $k\phi t$ 'corner' (table 8.5). Various nouns which might have been

Table 8.5 o -s	tems (mascu	ıline),	inanimate
------------------	-------------	---------	-----------

_	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	kót	kóta	kóti	
ACC	kót	kóta	kóte	
GEN	kóta	(= GEN PL)	kōtov	
DAT	kótu	kótoma	kótom	
INST	kótom	kótoma	kōti	
LOC	kótu	(= LOC PL)	kōtih	

Table 8.0	o-stems	(mascuiine),	animate

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM ACC GEN	dềd dęda dęda	déda déda	dędi dęde dędov	

used for comparative purposes are irregular; some are illustrated below. Animate nouns have genitive desinences for the accusative in the singular only. The first half of the paradigm for ded 'grandfather' (which also occurs as ded, deda) is thus as in table 8.6.

Variants (stem):

- 1 The /ə ~ Ø/ alternation is regular and frequent but not automatic, see section 2.2.
- 2 A few nouns in $-\partial lj/\partial l/$ have, instead of the $/\partial \sim \emptyset/$ alternation, an extension of this suffix to $/-\partial ln-/$ before all vocalic endings: thus $n\dot{a}g\partial lj$, $n\dot{a}g\partial lj$ na 'carnation'.
- 3 Most nouns in -r extend the stem to -rj- before all non-zero endings, as in denár, denárja 'money'. Also, most borrowings ending in vowels extend the final stem-vowel with /-j-/: alībi, alībija 'alībi'. Dɔ̃z 'rain' extends its stem in the same way: dɔz̄jä.
- 4 The /-ov-/ infix in the dual and plural, exemplified in grād 'castle' (table 8.7) occurs, often as a stylistic variant, with several nouns. Note that the infix *-ev- does not occur. (grād has the optional variant genitive singular gradū, see item 9 below).
- 5 Many nouns show stress and/or pitch alternations; there are many different paradigmatic patterns. Note especially the alternation between short and long vowels (see section 2.3) in nouns like hlèb, hléba 'loaf', čèp čépa 'bung'; these two examples show the neutralization, in the nominative singular, of the high-mid versus low-mid vocalic distinction. Note also stress shifts in, for instance, jézik, jezika 'language', trébuh trebúha 'belly'.
- 6 Člóvek 'man, person' has a regular o-stem declension (človéka and so on) in the singular and dual (except where dual and plural show syncretism), but has the plural ljudje, ljudi, ljudi, ljudem, ljudmi, ljudeh, that is, it has endings much like those of kost 'bone' (see below).
- 7 Otrök, otrók/otrók- 'child, baby' has plural otróci, otróke, otrók, otrókom, otróki, otrōcih.

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	grâd	gradôva	gradôvi	
ACC	grâd	gradôva	gradôve	
GEN	grâda		gradóv	
DAT	grâdu	gradôvoma	gradôvom	
INST	grådom	gradôvoma	gradôvi	
LOC	grâdu		gradôvih	

Table 8.7 o-stems (masculine), with -ov- infix

Variants (ending):

- 8 Stem's ending in /j c č š ž dž/ automatically replace /-o-/ with /-e-/ in instrumental singular, dative-instrumental dual and genitive plural and dative plural; these stems represent (and pre-empt) the original *jostem class; for example, prijâtelj 'friend', respectively prijâteljem, prijâteljema, prijateljev, prijateljem.
- 9 Some nouns have genitive singular /-û/ as a (usually, optional) variant of /-a/, for instance, sîn 'son', sîna ~ sinû; others have a (normally optional) stress shift in the genitive singular, as môž 'husband' below.
- Some nouns have optional nominative plural in unstressed /-je/: thus golôb, golôbi ~ golôbje 'pigeon'; fầnt 'boy' fántje ~ fánti.
 The paradigm of môž 'husband' (table 8.8) illustrates a number of other common variant endings, especially those with stressed /-e-/; genitive plural in -0; and instrumental plural in /-mi/.

For o-stem (neuter) the regular paradigm, mésto 'town' is given in table 8.9.

Variants (stem):

- The zero ~ vowel alternation is regular and frequent. Two nouns have /-a-/: $dn\ddot{o}$ 'ground', genitive plural $d\dot{a}n \sim dn\ddot{o}v \sim dn\acute{o}v$; $tl\ddot{a}$ 'floor' (plurale tantum), genitive $t\dot{a}l$. Nouns with final /-j/ (except a list of nouns with /-nj//lj/) have /-i-/: $m\hat{o}rje$ 'sea', genitive plural $m\hat{o}rij$. Otherwise, the alternating vowel is /-2-/, as in súkno 'cloth' genitive plural sûkən.
- Many nouns show stress and/or pitch alternations: blago 'goods', 2 dative-locative singular blagu; srebrô 'silver', dative-locative singular srēbru ~ srêbru.

Variants (ending):

Stems ending in /j c č š ž/ automatically replace /-o-/ with /-e-/ in nominative-accusative and instrumental singular, dative-instrumental

Table 8.8	o-stems	(masculine),	irregular
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	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	mộž	možà	možję	
ACC	moža	možâ	možę	
GEN	moža		mýž	
DAT	mộžu	možęma	možệm	
INST	mộžem	možęma	možmí	
LOC	mộžu		možéh	
				

Table 8.9 o-stems (neuter)

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	mę́sto	mę̃sti	mệsta	
ACC	mésto	mę̃sti	mệsta	
GEN	mę́sta		mệst	
DAT	mę́stu	męstoma	mệstom	
INST	méstom	męstoma	mệsti	
LOC	mę́stu		mệstih	

dual and dative plural; these represent the original *jo-stems (see section 2.2). Thus srce, srcem, srcema, srcem 'heart'.

Three subtypes of o-stem consonantal extensions are firmly maintained in Slovene: those with /-n-/, those with /-s-/ and those with /-t-/. There are ten 'n-nouns', fourteen 's-nouns' and the 't-noun' declension became productive and was extended so that not only young animals ($p\bar{i}s\check{c}e$ 'chick') but various words for humans ($rev\check{s}e$ 'pitiable child') and men's names ($T\hat{o}ne$ 'Tony') have been included; indeed, there are now one feminine and many masculine 't-nouns'. In all three instances, the endings are generally those of normal o-stem neuter nouns. A typical instance, the 't-noun' $j\acute{a}gnje$ 'lamb', is given in table 8.10.

Variants (stem):

- All three subtypes have truncated nominative-accusative singular and full stems in all other cases, as above. 'N-nouns' have -e as the truncated stem, -en- elsewhere; 's-nouns' have -o and -es- respectively.
- In each subgroup there are some nouns with no prosodic alternations, like jágnje 'lamb', for instance imê imêna 'name', drevô drevêsa 'tree'. Most nouns, however, have stress or pitch alternations: deklê, dekléta

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	jágnje	jágnjeti	jágnjeta	
ACC	jágnje	jágnjeti	jágnjeta	
GEN	jágnjeta		jágnjet	
DAT	jágnjetu	jágnjetoma	jágnjetom	
INST	jágnjetom	jágnjetoma	jágnjeti	
LOC	jágnjetu		jágnjetih	

Table 8.10 o-stems (neuter), consonantal extension

genitive singular, *deklęta* nominative plural 'girl'; *vréme*, *vremęna* 'weather'; and see *uhộ* 'ear' below.

3 Three nouns have stem consonantal alternations: uhộ ušésa 'ear'; okô, očêsa 'eye'; igô, ižêsa 'yoke'.

Variants (ending):

4 The many masculine 't-nouns' – all of which have human referents – have accusative identical with genitive; óče, očéta 'father'; fantë, fantéta 'boy'; Francë, Francéta 'Frank'. The feminine/neuter noun deklë 'girl' has accusative identical with nominative.

A-stem class. All nouns – both feminine (the vast majority) and masculine (like slúga 'man-servant') – have the same general declensional pattern. (The masculine nouns may also decline as animate o-stems; see above.) In table 8.11 are shown the regular paradigm, lipa 'linden', and the subtype žéna 'wife' (see item 4 below) which represents at most some twenty-five nouns. There are no morphophonemic alternations surviving from the *jastems or *-ynji nouns: for example, dúša 'soul' and bogínja 'goddess' decline like lipa.

Variants (stem):

- 1 The vowel ~ zero alternation is regular and generally predictable. /i ~ Ø/ occurs in nouns with stems ending in consonant + /j/: lādja 'boat', genitive plural lādij; -nja, -lja nouns must be listed. /ə ~ Ø/ occurs in stems ending in non-resonant + resonant (for instance, séstra 'sister', genitive plural sêstər), non-resonant + resonant + /j/ (káplja 'drop', genitive plural kâpəlj), some combinations of resonant + resonant, and (rarely and archaically) in other consonant clusters. Nouns like cérkəv 'church' and brutəv 'razor' (see 5 below) are regular in this respect. /a ~ Ø/ is found in a few words, like óvca 'sheep', genitive plural ovāc ~ óvc.
- 2 Proto-Slavonic consonantal stems in /-r-/ survive in that two nouns have the extension /-er-/ in all cases except the nominative singular:

Table	8.11	a-stems
-------	------	---------

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	lípa	lípi	lípe	
ACC	lípo	lípi	lípe	
GEN	lípe	•	lîp	
DAT	lípi	lípama	lípam	
INST	lîpo	lípama	lípami	
LOC	lípi	•	lípah	
NOM	žéna	ženệ	ženę̂	
ACC	ženô	ženę	ženę̂	
GEN	žené ~ ženệ	-	žên ~ ženā	
DAT	žéni	ženâma	ženầm	
INST	ženó	ženâma	ženâmi	
LOC	žéni		ženàh	

máti 'mother' and hčî 'daughter', genitive singular mátere hčệre; see 5 below.

Variants (ending):

- 3 The nouns which decline like *žéna* 'wife', that is with stress shifts, such as *góra* 'mountain' and *gláva* 'head', have become largely regularized and usually now decline as *lipa*.
- 4 Nouns with stressed -a as the nominative singular ending (all of which can also have regular stem stress) have a number of optional or obligatory long desinential vowels, for example, stəza 'path', accusative singular stəze ~ stəze, instrumental plural stəzami.
- 5 The Proto-Slavonic *y-stems, represented in Slovene by nouns in -\(\pi\)v, and the two 'r-nouns' differ from the paradigms displayed here in two respects (in which cases these nouns follow the i-stem class): accusative singular in \(/-\vartheta\)/ and instrumental singular in \(/-\vartheta\)/ (of which the former occurs after two consonants). Examples of accusative singular and instrumental singular: m\(\text{ater}\), m\(\text{ater}\)jo; h\(\text{c\vartheta}\)r, h\(\text{c\vartheta}\)rjo; c\(\vartheta\)rkvijo; br\(\text{ito}\)v, br\(\text{ito}\)jo.

I-stem class. All nouns in this class are feminine except $ljudj\hat{e}$ 'people' (see above). The regular paradigm is that of $sm\hat{r}t$ 'death'; also in table 8.12, $k\hat{\varphi}st$ 'bone' exemplifies the stress, pitch and vocalic alternations that are very common in this class.

Variants (stem):

Four nouns have short vowels in the nominative-accusative singular which alternate with long vowels, for instance, mis, genitive singular

Table	8.12	<i>i</i> -stems
Iaure	0.14	t-Stems

	SG	DU	PL	
NOM	smrt	smřti	smrti	
ACC	smrt	smrti	smrti	
GEN	smrti		smrti	
DAT	smrti	smrtma	smrtim	
INST	smrtjo	smrtma	smŕtmi	
LOC	smîti		smîtih	
NOM	kộst	kostî	kostî	
ACC	kộst	kostî	kostî	
GEN	kostí		kostī	
DAT	kósti	kostēma	kostēm	
INST	kostjó	kostēma	kostmí	
LOC	kósti		kostéh	
	KOSU		KOSIĢII	

miši 'mouse'. Very many monosyllabic and some polysyllabic nouns decline like $k\hat{\rho}st$ 'bone' above, with pitch and stress alternations. Some nouns have a pitch alternation but no stress alternation, thus $li\check{\alpha}$ 'light', genitive singular $li\acute{\alpha}\check{c}i$, instrumental singular $li\check{\alpha}\check{c}i$; some have qualitative alternations: $\hat{\rho}s$ 'axle' dative-locative singular $\acute{o}si$.

2 The vowel ~ zero alternation occurs in this declension too: the normal vowel is /-ə-/, occurring when the stem ends in non-resonant + resonant: thus misəl, misəl, misəl 'thought'; povôdəni, povôdəni 'flood'.

Variants (ending):

3 Stems in non-resonant + resonant, and non-resonant + resonant + /j/, have instrumental singular in -ijo, dative-instrumental dual in -ima, instrumental plural in -imi: mislijo, mislima, mislimi.

3.1.3 Pronominal morphology

In the **personal pronouns**, Slovene has separate non-clitic forms for all three persons in all three numbers. All three persons show gender distinctions in the dual and plural, but in the nominative case only; the third person singular distinguishes all three genders in the nominative–accusative and makes a two-way distinction in all other cases. In the nominative a total of eighteen pronominal distinctions are made. There is also a reflexive personal pronoun, unmarked for number, gender and person, lacking a nominative.

The non-nominative dual person pronouns occur as exemplified below and also co-occur with the corresponding form of $dv\hat{a}$ 'two' (3.1.5), for example, $n\hat{a}ju\ dv\hat{a}$ 'us both (M ACC)', $n\hat{a}ju\ dv\hat{e}$ 'us both (F ACC)'.

Separate clitic forms obtain in accusative, genitive and dative for all singular persons, for the reflexive, and for the third dual and third plural; there is much syncretism. Note the separate bound clitic forms; see below for their use. First- and second-person pronouns, dual and plural, have clitic forms identical with their non-clitic forms except that they lack stress.

The forms of the first-person non-clitic pronouns $j\ddot{a}z$ 'I', $m\dot{a}dva$, $m\dot{e}dve/midve$ 'we both', $m\hat{i}$, $m\dot{e}$ 'we (all)' are given in table 8.13. The second-person non-clitic pronouns $t\hat{i}$ 'you', $v\dot{i}dva$, $v\dot{e}dve/v\dot{i}dve$ 'you both', $v\hat{i}$, $v\dot{e}$ 'you (all)' can be found in table 8.14. Reflexive non-clitic pronouns are given in table 8.15. The third person singular non-clitic pronouns are $\ddot{o}n$,

Table 8.13 First-person pronouns

SG	DU		PL		
	M		N/F	M	N/F
jầz	midva		mệdve/mîdve	mí	mệ
méne		nâju			nầs
méne		nâju			nầs
méni		nâma			nầm
menój/mano		nâma			nâmi
méni		nâju/:	nâma		nầs
	jầz méne méne méni menój/mâno	jầz midva méne méne méni menój/mâno	jầz midva méne nâju méne nâju méni nâma menój/mâno nâma	jầz mîdva mệdve/mîdve méne nâju méne nâju méni nâma menój/mâno nâma	jãz midva mệdve/midve mi méne nâju méne nâju méni nâma menój/mâno nâma

Table 8.14 Second-person pronouns

SG	DU					
	M		N/F	M	N/F	
tî	vîdva		vệdve/vîdve	vî	vê	
tébe		vâju	•		väs	
tébe		vâju			väs	
tébi		vâma			vầm	
tebój/tâbo		vâma			vâmi	
tébi		vâju/	vâma		väs	
	tî tébe tébe tébi tebój/tâbo	tî vîdva tébe tébe tébi tebój/tâbo	tî vîdva tébe vâju tébe vâju tébi vâma tebój/tâbo vâma	tî vîdva vệdve/vìdve tébe vâju tébe vâju tébi vâma tebój/tâbo vâma	tî vîdva vệdve/vîdve vî tébe vâju tébi vâma tebój/tâbo vâma	tî vîdva vệdve/vîdve vî vệ tébe vâju vầs tébe vâju vầs tébi vâma vầm tebój/tâbo vâma vâmi

Table 8.15 Reflexive pronoun

ACC	sébe		
GEN	sébe		
DAT	sébi		
INST	sebój/sâbo		
LOC	sébi		

óno, óna 'he/it, it, she/it' (see table 8.16). The neuter nominative has a stylistic variant onô. There is gender syncretism between masculine and neuter in all non-nominative cases. The third person dual and plural non-clitic pronouns ónadva, ónidve/onêdve 'they both', óni, óna, óne 'they (all)' can be found in table 8.17. Four nominatives have stylistic variants: dual onâdva, plural onî, onâ, onê. There is total gender syncretism in all non-nominative cases.

