# A Grammar of Domari 

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## A Grammar of Domari

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## Preface

Domari is one of numerous languages spoken in my home town of Jerusalem though one of which I only became aware as a professional linguist, having consulted the libraries of European universities and having read in press reports about the continuing presence of the tiny community of 'Nawar' or 'Gypsies'. Now, more than a decade and a half after I heard and recorded the first phrases in spoken Domari, only very few people among the Jerusalem Dom - at the time of writing probably between ten and twenty - are still able to converse in a language that had been preserved in their socially isolated, diasporic community for at least 800 years or more. This book, and the audio recordings that accompany it online, are a testimony to this lost tongue. I wish to thank the people of Bāb l-Ḥutṭa in the Old City of Jerusalem for their willingness to provide me with insights into their language and their everyday lives and life stories. I am grateful especially to Miassar Sleem for her dedicated assistance in interpreting much of the recorded data. Support for fieldwork in Jerusalem between 1996-2000 was provided by the Special Research Project on Linguistic and Cultural Contacts in Western Asia and Northern Africa at the University of Mainz, and by small grants from the British Academy and the Endangered Language Fund. Christa Schubert made an invaluable contribution to the technical aspects of archiving and annotating the data in an early phase, and later to the typesetting of the manuscript. Parts of the book were written during my stay as Australian Research Council International Linkage Fellow and Distinguished Fellow of the Institute for Advanced Studies at the Research Centre for Linguistic Typology at La Trobe University, Melbourne, in 2007-2008; the manuscript was completed during my stay as Visiting Fellow at the Laboratory for Languages and Oral Cultures (LACITO) of the National Centre for Scientific Research (CNRS) in Paris, in September-October 2011, and subsequently during my visit as Senior Fellow of the Zukunftskolleg at the University of Konstanz, in January-February 2012. The Zukunftskolleg also kindly provided financial support for the typesetting of the manuscript.

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## List of abbreviations

| ABL | ablative |
| :--- | :--- |
| ADJ | adjective |
| ADV | adverb |
| AR | Arabic |
| ATTR | attributive (Kurdish) |
| AUX | auxiliary |
| BEN | benefactive |
| CARD | cardinal (numerals) |
| CAUS | causative |
| CMPV | comparative |
| COMP | complementiser |
| CONST | construct state (Arabic) |
| DAT | dative |
| DEF | definite article (Arabic) |
| EMP | emphatic marker of imperative |
| F | feminine |
| IMP | imperative (Arabic) |
| IND | indicative |
| INDEF | indefinite |
| ITR | intransitive |


| KURD | Kurdish |
| :--- | :--- |
| LOC | locative |
| M | masculine |
| N | noun |
| NEG | negator |
| NOM | nominative |
| NUM | numeral |
| OBJ | object pronoun (Arabic) |
| OBL | oblique |
| PART | particle |
| PERF | perfective |
| PERS | Persian |
| PL | plural |
| POSS | possessive particle |
| PRED | predication |
| PREP | preposition |
| PRG | progressive |
| PRO | enclitic pronoun |
| PRON | pronoun |
| QUANT | quantifier |
| REC | reciprocal pronoun (Arabic) |
| REDUP | reduplication |
| REFL | reflexive pronoun (Arabic) |
| REL | relativiser (Arabic) |
| REM | remoteness |
| SG | singular |
| SOC | sociative |
| SUBJ | subjunctive |
| TURK | Turkish/Turkic |
| V | verb |
| VITR | intransitive verb marker |
| VTR | transitive verb marker |

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1. Domari: Names, definitions, and status

Domari is a dispersed, non-territorial language, spoken in traditionally nomadic and socially segregated communities throughout the Middle East. Fragmented attestations of the language place it as far north as Azerbaijan and as far south as central Sudan. The present description is based on the variety spoken in Jerusalem, which appears to be more or less identical to those spoken in Jaffa/Gaza and Amman, very closely related to varieties spoken by nomadic Dom in Jordan, and somewhat less close but nevertheless quite similar to varieties attested in Lebanon, Syria and southeastern Turkey. The origin of the group appears to be in an Indian caste of nomadic serviceproviders who specialised in trades such as metalwork and entertainment. Domari is an Indo-Aryan language, with close ties both to languages of Central India and to those of the Northwest (Dardic; see discussion below). The name $d \bar{o} m$ is cognate with those of the rom (Roma or Romanies) of Europe and the lom of the Caucasus and eastern Anatolia. Both these populations are also of Indian origin and both specialise, traditionally or historically, in similar trades. The name is also related to the name of the chum population of the Hunza valley in northern Pakistan and indeed to that of the dom of India, who are known as low-caste commercial nomads. Among the Palestinian Dom one can hear claims that they arrived in the country as campfollowers of the forces of Salāh ad-Dīn al-Ayyūbi (Saladin) in the twelfth century CE. Historical confirmation of this version is yet to be established. However, the Turkic (including Azeri) and especially Kurdish element in Domari point to an emigration via the Kurdish regions, possibly in connection with the advancement of the Seljuks.

The Dom are referred to by their Arab-Palestinian neighbours as náwar. Depictions of the group and references to them in European literature have tended to adopt the term 'Gypsies' ('Zigeuner', 'Tsiganes', etc.), which is also used to refer to the Roma of Europe. This is also the case in Israel, where the Dom are referred to in the Hebrew public discourse as tso'anim (originally a loanblend of German/Yiddish Zigeuner/tsigeyner with Biblical Hebrew tso \{an 'a region in Egypt', the assumed country of origin, cf. 'Gypsy' < 'Egyptian', and the Biblical Hebrew verb tsaSan 'to wander'). Elsewhere in the Middle

East, related groups are known as qurbāti (Syria and Lebanon), mitrip (in the Kurdish areas of Turkey and northern Iraq), or karači (Anatolia, Iraq). In Egypt and Sudan, names such as gajar, halabi and bahlawān are used to refer to various groups of commercial nomads among whom may also be groups related to the Dom. Some writers have associated other populations of commercial nomads in Central Asia and Iran, such as the luli and kauli, with the Dom, but there is no evidence of any historical connection apart from the fact that in-group vocabularies used by these populations often incorporate words of Domari origin.

Competence in the language is largely limited to those born before 1940. During the time fieldwork was carried out for this study, between 1996-2001, the number of fluent speakers was around 50-70 individuals from among a community of around 700 . Most speakers were elderly and the number of fluent speakers is known to have decreased significantly since. At the time of writing, the number of fluent speakers of Domari in Jerusalem is estimated at between $10-20 .{ }^{1}$ There are semi-speakers in the community who were born and raised in the 1950s-1960s. It appears that the language has not been passed on to children at all since the 1960s, either in Jerusalem or in the closely related communities in Gaza and Amman. Domari, or at least the variety described here, is thus an endangered, moribund language. The principal language of the community is now Palestinian Arabic. Knowledge of Hebrew is widespread especially among the generation of people in their 20s30 s, mainly as a result of work experience in the Israeli neighbourhoods of West Jerusalem. A few individuals have knowledge of English through secondary school, work experience, and occasional immersion with tourists and visitors.

Dom households usually accommodate all generations of a family in a small number of rooms. Together they share cooking and washing facilities. Social and entertaining areas are typically converted into sleeping areas during the night. Elderly members of the household therefore rarely spend time on their own, and so they have few opportunities to use Domari away from the presence of non-speakers or semi-speakers. While this means that younger members of the household are often exposed to the use of Domari, it also means that there is hardly any conversation that takes place only and consistently in Domari without frequent insertions from and switches into Arabic. The language is often used in a form of receptive multilingualism, with younger people understanding some phrases but responding in Arabic, and older people alternating between the two languages.

Communication with outsiders in Domari is largely limited in Jerusalem to occasions on which relatives from Amman come to stay in Jerusalem for a short period. There is no known use of Domari in any other form of communication, institutions, media, or in writing. The language does not enjoy
any form of official recognition. Claims by a local activist on behalf of the 'Domari Society of Gypsies in Jerusalem' that the organisation provides literacy courses in Domari to children ${ }^{2}$ could not be verified, and appear to be a statement of intent rather than an actual description of existing activities. An American Baptist missionary organisation associated with the Wycliffe Foundation of Christian Bible translators set up a so-called 'Dom Research Center' in Cyprus as a basis for their activities in several Middle Eastern countries in the late 1990s. During the period between 1999-2009, the Center's website presented a section called 'Learning Domari', written by Donald Kenrick on the basis of materials taken from Macalister (1914) as well as from my own publications. A Christian sermon consisting mainly of readings of the New Testament in Syrian Domari was recorded and distributed in all likelihood by the same missionary group in the early 1990s. There are no other known public uses of Domari. ${ }^{3}$

The language name 'Domari' became known through Macalister (1914), who records it in his dictionary as dōmắri' 'the Nuri language' (the term 'Nuri' based on the Arabic word náwar 'Gypsy'). During my own initial encounters with semi-speakers in the Jerusalem community, in 1996, it appeared that they were familiar with the term $\bar{d} \bar{m}$ as the self-designation of the community, but not with the term 'Domari'. It later became transparent that some speakers use dōm to refer to both language and people, while others indeed use the term dömari for the language, as can be seen in the following examples from recorded and transcribed conversations:
(1) ama šami wāšī-s dōmari
I speak-1SG with-3SG Domari
'I speak to him in Domari.'
džan-ar-é’ dōmari, in-džan-ar-é,
know-3SG-NEG Domari NEG-know-3SG-NEG
'He doesn't know Domari, he doesn't.'
ama džan-am-i dōmari

I know-1SG-PRG Domari
'I know Domari.'
(4) ama $\bar{u}$ bay-om till-ik yaini sittin
I and wife-1SG old-PRED.SG PART sixty sana Sumr, xarraf-on-i dōm
year age speak-1PL-PRG Dom
'Me and my wife, she is old, sixty years of age, we speak Dom.'

| džan-ar-é' | in-š-ar-é | döm, <br> know-3SG-NEG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEG-speak-3SG-NEG | Dom |  |

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { xiff- } k \text {-ed-om } & \text { döm-as } \\ \text { reduce-VTR-PAST-1SG } & \text { Dom-OBL.M }\end{array}$
'She doesn't know, she doesn't speak Dom; I have forgotten my Dom.'
(6)

| ama | š-am-i | wäšīr | dōm-as-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | speak-1SG-PRG | with-2SG | Dom-OBL.M-LOC |
| 'I am talking to you in Dom.' |  |  |  |


| ama | dōm-as-ma | nām-om | xalīl- $i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | Dom-OBL.M-LOC | name-1SG | Khalil-PRED.SG |
| 'In Dom my name is Khalil.' |  |  |  |

kay-ma kallam-ok atu? dōm-as-ma!
what-LOC speak-2SG you Dom-OBL.M-LOC
'In what [language] are you talking? In Dom!'

| ama | $\check{s}$-am- $i$ | dōmari-yas-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | speak-1SG-PRG | Domari-OBL.M-LOC |
| 'I speak in Domari.' |  |  |

It was only after this was pointed out to the younger people that the very small circle of activists in the community adopted the name 'Domari' in the internet presentation of their registered society. ${ }^{4}$

Al-Jibāwī (2006) records the name of the language among the Dom of
 language' ( $d \check{z i} i b$ being the word for 'tongue' in both Syrian and Palestinian Domari, though its use to denote 'speech' is unattested in Jerusalem). It is not obvious which of the forms - with or without $-W$ - - is the more archaic. Medieval Indian literature mentions the caste of the $d \bar{o} m b a$, yet since the contemporary group name is $\bar{d} \bar{m} m$ it seems unlikely that the labial component in indicating the language name. The frequent combination with džib 'tongue', which seems to be a recent innovation, seems to confirm that. Further confirmation is provided by the fact that Macalister (1914: 197) cites the expression tatwari as the Domari term for 'Arabic', derived from tat'Arab'.

### 1.2. Previous work on Domari and related varieties

Probably the earliest reference to the Dom in European publications is Hortens' (1751: 128-132) description of the Gypsy tent-dwellers of Lebanon and Syria. Said to have come from Egypt and often to make a living by begging, they are described by Hortens as "not Arabs" but related to the

Gypsies of Europe. It wasn't until almost a century later that Wilson (1847) made a similar statement. Familiar with Gypsies in Hungary and with discussions of their language and Indian origin, he reports on his encounters with Gypsies in Lebanon and in the Galilee region in northern Palestine who called themselves 'Nawarah' and spoke according to him an Indian language "which was perfectly intelligible to us from the far east" (p. 211-212). Wilson reports that the Gypsies worked as tinkers and musicians as well as in agriculture, and that they also made fans and wooden needles for sale. With what might be regarded as some over-enthusiasm, he claims that he and his Indian travel companion found their language "almost wholly intelligible", and that "we were able to converse at once with the wanderers with whom we came into contact" (p. 769-770). Wilson mentions that it had been his intention to insert a vocabulary of words and a grammatical sketch of the language into his book, implying that he had collected such data during his travels, but that he chose not to do so due to the appearance of Pott's work which "renders an article of this kind entirely unnecessary in this place". As far as is known, Wilson's notes on the language of the Lebanese and Palestinian Dom have never been recovered or published.

Pott (1846) thus became the first source to publish and discuss any linguistic data on Domari. He bases his discussion on material provided by the Prussian Honorary Consul in Jerusalem, Schulz, which he in turn received in 1842 from an American missionary by the name of Eli Smith, who reportedly collected it near Beirut. We are thus dealing apparently with a northern variety of Domari. Some of the outstanding features of the Domari dialect described by Pott are the absence of plural endings and the use instead of the prefix sa (originally 'all'), the appearance of final $-n$ on the pronouns amin 'we' (Jerusalem Domari eme, but cf. Romani amen) and atmin 'you.PL' (Jerusalem Domari itme, cf. Romani tumen), the absence of a third person pronoun pandž̌, the use of the demonstratives anha 'this' and anhě 'that' (Jerusalem
 (Jerusalem -ran-), and the presence of an existential verb stěmi ' $I$ am' etc. Little information is provided about the nominal declension, but it appears that the verb conjugation and tense formation described are identical to the patterns found in Jerusalem Domari.