There are special **clitic** forms for first person singular, second person singular and third person singular, dual and plural. Note the distinction between free and bound clitics (table 8.18). The bound clitics are postposed to most of the prepositions that take the accusative; in this context the prepositions receive a tonemically high pitch and, if containing a mid vowel, exhibit /e/ or /o/, for example, name 'on me', $cext{e}$ 'across oneself', mednju 'between the two of them', nadnje 'over them'. With the third person singular masculine-neuter -nj the $/a \sim 0/$ alternation occurs: nanj 'on him/it', nadanj 'over him/it'. In the pre-clitic context the preposition v occurs in the otherwise non-occurrent form va-: vame 'into me', vanj 'into him/it'.

There are pronominal declensions (presented below) differing from adjectival declensions in many particulars, for $t\hat{a}$ 'this' and $kd\bar{o}$ 'who', $k\bar{a}j$

Table 8.10	1 nira	person	sıngular	pronouns

	М		N	F
NOM	nő		óno	óna
ACC		njéga		njộ/njō
GEN		njéga		njé
DAT		njému		njéj/njèj/njî
INST		njím		njó
LOC		njém		njęj/njej/nji

Table 8.17 Third person dual and plural pronouns

	М	DU	N/F	М	PL N	F	
					••	-	_
NOM	ónadva		ónidve/onêdve	óni	óna	óne	
ACC		njîju/njîh			njîh		
GEN		njîju/njîh			njîh		
DAT		njíma			njîm		
INST		njíma			njími		
LOC		njîju/njîh/njîma			njîh		

Table 0.10	Chuc pi	onouns						
	1	2		3		3	3	
	SG	SG	REFL	SG M/N	F	DU	PL	
Free clitics								
ACC	me	te	se	ga	jo	ju/jih	jih	
GEN	me	te	se	ga	je	ju/jih	jih jim	
DAT	mi	ti	si	mu	ji	jima	jim	
Bound clitics								
ACC	-me	-te	-se	-nj	-njo	-nju	-nje	

Table 8.18 Clitic pronouns

'what'. At least two pronouns are fully indeclinable, relative $k\tilde{\imath}$ 'who' and $\tilde{c}igar$ 'whose'; and $on\bar{e}$ 'whats'isname' is normally indeclinable. All other pronouns decline like regular adjectives, with nominative masculine singular either only short (ending in a consonant, like $t\hat{o}lik$ 'so large'), or only long (ending in -i, like $t\hat{s}it$ 'that'). Pronouns are thus inherently definite or indefinite (see 3.1.4). Possessive pronouns decline like definite adjectives. Most pronouns may be used adjectivally as well as pronominally. The most common are as follows; for a fuller list see Toporišič (1984: 243-8, 271-5).

Demonstrative: tâ 'this', tîsti 'that', ôni 'that (yonder)'; onē 'whats'isname', tâk, tâkšən 'such a'. The first three of these also occur, usually with emphatic meaning, with preposed le- or (more usually) with postposed -le affixed to fully declined forms: thus letēga ~ têgale 'this (EMPH, M GEN SG)'. In non-standard Slovene tâ may function as a definite article (see 3.1.4).

Interrogative: $kd\bar{\phi}$ 'who?', $k\bar{a}j$ 'what?', $k\bar{a}k\check{s}\partial n$ 'what sort of a?', $k\bar{\phi}lik$ 'how large?', $\check{c}ig\acute{a}v$ 'whose?', $kat\bar{e}ri$ 'which?'.

Relative: kdôr 'who', kär 'what', katêri, kĩ 'which', čîgar 'whose'.

Indefinite: (a) $kd\bar{\varrho}$ 'any(one)', $k\ddot{a}j$ 'any(thing)', $kat\bar{\varrho}ri$ 'anyone/-thing'; (b) prefixed: $nekd\bar{\varrho}$ 'someone' and $n\bar{\varrho}kaj$ 'something'; $nekat\bar{\varrho}ri$ 'some', $n\bar{\varrho}ki$ 'a'.

Negative: nihče ~ nîhče ~ nîkdo 'nobody', nič 'nothing', nobën 'no'.

Possessive: mój, nâjin, nãš 'my, our (DU), our (PL)'; tvój, vâjin, vãš 'your, your (DU), your (PL)'; njegóv ~ njegồv, njện, njūn, njīhov 'his/its, her/its, their (DU), their (PL)'; svój 'own'. The above forms alternate with the following in all other cases, numbers and genders: mój-, tvój-, svój-, náš-, váš-, njegóv-.

Other: vɔ̃s 'all', vsâk 'each', sâm 'self, mere, the very'.

There are numerous other pronouns, most of them compounds of the preceding ones: $vs\hat{a}kr\tilde{s}on$ 'every kind of', $m\hat{a}lokat\bar{e}ri$ 'few', $m\tilde{a}rsikd\bar{o}$ 'many a person', $kd\bar{o}rk\hat{o}li$ 'whoever'. Note that all these pronouns have masculine accusative singular forms identical to the nominative (for inanimate referents) and the same as the genitive (for animate referents); this is signalled by NOM/GEN. $T\hat{a}$ 'this' (table 8.19) has alternate forms: in the feminine dative-locative singular $t\acute{e}j$ and the neuter/feminine nominative-accusative dual $t\acute{e}$. In the dual, the relevant forms of $dv\acute{a}$ usually co-occur. $V\ddot{o}s$ 'all' differs from $t\acute{a}$ only in the nominative singular $v\ddot{o}s$, $vs\ddot{e}$, $vs\ddot{a}$, and in that the stem vowels are tonemically high and short. $Kd\bar{o}$ 'who?', $kd\hat{o}r$ 'who (REL)', $nih\check{c}e$ 'nobody', $k\bar{a}j$ 'what?', $k\ddot{a}r$ 'what (REL)' and $ni\check{c}e$ 'nothing' decline as in table 8.20; further compounds of $kd\bar{o}$, $k\bar{a}j$ follow the same pattern.

Table 8.19 Demonstrative pronoun ta

		SG			DU			PL	
	М	N	F	M	N	F	M	N	F
NOM	tâ	tộ	tâ	tâ	tî	tî	tî	tâ	tệ
ACC	NOM/GEN	tộ	tộ	tâ	tî	tî	tệ	tâ	tệ
GEN	tệga		tệ		tệh			tệh	
DAT	tệmu	1	tềj		tệma			tệm	
INST	tệm		tợ		tệma			tệmi	
LOC	tệm		tèj		tệh			tệh	

Table 8.20 $kd\bar{\varrho}$, $k\bar{a}j$ and pronouns based on them

NOM	kdō	kdôr	nihčề	kāi	kär	nĩč
ACC	kõga	kôgar	nikôgar	kāj	kär	nĩč
GEN	kōga	kộgar	nikôgar	čęsa	čę̂sar	ničęsar
DAT	kōmu	kômur	nikômur	čēmu	čệmur	ničęmur
INST	kŌm	kômər	nikômər	čīm	čîmər	ničimər
LOC	kŌm	kômər	nikômer	čēm	čệmər	ničêmər

Table 8.21 Use of long- and short-form adjectives

	Indefinite	Definite	
Adjective alone Noun alone Adjective + noun	nồv 'a new one' en pàs 'a dog' ¡nồv pàs 'a new dog' l'en nồv pàs 'a new dog'	ta nóvi 'the new one' pềs 'the dog' nóvi pềs 'the new dog' ta nóvi pềs 'the new dog'	(1) (2) (3a) (3b)

3.1.4 Adjectival morphology

In Slovene the Proto-Slavonic opposition between **short and long adjectives** survives in the opposition indefinite versus definite, but is formally very circumscribed. This opposition, in its most simple form, is expressed as in table 8.21.

The use of en and ta, which in many respects act as indefinite article and definite article respectively, is, however, not encouraged in the written literary norm, and is limited in spoken standard Slovene also; in these varieties, the normal adjective + noun phrase is (3a) in table 8.21 rather than (3b), and definite nóvi for (1) and indefinite phs for (2) are common. The indefinite versus definite opposition is, moreover, not expressed in all adjectives; and in those where it is expressed it obtains only in the masculine nominative (and accusative inanimate) singular, except in a very few where it extends to some more, or to all, of the declension. The indefinite versus definite opposition is not expressed in several types of adjectives, including the following (which can be used in either function). Denominal derivatives in -v and -in (like brátov 'brother's', králjev 'king's', māterin 'mother's') have indefinite forms only. Denominal and other derivatives in -ji, -ski, -ški, -čki (like bóžji 'God's', slovénski 'Slovene'), comparative and superlative forms and the words ôbči 'common', prâvi 'right, proper', râjni 'the late' have definite forms only.

In two adjectives the opposition is expressed in all forms. In one it is shown by a prosodic alternation: vélik, veliko, velika (INDEF) versus vêliki, vêliko, vêlika (DEF) 'large'. In the other it is expressed suppletively: mâjhən, mâjhno, mâjhna (INDEF) but mâli, mâlo, mâla (DEF) 'small'. In a few adjectives the opposition is expressed in more than just the masculine nominative singular, but not throughout the paradigm; in all other adjectives (except those listed above with only indefinite, and with only definite, forms) it is expressed in only the masculine nominative singular. In a few, the formal expression is by morphophonemic means. Examples (indefinite versus definite): with a qualitative alternation, masculine nominative singular dóbər versus dóbri 'good'; with a prosodic alternation, feminine nominative singular bogáta versus bogâta 'rich', stára máti 'an old mother' versus stàra máti 'grandmother'; with both qualitative and prosodic alternations, masculine/feminine nominative singular débel, debéla versus debêli, debêla 'fat'. In the great majority, the masculine nominative singular indefinite has a zero ending, and the definite ends in -i.

The adjective $n\ddot{o}v$, $n\acute{o}v$ - 'new' has regular declension; in the masculine (and, rarely, the neuter) accusative singular the choice of nominative versus genitive form depends on animacy (table 8.22).

Variants (stem):

1 The alternation of short vowel in the masculine nominative singular indefinite with long vowels elsewhere (see section 2.3), exemplified in nov, is common.

	М	SG N	F	М	DU N	F	М	PL N	F
NOM	{nov} novi}	nóvo	nóva	nóva	nóvi	nóvi	nóvi	nóva	nóve
ACC GEN DAT INST LOC	NOM/ nóvej nóvej nóvej nóvej	ga mu n	nóvo nóve nóvi nóvo nóvi	nóva	nóvi nóvima nóvima	nóvi	nóve	nóva nóvih nóvim nóvimi nóvih	nóve

Table 8.22 Regular adjective declension

- 2 Several adjectives optionally have mobile accent patterns. Of these, most belong to one type, exemplified by *mlad* (definite *mládi*) 'young': nominative singular *mlâd*, *mladô*, *mláda*, genitive singular *mládega*, *mláde*, instrumental singular *mládim*, *mladô*, etc.
- 3 The vowel ~ zero alternation is common: otékəl, otékl- 'swollen', mirən, mīrn- 'tranquil'; often, there is free qualitative/stress variation on the adjectives involved: médəl ~ mədəl ~ mədəl 'faint'. Several adjectives have variants with /a/ as well as /ə/ occurring in the masculine nominative singular: hládən ~ hladān, hládna 'cool'. Those with stress on the ending in the masculine nominative singular definite tend to maintain this throughout the paradigm.

Variants (ending):

4 The /o ~ e/ alternation obtains in the nominative-accusative singular: compare novo 'new' and vsakdánje 'everyday', vróče 'hot'.

One adjective is used only predicatively and therefore declines for gender and number but has only nominative case, rad, rada 'happy'. Fully indeclinable are the attributive adjective pes 'by foot' in, for instance, pes hója 'walking tour'; and several attributive/predicative adjectives, as for instance, pocéni 'cheap': pocéni pohistvo 'cheap furniture', pocéni knjiga 'cheap book', knjiga je pocéni 'the book is cheap'; tose 'unbreakfasted': s tose tose tose tose tose 'she has not breakfasted'; and many relatively recent borrowings: prima blago 'first-class goods', prima film 'first-class film'; fajn tose 'fine person', fajn obleka 'fine clothing'; tose 'beige', tose 'fair'. See also section 4.3.

The **comparative** and **superlative** degrees of a given adjective are formed either analytically or synthetically. The analytic phrases use *bolj* 'more' and *nājbolj* 'most'. Synthetic comparative forms utilize the suffixes -ši, -ji and -ejši, and their superlative degrees add the prefix *nāj*-. Adjectives which use analytic comparative or superlative forms include those

which do not participate in the definite versus indefinite opposition, for example, divji 'wild' bolj divji, najbolj divji; adjectives derived participially from verbs, for example, vroč 'hot'; specific derivatives, for example, those in -ast such as múhast 'capricious'; words for colours; and others such as mókor 'wet' and sûh 'dry'. In synthetic comparison, (a) -ejši is added to polysyllabic stems: rodovītan 'fertile' rodovītnejši, najrodovītnejši; to monosyllabic stems ending in more than one consonant: čîst 'clean' čistêiši. näičistėjši; and to a list of monosyllabic stems in single consonants, including nov 'new', novėjši, najnovėjši; (b) -ji is, normally, added to stems which end in /ž/, /š/ or /č/ (deriving from the final velar of the positive degree): drâg 'dear' drâžji, najdrâžji; (c) -ši is added to other stems (after palatalization): mlad 'young', mlajši, najmlajši. If a polysyllabic adjective ends in vowel + /k/, this syllable is deleted, and rules (b) and (c) normally apply: $niz \ni k$ 'low' nizji, $n\ddot{a}jnizji$. There are several exceptional forms, such as $l\hat{e}p$ 'beautiful' $l\hat{e}p\tilde{s}i$, $n\ddot{a}jl\hat{e}p\tilde{s}i$, and suppletive forms like $d\hat{\phi}b\ni r$ 'good' bôljši 'better' najbôljši 'best'.

Adverbs derived from adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees according to the same subclasses (a), (b) and (c) above, but with the following differences: group (a) take -eje: bogáto 'richly' bogatêje, nãjbogatêje; group (b) replace -ji with -(j)e: blizu 'near' bliž(j)e, nãjbliž(j)e; and group (c) replace -ši with, normally, -še: tənkô 'thinly' tânjše, najtânjše.

3.1.5 Numeral morphology

Of the **cardinal numerals** '1' has a regular adjectival declension; except in the masculine nominative singular (where there are two forms: $\dot{e}d\partial n$, used substantivally, and $\ddot{e}n$, adjectivally) the stem is invariant $\dot{e}n$ -, hence masculine genitive singular énega and so on. The dual is not used. The plural is used with pluralia tantum words: éna vráta 'one door'. For the function of en as an indefinite article see section 3.1.3. Dva '2', trije '3' and štirje '4' decline similarly. All show the opposition masculine versus neuter/ feminine in the nominative; '2' shows it in the accusative also (table 8.23). Obâ, obê 'both' declines exactly like dvâ, dvê.

All other numerals, except tisóc, milijón and milijarda (see below) decline like '5' (table 8.24), but they may also not decline, as noted below. The same pattern is followed by, for example, sest '6', sestnajst ~ sestnajst '16', sestindvajset '26', sestdeset '60' and so on. Sedam, sedmih '7' and ϕsom , $\phi smih$ '8' show the $/o \sim \emptyset$ / alternation. '100' has a unique alternation: stô, stótih. Note that compounds between '21' and '99' have the morphemes reversed from their Arabic-numeral order: énindvâjset '21', devêtindevêtdeset '99'. Note also that in numerals over 100 terminating in non-compounds, only the final word declines: tisóč dvâ/dvê '1,002'.

The remaining numerals, tisóč (M) '1,000', milijôn (M) 'million' and milijarda (F) 'milliard/billion', decline like nouns.

	Table	8.23	'Two',	'three'.	'four
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	М	N/F	M	N/F	M	N/F
NOM	dvâ	dvệ	tríje	trí	štírje	štíri
ACC	dvâ	dvệ	trî		štír	i
GEN		dvệh	trệ	h	štîı	rih
DAT		dvēma	trệ	m	štîı	rim
INST		dvēma	trệ	mi	štîı	rimi
LOC	dvệh		trệ	h	štîı	rih

Table	8.24	'Five'
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NOM	pệt	
ACC	pệt	
GEN	pệt pétih pétim	
DAT	pétim	
INST	pétimi	
LOC	pétih	

The loss of declinability, which is very noticeable in conversational Slovene, may be detected in the standard language in noun phrases headed by prepositions, where numerals above '4' are normally not declined.

Ordinal numerals decline like adjectives: prvi, prva, prvo 'first'; drûgi 'second', trétji 'third', četrti 'fourth', péti 'fifth', šésti 'sixth' and so on.

3.2 Verbal morphology

3.2.1 Verbal categories

Verbs are inflected for number, person and gender. Tense, voice and mood are expressed partly in inflection, partly in compound phrases. Aspect is inherent in verbal forms; normally, there is a derivational relationship between aspectual pairs. Finite verbal forms include the present, imperative, future, past pluperfect, present conditional and past conditional. There is also a series of optative forms. The verb 'be' is expressed in all appropriate numbers, persons and genders, and in three tenses. It has a special negative present-tense form.

The opposition in **number** singular: dual: plural is expressed in all finite verbal forms. There is no number syncretism. See section 4.10 for the use of the dual. In certain ('polite' or 'formal') circumstances, number is used conventionally rather than referentially. There are two conventions: (a) 'Vikanje': the second person plural (which is always masculine!) replaces the second person singular (but never the second person dual);

Table 8.25 Numerals

CARDINALS
édən, én- '1'
dvâ, dvệ '2'
tríje, trî '3'
štírje, štíri '4'
pệt '5'
šęst '6'
sédəm '7'
ýsəm '8'
devệt '9'
desệt '10'
enájst '11'
dvånajst ~ dvanájst '12'
trînajst ~ trinájst '13'
štîrinajst ~ štirinajst '14'
pętnajst ~ petnájst '15'
šęstnajst ~ šestnájst '16'
sēdəmnajst ~ sedəmnajst '17'
ōsəmnajst ~ osəmnajst '18'
devêtnajst ~ devetnájst '19'

dvåiset '20' énindvájset '21' trideset '30' štírideset '40' pêtdeset '50' šęstdeset '60' sédəmdeset '70' ósəmdeset '80' devêtdeset '90' stô '100' dvêsto '200' trîsto '300' štíristo '400' pêtsto '500' šeststo '600' sédəmsto '700' ósəmsto '800' devêtsto '900' tisóč '1,000'

ORDINALS

prvi '1st' drûgi '2nd' trétii '3rd' četŕti '4th' péti '5th' šésti '6th' sédmi '7th' ósmi '8th' devệti '9th' deseti '10th' enájsti '11th' dvánajsti ~ dvanájsti '12th' trînajsti ~ trinajsti '13th' štīrinajsti ~ štirinájsti '14th' pětnajsti ~ petnájsti '15th' šęstnajsti ~ šestnájsti '16th' sędəmnajsti ~ sedəmnajsti '17th' Ōsəmnajsti ~ osəmnajsti '18th' devêtnajsti ~ devetnájsti '19th'

dvájseti '20th' énindvájseti '21st' trîdeseti '30th' štîrideseti '40th' pętdeseti '50th' šestdeseti '60th' sédəmdeseti '70th' ósəmdeseti '80th' devêtdeseti '90th' stóti '100th' dvêstoti '200th' tristóti '300th' štiristóti '400th' petstóti '500th' šeststóti '600th' sedəmstóti '700th' osəmstóti '800th' devetstóti '900th' tisóči '1,000th'

(b) 'Onikanje': dialectally and archaically, the third person plural replaces the second person singular (but never the second person dual) in the same way. Slovene has three **persons** in finite verbal forms. The third person singular and third person plural are used impersonally. There is person syncretism in the dual, where the second and third persons have the same endings. The **gender** opposition masculine: feminine: neuter is expressed

in participles, and hence in the past, future and so on. Unusually for Slavonic, a (now rare and archaic) gender distinction (masculine versus feminine/neuter) may be expressed by optional endings for the dual in the present and imperative: -va (M) versus $-ve \sim -vi$ (F/N) and -ta (M) versus $-te \sim -ti$ (F/N). Slovene distinguishes four tenses: future, present, past and pluperfect; past and pluperfect are opposed only in the indicative. The pluperfect seldom occurs. All except the present, the future of 'be' and one of two expressions of the future perfective are expressed by compounds. The four participles and three gerunds express time simultaneous with or anterior to that of the main verb. Tense is implicit in other categories, such as imperative, supine.

Normally, a given verb is inherently of imperfective or perfective aspect; and normally, aspectually correlative pairs have the same lexical meaning. The imperfective verb is semantically unmarked. The aspectual system is similar to that of the other Slavonic languages, except that the future perfective is expressed both (a) by the non-past form of the perfective, and (b) by the same compound formation that is used for the future imperfective (namely, the future of 'be' and the *l*-participle); the perfective with verba dicendi expresses the present tense; and perfective verbs with some temporal adverbs may denote repetition. All verbal categories occur with both aspects, except that both present gerunds and (with one lexical exception) the present active participle only occur in the imperfective. Some verbs are bi-aspectual. These include both native items like rodīti 'give birth to' and recent borrowings such as protestīrati 'protest'. A few perfective verbs, for instance pogospōditi se 'put on airs', have no imperfective counterparts; and conversely, a few imperfective verbs, like poslúšati 'listen to', have no perfective ones. Some half-dozen pairs of imperfective verbs are limited semantically to determinate and indeterminate meaning respectively. These involve verbs of motion like nosúti versus nésti 'carry', voziti versus peljáti 'convey'.

The following **moods** are expressed: indicative, imperative and conditional. All verbal categories except those listed in this subsection are indicative. A number of modal expressions are semantically close to the imperative and conditional moods. There is, normally, a partial imperative paradigm: the first person dual and plural, the second person singular, dual and plural and the third person singular. The conditional, expressed by compound forms using the invariable word bi, obtains in the present and past (with the meanings 'would' and 'would have' respectively). Semantically, the imperative is complemented (and partly overlapped) by present optative compounds (utilizing the particle naj) with the meaning 'let ...'. In addition, there are compound past optatives: naj + bi + (bil) + l-participle, normally equivalent to 'should'. Other modal expressions use invariable auxiliaries like $lahk\hat{\varphi}$ and verbs such as $m\hat{\varphi}rati$: $lahk\hat{\varphi}$ $d\hat{\varphi}la$ 'he may work', $m\hat{\varphi}ra$ $d\hat{\varphi}lati$ 'he must work'.

Verbs are, inherently, either transitive or intransitive. For types of, and constructions using, reflexive verbs, see below and section 4.8. The **passive voice** is expressed with the following: (a) a reflexive verb; (b) a zero subject and the verb in the third person plural; (c) the past passive participle + 'be'.

There are five indeclinable **non-finite forms**: infinitive, supine, past gerund, present gerund in -(j)e and present gerund in $-\check{c}$. There are also four participles: present active, past active in $-(v)\check{s}i$, past active in -l (the 'l-participle') and past passive. There is also a verbal substantive -nje/-tje (see section 3.3.1). The infinitive: supine opposition is expressed by a formal distinction which is largely neutralized in conversational Slovene. For usage see section 4.5. The two basic gerunds are the present gerund in -(j)e and the past gerund. Not all verbs form gerunds. The present gerund is supplemented semantically by the short-form present active participle in $-\check{c}$, which acts as a third gerund. Three participles are fully declinable: the present active participle, the (rarely used) past active participle in $-v\check{s}i$ and the past passive participle. The fourth participle, the past active participle in -l, is used only in the nominative; its use is restricted to compound verbal expressions, most importantly the past and the future.

There are as many as fifteen **compound-tense** constructions, some of them rare. The most common are here exemplified with the verb *hvalīti* pohvalīti 'praise' in the first person singular; where the perfective prefix po- is in parentheses, both aspects may occur. For the auxiliaries, present səm and future bom, see below.

- 1 Active: past (səm (po)hválil 'I praised'); pluperfect (səm bîl pohválil 'I had praised'); future (bôm (po)hválil 'I shall praise'); present conditional (bi (po)hválil 'I would praise'); past conditional (bi bîl (po)hválil 'I would have praised'); present optative (nãj (po)hválim 'I should praise'); and past optatives (nãj bi (po)hválil and nãj bi bil (po)hválil 'I should have praised').
- Passive: present (səm (po)hváljen 'I am praised'); past (səm bîl (po)hváljen 'I was praised'); future (bôm (po)hváljen 'I shall be praised'); present/past conditional (bi bîl (po)hváljen 'I would be praised'); and imperative (bôdi (po)hváljen! 'be praised!').

Three verbs have special present negative conjugations: (a) ne biti: nisom 'am not', nisi ni, nisva and then as the present of biti (see below); (b) ne iméti: nimam 'haven't' and so on (see iméti below); and (c) ne hotéti: nocem ~ necem 'don't want to' and so on (see hotéti below).

3.2.2 Conjugation

Non-compound verbal categories are formed on the following: (a) the infinitive stem (infinitive, supine, past gerund, past active participle in

 $-(v)\check{s}i$, *l*-participle, past passive participle); and (b) the present stem (present/simple future, imperative, present gerund in -(i)e, present gerund in $-\check{c}$, present active participle). To these stems are added various affixes.

The **infinitive** is normally formed by the addition of -ti; infinitives deriving from Proto-Slavonic forms in *-kti, *-gti have -či. In conversational Slovene, the final -i is elided and (in some verbs) the stress shifts. The **supine** is like the infinitive except that it lacks the final -i; hence, -t or -č. The **past gerund** is in -ši (most consonantal stems) or -vši (most vocalic stems). The **past active participle** is in -(v)ši and so is as the past gerund but with regular adjectival desinences. The **past passive participle** adds the normal adjectival endings to one of the affixes -t, -n, -en; these generally follow the normal Slavonic distribution among verbal classes. The **past active participle** in -l, the 'l-participle', is used in compound forms and only in the nominative (see table 8.26).

Table 8.26 *l*-participle endings

	М	N	F	
sG	-1	-lo	-la	
SG DU PL	-la	-li	-li	
PL	-li	-la	-le	

The **present stem** cannot be predicted from the infinitive, except when certain derivative suffixes are involved (thus, -niti verbs have the present in -ne-, -irati verbs have -ira- and so on); there are, however, some regular and productive patterns, especially -ati: -a- and -iti: -i-. The present/simple future endings are given in table 8.27.

In the third person plural, verbs in -ijo have the variant $-\dot{e}$ and verbs in $-\dot{e}jo$ (plus a few in unstressed -ejo) have the variant $-\dot{\phi}$; most of these variants are stylistically very limited.

Most athematic verbs have different endings from the above only as follows: second-third person dual -sta, second person plural -ste, third person plural -do; there is variation between these and the regular endings

Table 8.27 Present-tense endings

	SG	DU	PL	
1 2 3	-m -š -Ø	-va -ta -ta	-mo -te -jo	

in the third person plural; for example, biti future: $b\hat{\varphi}m$, $b\hat{\varphi}s$, $b\hat{\varphi}$; $b\hat{\varphi}va$ $b\hat{\varphi}sta$, $b\hat{\varphi}sta$; $b\hat{\varphi}mo$, $b\hat{\varphi}ste$, $b\hat{\varphi}do \sim b\hat{\varphi}jo$. The verb biti (present positive) is more irregular: $s\hat{\sigma}m$, $s\hat{\imath}$, $j\hat{e}$; $sv\hat{a}$, $st\hat{a}$, $st\hat{a}$; $sm\hat{o}$, $st\hat{e}$, $s\hat{o}$.

The endings of the **imperative** are as follows: second and third person singular $-i \sim -j$; first dual $-iva \sim -jva$; second dual $-iva \sim -jva$; first plural $-imo \sim -jmo$; second plural $-ite \sim jte$. The alternation $i \sim j$ is regular (-i-with consonantal stems, -j- with vocalic stems); there are exceptions, such as $st\acute{a}ti$, $stoj\acute{i}m$ 'stand' $st\acute{o}j$!

The **present active participle** endings are: 'class IV' verbs (see below): $-\ddot{e}\dot{c}$, $-\dot{e}\dot{c}$ -; other classes with vocalic stems: $-j\dot{\phi}\dot{c}$, $-j\dot{\phi}\dot{c}$ -; others with consonantal stems, $-\dot{\phi}\dot{c}$, $-\dot{\phi}\dot{c}$ -; followed by the normal adjectival endings. The **present gerund** has: (a) generally -e after consonantal stems, -je after vocalic stems; also (b) as the present active participle with zero ending.

The classification of **conjugation classes** adopted here as suitable for comparative purposes is based on the thematic vowel of the present stem; it derives from a simplified version of Svane (1958: 89–117). This is not the optimal classification for non-comparative descriptions; such a classification would emphasize the productive classes (here, II, IIIc, IV and the -ovati ~ -evati verbs in IIIa) and categorize the more restricted verb types in fewer groupings; see also Toporišič (1987). The quoted thematic vowel occurs in all persons and numbers of the present/simple future conjugation (except alternant third person plural forms; see above). (Here, C = consonant, Cj = palatalized consonant, V = vowel):

- Ia (infinitive -C-ti) present -e-: The old 'consonantal infinitive class' is well maintained; note over ten 'velar' roots in $-\ddot{c}i$, all showing the $/k \sim c/$ or $/g \sim z/$ alternation, including $m\dot{o}\ddot{c}i$, $m\dot{\phi}rem$, $pom\dot{o}zi!$, $m\dot{\phi}gəl$ 'be able'; and nine 'nasal' roots, including $vz\dot{e}ti$, $vz\dot{a}mem$ 'take'. A total of over seventy roots can be classified in this group.
- **Ib** (infinitive -a-ti) present -e-: This class includes bráti and zváti, but only five other roots.
- II (infinitive -ni-ti) present -ne-: Slovene shows an idiosyncratic development of *-no- to -ni- in the infinitive stem. This class is still very well represented and is productive in native derivations.
- IIIa (infinitive -V-ti) present -je-: Slovene maintains ten roots in -uti, -ujem and fifteen in -iti, -ijem. Some -eti and -ejati verbs in this class have alternative conjugations, with present in -ejem and/or in -em; -ajati verbs usually have present in -ajam. There are some seven roots, like kláti and mléti, that display the Proto-Slavonic metathesis. Verbs in -ovati ~ -evati, -ujem are numerous.
- IIIb (infinitive -a-ti) present -Cje-: Many roots display the Proto-Slavonic consonantal palatalizations, for instance pisati 'write', kázati 'show', jemáti 'take' below; see also section 2.2. Many conjugate also according to class IIIc, such as škripati 'creak' present škripljem ~

škripam; súkati 'twist' present súkam ~ súčem.

- IIIc (infinitive -a-ti) present -a-: Contraction of *-aje- to -a- resulted in the extremely productive class exemplified by délati 'work'.
- (infinitive -V-ti) present -i-: This class comprises the very numerous (and derivatively productive) verbs in -iti like molīti 'pray'; a relatively small group in -eti like velėti 'command'; an even smaller group in -ati like slišati 'hear'; and four anomalous verbs like spáti 'sleep'.
- V Athematic and irregular: Slovene has six verbs in the athematic class, namely bīti 'beat', jęsti 'eat', dáti 'give', dęti 'say; put' and vędeti 'know' below, and the present of iti 'go', namely gręm ~ grèm. There are a number of prefixed athematics, like dobīti 'obtain' dobôm, normally replaced by regularly conjugated forms such as dobim. Nearly all athematic verbs have variant forms, and some of the endings have been realigned with non-athematic ones. The originally athematic *ima- is now regularly conjugated, although its combination of infinitive in -ęti and present in -âm (present conjugated as class IIIc) is unique. Hoteti, hocem 'want to' (present conjugated as class Ia) must also be treated as irregular.