Of particular value to our discussion is the material collected by Ulrich Jasper Seetzen in 1806 in the Palestinian West Bank. The material was published by Kruse in 1854 in the second volume of Seetzen's expedition diary, but appears to have been available to Pott (1846) prior to the publication of his article. It is of special interest first of all because it is most likely to represent the speech of the very ancestors of today's Dom community of Jerusalem. Seezten met the Gypsies near the towns of Hebron and Nablus. Jerusalem is situated precisely between the two towns and the ancestors of
today's Dom community of Jerusalem are known to have travelled regularly between the three cities, camping in their outskirts for longer periods while offering their services to local residents, until they moved first to semipermanent and then to permanent dwellings in Jerusalem in the 1940s. Seetzen describes the Náwar camping near Hebron as tent-dwellers who make a living as entertainers, performing music, dance, and stunts in front of the Bedouins, and those near Nablus as tent-dwelling smiths, who make a living by producing and selling nails, sieves, pots, and other iron tools. He notes that they are very poor and cites rumours according to which they do not bury their dead in Muslim cemeteries, but cremate them.

Seetzen's linguistic material was collected among the metalworkers of Nablus before he continued south toward Jerusalem. He chooses the term 'Syrian Gypsies' to refer to the group since the area was part of the Ottoman province of Syria. The wordlist covers body parts, food, landscape, animals, plants, fruit and vegetables, expressions of time, material, persons, and numerals. Most of the lexical material is identical to that collected subsequently among the Dom in Jerusalem, both by Macalister and during my own fieldwork. Peculiarities include many words of Turkish, Kurdish, and Persian origin which are not attested either today or in Macalister's lexicon, such as (in Seetzen's original spelling) banir 'cheese', bias 'onion', brindch 'rice', dar 'tree', pasarú child, ode 'room', and more, and other lexical items that do not correspond to those documented in Jerusalem, such as nakh 'nose' (which appears in other Domari varieties, but is replaced by pirin in Jerusalem Domari, including Macalister's list), sündélen 'moustache' (bīy in our corpus and in Macalister), tschénnanîh 'star', diräk 'desert', and a few more. Seetzen also documents a number of internal formations for geographical directions based on Arabic expressions - scherkaskápy 'east' (Arabic šarq), schemálakapy 'north' (Arabic šamāl), garbaskapy 'west' (Arabic yarb), possibly with addition of Turkish-derived kapi 'door, gate', and küblékemá 'south' (Arabic qibla 'the direction of prayer', with a locative suffix) - and for days of the week, following the format haddésk dîs szěss 'Sunday', most likely Arabic had- 'one', with the genitive ending, and dis-os 'its-day' (had-as-ki dis-os lit. 'the day of the one'). He notes a word for 'paradise' - Chuja kěrjüssma (xuya kuryisma 'in God's house'), and a set of numerals in which the Indic forms asch ' 8 ' and nau ' 9 ' are preserved.

Only little information can be derived from Seetzen's phrases about grammatical structures. Gender distinction on the noun is attested in wuddá 'old man', wuddíh 'old woman' The genitive and locative cases are attested in the above example Chuja kěrjüssma (xuya kury-is-ma 'in God's house'). The use of an indefiniteness marker on the noun is found in expressions like wórszak '(a) year' ( wars-ak). Non-verbal predication markers can be inferred from presentative forms of nouns: ungléck 'toe' appears to show the singular
predication marker -ēk/-ik with vocalic nouns (ungl-ik 'it's a toe'), unglîn shows a form akin to present-day $-\bar{e} n(i)$ for the plural (ungliy-ēni 'these are toes'), and szoppi'h 'snake' shows the singular predication marker $-i$ with consonantal nouns (sap-i 'it's a snake'). Further evidence for a distinction between the two vocalic endings $-\bar{e} k /-i k$ (with nouns in $-a /-i$ respectively) is found in odekahy 'room' (oda 'room', od-ēk ihi 'this is a room') and kapikahy 'door' (kapi 'door', kap-ik ihi 'this is a door'). Possessive suffixes identical to those of Jerusalem Domari are attested in bajúry 'father' (boy-or-i 'it's your father') and dajĕr 'mother' (day-ir 'your mother' in direct object role). We find the same demonstrative in ahanbity 'wine' (aha nbid-i 'this is wine'). Finite verb inflection identical to that of Jerusalem Domari is found in bány dáuary 'river' (pani dawari 'the water is running'), and pani ikschálary 'valley' (pani kšalari 'the water is pulling'). Overall, then, it appears that the dialect that Seetzen described was identical in grammatical structure and in much of its lexicon to that of Jerusalem Domari, showing some lexical items that have since apparently disappeared from the language as well as a few lexical differences.

Following in Pott's (1846) footsteps, Newbold (1856) attempts to provide a comparative survey of Middle Eastern 'Gypsy' speech forms. His principal focus is on the secret lexicons of itinerant populations in Egypt, such as Helebis, the Ghagar, and the Nawar, none of which have any direct connection with Domari, as well as on the vocabularies of peripatetic groups in Iran, the Kauli and Ghorbati, which include some words that are apparently of Domari origin, such as ba 'father', dai 'mother', ghora 'horse', and anai 'egg' Of interest to our discussion is Newbold's description of the languages of the Kurbati of Aleppo and Antioch in Syria and the Duman of Baghdad in Iraq. Both varieties show the form hui for the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singular pronoun, and both have the genitive ending $-k i$ on possessive pronouns (man- $k i$ 'mine', to- $k i$ 'yours', hui-ki 'his'). Enclitic possessive endings are also attested: kustum 'my hand', kustur 'your hand'. It is reported that the Syrian Gypsies of Aleppo refer to themselves as doum. Most interestingly, Newbold cites short phrases that show that the language of the Dom of Aleppo retains Indo-Iranian verbfinal word order (examples in Newbold's original transcription, with added glosses):

| (10) ma mana | ka-mi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I bread | eat-1SG |
| 'I eat bread' |  |


| (11) | ma | $z^{\prime}$ 'Antuki | eir-oom |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | I | from.Antak | come.PAST-1SG |

'I came from Antak'
tu $z^{\prime}$ Antuki eiroor
you from.Antak come.PAST-2SG
'You came from Antak'
(13) namaz soeesh gueh-ter-i
prayer sleep good-CMPV-PRED.SG
'Prayer is better than sleep'
These few phrases also document the use of the pronouns ma ' I ' and $t u$ 'you', the past-tense subject concord endings 1SG -om and 2SG -or, the present-tense 1 SG ending $-m i$, the predication marker $-i$, and the productive use of the nominal derivation ending -ǐ̌ (so-iš 'sleep'), all shared with Jerusalem Domari, as well as the Iranian adjective comparative marker -terand the Persian ablative preposition $z$-, both of which appear to be characteristic features of the northern (Syrian-Lebanese) varieties of Domari (see section 1.3 below).

The next study of Domari is embedded into Paspati's ([1870] 1973) discussion of the Romani dialects of Turkey in the form of materials on the language of 'Asian Gypsies' (p. 115-125). These are attributed to Rev. M. Pratt from the vicinity of Tokat in Anatolia as well as to Paspati's own notes taken during visits in the "interior of Asia Minor" (not to be confused with Paspati's discussion of the language of the Lom or Posha, which consists of an Indic vocabulary embedded into Armenian). The brief discussion provides some clues about grammatical formations and basic lexicon. First person present-tense verbs end in -am/-emi: djami 'I go', karami 'I do', demi 'I give', djanémi 'I know'. The negation is na (na djanémi 'I don't know'). Past-tense verbs end in -rom/-dom: ghairóm 'I went', pardom 'I took', nikildóm 'I went out'. A plural ending -in is attested, which does not appear in Jerusalem (except in the plural predication marker -ēni): di 'village', plural dihín, dis 'day', plural disin. Attested pronominal forms include me 'I', du 'you', and typically for a northern Domari variety, hui 'he'. The usual possessive endings are documented: searom 'my head', khastom 'my hand', babom 'my father', guriom 'my house', khastori 'your hand'. As in Newbold's Aleppo material, there are also independent possessive pronouns: maki 'my', turki 'your', oriki 'his'. Noteworthy is the adjectival derivation in gadjuno 'stranger', which is not attested in Palestinian Domari. In line with other observations on northern Domari varieties we find some attestation of Kurdish vocabulary that is not documented for Palestinian or Jordanian Domari, such as bapirom 'my grandfather', zerkhóshi 'drunk', meru 'man', sev 'apple', beli 'yes'. Most vocabulary items, however, are shared with Jerusalem Domari: bahára 'outside', val 'hair', kutuir 'Christian, Greek', vat 'stone', dis 'day', drek 'raisin', ghehai 'good' and numerous others.

Patkanoff's (1907-1908) comparative investigation of the speech varieties of the Transcaucasian Gypsies contains the only documentation to date of the northernmost Domari variety as recorded in the town of Yelizabetpol (Ganja) in Azerbaijan. Patkanoff's material is rather extensive, containing over 100 phrases, a grammatical sketch, a short text and a vocabulary of over 260 items. The vocabulary is very closely related to other documented varieties of Domari and there is no doubt that we are dealing here with the very same language. Characteristic are not just words like aki 'eye', pani 'water', tata 'hot', and val 'hair', but also the self-appellation dom and the very distinctive metathesis formation in urp 'silver' (OIA rūpya, Romani rup). The pronominal system shows ma 'I', tu 'you', ame 'we', dime 'you.PL', and the typical northern Domari hul 'he', ohe 'she', and hue 'they'. A reflexive possessive pronoun is attested - bangi 'one's own' - which appears to be a cognate of the Jerusalem Domari third person subject pronoun pandži. The system of nominal case is well attested in the phrases and we find forms like dost-a-san 'with a friend', aqi-san 'with fire', guri-a-qi 'from the tent', mina-s-ta 'from bread', cajj- $y$-my 'in a place'. The plural is formed with $-a$, while $-h a$ (which Patkanoff interprets as a Persian plural) appears to indicate definite plural: duj dom-a 'two Gypsies', but dom-a-ha 'the Gypsies', guri-a-ha 'the tents'. The phrases show preposed adjectives - taz-a sild-a pani 'fresh cold water', and postpositions - mira vahri-m 'in front of me', qar-az orta-mi' in the middle of the house' (with -az being the 3SG possessive marker, orta a Turkic borrowing meaning 'middle', and $-m i$ the Domari locative). Possessive endings show the familiar forms but are accompanied by preposed possessive pronouns: meri ben-am 'my sister', mera chal-um 'my uncle', teri qaba-r 'your rug'

Past tense verb inflection shows close resemblance to that of other Domari varieties: ma bahandoom 'I shut' (Jerusalem Domari ama bandom), hu gia 'he went' (pandži gara). In the present tense, the attested person endings are 1SG $-u m, 2$ SG $-o j, 3$ SG -aq (which appears to be cognate with the 3SG non-verbal predication marker in Jerusalem Domari - $\overline{e k} /-i k$ ), 1PL -enq, 2PL -iš and 3PL -ind. As in the other northern varieties of Domari, the copula stem $\check{s} t$ - is retained: ma dom ast-um 'I am a Gypsy'. Patkanoff is the first to document the use of the copula stem -št- as a marker of progressive aspect with lexical verbs: guj ge-stt-oj 'where are you going?', givi-ha rul-st-ind 'the women are weeping', chuldar-a chazi-šd-ind 'the children are laughing' (Jerusalem Domari xudwar-e xaz-andi). The possessive construction draws on the possessive or comitative pronominal form and the existential verb: tera astaq 'you have', masan astqaq 'I have' (lit. 'with me there is'). A curious feature is the derivational prefix Ie-//a/af- on verbs: lepi 'to drink', lipar 'to buy', lafgyni 'to sell (Jerusalem Domari pi-, par-, kin- respectively). Word order appears to be mixed, with existential verbs appearing in final position, but lexical verbs often preceding both direct and indirect objects: ${ }^{5}$
(14) gand gulda hi
sugar sweet is
'Sugar is sweet.'
(15) hu ka-št-a taz-a masi
he eat-PRG-3SG fresh-M meat
'He eats fresh meat.'
(16) ma ge-št-ium sot-iam

I go-PRG-1SG sleep-1SG
'I am going to sleep.'
(17) ma thi-san ge-št-um deh

I you-SOC go-PRG-1SG village
'I will go to the village with you.'
(18) ma nig-ild-um guri-a-qi

I leave-PAST-1SG tent-OBL.F.-ABL
'I went out from the tent.'
The negation particle is $n a$, as in the other northern Domari varieties:
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { (19) chujia na manqi-śd-a } & \text { pis } & \text { manis } \\ \text { God NEG like-PRG-3SG } & \text { bad } & \text { person } \\ \text { 'God does not like bad people.' }\end{array}$
Once again we find strong influence on the vocabulary of the language from Persian, Turkish/Azeri, and Kurdish - much of this vocabulary shared by two or more of the contact languages: dost 'friend', banir 'cheese', ranq 'colour', dar 'tree', orta 'middle', išyk 'moon', gyrmyzi 'red', and bde 'give' from Kurdish bi-de SUBJ-give 'give!'.

Confirmation of the presence of Domari in Anatolia is provided by Black (1913), who in 1886 recorded a short wordlist in a community of Muslim sieve-makers and entertainers near the town of Van who referred to themselves as Doom but were called Bosha by the Armenians and Chingene and Mutrub by the Turks. Black's list shows familiar Domari words such as muna 'bread', banee 'water', munas 'person', gam 'sun', the pronouns ma 'I' and tu 'you', the use of Kurdish numerals shesh 'six', haft 'seven', hasht 'eight' and above. We also find evidence for the use of the copula stem -st- as a marker of progressive aspect with lexical verbs, as in Patkanoff's material: ka-shtom 'I eat', bee-shtom 'I drink'.

There is no doubt that the most influential and comprehensive documentation of Domari to date is Macalister's (1914) monograph on the 'Language of the Nawar or Zutt, the nomad smiths of Palestine', which had
originally been published in a series of articles in the Journal of the Gypsy Lore Society. The material was collected in Jerusalem before 1908, apparently from one single speaker. The publication includes a grammatical sketch of 42 pages, a collection of texts consisting mainly of tales that were translated into Domari from Arabic by Macalister's consultant, and a glossary of over 1300 lexical items. Although it has not been possible to identify any direct descendants of Macalister's Dom consultant Shakir Mahsin, and although the publication remains unknown to the community today, it is quite clear from Macalister's description that we are dealing with the same community, and that the dialect described by him is identical to the one used today by the small number of surviving speakers in Jerusalem.