Reflexes of Proto-Slavonic verb classes: Instances where the Modern Slovene reflex of the Proto-Slavonic example shows an atypical morphological shift are here enclosed in square brackets, followed by more regular representatives of the class or subclass in question, if available.

```
Theme in -e/-o
*nes-, nese-
                             nésti, nésem 'carry'
*ved-, vede-
                             vésti, védem 'lead'
                             štéti, štêjem 'count']
[*čis-, čьtе-
                             cvəstì, cvətèm 'blossom'
                             íti/šðl [grém ~ grèm] 'go'
*i-/šьd-, id-
                             nájti, nájdem 'find'
                             jāhati, jāham ~ jāšem 'ride (horse)']
[*ja(xa)-, jade-
gre-, grebe-
                             grébsti, grébem 'rake'
[*ži-, žive-
                             živéti, živím 'live']
                             plūti, plóvem 'sail'
                             réči, réčem 'say'
*reč-, reče-
                             začéti, začněm 'begin'
*načę-, načьn-
*umrě-, umьr-
                             mréti, mrèm 'die'
*sta-, stan-
                             státi, stånem 'cost'
[*ѕъѕа-, ѕъѕе-
                             səsáti, səsâm 'suck']
*zъva-, zove-
                             zváti, zóvem 'call'
*bьra-, bere-
                             bráti, bérem 'read'
```

Theme in -ne		
*dvign-, dvigne-	dvígniti, dvîgnem 'lift'	
*min-, mine-	minīti, mīnem 'elapse'	
Theme in -je		
*ču-, čuje-	čúti, čûjem 'hear, stay awake'	
*pě-, poje-	péti, pójem 'sing'	
*kry-, krъje-	kríti, krîjem 'conceal, cover'	
*bi-, bьjе-	bíti, bîjem 'beat'	
[*bra-, borje-	borīti se, borím se 'fight']	
	kláti, kóljem 'slaughter'	
*mle-, melje-	mléti, méljem 'mill'	
[*děla-, dělaje-	délati, delâm 'work']	
*umě-, uměje-	uméti, umêjem ~ umêm 'know how, understand'	
*kaza-, kaže-	kázati, kážem 'show'	
*рьsа-, piše-	písati, píšem 'write'	
*ima-, jemlje-	jemáti, jémljem 'take'	
*darova-, daruje-	darováti, darújem 'present'	
*sěja-, sěje-	sejáti, séjem 'sow'	
Theme in -i		
*moli-, moli-	molīti, mólim 'pray'	
*xodi-, xodj-	hodīti, hódim 'walk'	
*velě-, veli-	veléti, velím 'command'	
*slyša-, slyši-	slíšati, slîšim 'hear'	
*ѕъра-, ѕърі-	spáti, spím 'sleep'	
- · •	• • •	

Athematic and irregular

*by-, (je)s-	bíti, səm 'be'		
*jas-, jas/d-	ję́sti, ję́m 'eat'		
*da-, das/d-	dáti, dám 'give'		
*dě-, dě-	déti, dêm 'say; put'		
*vě-, věs/d-	védeti, vém 'know' iméti, imam 'have'		
*ima-, ima/e-			
*xotě-, xotje-	hotéti, hóčem 'want to		

Sample paradigms are given in table 8.28.

3.3 Derivational morphology

In this section, the patterns and forms cited exemplify only the most productive derivations; many others exist.

Table 8.28 Illustrative verb paradigms

	Ia	IIIc	IV
INF	réči	délati	molīti
SUP	rềč	délat	mólit
PAST GER	rệkši	podélavši	pomolîvši
/- PART M SG	rékəl	délal	mólil
<i>l</i> -PART F SG	rékla	dēlala	molila
PAST PASS PART	rečền	dệlan	móljen
PRS 1 SG	réčem	dệlam	mólim
PRS 2 SG	réčeš	dęlaš	móliš
PRS 3 SG	réče	dệla	móli
PRS 1 DU	réčeva	dęlava	móliva
PRS 2, 3 DU	réčeta	dělata	mólita
PRS 1 PL	réčemo	dęlamo	mólimo
PRS 2 PL	réčete	dêlate	mólite
PRS 3 PL	réčejo	dęlajo	mólijo
IMP 2 SG	réci	délaj	móli
IMP 2 PL	recîte	délajte	molîte
PRS ACT PART	rekōč¹	delajōč	_3
PRS GER	_2	deláje	molę̃

Notes:

- 1 rekōč, formally a participle, is used as a present gerund.
- 2 réči, like most class la verbs, has no formal present gerund (see note 1). The verb iti 'go' (which has an athematic present conjugation, see above) has a present gerund gredē which derives from a class la verb.
- 3 molīti has no present active participle; nosīti has the form nosēč ~ nosēč.

3.3.1 Major patterns of noun derivation

Nouns are derived from other parts of speech, and from other nouns; chiefly by suffixation and by compounding, but also by other means.

Suffixation (Bajec 1950-2; Toporišič 1984: 124-47):

- -e: denominal; offspring and other animate: fante 'young boy' (fant 'boy').
- -ba: deverbal: obrâmba 'defence' (obranīti 'defend'), glāsba 'music' (glasīti se 'sound').
- -oba: de-adjectival: grenkóba 'bitterness' (grénak 'bitter').
- -tov: deverbal; alternate verbal nouns and/or with more concrete meanings: molitov 'act of praying; prayer' (molīti 'pray').
- -stvo: denominal and de-adjectival: otrostvo 'infancy' (otrok 'infant').
- -ava: deverbal: izgovarjāva 'pronunciation' (izgovārjati 'pronounce').
- -ota: mostly denominal and de-adjectival: lepóta 'beauty' (lep 'beautiful').
- -ost: the most common derivative: lastnôst 'trait' (lāston 'own').
- -ica: déklica 'young girl' (deklë 'girl'), bīstrica 'mountain brook' (bistor

- 'limpid'); especially productive in -nica, -lnica: knjižnica 'library' (knjiga 'book').
- -əc: lóvəc 'hunter' (lovīti 'hunt'); brâtəc 'little brother' (brät 'brother'); especially productive in -loc: igraloc 'player' (igrati 'play').
- -nja: nomina actionis from verbs: próšnja 'request' (prosīti 'request').
- -an, -jan: nosan 'large-nosed man' (nos 'nose'); in compounds, for example, -čan: Ljubljančan 'inhabitant of Ljubljana'.
- -ina: kovina 'metal' (kováti 'forge'); especially productive in compounds: -ovina: jeklovína 'hardware' (jéklo 'steel'); -ščina: slovénščina 'Slovene language'.
- -telj: borrowed, from Serbo-Croat and elsewhere: odpošiljatelj 'sender' (odpošíljati 'dispatch').
- -ar: however early this was first borrowed (from Old High German -āri and/or Latin -arius), its use was presumably reinforced by centuries of contact with Germanic (see Striedter-Temps 1963: 73-5). It remains in both early and later borrowings (pridigar 'preacher'); and became very productive: kopîtar 'cobbler' (kopîto 'last'), harpunar 'harpooner'.
- -išče: location: krompirišče 'potato-field' (krompīr 'potato').
- -je: de-adjectival abstracts: mlādje 'youth' (mlād 'young'); phrasal derivatives: meddôbje 'interval' (med 'between' + dóba 'period'); and in compounds, regularly for verbal nouns in -nje, -tje: gibanje 'movement' (gibati 'move'), pitje 'drinking' (piti 'drink').
- -ija: originally from Latin, this was nativized and remains productive. Alongside borrowings, traparija 'stupidity', filozofija 'philosophy', are many Slovene derivatives: sleparija 'swindle' (slep 'blind', slepar 'cheat').
- -nik: replaced original (and now less productive) -ik: črnîlnik 'inkwell' (črnilo 'ink').
- -ək: inter alia, for diminutives: gûmbək 'small button' (gûmb), and deverbals: izvlęčak 'extract' (izvlęči 'extract').
- -ka; inter alia, in diminutives: ráčka 'duckling' (ráca 'duck'); derivation of feminines: cigânka 'gypsy (F)' (cigần 'gypsy (M)'); common in compounds: -lka: igrâlka 'player (F)' (igrâti 'play').

Compound nouns (Vidovič-Muha 1988) are normally subordinating, that is, they consist of head plus modifier. The components are usually joined with $-o-\sim -e-:$

- Noun + verb base: when the base comprises a noun and a verb, the compound normally places the noun first: zemljevid ('land + see') 'map'.
- Verb + noun base: more rarely, the verbal component precedes the nominal one: smrdokâvra ('stink + crow') 'hoopoe'.
- Adjective + verb base: brzojav ('fast + communicate') 'telegraph'.

Adjective + noun base: hudoûrnik ('evil + hour/weather' + suffix) 'mountain torrent'.

Quantifier + noun base compounds are very common: $dv\hat{\rho}b\partial j$ ('two + fight') 'duel'; malodusje ('little + spirit') 'faint-heartedness'.

Noun + noun base: $drevor\hat{e}d$ ('tree + row') 'boulevard'.

Juxtaposition - where syntactic strings are combined with no modification other than some loss of stress - is uncommon: $d\hat{\rho}lg\check{e}as$ ('long + time') 'boredom'.

Most productive prefixes are recently borrowed (like *super-*) but many Slavonic prefixes are used productively in nominal derivation: *med-*, *ne-*, *pa-*, *pra-*, *proti-*, *raz-*, and so on: *pâkristâl* 'false crystal', *rāzjezuīt* 'former Jesuit'.

3.3.2 Major patterns of adjective derivation

Adjectives are derived from verbs and nouns, and from other adjectives; chiefly by suffixation and secondarily by compounding, but also by other means. Adjectives are also derived semantically from participles.

Suffixation (Bajec 1950-2; Toporišič 1984: 147-57):

- -ljiv: deverbal: prizanesljīv 'lenient' (prizanėsti 'pardon'); denominal:
- bojazljīv 'timorous' (bojāzən 'fear').
 -ov ~ -ev: inter alia, masculine possessive: brátova híša 'brother's house'
 (brāt 'brother'); animals: lēvov 'lion's' (lēv 'lion'); plants: bâmbusov 'bamboo' (bâmbus 'bamboo').
- -in: especially for feminine possessive: sēstrina hiša 'sister's house' (séstra 'sister'); animals: levinjin 'lioness's' (levinja 'lioness'); plants: mîrtin 'myrtle' (mîrta 'myrtle').
- -ən: extremely productive, both alone and in compounds. Alone, especially for deverbals: vidən 'visible' (videti 'see'); denominals: lēsən 'wooden' (lēs 'wood'); de-adverbials: hkrātən 'simultaneous' (hkrāti 'at the same time'). It occurs in compounds with twenty or more nominal and adjectival suffixes.
- -ji: very productive in animate denominals: otróčji 'infantile' (otrôk 'infant').

- -nji: de-adverbial: nekdānji 'old-time' (nēkdaj 'once upon a time').
 -ɔk: deverbal: bridək 'painful' (briti 'shave'), rézək 'sharp' (rézati 'cut').
 -ski: productive denominally, both simply: stránski 'lateral' (strân 'side'); and in compounds: strânkarski 'factional' (strânka '(political) party', strånkar 'party member').

Compound adjectives are both subordinate: miroljúbon 'peace-loving' (mîr 'peace', ljubīti 'love') and co-ordinate: bélo-módro-rdēč 'white-blueand-red (as of a flag)'. Juxtaposition is rare: bojaželjon 'bellicose'.

Many productive prefixes are of non-Slovene origin, like anti- and ante-; a few are native, such as nad-, ne-, pa-, pra-: nadpolovičen 'more-thanhalf' (nad 'over' + polovičan 'half'); pre- may be prefixed to very many adiectives: prelép 'extremely beautiful'.

Adjectivalization of participles is frequent: both l-participle and past passive participle forms have become adjectivalized: dorāsəl 'fully grown' (dorásti 'grow up'); poštěn 'honest' (poštéti 'count').

In addition to those that are common in Slavonic, Slovene has some unusual patterns of adverb derivation. Note especially:

-oma ~ -ema, suffixed to stems deriving from: nouns (oziroma 'respectively', stōpnjema 'gradually'); adjectives (rēdkoma 'rarely'); verbs (nenệhoma 'incessantly', compare nệhati 'cease'); and phrases (natihoma 'on the quiet'). The pattern is common: Mader (1981), which is based on a 40,000-word corpus, lists sixty-one of these adverbs.

Major patterns of verb derivation 3.3.3

Verbs are derived from other parts of speech, and (especially in the derivation of aspectual pairs) from other verbs; derivation is chiefly by prefixation and suffixation, but also by compounding. Conjugation classes (see section 3.2.2) are given in square brackets. One borrowed derivative suffix is listed here: see also section 5.3.

Normally, there is a derivative relationship between the two members of an aspectual pair. Slovene follows the general Slavonic system quite closely. Two patterns are generally employed: (a) suffixation, sometimes with alternation of the root and/or replacement of another suffix, and normally with change in conjugation; when the derivative suffix is -Ø-, the root alternation and/or conjugation change become especially salient; (b) prefixation. The derivational patterns tend towards complementarity: imperfectives are most frequently derived from perfectives by suffixation and concomitant changes; perfectives are normally derived from imperfectives by prefixation. Suppletive aspectual pairs exist, but are uncommon, for instance, govorīti [IV] (or práviti [IV]) (IMPFV) / réči [Ia] (PRFV) 'speak', délati [IIIc] (IMPFV) / storīti [IV] (PRFV) 'do'.

Only a few of the many suffixes are exemplified here; for brevity,

neither root alternations nor suffixal alternations are noted:

```
-n-: píhati [IIIc] (IMPFV) / píhniti [II] (PRFV) 'blow'.
-j-: začéti [Ia] (PRFV) / začénjati [IIIc] (IMPFV) 'begin'.
-Ø-: póčiti [IV] (PRFV) / pókati (IMPFV) [IIIc] (PRFV) 'explode'.
```

⁻ov- ~ -ev-: izboljšati [IIIc] (PRFV) / izboljševáti [IIIa] (IMPFV) 'improve'.

⁻av-: zaznáti [IIIc] (PRFV) / zaznāvati [IIIc] (IMPFV) 'perceive'.

Imperfective verbs, when prefixed, normally become perfective. Common prefixes are as follows (here, imperfective examples precede perfective ones; unless noted, both members of an aspectual pair have the same conjugation):

do-: skočīti [IV] 'jump' / doskočīti 'reach by jumping'; trpéti [IV] 'suffer' / dotrpéti 'die'.

iz-: trésti [Ia] 'shake' / iztrésti 'empty by shaking'.

na-: lepīti [IV] 'glue' / nalepīti 'affix by gluing'; glódati [IIIb] 'gnaw' / naglódati 'nibble'.

o-/ob-: držáti [IV] 'hold' / obdržáti 'keep'.

od-: lomīti [IV] 'break' / odlomīti 'break off'; govorīti [IV] 'speak' / odgovorīti 'reply'.

po-: molčáti [IV] 'be silent' / pomolčáti 'be silent for a short while'.

pod-: pisati [IIIb] 'write' / podpisati 'sign'.

pre-: peljáti [IIIc] 'drive' / prepeljáti 'transport'.

pri-: nésti [Ia] 'carry' / prinésti 'bring'; rézati [IIIb] 'cut' / prirézati 'clip'.

raz-: glasīti [IV] 'sound' / razglasīti 'proclaim'.

u-: pásti [Ia] 'fall' / upásti 'subside'.

v-: stopīti [IV] 'tread' / vstopīti 'enter'.

vz-: kipéti [IV] 'boil' / vzkipéti 'fly into rage'.

z-/s-: bráti [Ib] 'pick' / zbráti 'collect'; rásti [Ia] 'grow' / zrásti 'grow up'.

za-: īti [Ia] 'go' / zaiti 'set (sun)'; rėči [Ia] 'speak' / zarėči se 'make a slip of the tongue'.

Note that in some instances prefixation results in an aspectual change but a minimal change in meaning. The accumulation of prefixes occurs in examples like: s + po-: $spoprijatelj\bar{\imath}ti$ se [IV] 'make friends'; pre + po + raz: $preporazdel\bar{\imath}ti$ [IV] 'redistribute'.

Verbs are derived from other parts of speech, and – apart from aspectual derivation – also from other verbs; chiefly by suffixation, but also by compounding and prefixation (Toporišič 1984: 158–61).

The following patterns exemplify the most common derivations, by suffixation.

-a-: čenčáti [IIIc] 'gossip' (čenča 'nonsense').

-e-: beléti [IV] 'become white' (bél 'white'); brzéti [IV] 'be in a hurry' (brz 'fast').

-i-: belīti [IV] 'make white' (bėl 'white'); človēčiti [IV] 'humanize' (člóvek 'person').

-ov- ~ -ev-: very productive in medieval Slovene, now much less so: kraljeváti [IIIa] 'rule as king' (králj 'king').

-ir-: marginally productive in the sixteenth century, now used for at least 90 per cent of verbs with borrowed stems (Priestly 1987): rentgenizirati [IIIc] 'X-ray'.

Compounding is very uncommon; the same formant $(-o- \sim -e-)$ is used as in compound nouns and adjectives: dolgoċásiti [IV] 'to be boring', compare the juxtapositionally derived noun dolgċas 'boredom' in 3.3.1.

Prefixation, other than for aspectual derivation, is rare. Unprefixed imperfective versions of the verbs in the following examples are non-occurrent, and derivation from other sources is assumed:

```
o-/ob-: obnemóči ~ onemóči [Ia] 'lose vigour' (nèmộč 'weakness').
raz-: razdevičiti [IV] 'deflower' (devica 'virgin').
u-: unóvčiti [IV] 'realize as cash' (nóvəc 'coin').
```

4 Syntax

4.1 Element order in declarative sentences

In sentences in which word order is the only device to mark the subject versus object opposition, the verb is normally in second position, preceded by the subject and followed by the object (Bennett 1987; Toporišič 1982: 161-81): sosédovo téle glêda náše žrebě 'the neighbour's calf is looking at our foal' versus náše žrebě glêda sosédovo téle 'our foal is looking at the neighbour's calf'. Otherwise, Slovene word order is normally determined by functional sentence perspective: as elsewhere in Slavonic, the topic precedes and the comment follows. So, given the components mója séstra 'my sister (SUBJECT)', obišče 'will visit', jūtri 'tomorrow', stáro učīteljico 'old female teacher (OBJECT)', the word order reflects the old-new status of the components: jutri obišče stáro učīteljico mója séstra 'the old teacher will be visited by my sister (not anyone else) tomorrow'; mója séstra obišče stáro učīteljico jūtri 'my sister will visit the old teacher tomorrow (and not at any other time)', and so on.

Consider the following commonly cited text:

Bîl je imenītən gröf. Tā gröf je šəl v Görjance na löv. Velíka drûžba prijāteljev in lövcev ga je spremīla. Gròf uględa medvęda in skǫči za njím. Médved šine v goščāvo . . .

'There was an eminent count. This count went to Gorjance to hunt. A large company of friends and hunters accompanied him. The count catches sight of a bear and bounds after him. The bear darts into a thicket ...'

Here (imenīton) gröf is new information (and placed last) in the first sentence, and old information (and placed first) in the second and fourth. So also médved is new (and placed after the verb) in gröf uglēda medvéda, but old (and first) in médved šîne v goščāvo. The third sentence, however, has the comment velika drūžba prijāteljev in lōvcev preceding the topical ga: this reflects an extra degree of emphasis attached to this particular noun phrase, as compared to the pronoun; unmarked word order would be

spremula ga je velika drūžba with the topical pronoun preceding the comment noun phrase. As in the last example, emphasis is often marked by word order that conflicts with functional sentence perspective and/or with unmarked subject-verb-object order. Thus the sentence Potrpljénje želézne dūri prebije, with its subject-object-verb order, emphasizes the object: '(Even) iron gates are broken down by patience'.

The non-emphatic placement of adverbials depends, to a considerable extent, on functional sentence perspective. If more than one adverbial is topical, then adverbials of place and time tend to be placed earlier, and adverbials of manner and degree later (Davis 1989). Many non-focused adverbs are placed centrally in the sentence, and in this case they generally precede the verb they qualify: fant je moral trdo délati 'the boy had to work hard'.

A clause normally contains only one group of clitics (for paradigms see section 3.1). If there is more than one element in the clitic group, the elements have fixed internal left-to-right order, whereby they fall into seven classes, as follows (Bennett 1986; Toporišič 1984: 535-40).

- (I) the particle naj;
- (II) any past auxiliary (or present copula) except je (namely, səm, si, sva, sta, smo, ste, so), or the conditional auxiliary (bi);
- (III) a reflexive pronoun (se or si);
- (IV) a dative pronoun (mi, ti, ji...);
- (V) an accusative pronoun (me, te, jo ...);
- (VI) a genitive pronoun (me, te, je ...);
- (VII) the past auxiliary or present copula je or any future auxiliary (bom, boš, bo, ...).

The clitic group occurs in the 'second position' in the clause, whereby the 'first position' may be filled by one of the following: (a) a noun phrase, verb phrase, adjectival or adverbial phrase; (b) a subordinate clause; (c) a quotation; (d) a subordinating or (under certain conditions) a coordinating conjunction. The 'first position' may also consist of (e) one of a number of optionally deleted elements (ranging from particles to noun phrases); under such circumstances the clitic group actually occurs in 'first position'. Examples of (a) to (e) follow, with clitic slots identified by numbers used above:

bråt se bo ožénil '(my) brother will marry' (se = III, bo = VII); starējši bråt Tône se je ožénil '(my) elder brother Tone has married' (se = III, je = VII); starējši brátje so se oženili '(my) elder brothers have married' (so = II, se = III); učil jo je je 'he taught her it (F)' (jo 'her' = V, je 'it' = VI, je (AUX) = VII); láni so se starši brátje oženili 'last year (my) elder brothers married' (so (AUX) = II, se = III).

- 2 ko se vŕnem, se bo bràt ožénil 'when I return, (my) brother will marry.'
- 3 'da', mi je rékol '"yes", he said to me' ($mi = \hat{V}$, je = VII).
- 4 vém, da se bo brat ožénil 'I know that my brother will marry'; but (with coordinating conjunction not occupying 'first position') ostála bom něporočéna, tôda brat se bo ožénil 'I shall remain unmarried, but my brother will marry'.
- 5 se bo bràt ožénil? = ali se bo bràt ožénil? 'will the brother marry?' se bo nadaljevál = ta člânok se bo nadaljevál '(this article) will be continued'.

The unstressed negative particle ne succeeds all other clitics – it occupies position VIII: $pr\phi si$, da naj bi se mu ne $smej\dot{a}li$ 'he asks them not to laugh at him' (literally: 'he asks that / OPT-PTL (I)/COND-AUX (II)/REFL (III)/him-DAT (IV)/NEG (VIII)/laugh'). The combination ne + je is realized as stressed ni, that is, is non-clitic; the combinations ne + bi, ne + bo (and other future auxiliary forms) are stressed on the second element, which thus becomes non-clitic: brate se ne $b\phi$ ozenil (se = III, ne = VIII) '(my) brother will not marry'.

If a verb phrase is reduced, concomitant clitics which remain will assume the stress:

Si že končàl délo? – Predvčérajšnjim še nè, včéraj pa səm gà = Včéraj səm ga končàl

'Have you finished the work? - The day before yesterday I hadn't, but yesterday I did (finish it)'.

(Ali) se dóbro počúti? – $J\bar{a}$, sè = $J\bar{a}$, dóbro se počútim

'Do you feel well? - Yes, I do (feel well)'.

Compare ali si si to izmislil 'did you think this up for yourself?' and (with deletion of particle) si si izmislil?, and (with verb-phrase reduction) Si sì? Clitic placement is not affected by the preposing of an emphatic adverbial: vsäj krúha mi dájte 'at least, give me some bread'. Clitics do not occur inside noun phrases, as they do in Serbo-Croat.

The question of clitics and phrase boundaries has not been investigated much; this is a tentative suggestion. If two or more verb phrases are combined, their several clitics may form a single clitic group (and the clitic-placement rules are followed), as long as the same subject is 'understood' for all the verb phrases involved. Hence 'yesterday he wanted to call them both' is normally včéraj ju je hótel poklicati, where je hótel is one verb phrase and ju poklicati is another; and the reflexive clitic se and its infinitive umiti are separated by another verb in včéraj se je pozábil umiti 'yesterday he forgot to wash' (se = III, je = VII). If, however, a different subject is 'understood', a construction of this kind is not grammatical; thus *dánəs səm se slišal séstro smejáti (where səm slišal is one verb phrase and se smejáti is another) is not acceptable for 'today I heard my sister laugh';

this idea can only be expressed otherwise, for instance, dános som slíšal séstro smejáti se or dános som slíšal, kakô se séstra sméje.

Within the noun phrase modifiers (adjectival pronouns, adjectives and so on) normally stand to the left of the head noun: trúdna máti je imēla sûh obraz, globóke jáme so bile v njénih licih 'the tired mother had a thin face, (and) there were deep hollows in her cheeks'. Within sequences of determiners, qualitative adjectives precede relational adjectives (hládno jesénsko jútro 'a cool autumn morning'), and adjectival pronouns precede all other determiners (vse te náše májhne gôzdne živáli 'all these small forest animals of ours'). Dependent prepositional phrases frequently precede adjectives: življénje v za evrôpske pójme grozljívi révščini 'life in poverty (that is) dreadful for European conceptions', béžali so pred z nězadřžno hitrôstjo približujočo se jim katastrôfo 'they fled before the catastrophe (that was) approaching them with uncontrollable speed'. To the right of the head noun are placed other elements of the noun phrase, such as nouns in apposition (délavec zdômec 'worker (who is) migrant' = 'migrant worker', hlàpec Jérnej 'Jernej the farmhand'; noun-phrase attributes in the genitive and other cases (híša mójega očéta 'the house of my father', himna domovini 'a hymn to the homeland'); prepositional phrases (vójna z Nēmci 'war with the Germans', strâh pred kâznijo 'fear of execution') and adverbials (hiša tam 'the house over there'). Exceptions to these statements are stylistically marked (prijateli mój dragi 'dear friend of mine').

4.2 Non-declarative sentence types

Yes-no questions are marked by: (1) word order; (2) a special particle; (3) a separate interrogative phrase; (4) interrogative intonation alone with unmarked word order. In both (1) and (2) the sentence bears interrogative intonation; in (3) the interrogative phrase bears this intonation. Corresponding to the positive razuméli ste 'you understood' are thus:

- 1 Inversion: ste razuméli? 'did you understand?'
- 2 The use of a particle. The normal particles are ali (in conversational Slovene, a) and kaj: ali ste razumėli? 'did you understand?' The expressive variant mar adds a rhetorical and doubtful nuance: mar tega rės ne vėste?' don't you really know that?'
- 3 An interrogative phrase preposed or postposed to a positive or interrogative sentence. There are many: $k\bar{a}j$, $kajn\tilde{e}$, $kajn\tilde{e}da$, $kajn\tilde{e}da$, $n\tilde{e}$, ne $r\hat{e}s$, da, ali $k\bar{a}j$, mar $n\tilde{e}$ and so on. Examples: $razum\acute{e}li$ ste, $kajn\tilde{e}$? 'you understood, didn't you?', ne $r\hat{e}s$, da ste $razum\acute{e}li$? 'isn't it true that you understood?', ali je $c\bar{u}dno$, $c\bar{u}$? or $c\bar{u}$ or $c\bar{u}$ $c\bar{u}$ od, isn't it?'
- 4 The use of interrogative intonation: razuméli ste?

Positive interrogative sentences may be answered with affirmative/negative particles, or by repetition of all or part of the verb phrase. Thus, in

response to ste razuméli? we may find dà/jā, razuméli, razuméli smo 'yes'; në, nismo, nismo razumėli 'no'. Of the two positive particles, jä is more common than da. Other replies are, of course, possible, like morda 'perhaps' and seveda 'of course'. Unambiguous responses to negative interrogative sentences are pac and ne; and/or the verb is repeated (with negative marking, as necessary) for clarity: ali nisi spâl? 'haven't you slept?' - päč/səm 'yes (I have)'; në/nisem 'no (I haven't)'; ali ne smrdi po petrolēju? - pač, smrdi/nē, ne smrdi 'there isn't a stink of paraffin, is there? - yes, there is/no, there isn't'.

WH questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns ($kd\bar{\varrho}$? 'who?', $k\bar{a}j$? 'what?'), adjectives ($kat\bar{\varrho}ri$? 'which?', $k\bar{a}k\tilde{s}\vartheta n$? 'what sort of?', $\check{c}ig\acute{a}v$? 'whose?'), and adverbs (kje? 'where?', kdaj? 'when?', zakaj? 'why?') and many more. The intonation differs from that of yes-no questions: normally, WH questions have falling, and yes-no questions rising, intonation. The verb may be indicative, optative or infinitive: $k\bar{a}i$ bom storil? 'what shall I do?', kāj naj storim? 'what should I do?', kāj storīti? 'what is to be done?' These questions may be reinforced with the particle pa: compare kām grēš? 'where are you going?' and kām pa grēš? 'where is it that you're going?' If an interrogative sentence is repeated with one element changed, as a supplementary question, the unchanged elements in the sentence may be deleted and replaced by the particle pa: kāj boš délal dánəs? 'what are you doing today?' ... pa dręvi? (= ... kaj boš dęlal dręvi?) 'and (what are you doing) this evening?'

Indirect yes-no questions are introduced by the conjunctions ali, če: vprášal me je, ali / če səm videl njegóvega bráta 'he asked me if I had seen his brother'. The tense within the indirect question is the tense of the corresponding direct question. Indirect WH questions are introduced by interrogative conjunctions homophonous with those exemplified above: vprášal me ie. kdāi bodo šlī 'he asked me when they would be going'.

Commands may be expressed with the imperative: both aspects are used in positive and in negative commands; the general meaning of the aspect, as relevant to the verb involved, is operative. Hence, positive: odpīraj vráta! (IMPFV) 'open the gate (as a general rule)' and odprī vráta! (PRFV) 'open the gate (at once)'; negative: ne odpīraj vráta! (IMPFV) 'don't open the gate (ever) and ne odpri vráta! (PRFV) 'don't open the gate (right now)'.

Among other ways of expressing commands, note the following:

Infinitive, both imperfective: në me jezīti! 'don't keep making me angry!' and perfective: në me razjezīti! 'don't make me really angry!'

Da + conditional: da bi se v žlici vóde utôpil! 'may you drown in a spoonful of water!'

Imperative, third person: pa bodi po tvójem 'let it be the way you want'.

Present optative: naj se zgodi tvója vólja 'may your will be done'; le naj pléše! 'just let her dance!'

4.3 Copular sentences

The unmarked copula is bīti 'be', expressed in all tenses, persons and numbers. Semantically marked copulas include postáti 'become', imenováti se 'be called', zdéti se 'appear (to be)': že trétjič je postál óče 'he became a father for the third time'. Predicate noun phrases are normally in the nominative. (For the loss of the predicative instrumental, see Strekelj (1903).) Thus Bârbara je poročéna (žéna) 'Barbara is a married woman', Bârbara je bilà dvệ lệti tovàrniška délavka 'Barbara was a factory worker for two years'; note otròk se imenûje Jánez 'the baby is called Janez', Bârbara se mi zdí pošténa žénska 'to me Barbara seems like an honest woman'.

A predicate following a reflexive se may be nominative, or accusative (and marked animate; see 4.7): pokázal se je hvaléžen/hvaléžnega 'he proved to be grateful'; pokázal se je dóbər délavəc/dóbrega délavca 'he proved to be a good worker'.