Since the remainder of this work will be devoted to a discussion of the very same variety, it seems worthwhile to draw attention to some of the more obvious gaps in Macalister's account. ${ }^{6}$ One of his major and consistent stumbling blocks was the differentiation between phonotactic variation around epenthetic vowels and vowel morphemes with grammatical meaning. Macalister completely fails to identify the presence of the external tense markers $-i$ and $-a$ and hence the meaningful distinction between forms like kardom 'I did', kardomi 'I have done', and kardoma 'I had done', or between qumnami 'I eat' and qumnama 'I was eating'. He also fails to identify the predication marker $-i$ which attaches to consonantal nominal stems and is functionally equivalent to the marker -ekk, which accompanies vocalic stems; thus dōm 'a Dom man', aha dōm-i 'this is a Dom man', dōmiya 'a Dom woman', ihi dömiy-ēk 'this is a Dom woman'. Lacking sensitivity toward the value of vowel oppositions in grammatical endings, he also fails to recognise $-\bar{e} k$ and $-i k$ as vocalic predication markers that occur in different environments, namely following the stem vowels $-a$ and $-i$ respectively, and he fails to distinguish between the latter and the indefiniteness marker $-a k$, which retains its shape independently of the nominal stem. Macalister also misses the systematic phonotactic alternations involving the presence and absence of external tense markers around object pronouns, as in lah-am-ir 'that I see you', but lah-am-r-i 'I see you', lah-am-r-a 'I was seeing you'. Nor does he recognise the meaningful vowel oppositions in enclitic object pronouns nominative -os etc., oblique -is etc. His description of nominal and verbal paradigms does not take into account all declension and inflection classes. He does not discuss oblique forms of demonstratives, and he misinterprets epenthetic vowels as articles, referring to them as "the superdefinite article". He interprets the intransitive derivation marker $-y$ - as a "future tense" (p. 28) and misses its genuine function, claiming that there is no passive derivation in the language. Macalister makes little attempt to discuss etymology or to draw a comparison with other Domari materials, although he was aware of the relevant publications by Pott (1846) and Seetzen. Nonetheless, despite the
gaps, his is the most extensive early description of Domari and the glossary that he produced remains the most exhaustive documentation of the language's lexical vocabulary.

Macalister's (1914) work inspired a number of secondary studies specialising in various aspects of the material. Littmann (1920) examines the integration of Arabic structures into Jerusalem Domari and provides a glossary of Arabic lexical items in the language, which also incorporates Seetzen's wordlist. Littmann provides a useful overview of the adoption into Domari of Arabic syntactic patterns and conjunctions and particles. In connection with other issues, however, there is a series of misinterpretations. Littmann's claim that Arabic nominal loans are frequently assigned the ending *-i results from a misinterpretation of the predication marker of consonantal stems (aha qalam- $i$ 'this is a pencil', from Arabic qalam 'pencil'). His claim that Arabic verb inflection is not integrated into Domari rests on the fact that no such integration is documented in Macalister's material; in fact, contemporary Domari offers many examples of such integration (see Chapter 7). It is not clear whether this reflects change within two or three generations, or whether Macalister left out material that he did not regard as 'pure' Domari. Littmann analyses the Arabic verbal stem that is borrowed into Domari as an underlying Arabic imperative, though it seems more attractive to view it as an underlying subjunctive, for both structural and functional reasons (see Chapters 7 and 11). Working under the assumption that Macalister's description of the Domari system of tenses was exhaustive, Littmann puts forward the hypothesis that Domari has lost (sic) tense forms as a result of convergence with Arabic.

Following in Littmann's footsteps, Barr (1943) points out that Domari has absorbed significant structural influences from Persian and Kurdish. He argues for an Iranian origin of the nominaliser affix -is and interprets the use of enclitic pronouns in Domari in the expression of possession and pronominal objects as shaped in accordance with the Kurdish model, which distinguishes between agreement with transitive and intransitive predicates. Here, Barr wrongly bases his argument on the assumed presence of the same subject concord in *rast-os 'he arrived' and nand-os 'he brought (it)', while in fact subject concord differs, the correct intransitive form being rast-a 'he arrived'. Barr's attempt to derive the Domari subjunctive marker $-c$ - from the Kurdish verb $c_{c}$ - 'to go' seems equally unconvincing (see discussion in Chapter 7).

There are very few modern attempts to document Domari, not least due to an atmosphere in post-colonial Middle Eastern countries that did not favour open research into the culture of ethnic minorities. Even in environments that have been more supportive of research, the Dom community has long been considered inaccessible. Spolsky and Cooper (1991) for instance, in their survey of the languages of Jerusalem, refer to the language mistakenly as 'Romany' (p. 13-14), apparently in an attempt to avoid the term 'Gypsy',
though disregarding the considerable differences between Domari and Romani. Nevertheless, there is some continuation to the fragmented documentation of the language. In an undated student essay composed at the University of Texas, Nicholson analyses nine short sentences recorded in Damascus in 1982 by a Syrian academic by the name of Dr Ghias Barakat, who apparently had been working with Christian missionaries. The brief fragment provides some clues about the structure of Domari as spoken in Damascus. As might be expected, the few forms resemble the other samples from Syria. Possessive endings are the usual næam-oom 'my name, barr-oom 'my brother', læty-unur 'your daughter', y̆ur-unur 'your wife' (the author's transliteration is retained). Nominal case is documented in fræanso-mæ 'in France' and in maareni bakr-e $æ b-u s-k i$ 'we will slaughter a sheep for him'. There is a consonantal plural ending julur-iin 'women', which also appears in the pronoun æmiin 'we'. Attested present-tense verb endings are 1PL-eni and 3PL -endi, and an example of an inflected preposition is basoo-mon 'with us' (Jerusalem Domari wašī-man). Another questionnaire elicitation by Marielle Danbakli of the 'Centre des recherches tsiganes' in Paris, carried out in Damascus around 1990, documents 53 sentences in Domari. The transcription quality is poor. Recognisable nonetheless are the possessive endings in nam-ur 'your name', pit-os 'his belly', the Kurdish-derived numerals heft 'seven' and hežt 'eight', the verb forms ruwari 'he cries' and ruwšti 'crying', the preposition abum 'to me' and the demonstrative ha 'this'

A wordlist collected by Giovanni Bochi (2007) among the Dom of the Beqaa valley in Lebanon in 2004 shows familiar forms such as mangiškari' 'he is begging' as well as the pronoun pandži 'he/she', showing that it is not entirely absent from the northern dialects. We also find use of the $\check{s} t$-copula in ma kriye-me štumi ' I am at home' (= 'in my house'), Kurdish-derived kinship terms such as kur 'son' and bapir 'grandfather', possessive constructions based on mere juxtaposition (wati kri 'a stone house'), and interestingly, a progressive-indicative or immediate future construction based on the prefix ka :

| (20) ma | ka | dža- $m$ | $k r i-y e ̄-m a ~$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | IND | go-1SG.SUBJ | house-OBL-LOC |
|  | 'I shall go/ I am going home.' |  |  |

Some notes on the speech forms of the Qurbati groups of Syria are presented by Al-Jibāwī (2006), though most are of limited value since they appear in Arabic script with little adaptation for Domari sound values, and moreover, they contain at times obvious mistakes (such as absence of agreement in verb conjugations) and it appears that the author had on occasion misunderstood his consultants. Among the interesting phenomena that appear to be documented are verb-final word order (pesara pani piya the boy drank
water'), alternating $3^{\text {rd }}$ person subject pronouns hana and pandži, 'long' forms of the plural pronouns amin 'we' and atmin 'you', and a set of possessive suffixes identical to that of Jerusalem Domari (1SG -om, 2SG -or, 3SG-os, 1PL -oman, 2PL -oran, 3PL osan) including the alternation between subject case in -0 - (-om, -or etc.) and object case in - $i-$ (-im, -ir etc.).

Herin (2012) bases his description of the Domari of Aleppo on sentence elicitations, using the questionnaire developed by Matras, Elšík, and collaborators for the Manchester Romani Project in 2001. ${ }^{7}$ Herin confirms many of the Syrian Domari forms that have been documented in earlier sources, such as the long plural pronouns amin 'we' and tmin 'you.PL', the comparative marker -tar on adjectives, the preposition $z$ - 'from', the progressive aspect in -str, the future marker $k a$, and the copula štom 'I am'. In addition, he notes a reflexive pronoun pa, the collapse of gender distinction and the generalisation of $-e s$ - as an accusative marker and of -2 as an oblique marker for all nouns, a so-called 'versative' case marker - va, a superlative marker an (from Turkish, possibly via Kurdish), and a relational expression xor- 'within'.

The remaining sources related to the language ${ }^{8}$ deal with Domari-derived vocabulary that is used within the framework of another language in special situations of concealed communication among group insiders in other peripatetic populations. Benninghaus (1991) reports on two groups in eastern Anatolia that are described under the label 'Tsiganes': the Posça (or Lom) and the Mitrıp or Karaći (Dom). The Lom have an historical affinity to Armenian society, though only some of them are Christians. The Dom on the other hand are affiliated with Kurdish society and are speakers of Kurdish. Mitrip samples are provided from three communities in Kurdistan: Batman, Elmayaka, and Van. They contain a sizeable number of Domari words, such as qayim 'food', manis 'person', pani 'water', küri 'house', vat 'stone'. Kurdish derivation suffixes are added to some Domari words: gorevi 'cow', bekrev 'sheep', menef 'bread'. The self-appellation of the group and its reliance on Domari vocabulary for in-group special communication may indicate an origin in a Domari-speaking population, or else intensive immersion with one in the past. We come across a similar phenomenon in central Sudan, the southernmost attestation of a Domari-related variety. For the Bahlawan population of metalworkers, Streck (1996: 295-297) documents several dozen words of Domari origin that are used as a "secret language" among group members, embedded into their local dialect of Arabic. In many cases, frozen grammatical inflections accompany the vocabulary items: ikioss 'eye' (ky-os 'his eye), santass 'dog' (snot-as 'dog [direct object]'), kuturjess 'European' (ktur-as 'Christian [direct object])', sheria 'knife' (šir-ya 'knife [direct object]'), pirn 'nose', sutari 'to sleep' (sut-ari 'he/she sleeps'), qotari 'to steal' (qaft-ari 'he/she steals').

### 1.3. Dialect differences in Domari

Despite the rather fragmented nature of the documentation of Domari from locations other than Jerusalem, there are sufficient clues to allow us to postulate tentatively at least a series of isoglosses separating two major varieties of the language - a northern (Caucasus, Syria, Lebanon) and a southern (Palestine, Jordan). The use of Domari-derived vocabulary items in in-group varieties of Kurdish and Arabic remains, of course, outside this classification.

For the 'northern' group we are in possession of notes published by Pott (Beirut), Newbold (Aleppo), Paspati (Anatolia), Patkanoff (Yelizabetpol/ Ganja), and supplemented by the notes of Nicholson and Danbakli (Damascus), Bochi (Beqaa valley), Al-Jibāwī (2006, northern Syria, incl. Aleppo), and recent work by Herin (2011, 2012, Aleppo). A further source from Damascus is a Dom story-teller by the name of Abu Ahmad, originally from a nomadic family based in Hauran in southwestern Syria, who was recorded by Frank Meyer in conjunction with ethnographic research on the community of Dom in Damascus (Meyer 1994). The short recording was made available to me in 1999 and I present an excerpt from it here:

| (21) | a. | dirxabiyy-è-ma $\quad$ st-ēn-a <br> D-OBL.F-LOC- be-1PL-REM |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | b. | $\begin{array}{llll}u & \text { rawwir-d-ēn } & \text { min } & \text { dirxabiyy-ē-ki } \\ \text { and } & \text { travel-PAST-1PL } & \text { from } & \text { D-OBL.F-ABL }\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | c. | gar-ēn ḥorān, |  | kam-kar-d-ēn |  |  |
|  | d. | kam-kar-d-ēn <br> work-VTR-PAST-1PL |  | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { gēnal } & \text { ger-ēn } \\ \text { again } & \text { go.PAST } \end{array}$ |  | gēna |
|  |  | šatī-hr-ēn dirxabiyy-ē-ma |  |  |  |  |
|  | e. | many-an-i $\quad$ pandZ̆/stay-1PL-PRG fivesatyo-ho-n-iwinter-VITR-1PL-PRG |  | pandZ̆/ yaSni five PART | $\begin{aligned} & \check{s e s} \\ & \text { six } \end{aligned}$ | mas <br> month |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | f. | gēna | $\begin{aligned} & \text { raw-an-i } \\ & \text { travel-1PL-PRG } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & d \check{z}-a n-i \\ & \text { go-1PL-PRG } \end{aligned}$ | gēna again | ḥorān, <br> Hauran |
|  |  | gēna | kam-kar-ēn-i |  |  |  |
|  |  | again | work-VTR-1PL |  |  |  |

g. er-ēn inḥa
come.PAST-1PL here
h. man-d-ēn inḥa dir-Sasirdžir-ma
stay-PAST-1PL here D-LOC
i. $\bar{e} r$-os-man
'awwal/ yaSni pēndžah dis/
come.PAST-3SG-1PL first PART fifty day
pēndžah waris
fifty year
j. man-d-ēn ehrēna.
stay-PAST-1PL here
k. par-d-ēn abu-zīr-as-ki
dir
take-PAST-1PL Abu-Zir-OBL.M-ABL daughter ben-i
sister-PRED.SG

1. par-d-ēn-is putr-im-ke
take-PAST-1PL-3SG.OBL son-1SG.OBL-BEN
ahmad-as-ke
Ahmad-OBL.M-BEN
m. Sammur-k-ad-i $\bar{u}$ man-īr-i ehnēna
build-VTR-PAST-F and stay-PAST-F here
n. sir-nā dža-n-i kam-k-an-i $\bar{u}$
began-1PL go-1PL-PRG work-VTR-1PL-PRG and
giry-an-i gēna ehnēna
return-1PL-PRG again here
o. man-d-ēn $\bar{\nu}$ Sammur-k-ad-ēn ehnēna
stay-PAST-1PL and build-VTR-PAST-1PL here
p. kam-kar-ēn-i jarbil
work-VTR-1PL-PRG sieve
a. 'We used to live in Dirxabiyye.
b. And we travelled from Dirxabiyye.
c. We went to Hauran, we worked.
d. We worked (and) back/ we went back, we spent the winter in Dirxabiyye.
e. We stay five/ five or six months we stay the winter.
f. Once again we travel, we go back to Hauran, we work again.
g. We came here.
h. We settled here in Dir Asirjir.
i. It has now been first/ that is, fifty days/ fifty years [for us here].
j. We settled here.
k. We took Abu Zir's sister's daughter.
2. We took her for my son Ahmad.
m. She gave birth and she stayed here.
n. We started to go to work and to return back here.
o. We stayed and we built up here.
p. We make sieves.'