Noun phrases in apposition to the objects of transitive verbs are accusative: zapustili so ga siromáka 'they left him a pauper'; also when introduced by kot or za: soséda smo doslēj smatrali za prijātelja 'until now we considered (our) neighbour a friend', poznäl səm te kot otróka 'I knew you as a child'.

For predicate noun phrases with the negative copula, see 4.6. Adjectives in the predicate are in their historically 'long' or 'short' form (in so far as this opposition extends) depending on the semantic definite versus indefinite opposition (see 3.1.4).

Predicatives (Toporišič 1984: 347) are indeclinable words which occur as predicate modifiers; when the tense is past the copula is usually bilo, even when the predicative is homophonous with a non-neuter noun: thus dolgčas mi je po prijatelju 'I miss my friend', dolgčas mi je bilo po prijatelju 'I missed my friend'; tréba ga je kaznováti 'he must be punished', tréba bi ga bilò kaznováti 'he should have been punished'; žal mi je bilò zanj 'I was sorry for him'; ne bi bilò napak zate, če bi to storīl 'it wouldn't be a mistake for you to do that'; sinộči je bil ~ bilò mrāz 'it was cold last night'. The last example shows a vacillation between substantival and predicative use. 'Impersonal' phrases which comprise neuter forms of adjectives are probably best analysed as predicatives: oblačno je / je bilo 'it is / was cloudy'; nocój bo zanimívo 'it will be interesting tonight'; grozno ga je bilo poslúšati 'it was awful to listen to him'.

4.4 Coordination and comitativity

The conjunctions in, pa and ter are used as coordinators. Of the three, pa is more conversational than in; and ter 'and also; and so' does not often occur as first coordinator. Thus zéblo mi je in/pa láčen sem bil 'I was cold and hungry': ter would suggest 'moreover' in this sentence, but not in fänt je prišėl do kozolca, stópil mimo in/ter/pa je izginil za hlęvom 'the boy came up to the hay-rack, walked past and disappeared behind the barn'.

The coordinating conjunctions are used to coordinate words, phrases and sentences. In phrases and sentences, deletion of repeated elements may occur. In verb phrases, normally, the auxiliary is deleted: ozîla sta se na mâter in obstâla srêdi sôbe ozîla sta se na mâter in obstâla srêdi sôbe 'they both looked at (their) mother and came to a halt in the middle of the room'. Given clitic phrases, normally, the complete (but not the partial) deletion of a repeated clitic phrase may occur. Compare vîdim, da se mu vrti in se mu blêde and vîdim, da se mu vrti in blêde 'I see that he is giddy and delirious': here the clitic group se mu is either repeated, or deleted, as a whole.

When verb agreement in gender with conjoined noun phrases is required, usage varies. The following general rules apply: (a) if two feminine singular nouns are conjoined, the verb is feminine dual; (b) if two singular nouns of any other pairs of genders are conjoined, the verb is more commonly masculine dual: Milka (F SG) in njėna mäčka (F SG) sta bili (F DU) zúnaj 'Milka and her cat were outside', but Milka (F SG) in njėno tėle (N SG) sta bili (M DU) zúnaj 'Milka and her calf were outside'. So also in the plural: (a) with a conjoined noun phrase where the total is three or more and all the nouns are feminine, the verb is feminine plural; (b) in all other instances, the verb is normally masculine plural: obė dėklici (F DU) in njūna máti (F SG) so bilė (F PL) zúnaj 'both the girls and their mother were outside', but dvė telėti (N DU) in ėno žrebė (N SG) so bilė (M PL) zúnaj 'two foals and a calf were outside' (Corbett 1983: 183-6). If the subject of a verb is a conjoined noun phrase and one of the conjuncts is first person, the verb will be first person; if, under the same condition, one of the conjuncts is second person, the verb will be second person. Thus, jäz (1) in Tone (3) sva (1 DU) prišlä 'I and Tone have arrived'; Ti (2), Tone (3) in Tomo (3) ste (2 PL) prišli 'you, Tone and Tomo have arrived' (Corbett 1983: 207-8). Comitative constructions and simple coordination both occur: thus,

s Tonetom sta prišla and ti in Tone sta prišla are equally acceptable for 'you and Tone have arrived'. Dual comitativity, as in the above example, may be expressed by X z Y where X = dual pronoun and Y = singular noun orpronoun; so also: mîdva z Lôjzom sva sadîla 'Lojz and I were planting'. Since the personal pronoun is normally deleted (see 4.7), the comitative phrase is normally reduced to z Y: 'hvála lépa!' sva rékla z Jánezom "many thanks!", said Janez and I'; z gospodárjem sva šlä v vinógrad 'the master and I went to the vineyard'. Simultaneous reciprocal comitativity and pronoun deletion may result in, for example, vém, da se imata z Marjanco ráda 'I know that he and Marjanca love each other' (= ónadva z Marjanco = ön in Marjanca). Plural comitativity is expressed in the same way; in this instance, the Y in [X] z Y may be dual or plural: z njima smo šli na sprehöd 'we (including the two of them) went for a walk', z njimi smo šli na sprehöd 'we (including them PL) went for a walk'; and similarly with the verb in the second person plural. This subject has not been investigated much; but note that because simple coordination also occurs there is much ambiguity: for instance, z brátoma smo šli may mean 'I and my two brothers', 'we two and our two brothers' and 'we (three or more) and our two brothers ... went'.

4.5 Subordination

As generally in Slavonic, there are many types of subordinate clause. A few examples follow. Subject: kdôr je bolân, mora ležáti 'he who is sick must stay in bed'; vsēm navzóčim je znáno, da se ûčna ūra začně čez pệt minût '(the fact) that the lesson begins in five minutes is known to everyone present'. Attribute: obšlä me je slūtnja, da je domâ nēkaj narôbe 'I was seized with the foreboding that something at home was wrong'; govoriš o stvaréh, ki jih ne poznāš 'you're talking about things that you don't know'. Predicate: Marjānca je zdäj, kār səm bilā nekôč jāz 'Marjanca now is what I once was'. Object: povédali so, da je miličnik odšēl 'they told (us) that the policeman had left'; nimam råd, če se prepīrata 'I don't like it if you two quarrel'. Adverb: zverī živijo, kjēr so gozdôvi 'wild animals live where there are forests'; čákal bom, doklēr se ne zmračí 'I'll wait until it gets dark'; ne grë vēn, ker se bojí mráza 'he doesn't go outside, for he is afraid of the cold'; če si láčen, ti dám krúha 'if you're hungry, I'll give you some bread'; vstôpiš, ne da bi potēkal 'you come in without knocking'.

There are two relative pronouns, ki and $kat\hat{r}ri$. The latter is marked and is used (a) with a preposition: $ljudj\hat{e}$, z $kat\hat{e}rimi$ bom $gov\hat{o}ril$ 'the people with whom I shall talk' (here the use of ki is equally acceptable: $ljudj\hat{e}$, ki bom z njim $gov\hat{o}ril$); (b) for possessives: $drž\hat{a}va$, pod $kat\hat{e}re$ $zast\hat{a}vo$ pluje $t\hat{a}$ $kitol\hat{o}vka$ 'the country under whose flag this whaleboat sails'; and (c) to avoid the ambiguity which is inherent in the indeclinable ki: compare $m\acute{a}ti$ $m\acute{o}jega$ $prij\acute{a}telja$, $kat\acute{e}ra$ (F) je $zd\ddot{a}j$ na $Bl\acute{e}du$ 'my friend's mother, who is now in Bled' and $m\acute{a}ti$ $m\acute{o}jega$ prijatelja, $kat\acute{e}ri$ (M) je $zd\ddot{a}j$ na $Bl\acute{e}du$ 'the

mother of my friend, who is now in Bled'. Otherwise, unmarked ki is used as follows: alone if nominative: po jūhi smo dobīli čŕno kávo, ki je bilā presládka 'after the soup we got some black coffee which was too sweet'. In a non-nominative case ki is supported by a personal pronoun, normally third person: filmi, ki jih bomo glédali 'the films (which them) we shall see'; tô je tisti, ki mu je vsē zaūpala 'that's the person to whom she confided everything'. The supporting pronoun may also be first or second person: tīsti səm, ki mi je vsē zaūpala 'I am the person to whom she confided everything'.

Extraction constraints have been little investigated. Note, however, that in spoken Slovene a clitic is not normally moved out of its main clause: 'the man whom I think you saw' is člóvek, ki mîstim, da si ga vídel and not *člóvek, ki ga mîslim, da si vídel; while 'the man who I think saw you' is člóvek, ki mîslim, da te je vídel. In formal written Slovene extraction is avoided in a number of ways: for example, for 'the man I think you saw': člóvek, o katệrem mîslim, da si ga vîdel, literally: 'the man of whom I think that you saw him'.

Gerunds are normally used to express temporal relativity: the present gerund forms for actions simultaneous with, and the past gerund for actions anterior to, that in the superordinate clause: vŕgla se je navpik z visôkega previsa, hotěč (PRS GER) naredīti samomör 'she threw herself down from a high overhang, wishing to commit suicide'; a ne umŕši (PAST GER), je po mnôgih dnéh zôpet ozdravēla 'and, not having died, after many days she recovered'.

Participles are used instead of subordinate clauses relatively seldom. In the following, že pred dvēma ūrama prispėle góste so kónčno pozdrāvili (literally: 'they finally greeted the already before two hours having arrived guests') 'the guests – who had arrived two hours previously – were finally greeted', prispėle is used participially, without an auxiliary; a relative clause would be more usual: góste, ki so pred dvēma ūrama prispėli, so kónčno pozdrāvili.

The infinitive occurs as the complement of numerous verbs and verb phrases, for example, nộcemo délati 'we do not want to work', ni mâral veliko govorīti 'he did not care to say much', dólžən səm vam tộ povédati 'I am obliged to tell you that', slišal səm ptīčko péti 'I heard a small bird singing' and so on. In these respects Slovene differs from the other South Slavonic languages, and also in allowing the accumulation of infinitives, as in mộram začéti délati 'I have to begin to work'.

In some contexts, an infinitive and a da-clause are interchangeable: $n\acute{a}$ să $p\^{r}va$ $nal\^{o}ga$ je, da se $u\~{c}\acute{i}mo = n\acute{a}$ să $p\~{r}va$ $nal\^{o}ga$ je $u\~{c}\acute{i}ti$ se 'our first task is to learn'. A common conversational construction is X za + infinitive; in the standard norm other constructions are preferred, for instance, conversational $im\~{a}$ s $k\~{a}$ j $j\'{e}$ st? 'do you have anything to eat?'; compare standard $im\~{a}$ s $k\~{a}$ j $j\'{e}$ sti? Similarly: conversational $k\'{u}$ pil si bom str\"{o}j za pomívat

posôdo 'I shall buy a machine to wash the dishes'; compare standard kúpil si bom stroj za pomívanje posôde.

The supine is used as the complement of verbs with meanings involving some kind of movement, both explicit: Spât hộdim prèd deséto zvečer 'I go to bed before ten at night', šlä je krúha pèč 'she has gone to bake some bread', poslâla je sîna študîrat 'she sent her son (away) to study'; and implicit: mộram spât 'I must (go) to bed' (compare, with infinitive, mọram spâti 'I must sleep'). The direct object of a supine, formerly in the genitive, is now in the accusative: grèm domōv sežgät dnệvnik has thus replaced earlier grèm domōv sežgät dnệvnika for 'I'm going home to burn (my) diary'.

4.6 Negation

Although both are possible, sentence negation (with the negative particle preposed to the verb) is normally preferred to constituent negation (with the negative particle preposed to another constituent), even if the semantically negated part of the sentence is that other constituent. Thus $t\hat{o}$ se $n\hat{i}$ zgodilo po móji vólji is more common than $t\hat{o}$ se je zgodilo në po móji vólji for 'that happened not-according-to-my-will', that is, 'that did not happen according to my will'.

The unmarked negative particle is ne; there are special negative forms of the verbs 'want', 'have' and 'be' (see 3.2.1). Note that, since 'be' acts as the auxiliary in past tenses, ni replaces je as the auxiliary in the third singular: Jánez je razbīl ókno 'Janez broke the window' versus Jánez ni razbīl ókna 'Janez did not break the window'.

If the negative particle (ne or the ni-prefix on a negative verb) is repeated, the result is a positive sentence: ne mórem vas ne poslúšati 'I cannot not listen to you' = môram vas poslúšati 'I must listen to you'. In the same way, if a negative particle co-occurs with a negative adjective, the result is positive: nisəm nespámetən 'I am not unreasonable' = səm (dovõlj) pámetən 'I am (quite) reasonable'. Other negative elements require the co-occurrence of a negative particle: nič nisəm videl 'I saw nothing', z nikômər ne govori 'he talks to nobody', nikjēr jih nisi videl 'you saw them nowhere'. Many of these other negated elements may co-occur without rendering a sentence positive: nihčē nam ni nikôli ničēsar dâl 'nobody ever gave us anything'.

Normally, the direct object of a negative verb is genitive, as in the example Jánez ní razbìl ókna above. If it is clear from the sentence structure and/or from prosodic features (stress, intonation) that it is a specific non-verbal constituent that is being negated, the accusative may replace the genitive.

If the copula expresses identity and is negated, subject and predicate are nominative: compare examples in 4.3 with Bârbara ni poročéna (žéna) 'Barbara is not a married woman', Bârbara ní bilà dvệ lệti tovàrniška

délavka 'Barbara was not a factory-worker for two years'. If, however, the copula expresses existence, usually located spatially or temporally, then it has a single argument, its subject; when the copula is negated, the subject is genitive. Compare óče je domā 'father is at home' and očéta ni domā 'father is not at home'; za njim so ostáli dolgôvi 'there were debts left behind him' and za njim ni ostálo dolgóv 'there were no debts left behind him'. In these instances it is, however, possible to negate a specific constituent, rather than the whole sentence, namely óče ni domā 'father is not at home (but somewhere else)'; za njim niso ostáli dolgôvi 'it was not debts that were left behind him (but something else)'.

4.7 Anaphora and pronouns

The nominative of the personal pronoun is omitted, not only when it is explicit in the verb ending ($k\bar{a}j$ $d\acute{e}la\check{s}$? 'what are you doing?' $b\acute{e}rem$ 'I am reading') but also when it is not ($k\bar{a}j$ bi $st\acute{o}ril$? 'what would I/you/he do?'). Hence, the subject of the verb may not become explicit until later in the context: Slovénci bi bilì môrali že zdávnaj spoznáti, da nam enakovrédno vključevânje v mednárodno družino ... lahkô samô korîsti '(We) Slovenes should have long since realized that incorporation on equal terms in the international family may only be of benefit to us', where only in the subordinate da-clause does the pronoun nam identify the person of the subject of bi bilì môrali. So also: otrôk səm bîl zmêraj vesêl '(I) as a child was always happy'; popôtnik, ki mumo grèš ... '(you) traveller who pass by ...' The pronoun is expressed for contrastive emphasis: $k\bar{a}j$ $d\acute{e}la\check{s}$? – $j\ddot{a}z$ $b\acute{e}rem$ 'what are you doing? – I am reading (but someone else perhaps not)'.

The most usual anaphoric pronoun, ∂n , ∂n , ∂n , is thus more frequently implicit than explicit, for example:

Ko je sēdəmdesetlêtni óče umíral ..., je nenâdoma obŕnil ocî v ströp, ... odpŕl ústa in kríknil: 'Vóda.' Natō je omáhnil nazáj na zglâvje ... 'As the seventy-year-old father was dying ..., (he) suddenly turned his gaze towards the ceiling, ... opened (his) mouth and cried, "Water." Then (he) collapsed back onto the pillow ...'

In non-nominative cases and when unstressed, the clitic third-person pronouns are used (see 4.1). Note the peculiarly Slovene use of the clitics in discourse contexts where the verb is implicit and the noun phrase or phrases is/are anaphorized: the verb phrase is expressed by repetition of the auxiliary, if any, on its own; and the noun phrase(s) is/are expressed by the clitic forms. Example with verb phrase lacking auxiliary:

Zdåj razůmeš soséda? – Zdí se mi da gà 'Do you understand your neighbour now? I think that I (understand) him'.