As can be seen through a comparison with examples presented in the following chapters, the language of this excerpt is almost identical to the Domari speech of Jerusalem. The only differences that can be identified on the basis of this excerpt are (a) the use of the copula form in $\check{s t}$-(Jerusalem ahr-), (b) use of the numerals $\check{s} e s ̌$ 'six' and pēndžah 'fifty', both from Kurdish, and (c) the forms inha and ehrēna 'here' (Jerusalem ihnēn, ihnēna).

For the 'southern' group we have in addition to our own data corpus also the material of Seetzen (Nablus) and Macalister (1914), as well as data recently collected by Rafiq (2011), using the Manchester Romani Project questionnaire, among nomadic Dom based to the north of Amman in Jordan. This variety, too, is almost identical to the Domari speech of Jerusalem, as far as can be ascertained from the available data. Minor differences include (a) the presence of vocabulary items that are not attested in Jerusalem but are known from other Domari varieties, e.g. lafti 'girl, daughter', and retention of Anatolian-Mesopotamian vocabulary (Persian, Kurdish, Turkish) such as piyaz 'onion', brindž̌ 'rice', išag 'light', (b) adoption of the Arabic feminine plural marker -āt with inherited nouns irrespective of gender: džuriyāt 'women', läčiyāt 'girls', putrāt 'children', (c) use of the copula in st-: ama ma kān kurya-ma stomi 'I was not at home', (d) optional person inflection on the Arabic auxiliary $k a \bar{n}$, (e) retention of the long benefactive suffix -kera with full nouns: tom day-im-kera dahab guzzali 'I gave my mother beautiful gold'

On the basis of the available materials we can postulate the following tentative differences between the northern and the southern dialects of Domari:
(a) In the area of pronouns, some northern dialects show a preference for the form hu/uhu for the 3SG subject pronoun, often reserving pandži for special functions such as reflexive. In the south, pandži is the preferred form for the subject pronoun while uhu is used as a remote demonstrative. In the northern varieties, independent possessive pronouns may be used in addition to possessive suffixes, while the southern varieties rely exclusively on suffixes. At least some of the northern varieties show $-n$ at the end of the plural pronouns amin
'we' and atmin 'you.PL', an ending that is absent in the south (but also in the northernmost variety of Azerbaijan), where the forms are eme and itme (the long form is preserved, however, in the caseinflected form eminke 'for us' in Jerusalem Domari).
(b) In verb morphology, all dialects except Jerusalem Domari show productive use of štomi 'I am', while the Jerusalem dialect uses a reanalysed past-tense form of the verb 'to become' - ahromi - for 'I am'. ${ }^{9}$ The northern dialects show a grammaticalised use of $\check{s t}$ - to form the progressive present tense of lexical verbs. In some of the northern dialects, an aspectual marker $k a$ - is used for the present indicative or proximate future.
(c) In grammatical vocabulary, the northern dialects retain the Indic particle sa for 'all', contrasting with Kurdish-derived gišt in the south. Kurdish numerals are more predominant in the north (but also in Hauran). Northern dialects tend to use the Persian preposition $z$ 'from', while southern dialects use Arabic min. The present-tense negation particle na is found only in the north, while the proclitic inis found in both northern and southern varieties.
(d) In morpho-syntax, the Kurdish (and Persian) marker -ter is used to form the comparison of adjectives in the northern varieties (cf. Romani -der), while the southern varieties rely on wholesale borrowing of Arabic comparative word forms. Verb-final word order is more likely to be preserved in the northern varieties. There is some evidence of ongoing or even advanced loss of gender distinction in some of the northern varieties (cf. Herin 2011, 2012).
(e) In phonology, etymological $/ \mathrm{v} /$ appears to be retained as $/ \mathrm{v} /$ in the north in words like vat'stone' and vars 'year', compared with $/ \mathrm{w} /$ in the south (wat, wars), though the precise value of the notation used in many of the older investigations cannot be ascertained.

Given the state of documentation, none of these differences can be formulated as strict isoglosses. In vocabulary especially, we have seen than different local or tribal dialects make different kinds of selections among both inherited (Indic) and borrowed ('Mesopotamian and Anatolian') vocabulary. Nonetheless, an impression is emerging of two groups of dialects, with the split between north and south occurring in Syria: the Damascus and of course Aleppo varieties are part of the northern group, while the Hauran dialect usually patterns together with the Jordanian and Palestinian varieties.

Oddly, the tiny community of speakers in Jerusalem shows traces of two distinct varieties of the language. Speakers, though aware of the differences,
are unable to attribute them to any historical merger of populations in the past nor to any contemporary social division. The variables in question concern a number of morphological processes for which there is almost invariably a difference between a 'conservative' and a 'new' form. The features tend to cluster, so that any one speaker will tend toward consistency in the choice of either 'conservative' or 'new' variants. The relevant forms are the following:
(a) the 'conservative' retention of the $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ person plural subject affix -ndi as opposed to the 'new' use of the simplified -di
(b) retention of the dative marker -ta, contrasting with $-k a$ (a blend of $-t a$ and the benefactive marker -ke and/or ablative/genitive $-k i$ )
(c) retention of the sociative (comitative) marker -san, contrasting with its replacement through the Arabic preposition mas 'with'
(d) tendency toward greater retention of the affricate /č/ contrasting with its replacement by/š/
(e) retention of a long form of the dative case ending -kera alongside the shorter form -ke
(f) use of the modality particle ta in purpose clauses (correlating with a more conservative usage in Palestinian Arabic), contrasting with the Arabic particle §ašān
(g) use of original stem-based verb forms in the present indicative, such as klami 'I exit', xolami 'I descend', and xazami 'I laugh', contrasting with the renewal of the present indicative stem following the model of the subjunctive extension with $\check{c}>$ š. kilšami 'I exit', xolšami 'I descend', xaštami 'I laugh'.

There does seem to be a generation split, with the relatively 'younger' speakers tending toward the 'new' set of variants, and the oldest generation showing overwhelmingly the more 'conservative' set. This would indicate a cluster of changes that began to spread in the community in the 1930s. The comparison with Macalister's (1914) material, collected in Jerusalem before 1908, is inconclusive since Macalister relies on just one single speaker. On the whole, however, this speaker's usage tends to match the more 'conservative' cluster attested in the contemporary speech of the community.

### 1.4. Domari and Romani

The relationship between Domari and Romani has been the focus of linguistic debates since Pott's (1846) discussion of the language of the Syrian Gypsies. Both Domari and Romani are Indo-Aryan diaspora languages that lack any obvious affiliation to any particular present-day 'sister-language' in the Indian sub-continent. There are also ethnographic similarities between the two speaker populations. They include their self-appellations (dōm, rom), their wholesale designation for outsiders (Domari kadz̈a, Romani gadžo) ${ }^{10}$, and their socio-economic profile as small kinship-based communities that are nomadic or semi-nomadic and specialise in a portfolio of trades that usually includes manufacturing of small tools and entertainment as well as other services. The languages share a linguistic legacy as a result of the fact that they both belong to the Indo-Aryan family of languages. They also share features that distinguish them from other New Indo-Aryan languages as a result of permanent bilingualism and the influence of various contact languages. Thus they both tend to have lost retroflex sounds, verb-final word order, postpositions and conjunctive participles, and both show instead a tendency toward finiteness in complex clauses, a reduction or loss of the infinitive, and many borrowings in the domains of grammatical vocabulary such as conjunctions, modal and adverbial particles, and more.

Most outspoken in support of a shared origin was Sampson (1923, 1927), who regarded Romani, Domari and Lomavren (the now extinct language of the Armenian Posha or Lom, which can be partly reconstructed on the basis of the special vocabulary preserved in their Armenian speech) as derived from a single ancestral language which split into three distinct branches after arriving in Iranian-speaking territory. This view was opposed by Turner (1926), who was the first to examine not just the phonological changes that divide the languages but also the chronology of these changes. Hancock (1995) supported the view of a separate migration based on the fact that Domari and Romani differed in their inventory of Iranian loanwords and are therefore likely to have had separate contacts in Iranian-speaking territory, in different places and at different times. ${ }^{11}$

The most archaic innovations that are recognisable in both languages can be traced back to the period of transition between Old and Middle Indo-Aryan, before the beginning of the first millennium. Here, both languages share the direction of development with one another and with the bulk of languages that would later on constitute the so-called Central group of Indo-Aryan languages (including Hindi, Gujarati, Rajasthani, and more; cf. Masica 1991). The changes include shift of syllabic $/ \mathbf{r} /$ to $/ \mathbf{u}, \mathrm{i}$ (OIA ghrta, Domari gir 'butter', Romani khil) of initial /y/ to /dž/ (OIA yuvatíh, Domari džuwir 'woman', Romani džuvel) and of $/ \mathrm{ks} /$ to $/ \mathrm{k}(\mathrm{h}) /$ in post-vocal and to $/ \mathrm{c} /$ in pre-vocal
positions (OIA akṣi, Domari iki 'eye', Romani jakh, OIA kṣurikā, Domari čuri 'knife', Romani čurt), as well as the simplification of a series of consonant clusters such as $/ \mathrm{rp} /$, /sm/, /pt/ (OIA sarpa, Domari sap 'snake', Romani sap) and more (for details see Chapter 2.6). Both languages also participate in a series of reductions of medial consonants. On the other hand, they also show a series of conservative features which continue the Old Indo-Aryan state of affairs, notably the retention of the clusters /dr/, /st/, and more (Domari drak 'grape'). It was on this basis that Turner had postulated a departure from the Central zone before the transition to MIA was completed, and re-location to the Northwestern regions, which were beyond the spread of the particular simplifications that affected these clusters elsewhere. At least one structural difference between Domari and Romani might be dated back to this period: The three OIA sibilants /ś, š, $\mathrm{s} /$ are all continued in Domari as /s/ (except in the cluster /št/), while Romani differentiates between $/ \mathrm{s} /$ and $/ \check{\mathbf{s}} /$, suggesting a possible split already at this early stage.

The next historical period is the beginning transition from Middle to New Indo-Aryan. According to Turner, both Domari and Romani were spoken in the Northwestern regions during this period. Once again both languages show conservative traits by retaining MIA dentals in medial positions, albeit as sonorants rather than stops (OIA/MIA gata 'gone', Domari gara, Romani gelo). They both also maintain more or less intact the MIA present-tense person inflection system on verbs. But they also participate in a number of general innovations that take place during this period, such as the reduction of the nominal case system and the loss of the past-tense inflection paradigm. They then share a number of more specific innovations that are common to some but not all NIA languages: They reduce grammatical gender to just masculine and feminine (losing the neuter), they retain oblique case marking on demonstratives, and they show productive causatives in -naw-/-av-. Several phonological differences between the languages might be traced back to this period: OIA/MIA initial /v/ becomes /w/ in Domari (OIA varṣa, Domari wars 'year'), but $/ \mathrm{b} /$ in Romani (berš), and historical $/ \mathrm{m} /$ in final position is continued in Domari but becomes $/ \mathrm{v} /$ in Romani. Inherited initial $/ \mathrm{h} /$ is continued as $/ \mathrm{x} /$ in Domari, but is lost in Romani (OIA hasta, Domari xast 'arm', Romani v-ast).

Moving on to the early New Indo-Aryan period, we assume that the two languages are now in contact with local languages of the so-called Dardic group (also referred to as Indo-Iranian frontier languages). Here we witness what are perhaps the most significant shared innovations that characterise Domari and Romani. In phonology, they both undergo a shift in the cluster /nt/ to $/ \mathrm{nd} /$, which is common in the region. The languages by now show differences in the realisation of the inherited medial stop - / $\mathbf{r} /$ in Domari (gara 'gone'), /l/ in Romani (gelo) - but proceed toward a shared replacement of
internal retroflex sounds through /r/ (OIA hadda, Domari xar 'bone', Romani heroj). It is very likely that the loss of voiced aspirated stops took place in contact with the Dardic languages (which also lose them), though its effects are different in the two languages: In Domari aspiration simply disappears and the voiced stops remain (OIA bhagini, Domari ben 'sister'), while in Romani voiced aspirates merge with voiceless aspirates (phen), and word-internal aspiration is transferred to initial segments (OIA gandha, Domari gan- 'stink', Romani khand-).

In morphology, the intensifier -ar-is borrowed from neighbouring northern Indo-Aryan languages. In Domari its use is limited, as far as we can tell from contemporary materials, to the reinforcement of past-tense verbs (lah-ami ${ }^{\text {'I }}$ see', lah-ar-dom 'I saw'), while in Romani it becomes productive as a transitive and causative derivation marker (for details see Matras 2002). A set of postposed local relations expressions are grammaticalised into new case markers, as in the other NIA languages, but in both Domari and Romani they become agglutinating inflectional endings (Domari mansaske 'for the person', Romani manušeske). Both languages employ an unmodified form of the oblique case marker to express the definite direct object: Domari tarna marda $k a z ̌ z-a s$ 'the young boy beat the man', Romani o terno marda(s) le gadzz-es. The construction closely resembles the use of the cognate dative form for the same purpose in Kashmiri: aslam-an lo:y mohan-as 'Aslam beat Mohan' (Koul and Wali 2006: 71).

Finally, both Domari and Romani adopt the renewal pattern of a new pasttense inflection set that appears in the Dardic languages, turning enclitic object pronouns that indicate the agent into subject concord endings that are attached to the past participle (thus karda 'done' + me 'me' $>\mathrm{kard}$-om 'done by me $=\mathrm{I}$ did' $^{\prime}$ ). The outcome of this region-specific early NIA innovation, in conjunction with the extraordinary retention of the set of MIA present-tense concord markers (i.e. $k a r-a m i{ }^{`} I$ do' etc.), lends the Domari and Romani verb systems their unique and exceptional character within modern Indo-Aryan.

Subsequent developments may be assumed to have taken place in contact with Iranian and perhaps also other languages in Mesopotamia or Anatolia; they show once again both similarities and differences between the languages. Both languages lose initial $/ \mathrm{kh} /$, but in Domari it is replaced by $/ \mathrm{q} /$, presumably borrowed from Iranian, while in Romani it is succeeded by /x/ (Domari qar 'donkey', Romani xer). Remaining retroflex sounds in initial position and geminate retroflex sounds in medial position are replaced by dentals in Domari (OIA atta, Domari ata ‘flour'), but are continued in Romani as $\check{\mathbf{r} /} /(a \check{r})$, with variant pronunciations, including as retroflex [ r$]$ and uvular $[\mathrm{R}]$ ). Romani undergoes various changes to vowel sounds that do not affect Domari, such as from internal $/ \mathrm{a} /$ to $/ \mathrm{e} /$ and from inflectional $/ \mathrm{a} /$ to $/ \mathrm{o} /$ (Domari tarna 'young', Romani terno).

In morphology, Domari develops an auxiliary ${ }^{*}$ č- from an existential verb in * ${ }_{c}$ - which is used to express modality with verbs indicating change of state (see Chapter 7). Romani develops a passive auxiliary *Ov- based on the verb 'to become', calquing similar usage in Iranian languages. It no longer shows any trace of the inherited OIA/MIA internal passive in $-y$-, which is preserved in Domari. Both languages develop external tense markers (i.e. uniform markers of tense that follow the subject-concord marker) similar to those found in Kurdish and other Iranian languages. It appears as though both languages made use of the stems $h o$ - and $s(t) o$-for the existential verb, as both languages still show cross-dialectal variation in the distribution of copula forms (Jerusalem Domari homi 'I am', Hauran Domari štomi, Sinti Romani hom, Arli Romani som, note also the cognates Domari (a)h(u)rom 'I became' and Romani (h)ulom). Both Domari and Romani also develop verb-derivation strategies based on the grammaticalisations of the verbs 'to do' and 'to become' - Domari -kar- and -ho-, Romani -ker- (alternating with the causative marker -ar-) and -ov- (alternating with -av- 'to come') - which also serve as light verbs and later as grammaticalised affixes for the integration of loan verbs from contact languages.

As regards the distribution of enclitic and bound person markers in subject, possessor, and object role, judging by the variety of agreement patterns found in the Dardic and Iranian languages today and especially the volatility of patterns along the continuum of Kurdish dialects and Pamir languages (see Bynon 1979, Payne 1980), it would not be surprising to assume some degree of volatility within earlier forms of both Domari and Romani. Jerusalem Domari relies on bound pronominal forms, but independent possessive pronouns that are cognate with older possessive forms (e.g. teri 'your') are attested for other Domari varieties; similarly, Romani generally shows independent object pronouns, derived from demonstratives and modelled on the Greek anaphoric use of afto etc., but at least in one case, that of the Parakalamos dialect of Epirus in northwestern Greece (Matras 2004), we find a distribution of bound object pronominal affixes that is very similar to that of Domari. Thus the Mesopotamian-Anatolian period of Domari and Romani is likely to have witnessed some volatility in this domain.

We may assume that it is also at this stage that the languages develop postposed relative clauses and begin to rely on finite clause combining. Infinitive forms will have been reduced through contact with Iranian and later Arabic (for Domari) and Greek (for Romani). Subsequent developments are known to have affected Romani in particular as a result of its contact with Byzantine Greek: It develops prepositions, conjunctions, preposed definite articles ${ }^{12}$, and stand-alone object pronouns based on demonstratives, and it integrates a considerable amount of nominal and verbal morphology from Greek.

What remains is to consider at a glance a brief representative sample of the two languages' lexical inventories. I choose deliberately to use a custom-made scale here. I avoid the Swadesh list because of its obvious inadequacies and language biases (such as consideration of colours, region-specific landscape terms, and grammatical relations that are often expressed through inflection, such as 'with'), and for the sake of efficiency I avoid more elaborate lexicaltypological lists such as the one used by the Loanword Typology project (Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009). ${ }^{13}$ Table 1 presents instead selected items from several domains. In the grammatical domain, there is an advantage in focusing on the categories of pronouns, demonstratives, interrogatives, and spatial relations. On the one hand, these are more resistant toward borrowing from contact languages than grammatical expressions such as conjunctions and indefinites. On the other hand, deixis and anaphora are prone to internal renewal triggered by the constant need to maintain effective tools to ensure disambiguation among referents. As for lexical content words, it makes sense to focus on the more stable areas of kinship terms, body parts, landscapes, basic food and basic activities.

## Table 1. Basic vocabulary comparison Domari/ Romani

|  | Domari | Romani |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kinship |  |  |
| father | boy | dad |
| mother | day | daj |
| son | putur | čhavo |
| daughter | dir | chaj |
| brother | bar | phral |
| sister | ben | phen |
| son-in-law | džatir | džamutro |
| daughter-in-law | wahrī | bori |
| brother/sister in-law | silif | salo, sali |
| husband | payy | řom |
| wife | bay | řomni |
| grandfather | dad | papos(Grk.) |
| grandmother | dadí | mami (Grk.) |
| uncle | mām, xāl (Kurd./Ar.) | kako |
| aunt | māmí, xālī (Kurd./Ar.) | bibi |
| Body parts |  |  |
| head | siri | šero |
| hair | wal | bal |
| face | muh | muj |
| ear | kan | kan |
| nose | pirin, nak | nakh |
| eye | iki | jakh |

Table 1 (cont.) Basic vocabulary comparison Domari/ Romani

|  | Domari | Romani |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mouth | zari | muj |
| neck | gurgi | kor |
| back | pišt | dumo |
| arm | xast | vast |
| leg | paw | piň̌o, heroj |
| belly | pet | peř |
| heart | xur | ilo |
| breast | š̌iši | čuči |
| tooth | dand | dand |
| tongue | dZ̈ib | chib |
| blood | nhïr | rat |

Deictic expressions

| here | hnēn | akaj, akate |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there | hnon | okoj, okote |
| this | aha | aka- |
| that | $u h u$ | oko- |
| he/she | pandži | ov/oj |
| where | $k r e \bar{n}$ | kaj |
| why | $k e h n i$ | sostar |
| how | $k \overline{e k} \bar{e}$ | sar |
| what | $k i$ | so |
| who | $k a \bar{n}$ | kon |
| when | kawax | kana |

Spatial relations

| inside | mandža | andre |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| outside | bara | avri |
| behind | paši | pala |
| in front | agirr | angla |
| above | atun | opre |
| below | axar | tela |
| next to | canči | paša |

Foods

| bread | mana | manřo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| water | pani | pani |
| meat | masi | mas |
| sweet | gulda | gudlo |
| salt | Ion | Ion |
| egg | ana | anřo |
| milk | dud | thud |
| grapes | drak | drakh |

Table 1 (cont.) Basic vocabulary comparison Domari/ Romani

|  | Domari | Romani |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nature |  |  |
| day | dis | dives |
| night | arati | rati |
| wind | wāy | balval |
| rain | warsinda | birsšind |
| snow | taldž (Ar.) | iv |
| year | wars | berš |
| month | masi | mas |
| sun | tat, gam | kham |
| moon | qamar (Ar.) | čon |
| hot | $h \bar{a} m$ (Ar.) | tato |
| Activities |  |  |
| give | de- | $d-$ |
| take | par- | $1-$ |
| go | dža- | dža- |
| come | aw- | $a v-$ |
| sleep | $s \bar{u}(\underline{c})-$ | SOV- |
| cry | row- | rov- |
| die | mary- | mer- |
| eat | $q$ - | xa- |
| drink | pi- | pi- |
| sit | wišt- | beš- |
| rise | išt- | ušt- |
| know | džan- | džan- |
| hear | sin- | šun- |
| laugh | xaz- | as- |
| see | lakh- | dikh- |
| open | qol- | putr- |
| shut | ban- | phand- |

The picture delivered by the lexical comparison is fully reconcilable with the historical stages in the development of the languages, to the extent that we are able to reconstruct them through cross-dialect comparison and consideration of documented sources on the historical development of IndoAryan: We are dealing with two separate languages with an extraordinary history of displacements resulting in recurrent convergent developments, whose paths appear to have crossed during several stages of this remarkable journey. The most likely explanation for the crossing of paths is the shared profile of the speaker communities, which inspires the search for a shared origin in the first place: They are both populations of similar socio-economic (caste) status, on the search for similar opportunities in similar times, and their
related constitutions may have indeed encouraged direct contact and reciprocal influences. Such encounters or mere contiguity will have been responsible for shared or similar structural developments in the languages during each of the historical stages. At the same time there is hardly a single stage for which we are unable to find some developments through which the two languages diverge. There is, in other words, no evidence that Domari and Romani ever constituted a single language, at any period in their development; but there is on the other hand plenty of evidence that they underwent shared developments as a result of sharing the same geo-linguistic environments during successive periods.

### 1.5. The Dom community of Jerusalem

The Dom belong to the populations known collectively in the literature as 'Middle Eastern Gypsies'. ${ }^{14}$ Their own term for their group is döm, in the plural dōme. The Arabs usually call them nawar or, more pejoratively, zutt. The latter has been in use since medieval times as a collective name for various groups of Indian immigrants to the Middle East, including nomadic musicians, soldiers, and captives (see Grierson 1887); it is often associated with the Indian name $j a t$ which can be found as the self-designation of itinerant populations of Indian origin in Afghanistan (Rao 1995) and elsewhere.

The Dom's traditional specialisation was in metalwork and entertainment. Among the Palestinian Dom, however, these two professions are usually associated with different clans. The ancestors of the Jerusalem Dom were, until several decades ago, tent-dwelling smiths and tinners who produced skewers, horseshoes, and other metal artefacts. When the British set up municipal services in Jerusalem, in the early 1920s, the Dom abandoned their traditional professions and sought paid employment in the service of the municipality, as sweepers, in rubbish disposal, and as caretakers in public lavatories. By the 1940s the community came to rely on wage labour and the Dom abandoned their tents and moved into permanent dwelling within the Old City walls.

The bulk of the Dom population of Jerusalem still lives in rented accommodation in Bāb l-Ḥuṭa in the northeastern corner of the Muslim quarter of the Old City, just north of Lions Gate and the northern entrance to the Héram, the compound which includes the Dome of the Rock and Al-'Aqṣa Mosques. Some families have left the Old City in recent years to settle in the neighbourhoods, villages, and suburbs in and around East Jerusalem. A sizeable community of expatriates lives in Amman, Jordan, having fled Jerusalem and the West Bank during the six-day war in June 1967. Many Dom maintain family ties with the Amman community, travel to Jordan regularly,
and host visiting relatives in Jerusalem. The community consists of three extended families: Nimr, Slīm, and Bu£ārni. There are no reliable figures about the size of the Dom population in Jerusalem. Some members of the community claim a total population of up to one thousand, a figure that is accepted by some observers. A survey carried out in the mid-1970s by an Israeli anthropologist put the entire Dom population of the Old City at the time at between 200-300, ${ }^{15}$ which coincides with the figure of 300 given by Yaniv (1980). This would suggest a number of around 600-700 today.

The young generation of Jerusalem Dom is employed in a variety of professions, mainly in services. A significant number have completed secondary education, some continuing to higher specialised qualifications. The changing socio-economic profile of the community has deepened the gaps between the Jerusalem Dom and those in other parts of the country. It is also fracturing the traditional overlap between ethnic identity and socio-economic identity, which had existed previously among the Dom, giving rise to a feeling of an ethnicity vacuum. The Dom are Sunni Muslims, like their Palestinian neighbours, with whom they appear to share most of their customs and way of life. Traditional dress and tattoos are found only among very elderly women in the community, and there are virtually no remaining stories, songs, or marriage or other customs or habits that are unique to the Dom. An exception is begging, which is still a common way of earning a living among middle-aged women of the Jerusalem community (and is still common among young Dom women from Gaza and from settlements in the West Bank). Many Jerusalem Dom families host relatives from Jordan who come to the city during the Ramadan month in order to earn money by begging in front of the entrance to the haram or Mosque complex. The most frequently cited Dom ritual is the pilgrimage to Nabi Musa (according to Muslim tradition, the burial place of the prophet Moses), in the nearby Judean Desert. Although the place attracts Muslim pilgrims from all sectors of Palestinian society, the Dom have their own celebration at the site, in early April. It seems that in earlier generations, bride price was paid, as among the nomadic Bedouins, by the bridegroom to the family of the bride, while among the city-dwellers it was paid to the wife and remained under her control. It is not clear to what extent the older practice remains in view of the rising number of mixed marriages and indeed the nearcomplete absence of marriages within the Dom community during the past two decades.

Despite their immersion into Muslim Arab society, the Dom maintain an awareness as a separate community, partly by tradition and partly as a result of everlasting marginalisation and isolation. All members of the community, especially the younger generations, report on incidents of racist abuse and discrimination by mainstream Palestinian society. As a result, many highlight their indifference to Palestinian political aspirations. On the other hand they
are regarded by Israeli authorities as an integral part of the Arab population of East Jerusalem and the West Bank and suffer the same occasional if not continuous abuse from them. Politically this positions the Dom in actual fact much closer to Palestinian than to Israeli society. The Jerusalem Dom have also had occasional contact with European Roma who have visited their community, usually as missionaries for various religious movements. This exposure has prompted a sense of curiosity toward the Romani community in Europe and a number of young Dom have in recent years been exploring the prospects of developing community institutions modelled in some way or another on the experience of Romani cultural and political associations in Europe and the U.S.