With auxiliaries:

In zakāj je zabodəl Klementino vèč kot énkrat? Da, zakāj jo je?

'And why did he stab Klementina more than once? Yes, why did he (stab) her?' Zarıs, kot bi zadel glavni dobîtək. – Saj səm ga

'You're beaming as if you had won the jackpot. - But I have (won) it'.

In addition, the demonstrative pronouns tâ, tîstî, ôni are used anaphorically:

Kākšna drevęsa so tộ? - Tộle je bûkev, tîstole tầm je jávor, ônole ônstran réke pa je víba

'What sort of trees are they? – This one's a beech, that one there is a maple, and that one over on the other side of the river is a willow.'

'The former ... the latter' is expressed by prvi ... slédnji:

Kopîtar in Mîklošič sta bilà pomēmbna jezikoslôvca; prvi je bíl rójən v ösəmnajstem, slédnji pa v devêtnajstem stolêtju

'K. and M. were important linguists; the former was born in the eighteenth century and the latter in the nineteenth.'

Among other anaphoric expressions, $t\hat{\phi}$ corresponds to $k\ddot{a}r$ 'what(ever)', as in $k\ddot{a}r$ je v srcu, to je tudi na jeziku 'whatever is in the heart is also on the tongue'; $t\hat{\phi}$ may also be elided in this context.

Slovene has a particularly interesting construction known as the 'Orphan Accusative' (Perlmutter and Orešnik 1973). Any masculine or neuter adjective in direct-object position that is used pronominally (namely, in a noun phrase from which the noun is omitted) occurs with what is historically the genitive ending -ega: katēri klobúk hóčete? 'which hat do you want?' - hóčem navâdni klobúk 'I want the ordinary hat'; but hóčem navâdnega 'I want (the) ordinary (one)'. The pronominal adjective is, in other words, marked as animate. There is thus overt case consistency between the use of pronouns and pronominally used adjectives in the singular: feminine: dâjte mi čŕno oblęko - dâjte mi jo - dâjte mi čŕno 'give me the black dress' - 'give me it' - 'give me the black one'; neuter: dâjte mi čŕno védro - dâjte mi ga - dâjte mi čŕnega 'give me the black bucket' - 'give me it' - 'give me the black one'.

4.8 Reflexives and reciprocals

Reflexivity is expressed with reflexive pronouns which may be both clitic and – when emphatic – fully stressed, and both accusative and dative: se/sébe: umiti se = umiti sébe 'wash oneself'; si/sébi: pomágati si = pomágati sébi 'help oneself'. Occasionally, the clitic-non-clitic distinction reflects something other than emphasis: compare ubiti sébe (literally: 'kill oneself') 'commit suicide', but ubiti se, which has an impersonal meaning, 'die by accident'.

Reflexivity may, but does not normally, extend across an infinitival

phrase boundary. 'Yesterday he forced himself to wash himself' (with the same subject understood for both verbs) is more rarely $v\check{c}\acute{e}raj$ se je prisilil umiti sé ~ sébe, and more usually, with the second reflexive pronoun omitted (compare 'he was afraid to laugh' below): $v\check{c}\acute{e}raj$ se je prisilil umiti. If emphasis is needed, the stressed reflexive pronoun may occur, but reinforced with sâm: $v\check{c}\acute{e}raj$ se je prisilil umiti sámega sébe 'yesterday he forced himself to wash himself'. If the (explicit or implicit) subject of the verbs in question is not the same, the reflexive pronoun is normally ambiguous: $J\hat{o}\acute{e}$ je prisilil svója sinôva spoštováti sébe can mean both 'Joe forced his two sons to respect themselves', and '... to respect him'.

Possible antecedents include not only nominative subjects, as in the above examples, but also implicit subjects in dative ('impersonal') phrases: potrébno se mu je umiti (= potrébno mu je + se umiti, literally: 'it is necessary for him' + 'to wash himself') 'he must wash'; tébi se pa še ne mudi popráviti (= tébi pa še ne mudi + se popráviti, literally: 'for you it is not yet urgent' + 'to reform yourself') 'you are not yet in a hurry to reform'.

Verbs with se/si, which are thus morphologically reflexive, are also used, without reflexive meaning, as follows:

- 1 Idiomatically: with se either obligatory: smejáti se 'laugh', prizadévati si 'to endeavour'; or optional: jókati se = jókati 'weep', mísliti si = mísliti 'think'.
- 2 To express impersonal generalizations; with intransitive verbs: v Slovéniji se veliko hódi v hribe 'in Slovenia people do a lot of mountain-walking'; and with transitive verbs, when the reflexive construction is equivalent to a third person plural non-reflexive with an unspecified agent, as in išče se mlājša žénska = iščejo mlājšo žénsko 'a younger woman is sought'. The following alternative construction occurs: reflexive verb + object-ACC: išče se mlājšo žénsko; here the verb is impersonal ('neutral'), compare iskálo se bo mlājše žénske 'younger women will be sought'. Also, an impersonal reflexive may complement a noun phrase in the dative: Jánezu se hóče denárja 'Janez craves some money'. This usage is more limited than elsewhere in Slavonic.

If the usages in items 1 and 2 co-occur, one of the two instances of se is usually omitted: pri njém se ne sméje nikôli (literally: 'at his house it does not laugh itself never') 'there is never any laughter in his house'. Similarly, if one morphologically reflexive verb has a second such verb dependent on it, the second se is usually omitted: bál se je 'he was afraid' + smejáti se 'to laugh' > bál se je smejáti 'he was afraid to laugh'.

it, the second se is usually omitted: bál se je 'he was afraid' + smejáti se 'to laugh' > bál se je smejáti 'he was afraid to laugh'.

Reciprocity is expressed (a) with reflexive verbs, both with accusative se and with dative si: sręčati se 'meet one another', pomágati si 'help each other'; and (b) with the explicit reciprocal drûg- drûg- or én- drûg-, thus

(paralleling the above reflexives) accusative srēčati drūg drūgega 'meet one another', dative pomágati drūg drūgemu 'help one another', and with other cases also: genitive: bojita se drūg drūgega 'they are afraid of each other'; instrumental: umīrajo drūg za drūgim 'they are dying one after another'. The last example shows the intermediate position of the preposition. Note that if both persons concerned are female, this may be explicit: bojita se drūga drūge 'the two (women) are afraid of each other'. A reciprocal can occur without a nominative subject antecedent: trėba je drūg drūgemu pomágati 'people should help each other'.

4.9 Possession

The verb iméti is used in a wide range of meanings with animate subjects: imâm hišo 'I have a house'; imâš dósti gradíva 'you have enough material'; imâ bráta 'he has a brother'; imâva prijâtelja na obîsku 'we (DU) have a friend visiting'; imâmo dóber spomîn 'we (PL) have a good memory'; âvto imâte pokvârjen 'you have (your) car wrecked' = 'your car is wrecked'; imâjo zâjtrk ob ósmih 'they have breakfast at eight'; imēla bo otróka 'she's going to have a baby' and so on. If the possessor is inanimate, also, iméti may be used: têdən imâ sédəm dní 'the week has seven days'; zákon nîma táke dolôčbe 'the law does not have such a provision'; but in many instances a prepositional phrase is also possible: vóda imâ prevěč kálcija = v vódi je prevěč kálcija 'the water has too much calcium'; plūg imâ ročíco = pri plūgu je ročíca 'the plough has a handle'.

Possession may be shown by the genitive, but when the possessor is animate, a possessive adjective is very much more common. Thus 'mother's house' may be hisa matere or more likely materina hisa; 'the dictator's palace' may be palaca diktatorja or more normally diktatorjeva palaca. These phrases exemplify the normal word order: noun in genitive after head, possessive before head. In conversational Slovene possession is often expressed by od: otroci od sosēde 'the neighbour's children', 'Čigáv je ta plášč?' - 'Od mėne' '"Whose coat is that?" - "Mine"'. The use of the genitive/dative personal pronouns to express possession is considered stylistically marked and somewhat archaic.

4.10 Quantification

'One' is adjectival, and agrees with its head noun in number – singular or, for pluralia tantum, plural – gender, case and animacy. 'Two' agrees with its head in number (dual), gender and case; the predicate is dual; for example, nominative, dvā študėnta sta prišlä 'two students have arrived'; instrumental, med dvēma stóloma 'between two stools'. Normally, dual forms are used in pronouns and in verbal forms whenever two actual referents are involved, be they explicitly mentioned or only implicit. However, in non-pronominal noun phrases with, for example, body parts that come in pairs like 'eyes' and 'feet', dual forms tend to be used only when the

quantifiers 'two' or 'both' are explicitly stated in the context, and are replaced by the plural when this quantifier is unstated, even if a pair of referents are obviously implicit: so, nóge me bolijo (PL) 'my feet hurt', but obệ nógi me bolita (DU) 'both my feet hurt'. 'Three' and 'four' agree with their heads in number (plural), gender and case. The predicate is plural: nominative, trije (štirje) študėnti so prišlì 'three (four) students have arrived'; mėsto je trį (štiri) ūre hodā od tūkaj 'the city is three (four) hours' walk from here'; instrumental, s trệmi (štirimi) stōli 'with three (four) chairs'.

The syntax of higher numerals terminating in édən, dvā, trî, štíri is determined by the last element: thus, stộ ẽn člóvek je prišəl (singular) '101 people came'; tisọc dvā človeka sta prišlà (DU) '1,002 people came'; z dvēsto trēmi stōli 'with 203 chairs'. 'Five' and higher numerals (other than those terminating in édən, dvā, trī, štíri), in non-oblique cases, control the genitive plural; the predicate is neuter singular, for instance, pēt študentov je prišlộ 'five students have arrived', srēcal səm pētsto deklēt 'I met 500 girls'. In the other cases, they agree with their referents in number (plural) and case, for instance, instrumental, s pétimi (pētstotimi) stōli 'with five (500) chairs'. In these oblique cases the numerals are often not declined (see 3.1.5).

Indeterminates like *málo* 'little/few', *mãnj* 'less/fewer', *veliko* 'much/many', *vềč* 'more', *dósti* 'enough' behave syntactically like the numerals 'five and above', but do not decline: *tûkaj je bilò mãnj ljudi* (GEN PL) 'there were fewer people here'; *govộril səm z mãnj ljudmi* (INST PL) 'I talked with fewer people'.

If the amount is unspecified, the genitive alone is sufficient: narézal sem krúha in slaníne 'I cut some bread and some bacon'. Similarly, any specified amount also requires the genitive: stekleníca dóbrega čŕnega vína 'a bottle of good red wine'.

5 Lexis

5.1 General composition of the word-stock

The Slovene word-stock is in many respects extremely idiosyncratic. On the one hand, it has not only retained much of the core of Proto-Slavonic lexis, but even maintained several items that were lost elsewhere; thus ôl 'beer' (cognate with English ale) survived as a simplex Slavonic word only in Slovene dialects. Other unusual survivals include brėsti 'wade' and dâvi 'this morning'. Local semantic and phonological developments resulted in further unique items: ampäk 'but', besēda 'word', dežėla 'country', grėnək 'bitter', hudič 'devil', in 'and', jėča 'prison', kljūb 'in spite of', mājhən 'small', obljubīti 'promise', slēherni 'each'. In particular, Slovene managed to develop its native vocabulary in ways that mark it off as very different

from its closest relative, Serbo-Croat (see Brozović 1988). The position of Slovene on the Slavonic periphery resulted in little medieval influence from other Slavonic languages, but the directly inherited lexicon was complemented both by extensive borrowing from contemporary Slavonic languages in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and by the equally extensive coinage of new native derivations for referents in all areas of modern life.

On the other hand, its geography and history ensured that Slovene was subject to extensive non-Slavonic influence both spatially and temporally. Not only was it open to influences on three sides – from Romance, Germanic and Hungarian – but the thousand-year-long lack of political independence had its natural consequences. On the three geographical peripheries the degree of bilingualism, especially among certain classes of society, must at times have been very high: many rural Slovenes had to work for, or to trade with speakers of these other languages. In the urban areas, at least partial bilingualism – most important, Slovene–German bilingualism in Ljubljana – would have been normal for most of the Slovene populace. The relative proportions of lexical items from the three non-Slavonic sources vary greatly from dialect to dialect. In the standard language it is clear that direct influence from Germanic (specifically, Austrian German) far outweighs that from Romance (Venetian Italian, Friulian and so on), if (neo-)Latinisms are excluded. The penetration of items from Hungarian has been minor.

Since the Reformation the incorporation of non-native elements has received some deliberate attention, which developed over time into lesser or greater puristic tendencies; these came to a head in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and are still evident. The various nationalistic movements – Pan-Slavonic, Illyrian, Yugoslav and specifically Slovene aspirations, to mention just four – all had their effect, especially in attempts to replace Germanisms with borrowings from other Slavonic languages.

The coexistence of these concurrent influences has resulted in a standard language which is, potentially, extremely rich, in its wide range of coexisting items – directly inherited native words, modern native coinages, non-Slavonic borrowings and Slavonic borrowings. Thus alongside the international migrácija, migrîrati, imigrānt, emigrānt there are the derivatives preseljevānje, preseljevāti se, priséljenəc, izséljenəc; and alongside the native porôka 'wedding' there is the Germanic borrowing ôhcet 'wedding' (compare German Hochzeit). In instances of this kind, both semantic and stylistic differentiation have been extensively developed.

5.2 Patterns of borrowing

The non-Slavonic languages of the Balkans contributed a few items which Slovene shares with other South Slavs, such as diple 'musical instrument' and gûmb 'button' (originally from Greek); bákər 'copper' and čižem

'boot' (originally from Turkish). A few Hungarian words have penetrated to the standard language through the eastern dialects of Slovene and/or Serbo-Croat, like būnda 'warm coat', cafūta 'whore' and hāsnītī 'be of use'.

The contribution from and through Romance has been greater. Some items are shared with other South Slavonic (and in some instances other Slavonic) languages; some have extended only as far as Slovene. Examples: bājta 'shack', brīga 'care', būča 'pumpkin', būrkle 'fire-tongs', cīk 'cigarette end', fānt 'boy', kmēt 'farmer', krīž 'cross'.

The influence of Germanic (as originating and mediating language) has been particularly strong on the non-standard forms of Slovene; its traces in the standard language are still quite evident (Striedter-Temps 1963). Examples: u-bôgati 'obey', fára 'parish', gáre 'hand-cart', glihati 'haggle', jā 'yes', kégəlj 'skittle', krompīr 'potato', ôpica 'ape', régrat 'dandelion', rîsati 'draw', ūra 'hour, clock', žêmlja 'bread roll'. Many items were borrowed from Germanic long enough ago to have lost all transparent connection with German, thus básati, bāšem 'fill' (from Old High German fa33ōn). There has at times also been extensive calquing of German phrases: izglédati 'look' as in bolân izglêdaš 'you look ill'; compare German aussehen, literally: 'out-see'. This example, like many others, has a contemporary native equivalent, si videti.

Since Slovene is in direct contact with European and North American culture, the influence of modern international vocabulary has been significant, and is much discussed. Sometimes native formations coexist with loans, as in *ptičeslôvje* = *ornitologija* 'ornithology'; sometimes there is a native formation and no loan, as with *kljunáš* 'platypus'.

As if in recompense for the lack of medieval contacts, and for the borrowings from non-Slavonic sources, Slovene has found much of lexical benefit in the **Slavonic** languages, especially during and since the nineteenth century. Although often the geographic details are unclear, borrowings from nearly all the Slavonic languages can be found; three sources predominate: Czech, Serbo-Croat and Russian.

Czech made a large contribution to Slovene, especially in the nineteenth century, when there were cultural influences on Ljubljana from Prague: when reactions to non-Slavonic influence were strong, it was natural that the model of the puristic Czech should be followed. Examples: bajeslôvje 'mythology', dopisováti 'correspond', géslo 'slogan', kislina 'acid', prispēvek 'contribution', sklâdba 'musical composition', slavospēv 'eulogy', zlītina 'alloy'.