As in rural Arab society, the traditional authority within the community rests with the Mukhtar (Arabic muxtār) or community leader, whom the Dom call in their language grawara. The position of Mukhtar is a kind of compromise between an elected representative whose appointment reflects a consensus among the influential families in the community, a hereditary office, and an external appointment by the authorities, who recognise the Mukhtar as a spokesman on behalf of his community but expect cooperation, for instance in matters relating to law and order, in return. The traditional tasks of the Mukhtar have been to resolve conflicts and disputes within the community and to mediate between members of the community and the authorities. The Mukhtar's role as chief representative of the community has been challenged to some extent by the establishment in November 1999 of a 'Society for the Promotion of the Gypsies in Israel' [ha-'amuta le-kidum hatso'anim be-yisra'el]. The Foundation was initially backed by a left-wing Israeli opposition party. It carries a Hebrew rather than Arabic official title, and the title itself flags a connection to Israel rather than to the West Bank, where the Dom live. It is led by a small circle of volunteers - three sisters and a few of their supporters - with some support from Israeli and European and American charitable organisations. The group has succeeded in raising the profile of the tiny minority community at least in the local context, to some extent, through charity events and news reports. In 2011, a social worker was appointed by the Israeli municipality to act as liaison person for the affairs of the community.

A traditional link exists between the Dom community and another minority group in the West Bank known as 'Kurds' (Arabic krād, Domari krāde) or in their own speech as rōm or rōmāt. They too descend from itinerant metalworkers who provided their services to villagers in the West Bank, while the Dom served the urban population. The two groups intermarry and are to some extent familiar with each other's languages. The speech of the Kurds however appears to be a secret lexicon which includes lexical items from Kurdish as well as from Domari. Their indigenous name suggests a connection
to the Rom of Europe. Such a connection cannot be ruled out, given the presence of Romani items in the secret vocabularies of other itinerant groups in the Middle East, such as the Ghagar of Egypt (Newbold 1856) or the Poša of eastern Anatolia (Benninghaus 1991).

Although the Dom are aware of the presence of other scattered Dom communities all around the Middle East and the elderly are able to tell about encounters with Dom from Iraq, Syria, and Egypt in the 1930s and 1940s, the political situation during the past decades has prevented contacts with other Dom, with the exception of direct relations in Amman and with occasional Dom visitors from northern Sinai in Egypt. The Dom's awareness of identity and community history is therefore prone to influences from outside sources as well as to traditional tales and stories. Two such traditional tales can be heard, which on occasion are combined into one. ${ }^{16}$ The first portrays the Dom as descendants of Džassās, the leader of the tribe of Banū-Murra. In a conflict with another tribe, Džassās killed the rival leader, Klēb. He was then killed in revenge by Klēb's younger brother, Sālem ez-Zīr. Ez-Zīr continued to persecute Banū-Murra and drove them into exile, ruling that they should no longer be allowed to ride horses but only donkeys, that they should remain outdoors, and that they should not be allowed to stay in one place for longer than three nights. A second tale depicts the Dom as descendants of a nomadic tribe of entertainers who were settled in Iran, were given farmland and animals and expected to become farmers. The king, Bahram Gur, who had invited them to settle, later discovered that they had neglected their lands and instead of working spent most of their time singing and dancing. He then banished them from his kingdom and they became nomads again. Both stories are well known and well documented among peripatetic communities in the Middle East. The story of ez-Zīr is better known in the Arab countries (cf. Newbold 1856: 291, Canova 1981), while that of Bahram Gur originates in a Persian poem by Firdausi (see Grierson 1887) but has also entered oral tradition in parts of Iran (cf. Amanolahi and Norbeck 1975:3). Like many origin stories told by peripatetic communities, they portray nomadism as punishment for an 'ancient sin' and assert sedentarism as the normal and original state of affairs in the community's history (cf. Pickett and Agogino 1960, Casimir 1987). Acccording to Yaniv (1980), the legend about Bahram Gur was only adopted by members of the community in the 1970s from foreign sources, through indirect exposure to the literature on Gypsies.

### 1.6. Data collection and method of analysis

The present study is based on speech data recorded in the Dom community of Jerusalem during regular visits of between one and three weeks, two or three
times a year, in 1996-2000. The initial fieldwork consisted of questionnairebased interviews with individual speakers who were asked to translate words, phrases, and sentences from colloquial Arabic into Domari. Follow-up questionnaires were then designed to fill gaps and to extend the coverage. The questionnaires were informed by the typological questionnaires developed by a number of working groups as part of the European Science Foundation mammoth project on the Typology of European Languages (EUROTYP), which took place in 1990-1994. The general format was a function-to-form approach, aiming at an exhaustive coverage of semantic functions. Parallel to the questionnaire elicitations I recorded personal narratives and in some cases conversations among speakers as well as a few stories. There is no storytelling tradition in the community and with few exceptions no speakers could be found who were able to tell 'traditional tales', and even in the exceptional case the repertoire of such tales was rather small. Most of the connected talk recorded consisted of biographical narration, with speakers reconstructing episodes of their own lives as well as narrating information that they had heard about family and relatives, about other members of the community and about the community's history. Some narratives discuss traditions and way of life. Many, especially conversations between two speakers, relate to quarrels and feuds within the tiny community. Outside of the interview context, the usual language of communication with the speakers was Arabic, which is the language they use alongside Domari in their homes and the exclusive language of everyday conversation with most of their non-Dom environment. Hebrew was also used on some occasions, with some speakers.

Altogether some nine hours of connected talk (narration and conversation) were transcribed and evaluated, in addition to the audio-recorded questionnaire material. Audio-recorded interviews were conducted with a total of twelve speakers, with up to ten further speakers participating in the background as they were present in the interview setting and occasionally interacted with the principal interviewee, or participating in informal conversations about which written notes were taken during or after the conversation. Such notes usually covered individual vocabulary items and their use or information about patterns of language use, as well as ethnographic background. On this basis I assume that I had personal access to around a quarter of the total number of speakers of Domari in Jerusalem. Many informal conversations were conducted with semi-speakers, and some of those were recorded but were not considered in the present study (but see Matras 1999). Most of the recordings took place in speakers' homes, or, in some cases, neighbours were invited to speak to me at the home of my hosts in the Bāb l-Ḥutta neighbourhood. A close working relationship was established with one speaker, with whom I met regularly outside the neighbourhood, in West Jerusalem, and who later visited me in Manchester, funded by a grant from the British Academy. This speaker
assisted me in interpreting the recorded material, in particular connected speech, and in filling gaps that arose in the coverage of forms, paradigms, lexical variants and so on. The examples used in the following chapters are usually taken from the transcriptions of connected speech unless otherwise stated (for samples of transcriptions of talk see Chapter 12).

As a supplement to the natural talk and questionnaire elicitation, the opportunity arose to compare the material compiled by Macalister (1914) directly with Domari as it is spoken in the same community today, almost a century later. Fort this purpose I read out a number of the stories published by Macalister in his description of Domari (most of which were originally not told in Domari at all, but were translations provided by his consultant of stories which Macalister himself dictated), using the English version as a basis for an oral, spontaneous translation into colloquial Arabic, and recorded speakers' translation of the story, sentence by sentence, back into Domari. A detailed discussion of differences in style and presentation is beyond the scope of this study.

The transliteration system used here has already been employed in my previous work on Domari (Matras 1999, 2000, 2007a) and is designed to capture the principal phonological features of the language including pronunciation variants, while still leaving some room for interpretation of recurring and seemingly random phonetic alternations (see Chapter 2). The choice of diacritics is oriented primarily toward transliteration conventions in Arabic, Iranian, and Romani dialectology. Glosses follow conventional standards in linguistic typology, inspired in particular by the 'Leipzig Rules' with some modifications (see list of abbreviations). Discourse excerpts are presented with minimal reference to meta-linguistic phenomena. Such references include segmentation and sub-numbering of segments of connected speech based on intonation units, the use of the forward slash '/' to indicate speaker self-repair, the use of three dots '...' to indicate omission, and the use of $=$ italics embedded within an equality sign $=$ to indicate a speaker's discourse-strategic code-switch into Arabic. Individual Arabic word insertions and even phrase insertions are an inherent part of Domari talk and are not highlighted unless they are interpreted to be motivated by the wish to clarify something that has been said in Domari, and so involve an intentional choice in favour of Arabic.

The following chapters provide a descriptive account of Domari and do not aspire or pretend to follow any particular theoretical model of analysis. As an Indo-European language with heavy influence from a Semitic language, categorisation of most structures in Domari falls within well-established conceptual and terminological conventions. The analysis is nevertheless informed and inspired by two particular theoretical perspectives, which I would like to highlight in these introductory remarks.

The first concerns the position of Pragmatics and the discussion of the function of categories and the choices that speakers make between categories. Although I do not adopt any particular model, I remain inspired by approaches to language that regard pragmatics as a method of analysis ${ }^{17}$ rather than just a single component of language or indeed as the purely utilitarian exploitation that lies beyond the formal language 'system' To use a metaphor, if the formal structures of a language are to be viewed as a software application, then the pragmatics of a language are, in the view that I subscribe to, not the attempt to stretch the use of this application beyond the purpose for which it was designed, nor the improvisations that the user may add to the purpose-oriented design of the application, nor indeed even just a pre-designed portion of the application itself; rather, pragmatics is the hardware on which the software application - and any other software application - is designed to run. Every natural language is designed to enable human communication. Each and every grammatical category is therefore 'functional' in the sense that it serves to trigger a mental operation in the mind of the hearer that will enable communication with the speaker. Communicative activities such as 'deictic reference', 'initiation of a question illocution', 'monitoring and directing hearer-sided participation', or merely 'naming objects of the real world' stand above categories such as 'pronouns', 'question particles', 'discourse markers', and 'nouns'. Such considerations will not lead to a radical departure from conventional modes of a typologically informed presentation and discussion of data in this work, but they will necessarily accompany the interpretation of the functions and meanings of categories and structures. For the organisation of the chapters this will mean that no separate section will be devoted to issues of 'information structure', since it is expected that each and every structural domain will somehow participate in the meaningful structuring of information in discourse, and information transmission can therefore not be separated from the transmission of meaning in any stricter sense.

The second issue concerns a question of no less importance to linguistic theory, and that is: what is a language, and how do we define the boundaries of 'a language'? I had the privilege of beginning to write this manuscript while I was a guest researcher at the Research Centre for Linguistic Typology (RCLT) at La Trobe University, Melbourne, in the second half of 2007. The RCLT was and continues to be one of the renowned centres for the documentation of endangered and smaller languages, and the production of typologically informed descriptive grammars based on original, empirical fieldwork was high on its agenda. However, I recall my surprise when, discussing approaches to deal with code-switches and bilingual insertions in the transcription of conversational and narration data I learned that the Centre's junior staff had been instructed by the Centre's founder and then still director, R. M. W. Dixon, to remove such insertions from the transcriptions and to replace them
by 'authentic' lexemes representing the 'original' language that was the goal of the documentation project. This principle was to be followed even if it meant retrieving the 'missing' word from another member of the community and inserting it artificially into the transcription of the discourse of the speaker who had been recorded. It struck me at the time more vividly than ever before that even in the context of first-hand, empirical documentation, a 'language' is a linguist's construction, and that a language description is an idealisation of what the investigator is most interested in rather than an objective, purely scientific way of capturing speakers' modes of communicating with one another in a speech community.

The problem presents itself for Domari as a language that is permanently in contact with a surrounding language, just like for hundreds or even thousands of other smaller and endangered languages around the world. Speakers in multilingual communities don't communicate in 'a language', nor do they simply communicate in 'two languages' or in 'a choice of either one language or another' - which would at least have helped the descriptive linguist decide what is and what is not 'authentic' and therefore worthy of documenting. Instead, speakers communicate in natural settings using their full repertoire of linguistic structures. As I will demonstrate in some of the following chapters, in the case of Domari the ability to communicate in one's 'native' or 'family' language necessarily entails the ability to draw on one's full competence in another language - in this case Arabic - not just for special stylistic effect or when communicating in what Grosjean (2001) terms the 'Bilingual Mode', but even when navigating the strict paradigms of a monolingual mode: To construct comparative forms of adjectives in Domari speakers import corresponding comparative word forms from Arabic, and when using nouns with numerals that are borrowed from Arabic (those above 'three') speakers opt for the corresponding Arabic noun forms. This does not simply amount to what has been described as 'mixed languages' (cf. Matras and Bakker 2003), since speakers maintain two sets of adjectives and two sets of nouns. Nor is this a simple case of borrowing, because in order to use adjective comparison or number modification productively speakers require active access to an open set of Arabic lexicon. One might describe Domari grammar as having a rule that says: "when you require a comparative form of an adjective, or the form of a noun that is modified by a numeral above 'three', then code-switch to Arabic and carry out the operation in that language". Yet to formulate a grammatical rule in a language that entails switching into another language seems to counter any principle in the manual of descriptive linguistics and indeed the mere concept of languages as self-contained 'systems'.

The present book will not formulate a theory that will resolve this problem, but it will work around the problem by describing what speakers actually do in such instances: It will define Domari as the repertoire components that
speakers activate when they define their discourse as 'Domari'. Nonetheless, by pointing out the potential pitfalls and constraints of taking a traditional descriptive approach to language as simply a 'system', I hope to make a modest contribution toward re-considering the concept of what exactly a 'grammar description' entails especially in settings involving multilingualism and language obsolescence.

## Chapter 2

## Phonology

### 2.1. Inventory of sounds

### 2.1.1. Short vowels

Domari vowel qualities show an almost symmetrical system of distribution across front-back and high-low positions, with a tendency toward greater differentiation among high vowels, where we also find the centralised realisations $[\mathrm{i}]$ and $[\mathrm{z}]$. The transition from high [ i$]$ and $[\mathrm{u}]$ to low [a] is a fiveposition gradient, through semi-high [ I ] and [ U ], mid-position [ e ] and [ O ], lower-mid $[\varepsilon]$ and [ $\rho$ ] and semi-low [æ] and [a]. A mid-centralised vowel $[\Lambda]$ is peripheral in the system. Nevertheless, it has potentially contrastive character - thus pandž- [pand3] 'five', but pandž- [pand3] the third person pronominal stem. Broadly speaking, vowel sounds tend to alternate with neighbouring variants without any meaningful contrast. Phoneme boundaries can therefore be formed around clusters of adjoining vowels (see Figure 1).


Figure 1. Vowel sounds and vowel phonemes
There is a strong tendency toward symmetry in the system of vowel phonemes. We find a high-front phoneme $/ \mathrm{i} /$, a high-back phoneme $/ \mathrm{u} /$, and a
low phoneme $/ \mathrm{a} /$, each with three variants. In the middle range, the front phoneme /e/ continues the general pattern of high-low variants but the set lacks a centralised member. The corresponding back vowels pose some classification difficulties. As we will see below, straightforward meaningful contrasts are difficult to establish, while at the same time these vowels stand out well as a group in contrast to neighbouring clusters. There are in fact reasons to view the mid-back cluster as a single phonemic value. Not only is $/ \Lambda$, but also $/ 0 /$, rather rare; but the latter is also highly predictable, as it is found mainly in positions preceding the semi-vowel segments $/ \mathrm{w} /$ and $/ \mathrm{y} /$.

For the front high vowel $\mathrm{i} /$, there is a noticeable tendency toward complementary distribution of variants. The high variant [i] appears mostly in open syllables, semi-high [ I ] in closed syllables, and the centralised variant [ i ] is found mostly in positions preceding sonorants or surrounding semi-vowels:

| [i] | [di] | di'two' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ['dzari] | džari's/he goes' |
|  | [par'dedi] | pardedi' 'they took' |
|  | ['?asti] | ašti' 'there is' |
| [ 1 ] | [ti'llik] | tillik 'big' |
|  | [?ih'ni] | ihni 'thus' |
|  | [ma'yıf] | mangiš 'begging' |
| [i] | [bo'jimke] | boyimke 'for my father' |
|  | [kin'dom] | kindom 'I bought' |
|  | ['yimkin] | yimkin 'perhaps' |
|  | [d3u'wir] | džuwir 'woman' |
|  | [wif'tami] | wišstami 'I sit' |

Mid-front vowels pose somewhat of a challenge, too. There are no consistent regularities governing the distribution of the closed (high) realisations of [e] and those of the more open (low) [ $\varepsilon$ ], though [e] dominates in closed syllables while $[\varepsilon]$ is the more frequent in open syllables. Distribution also seems to be influenced by syllable length and assimilation to neighbouring vowels (such as raising in anticipation of $/ \mathrm{i} /$ variants):

| [e] | [ ${ }^{\prime}$ 'he?] | nhe' 'there isn't' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [dej], [de:j] | dey, dēy 'village' |
|  | [ $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$ 'ri] | $e r i '$ 'she arrived' |
|  | [fe'jif] | feyiš' 'argument, fight' |
|  | [ben] | ben 'sister' |
| [ $\varepsilon$ ] | [ $\varepsilon^{\prime} \mathrm{m} \varepsilon$ ] | eme 'we' |
|  | [? $\mathrm{h}^{\prime} \mathrm{rri}$ ] | ehri 'she became' |


| [Re'he] | ehe 'these' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [pl ] | ple'money', |
| [zla:'m $\varepsilon]$ | zläme 'men' |
| [gor'j $\varepsilon]$ | gorye 'horses' |

The back vowels [u], [ u$]$ and [ o ] are generally stable and consistent in their word stem positions irrespective of environment:

| [u] | ['kuri] | kuri 'house' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [xu'd3oti] | xudžoti 'yesterday' |
|  | [?ura'ti] | urati 'tomorrow' |
|  | [ $a^{\prime}$ 'tu] | atu 'you' |
| [u] | [mu'tur] | mutur 'urine' |
|  | [pu'tur] | putur 'son' |
|  | ['hundar] | hundar 'there' |
|  | [gu'zel] | guzel 'nice, beautiful' |
| [o] | [Ra'dzoti] | adžoti 'today' |
|  | [lon] | lon 'salt' |
|  | [put'ros] | putros 'his son' |
|  | [ba'rom] | barom 'my brother' |

Elsewhere, there appears to be more volatility and frequent alternation among vowels in neighbouring positions, as well as a greater degree of environmental conditioning. Thus $[\mathrm{z}]$ tends to occur in close proximity to semi-vowels and sonorants, while [ 0 ] always precedes a semi-vowel:
[ H ] [sun'dom] sundom 'I heard'
[wa'da] wuda 'old man'
[rowtr'dom] rowurdom 'I travelled'
[0] [bo'jom] boyom 'my father'
[do'wami] dowami 'I wash'
[po'wirta] powirta 'on your foot'
Open (low) [a] appears to be shorter than its somewhat higher (closed) counterpart [æ], while the latter tends to favour open syllables and the environment of semi-vowels and glottals:
[a] [na'nami] nanami 'I bring'
[pra'na] prana 'white'
[za're] zare 'children'

|  | [pan'dzi] <br> $[$ kur'jata $]$ | pandži 'he/she' <br> kuryata 'home' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $[æ]$ | $[$ gæ'rom $]$ | garom 'I went' |

The back member of the cluster /a/ favours the environment of dental consonants and especially phrayngealised dentals:

| [xast] | xast 'arm' |
| :---: | :---: |
| [ $t^{\text {¢ }} \mathrm{ct}^{\text {² }}$ ] | tat'sun' |
| [ $\mathrm{d}^{¢}$ and ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | dand 'tooth' |
| [ $s^{\text {¢ }} \mathrm{ab}$ ] | sab 'snake' |

The realisation of $/ \mathrm{a} /$ as [ a ] is in fact consistent or obligatory in the immediate environment of pharyngeals, and so one might speak of a pharyngealising effect on the vowel, similar to that found in Arabic.

### 2.1.2. Long vowels

Vowel lengthening in Domari may have its roots in the language's ancient Indo-Aryan precursor, hence forms within the inherited vocabulary stock, such as [do:'me] döme 'the Doms', could show historical continuation of the long vowel. But there is little doubt that vowel quantity is nowadays strongly influenced by lengthening patterns in Arabic. Firstly, Arabic length contrasts are preserved: cf. [bi'zz$a b t] ~ b i z-z a b t ~ ' p r e c i s e l y ', ~[' z ª: b i t] ~ z a ̄ b i t ~ ' o f f i c e r ' . ~$ Second, a tendency is emerging to correlate length with stress. As a result, stressed vowel segments often display length: [mifta'hrenni] mištahrēni' 'they are ill' At the same time, root long vowels are maintained while grammatical endings take the word stress: [do:'m $\varepsilon$ ] döme 'the Doms'. Length is more easily identified on stress-carrying grammatical segments: [?a'ha ћa'libi] aha halíb-i 'this is milk', but ['pjami hali'bi:] pyami halib-i 'I drink the milk (I am drinking the milk)'. Especially /i/ in final stressed position tends to undergo considerable lengthening, thus making the presence or absence of stress a key to the quantity status of the vowel. The orthographical decisions adopted throughout this text for final morphological segments carrying /i/ are therefore partly arbitrary. The feminine ending $-i$ on adjectives and past-tense verbs (as in šird- $i$ 'she said') carries stress, like the oblique ending $-\bar{i}$ in pyami halib- $\bar{i}$ ' I
drink the milk'. On the other hand, the final segment on the ablativeprepositional case marker $-k i$, the progressive tense marker on verbs $-i$ and the consonantal predication marker $-i$ are all unstressed. With the exception of the oblique ending $-\bar{i}$, it appears that vowel length fluctuates in all these positions, as it does in the nominative form of lexemes such as kuri 'house', brari 'cat'. Syllable structure plays a role in conditioning the difference between the open and shorter vowel in putre 'sons' and the closed, longer vowel in putrēm 'my sons'.

Nonetheless, the presence of distinctive vowel lengthening in Domari is confirmed by experimental data. ${ }^{18}$ Samples of elicited sentences and of conversational data were examined for inherited (i.e. non-Arabic) words that had been intuitively transliterated as containing long vowels. The results show that long vowel duration is typically $70-120$ milliseconds in both conversational and sentence elicitation data, while the typical duration of short vowels is $30-80$ milliseconds in conversational data and between $45-100$ milliseconds in sentence elicitation data. While this suggests some degree of overlap between long and short vowels as a whole, in fact there is no overlap for individual vowel qualities with the exception of $/ \mathrm{a} /$ (where in sentence elicitation data the top $30 \%$ of short tokens overlap with the bottom $50 \%$ of longer tokens). The duration breakdown obtained for a small sample of between $40-60$ tokens per vowel type (short and long vowels counting as separate types) are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Vowel duration

| Vowel | range in conversational data <br> (milliseconds) | range in sentence elicitation data <br> (milliseconds) | mean |
| :--- | :---: | ---: | ---: |
| /i// | $27-53$ | $45-81$ | 54 |
| /e/ | $28-70$ | $60-85$ | 56.5 |
| /a/ | $60-80$ | $67-100$ | 80 |
| /o/ | $70-86$ | $90-110$ | 90 |
| $\mathrm{lu} /$ | $35-45$ | $40-100$ | 67.5 |
| $\mathrm{l}: /$ | $54-100$ | $100-120$ | 87 |
| /e:/ | $73-97$ | $84-110$ | 91.5 |
| /a:/ | $77-102$ | $95-117$ | 97 |
| /o:/ | $102-120$ | $112-135$ | 118.5 |
| /u:/ | $70-110$ | over 120 | 95 |

The figures show that vowels perceived as long are indeed consistently longer than those perceived as short, at the same time they illustrate how subtle length distinction is in the language. For Thai, Abramson (1974) reports on a typical duration contrast of the range $60-150$ milliseconds for short vowels versus $160-360$ milliseconds for long vowels. Tsukada (2009) examines mean length oppositions for the vowel quality $/ a /$ and notes 108
milliseconds for the short vowel vs. 250 milliseconds for the long vowel in Arabic, 82 vs .211 milliseconds for Japanese, and 147 vs .324 milliseconds for Thai. Compared with these results, Domari vowels appear to be generally short, their range is relatively limited, and the contrast between short and long vowels is less pronounced, ranging typically at a difference of around 30-35 milliseconds, contrasting with well over 100 milliseconds in some other languages.

In terms of quality, long vowels are less differentiated than short vowels. As for their distribution, they can be found both in inherited roots and in grammatical endings:

| [i:] | [ ${ }^{\text {at'nisis] }}$ | atnis 'about him' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [kti:r] | Ktïr 'Christian' |
|  | [ $\chi$ udwa'ri:] | xudwarī 'the child [direct object]' |
|  | [biry] | biy 'moustache' |
|  | [bitt] | $b \overline{i t}$ 'earth' |
|  | [bi:'ri] | biri 'she feared' |
| [e:] | [dormı'je:k] | dōmiyēk 'a Dom woman [predicative]' |
|  | [ke:'ke:] | kēkē 'how' |
|  | [kne:n] | knēn 'where' |
|  | [ho:'Se:k] | hōšēk 'you become' |
|  | [put're:m] | putrēm 'my sons' |
| [u:] | [¢ư'jar] | ūyar 'town' |
|  | [dzur'dzakr] | džūdžaki '(from) Egypt' |
| [o:] | [do:mı'ja] | dōmiya 'a Dom woman' |
|  | [so:'wamr] | sōwami 'I sew' |
|  | [ho:'Se:k] | hōšek 'you become' |
|  |  | šōna 'boy' |
|  | [sno:'tia] | $s n o ̄ t a ~ ' d o g ' ~$ |
| [a:] | [ba:'dom] | bādom 'my grandfather' |
|  | [ta:tı'ja] | tātiya 'an Arab woman' |
|  | [la:'Si] | lāšl 'girl' |

Long vowels are also retained in Arabic lexemes:

| [i:] | [ta1'ri:x] | Arabic ta'rīx 'history' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ['li:ra] | Arabic Iira 'pound, lira' |
|  | [mısıl'mim] | Arabic misilminn 'Muslims' |
| [e:] | [d ${ }^{\text {f }}$ : ff | Arabic def $^{\prime}$ 'guest' |
|  | [he:t ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | Arabic hēt ' 'wall' |


| [u:] | [mlu:k] | Arabic mlūk 'kings' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [mas'ru:l] | Arabic mašyūl 'busy' |
|  | [ze:'tu:n] | Arabic zētūn 'olives' |
| [ o : $]$ | [bal'ko:n] | Arabic balkōn 'balcony' |
| [a:] | [bus'ta:n] | Arabic bustān 'garden' |
|  | [daka:'ki:n] | Arabic dakākīn 'shops' |
|  | [ [a'ma:l] | Arabic šamāl 'north' |

### 2.1.3. Consonants

Domari consonants are a testimony to the language's fading 'genetic' legacy and its advanced stage of convergence with Arabic. The language retains articulatory positions that are shared by both Indo-Aryan systems and Arabic. It shows no trace of Indic retroflex consonants or aspiration but maintains greater symmetry in voice opposition than we find in Arabic, with a contrast $[\mathrm{p}]:[\mathrm{b}],[\mathrm{k}]:[\mathrm{g}]$ and marginally also [f]:[v], while Arabic only shows [b], [k] and [f]. A number of sounds, such as $[q],[\chi]$ or $[x]$, and $[\gamma]$ might well testify to Mesopotamian influences (Iranian, Turkic) prior to contact with Arabic.