Borrowings from Serbo-Croat, including items from other Slavonic languages and in particular Russian that came through Serbo-Croat (see Thomas 1987), were numerous before the creation of Yugoslavia and became even more so thereafter; it is too early to decide with certainty on the permanence of some items. Of particular note were the borrowings from this source that (on occasion, by design) replaced non-Slavonic loans;

thus čâj 'tea' and káva 'coffee' for té and kofë, both of which are still extant but only in dialects and non-standard styles. Čītati was introduced as a replacement for bráti in its meaning 'read', since it was felt that this latter was calqued on German lesen 'gather; read'; there has been some dispute about this item.

The influence of Russian was also significant, at least from the midnineteenth century on; this influence was reinforced by politico-cultural parallels during the Communist period. Often, loans of non-recent date have resulted in useful semantic differentiation. Often, also, the borrowed word crowded out more native items: thus, for 'dictionary', the nineteenthcentury besednják, besedník and besedišče have all been replaced by slovár. Examples of politico-cultural loans: udârnik 'shock worker', söcrealīzəm 'socialist realism', otróške jāsli 'day-care'.

Incorporation of borrowings

5.3 Incorporation of borrowings
There is vacillation in the spelling of borrowings. Thus the *Pravopis* of 1950 gave the spelling *jeep* and the *Pravopis* of 1962 $d\tilde{z}ip$ for 'jeep'; the Academy Dictionary (1970-) has both $p\bar{c}a$ and $p\bar{c}za$ for 'pizza'. Generally, however, modern borrowings are rapidly nativized, as shown by the spelling of *nylon* and *engineering* as $n\hat{a}jlon$ and $in\hat{z}en\hat{r}ing$. Aside from anomalies caused by influences from the orthography and intermediary languages, the closest equivalents of the sounds in the lending language are normally approximated. Exceptionally, the high-mid vowels /e o/ are normally preferred to the low-mid / ε ə/, for instance, *profesor* /profesor/ 'professor', *prômptən* /prômptən/ 'prompt'. As these words also exemplify, the tonemically high pitch is more common than the tonemically low pitch on borrowed words with long vowels.

Turning to morphology, we find that extremely few borrowed nouns are

Turning to morphology, we find that extremely few borrowed nouns are treated as indeclinables. Normally, if a borrowed noun ends in unstressed -a, it is feminine (declined as *lipa*) and otherwise the noun is masculine and declined as $k\phi t$. Note that nouns ending in -r or a vowel add -j- before non-zero endings, as in *abonmâ*, *abonmâja* 'subscription'; see also 3.1.2. Note also that virtually no recently borrowed nouns are neuter: hence $n\ddot{o}v$ $k\hat{i}no$ 'new cinema', nov komitê 'new committee', nov alîbi 'new alibi', nov kanû 'new canoe'. Adjectives, on the other hand, relatively often become indeclinable. Compare the borrowed adjectives in $p\hat{r}vi$ trije $\hat{a}vti$ so olivni, drugi trije krêm ~ krêmasti, in zâdnji trije bêž 'the first three cars are olive, the next three cream, and the last three beige': the first is declined, the second is optionally declined and the third is not declined. In the sixteenth second is optionally declined and the third is not declined. In the sixteenth century many borrowed verbal roots incorporated the $-ov-\sim -ev-$ suffix but this suffix was – in spite of a puristic attempt to reintroduce it in the nineteenth century – eventually replaced by the extremely productive suffix -ir- (which had been borrowed via German from French: see 3.3.3). Apart from -irati verbs (conjugation class IIIc), some modern borrowings are Slovenized by adaptation into conjugation classes IIIc and IV, as -ati and -iti verbs respectively. As for aspectual differentiation, -irati verbs are usually bi-aspectual, the others not: so, for instance, for 'democratize', demokratizirati is imperfective/perfective, while podemokratiti is perfective only.

5.4 Lexical fields

5.4.1 Colour terms

Nine colour terms seem to be 'basic' according to derivational criteria: $b \not e l$ 'white', siv 'grey' and $\check c\acute rn$ 'black'; $rd\check e c$ 'red', $zel\check e n$ 'green', $rum\check e n$ 'yellow', $m \acute o d o r$ 'blue (1)', $s\bar s n j i$ 'blue (2)' and $rj\check a v$ 'brown'. All nine have adjectival derivatives in -(i)kast; verbal 'inchoative' derivatives in -eti; and verbal 'factitive' derivatives in -iti: $b \not e lkast$ 'whitish', $bel \not e ti$ 'become white', $bel \bar t i$ 'make (something) white'; sinjkast, $sinj \not e ti$, sinjiti and so on. Three ('red', 'green', 'brown') may be derived from other 'basic' roots, namely $z \not e l$ 'herb', $rd \not e t i$ 'redden', $rj \ddot a$ 'rust'; this is not true of the remainder. Of the two standard words for blue, $m \not o d o r$ is darker ('the colour of cornflowers') and $s\bar s n j i$ lighter. The Academy Dictionary defines $s\bar s n j i$ in terms of sin j i i in terms of s

The following, in contrast, are apparently not 'basic': they are derived from other simplex words; their adjectival derivatives are either non-existent or different from the above (namely, -ast rather than -kast); and they appear to lack the normal corresponding verbal derivatives: orânžon 'orange'; rôžnat 'pink'; and numerous words for shades of purple/mauve/violet, the most common of which is vijôličon.

One small curiosity: of the six spectrum colours, three begin with /ər/; and all three are at one end of the spectrum, opposed to the others.

5.4.2 Body parts

The following are straightforward correspondents of English lexical items: $gl\acute{a}va$ 'head'; $ok\acute{o}$, $o\check{c}\acute{e}sa$ 'eye'; $n\acute{o}s$ 'nose'; $uh\acute{o}$, $u\check{s}\acute{e}sa$ 'ear'; $u\check{s}ta$ (N PL) 'mouth'; $l\grave{a}s$ (M SG) or (more commonly) $lasj\acute{e}$ (M PL) 'hair (on head)'; $vr\grave{a}t$ 'neck'; $src\acute{e}$ 'heart'. The following involve more ambiguity. $R\acute{o}ka$ is 'hand' or 'arm'; as necessary, a part may be specified, for instance, $l\grave{a}ket$ (M o-stem or F i-stem) 'forearm', $dl\grave{a}n$ (F i-stem) 'palm'. Similarly, $n\acute{o}ga$ is 'foot' or 'leg'; specifically, $stop\acute{a}lo$ 'foot'; $m\acute{e}\check{c}a$ (N PL) 'calf', $b\acute{e}dro = st\acute{e}gno$ 'thigh' and so on. The single word $p\acute{r}st$ (M) is 'finger' or 'toe'; to specify one or the other, $p\acute{r}st$ na $r\acute{o}ki$ and $p\acute{r}st$ na $n\acute{o}gi$ can be used. $P\~{r}si$ (F PL) is 'chest/ breast' (male or female); a specifically female breast is $d\~{o}jka$. For the use of dual versus plural forms of names for body parts that come in pairs, see 4.10.

5.4.3 Kinship terms

Many words are used for parents and grandparents. The most common (here, variants are given in the order: more ~ less formal) are máti ~ máma 'mother', óče, očéta ~ áta 'father'; stâra máti ~ stâra máma ~ bábica 'grandmother', stâri óče ~ stâri áta ~ dềd 'grandfather'. Note also stârši 'parents', stâri stârsi (PL) 'grandparents': these may also occur (see 4.10) as (stâra) stârša (DU) and even as (stârı) stârš (SG).

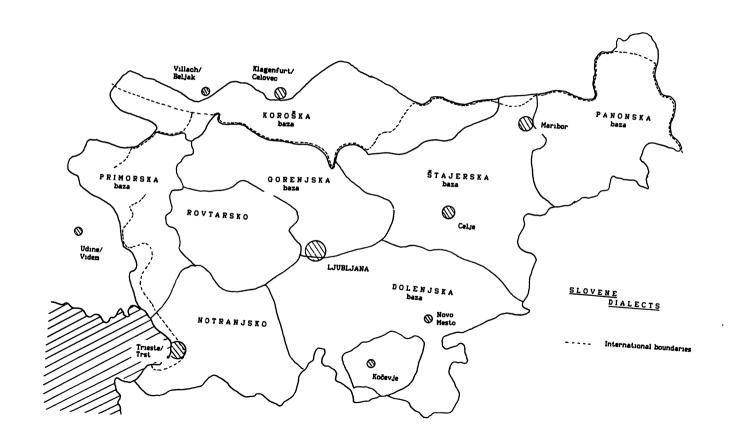
One set of terms is unspecified for sex: otrök / dęte dęteta 'child' – also used age-specifically, 'baby, small child'. Otherwise, terminology is exclusively sex-specific: żena 'wife' and mộż 'husband' (formal soproga, soprog 'spouse (F, M)'); hči, hčere 'daughter', sîn 'son'; sestra 'sister', brät 'brother'; teta 'aunt' (mother's sister or father's sister); stric 'uncle' (mother's brother or father's brother) – note also ûjəc and ûjna 'mother's brother/sister', now generally replaced by stric, teta – nečákinja 'niece', nečák 'nephew'; sestrična 'female cousin', brátranəc 'male cousin'.

6 Dialects

It is generally acknowledged, although difficult to demonstrate, that Slovene is unique among the Slavonic languages in the heterogeneity of its dialects, especially in relation to the relatively small size of the Slovene-speaking area. This diversity, which exerted some influence on the evoluation of the standard language (see section 1), is reflected in some lack of mutual comprehension. It is also reflected in the analyses of dialectologists. Earlier authoritative analyses by Ramovš listed, respectively, thirty-six and forty-six different dialects and subdialects; the most recent map (Logar and Rigler 1986) shows fifty. More important, there has been inconclusiveness with respect to more general groupings. Nevertheless, it is usually accepted that the geographically differing varieties of Slovene can be categorized in eight major groups; this classification serves as a basis for the brief survey below (see Lencek 1982: 133–57).

The chief traditional criteria for distinguishing between dialects are two diachronic vocalic ones: the medieval reflexes (in stressed long syllables) of -è (jat') and the nasals, on the one hand, and of the jers, on the other (see Rigler 1963, 1967). By the first criterion the speech area is divided by a south-west/north-east line; by the second, it is divided by a line along the other diagonal. Other criteria result in important (if traditionally less usual) groupings: note in particular the differences in prosodic phonology, and especially the fact that tonemic distinctions have been lost in all but a longitudinally central band of dialects. Not only prosodic changes listed as items 7 and 8 in 2.1, but subsequent changes also, resulted in wide variations in patterns of stress, length and pitch. Other differences relate to specific vocalic systems, for example, inventories of from three to sixteen vowel phonemes; systems rich in diphthongs and those with no diphthongs;

Map 8.1 Slovene Dialects



those with nasal vowels; those with more and those with less vowel reduction; differences in kinds of vowel reduction and so on. Major dialectal consonantal differences from standard Slovene include the following: the fricativization of $*/g/ \rightarrow /\gamma/$, /h/; $*/tj/ \rightarrow /\acute{c}/$; $*/\acute{n}/ \rightarrow /\acute{j}/$, /n/, /jn/; */1/ > /j/, /1/, /j|/; a (secondary) 'neopalatalization' of velars, namely /k g x/ > /č j š/ (and other reflexes); various reflexes for */1/ and */1/ and */1/ y distribution. especially giving $\frac{1}{w}$ in some and/or all environments; $\frac{1}{b}$ $\frac{1$ $/\theta/$, */k/> /?/, */f/> /x/, */x/> /j/.

Morphological differences have resulted from these phonological changes and from morphological developments. Most of the categories listed in 3.1.1 and 3.2.1 survive in most dialects, but note the following: the generally partial (but in one dialect the complete) loss of the neuter gender; the partial loss of the dual number; syncretism among case distinctions, especially in the oblique plural cases; extensive curtailment of the supine. There are also many dialect differences on the syntactic level, but these have as yet been little described. Depending on their geographical proximity to speakers of other languages - German, Friulian, Italian, Serbo-Croat, Hungarian – dialects show marked differences in lexical composition. Furthermore, dialects differ greatly in their development of the native lexicon.

The following eight groups comprise six '(pan-)dialect bases' and two large transitional areas. Omitted here are the smaller transitional dialects. Statements of vocalic reflexes relate to prototypical medieval stages, not always apparent in the contemporary reflexes.

Primorska baza (Littoral): nasals > low-mid, ě (jat') > low-mid, jers > */a/. These dialects include the native dialects of Slovene-speakers in the Italian province of Friulia-Venezia Giulia (excluding those in the hinterland of Trst/Trieste); the pressure from Italian-speakers has in these areas at times been strong. Most of these dialects have lost phonemic length and pitch, but keep phonemic stress. Some of them share features with the Koroška dialect base, for instance, the fricativization of */g/ and the prefix */vy-/. Many show the results of Romance-Slovene bilingualism. Within this area are the highly idiosyncratic dialects of the Rezija valley, with their zasopli (centralized, formerly breathy (?)) vowels and where the aorist and imperfect tense forms have, in one form or another, survived.

Notranjsko (Inner Carniola): nasals > high-mid, jat' > high-mid, jers > */a/. This area is transitional between the Primorska and the Dolenjska dialect bases and covers dialects formerly classified as such. It includes the first language of the Slovene minority in Trst/Trieste and its hinterland; the pressure from Italian-speakers has been intense here also. All of these dialects have lost phonemic length and pitch, but keep phonemic stress.

Rovtarsko: These dialects (róvte means 'backwoods') represent inno-

vative developments resulting from medieval colonization by both neigh-

bouring Slovene-speakers and by speakers of Bavarian German dialects. In many respects, these dialects are transitional; in others, they are idio-syncratic.

Koroška baza (Carinthian): nasals > low-mid, jat' > low-mid, jers > */e/. These dialects, which generally maintain phonemic pitch and length, are very conservative: note, for instance, the preservation of nasal vowels in one small area; also, features apparently transitional to West Slavonic, such as the fricativization of */g/; */dl tl/ unchanged in nouns; derivational prefix */vy-/. In some respects they are innovative, as in the 'neopalatalization'. As well as areas in Italy and Slovenia, these dialects now comprise the mother tongues of the Slovene minority living in the Austrian province of Kärnten and survive despite heavy sociopolitical pressure from the German majority.

Gorenjska baza (Upper Carniolan): nasals > high-mid, jat' > high-mid, jers > */a/. This, one of the two central dialect areas, played a major role in the development of standard Slovene; in particular, the monophthongal long stressed vowels of the standard language have their origin here; also, these dialects helped to contribute the standard tonemic framework. Non-standard innovative features include the 'neopalatalization' and the partial loss of the neuter gender. The city of Ljubljana is, geographically, just inside the Gorenjska area, but has its own traditional speech styles.

Dolenjska baza (Lower Carniolan): nasals > high-mid, jat' > high-mid, jers > */a/. This was the other central dialect base which exerted a strong influence on the development of standard Slovene, especially on its tonemic system; its diphthongized vowels are, however, not reflected in the standard language. Within the Dolenjska area is a linguistic island that was for long inhabited mostly by German-speakers (Gottschee/Kočevje); its present population speaks a dialectal mixture. South of Kočevje the Belokranjsko dialects have some features transitional to Kajkavian Serbo-Croat (see chapter 7, section 6).

Štajerska baza (Styrian): nasals > high-mid, jat' > high-mid, jers > */e/. This extensive area includes dialects spoken close to the cities of Celje and Maribor. Most have lost phonemic pitch and length, but maintain phonemic stress. Some show features transitional to Kajkavian Serbo-Croat.

Panonska baza (North-east Styrian/Pannonian): nasals > high-mid, jat' > high-mid, jers > */e/. These dialects have lost distinctive pitch, but keep distinctive stress. Some show transitional Kajkavian Serbo-Croat features; those dialects closest to Hungarian show the influence of Hungarian-Slovene bilingualism, and many lexical innovations. A few speakers of these Slovene dialects live within the boundaries of Hungary.

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