Table 3. Inventory of consonants

|  | labial | dental | dentalpharyngealised | palatoalveolar | velar | uvular | pharyngeal | glottal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| V1 stop | p | t | $\mathrm{t}^{\text {8}}$ | (tS) | k | q |  |  |
| Vd stop | b | d | $\mathrm{d}^{\text {f }}$ | d3 | g |  |  | ? |
| Nasal | m | n |  |  | $\eta$ |  |  |  |
| Lateral |  | 1 |  |  | t |  |  |  |
| Trill |  | r |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| V fricative | f | s | $\mathrm{s}^{\text {s }}$ | S | x | $\chi$ | ћ | h |
| Vd fricative | (v) | z | $\mathrm{z}^{\text {8 }}$ | (3) | Y |  | ¢ |  |
| Semi-vowel | w |  |  | j |  |  |  |  |

The tendency towards convergence with Arabic is evident both in the incorporation of Arabic lexical loans without any obligatory phonological adaptation and thus in the wholesale accommodation of Arabic phonemes into Domari conversation, but also in the infiltration of Arabic sounds into the inherited (pre-Arabic) component. Perhaps the most conspicuous Arabic contact feature is the pharyngealisation of dentals, which is distinctive within the Arabic component but to a large extent variable within the Indic or preArabic component. We thus have the alternations [do:m] alongside [ $\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{o}: \mathrm{m}$ ]
đōm 'Dom', [tat] alongside [ $t^{\S}{ }^{\prime} t^{\S}$ ] tat 'heat', [mu'tur] alongside [mu't $t^{\S} u r$ ] mutur 'urine'. Conventionalisation of pharyngealisation in non-Arabic items can be found in the tendency towards progressive assimilation, where a Domari ending follows an Arabic stem, as in [ $t^{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{aw}^{\prime} l \mathrm{le}: \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{a}$ ] tawlēta 'on the table', combining Arabic tawle and the Domari dative ending -ta. There are in addition quite a few non-Arabic lexical items which seem to have adopted pharyngealisation and which display it consistently, such as [ $d^{\S}$ and ${ }^{\S}$ ] dand 'tooth', $\left[\mathrm{mat}^{\mathrm{f}}\right]$ mat 'person', [wat $\left.{ }^{\text {}}\right]$ wat 'stone'.

The pharyngeals [ h ] and [ C ] appear to be restricted to the Arabic component. There are other consonants that may be assigned predominantly but not exclusively to Arabic loan material. Thus the velar fricative [ y ] appears occasionally in pre-Arabic items, as in [je'yer] yeyer 'horse', [bi:y] biy 'moustache', as does the uvular stop [q] - [qa'jif] qayiš 'food', [qol'dom] qoldom 'I opened' The realisation in Domari of [q] representing etymo-logical-historical [q] in Arabic-derived words such as ['qahwa] qahwa 'coffee' points to an early adoption of the word and its perception as an integral part of the Domari system, distinct from Arabic. When conversing in Arabic, Doms will consistently adopt the Jerusalemite pronunciation ['?ahwe]. The etymological Arabic consonants $[\theta],[\delta]$ and $\left[\delta^{\AA}\right]$ however do not appear in the corpus, and their contemporary Palestinian Arabic cognates [ t ] and [d] and [ z , $\mathrm{z}^{\S}$ ] are found instead, thus [tala'tin] talätīn 'thirty', ['ta:ni] tāni 'other', [' $z^{\text {}} a$ :bit] zābit 'officer' A further consonant that is typical of the Arabic lexical component is [?], though it also functions regularly within the preArabic component indicating verb negation in final position: [bi:'re?] bire' ' $\mathrm{s} /$ he does not fear'.

Incongruent with the contiguous Arabic system are the sounds [g] (found in Egyptian, but not in Palestinian Arabic), [p], and [ t ] (found in rural dialects of Arabic in the regions surrounding Jerusalem to the west and northwest, an outcome of palatalisation of underlying [k]: čalb < kalb 'dog'). All four are restricted to the pre-Arabic component: [pit'rin] pirin 'nose', [gur'gi:] gurgī 'throat', [tfan'tfrmma] čančimma 'next to me'. Although the [p]:[b] contrast remains on the whole distinctive - cf. [pa'jjom] 'my husband', [ba'jom] 'my wife' - there are signs of its partial retreat. In initial position, [p] often undergoes lenition: [p̊u'ttr] putur 'son', ['pandzi] pandži 's/he'. In medial position, fricativisation can be observed: [kapf'ja] kapya 'door [direct object]' Also contrasting with Arabic we find, though marginally in the corpus, a voiced labio-dental fricative [v], in variation with [w]: [rov'rom] alongside [row'rom] rowrom 'I wept'; and occasionally replacing underlying Arabic [w], as in [zv'lidrom] 'I was born' < wlidrom (Arabic wlid-).

Domari stops cover labial, dental, and velar positions, each with a voiceless and voiced set:

| [p] | [pu'tur] | putur 'son' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ['pandfan] | pandžan 'they' |
|  | [?urp] | urp 'silver' |
|  | [ ple ] | ple 'money' |
| [b] | [bar] | bar 'brother' |
|  | [ $s^{\text {s }}$ ab] | $s a b$ 'snake' |
|  | [a'burke] | aburke 'for you' |
| [t] | [ta:ti'ja] | tātiya 'an Arab woman' |
|  | [si'tori] | sitori 'you have slept' |
|  | [ta'ranes] | taranes 'three' |
| [d] | [dis] | dis 'day' |
|  | [SIr'da] | širda 'he said' |
|  | [dæd'jom] | dadyom 'my grandmother' |
| [k] | ['2ekak] | ekak'somebody' |
|  | [9a'buske] | abuske 'for him/her' |
|  | [kin'dom] | kinctum 'I bought' |
| [g] | [go'ri] | gori 'horse' |
|  | [ aag ] | ag 'fire' |
|  | [ aa 'gir] | agir ' in front of ${ }^{\prime}$ |

A uvular position shows just a voiceless stop with no voiced counterpart:
[q] [qol'dom] qoldom 'I opened'
[qa'jif] qayiš'food' [qafti'da] qaftida 'he stole'

The dental stops have pharyngealised counterparts. They are found mainly in Arabic lexemes but also in some pre-Arabic lexical items, where they always alternate with the respective non-pharyngealised variant:
[ $\left.\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{q}}\right] \quad\left[\right.$ sno! $\left.\mathrm{I}^{\mathrm{f}} \mathrm{a} \mathrm{a}\right] \quad$ snōta ${ }^{\text {'dog }}$,
[t ${ }^{\text {º:n }}$ ] tān 'mattress'
['tªb§an] Arabic tabSan'certainly'
[t'aw'lz] Arabic tawle 'table'
[ $\left.\mathrm{d}^{\S}\right] \quad\left[\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{q}} \mathrm{and}^{\mathrm{q}}\right] \quad$ dand ${ }^{\text {' tooth }}$ '
[dº:m] $\quad$ dōm 'Dom man'
[3ay'radd ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] Arabic ayrạ̄ ${ }^{\text {'things, stuff, belongings' }}$
['d'allo] Arabic dallo 'continued'

A palato-alveolar dental affricate also shows, historically at least, voice opposition, but while the voiced affricate is relatively stable, among some speakers the voiceless counterpart is simplified to a sibilant:
[t5] [tfir'dom] čirdom 'I said', also [fir'dom]
[tfo:'ni] čōni 'girl', also [Jo'ni]
[la:'tfi] lāčí 'girl', also [la:'ji]
[d3] [man'dza] mandža ‘inside’
['dzari] džari 'he/she goes'
[ndzana'nદ?] ndžanane ' 'we don't know'
The voiced set of stops also shows a glottal position [?]. Its phonemic status in word-initial position is controversial, as it tends to disappear in word boundaries:
[lahi'domo'ras] lahedom oras 'I saw that one'
It is retained, however, after a meaningful pause or else to emphasise a word boundary, in post-vocalic position in the inherited existential negation expression, as well as in Arabic lexemes:
[1] [SIr'da(.)Ra'ru] širda: aru! 'He said: come!'
[ka'ran'iag] karan ag! 'Make fire!'
[nhe? ] nhe' 'there isn't'
[tal'rixx Arabic ta'rīx 'history'
Domari has a labial and a dental nasal sound, as well as a rather peripheral velar nasal:
[m] [mæm'i:] mamí'aunt'
[kıl'Sami] kils̆ami 'I exit'
[be'nom] benom 'my sister'
[n] [wa'Si:san] wašissan 'with them'
[noh'ra] nohra 'red'
['h'ne:ni] hnēni 'it is here'
[y] [ma'ŋif] mangiš' begging,
[nıyawa'dedis] ningawadedis 'they brought it'

Completing the set of sonorants are the laterals and trill. The trill is dental:
[r] ['grefkari] grëfkari 'sings'
[pi'rom] pirom ‘I drank’
[rawar'd $\varepsilon$ ] rawarde 'they travelled'
The more widespread lateral is also dental:
[1] [tma'li] tmali'soldier'
[lake'dom] lakedom 'I saw'
[la'gif] lagiš ‘fight'
A velarised lateral is peripheral. It occurs in two lexemes of Kurdish origin, as well as in the Arabic interjections 'ałłah, yałłh, wałłah and in the environment of Arabic pharyngeals and pharyngealised dentals:
[ 7 ] [5at] šaf 'well, waterhole'
[sał] sał' 'rice'
['xałłas ${ }^{\text {s }}$ ] xaffas 'enough!'
The most comprehensive set of consonants in terms of variety of articulatory positions is the set of fricatives. The voiceless labial [f] occurs primarily in Arabic lexemes and is rather rare in the pre-Arabic component, while the voiced [ v ] is rare altogether and, as mentioned above, interchangeable with [ w$]$.

| [f] | [fa'jif] | fayiš'struggle' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [fum'nami] | fumnami ' $\mathrm{I}^{\text {hit }}{ }^{\prime}$ |
|  | ['gre:fkari] | grēfkari 'sings' |
| [v] | [rov'rom] [tul'Idrom] | rowrom 'I wept', also [row'rom] wlidrom 'I was born', also [tw'lidrom] (Arabic wlid-) |

Dental fricatives also have pharyngealised counterparts, once again mainly in Arabic lexemes, but occasionally infiltrating some of the pre-Arabic lexicon:

| [s] | [kjos] | kyos 'his eye' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [ma'si:] | masi 'meat' |
|  | [sa'kami] | sakami 'I am able' |
| [z] | [za'ri] | zari 'mouth' |
|  | [za'ra] | zara 'child' |
|  | [ ${ }^{\text {bizo'ta] }}$ | bizota 'poor' |


| [ $\mathrm{s}^{\text {s }}$ ] | [ $s^{\text {s }} \mathrm{ap}$ ] | sap 'snake' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ['ћummus ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | Arabic hummus 'Humus' |
|  | [ $\mathrm{s}^{\text {s}} \mathrm{a}$ ¢inn] | Arabic șahin 'plate' |
| [ $\mathrm{z}^{\text { }}$ ] | [ $z^{\text {q }}$ a ${ }^{\text {bit] }}$ | Arabic zäbit 'officer' |

Palato-alveolar sibilants are in part, in the case of the voiceless [5], and exclusively in the case of the voiced [3], the outcome of a simplification of the corresponding affricates $[\mathrm{t} 5]$ and [d3], with which they are often interchangeable:

| [5] | [fa'jif] | fayiš'struggle' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | [wa'fisan] | wašisan 'with them' |
|  | ['Sinak] | ssinak 'a little', also ['tfinak] |
| [3] | [3ib] | Žib 'tongue', also [d3ıb] |
|  | [3t'wrr] | žuwir 'woman', also [d3u'wir] |
|  | [ 'a'zoti] $^{\text {a }}$ | ažoti 'today', also [2a'dzoti] |

Among the velar fricatives, the voiced counterpart is found predominantly within the Arabic component:

| [x] | [xar] <br> [xaz'rom] <br> [a'xar] | xur 'heart' xazrom 'I laughed' axar 'below' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [y] | [bi:y] <br> [je'yer] <br> ['Pazyar] | $b_{\bar{I} Y}$ 'moustache' yeyer 'horse' Arabic azyar'smaller' |

The set of fricatives includes a voiceless glottal or aspiration, which may also appear in final position:
[h] [æh'rom] ahrom 'I became'
[ho:' Sam ] hōšam 'that I become'
[?u'hu] uhu 'that'
[muh] muh 'mouth'
Alongside the velar fricative $[\mathrm{x}]$ we find a uvular variant $[\chi]$, which interchanges both with the velar fricative [ x ] and with the uvular stop [ q$]$ in selected lexemes:
[ $\chi$ ] [xol'dom] xoldom 'I opened', also [qol'dom] [ $\chi$ al] $\quad x a l$ 'said' (particle of indirect speech), also [qal]

The pharyngeal fricatives [ $\hbar$ ] and [ C ] are found exclusively in Arabic lexemes:
[h] [Ta $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{san}}$ ] Arabic ahsan 'better'
[dbīh] Arabic $d b i h h$ 'slaughtered animal'
['ha:kim] Arabic hākim 'governor'
[9] ['mnaSkar] mnaSkar- Arabic mnaS- 'to prevent'
[ Can'ki:m] Sankīm 'about me', Arabic San- 'about'
[fa'ri:s] Arabic Sarīs'groom'
The status of the two semi-vowels differs somewhat, at least historically. While labial [w] is well established in various environments and clearly belongs to the inventory of consonants, palatal [j] occurs in the pre-Arabic component only in positions following the vowels $/ \mathrm{a} /$ and $/ \mathrm{/} /$ and might therefore be considered part of an historical diphthong */ay/ or */oy/ respectively. However, in the Arabic component, we find [j] defining its own syllable boundaries independently of a particular vowel, and so it seems justified to acknowledge its status as a consonant in the contemporary system, and to view the cases of the */ay/ diphthong as historically peripheral, and synchronically interpretable as vowel-consonant sequences:
[w] [dЗ甘'wir] džuwir 'woman'
[da'wa:j] dawāy'camel'
[wu'da] wuda 'old'
[we:s'rom] wēsrom 'I sat'
[j] [wa:j] wāy'wind'
[baj] bay'wife'
[boj] boy'father'
['jaini] Arabic yaSni [discourse particle]
['jimkin] Arabic yimkin 'maybe'

### 2.2. Variation and minimal pairs

A tentative classification of Domari vowel sounds into phonemes was suggested above. According to this model, the language has the short vowel phonemes $/ \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}, ~ \mathrm{o}, \Lambda /$, and the long vowel phonemes $/ \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}, \overline{\mathrm{o}}, \overline{\mathrm{u}} /$. The justification for a phonemic length opposition derives mainly from the consistency in the duration of long vowels in particular lexical tokens. This makes vowel length a feature of lexical phonology, one that is distinguished at
the level of individual lexical roots and grammatical morphemes. Minimal pairs are few, but they testify nonetheless to the presence of length as a distinctive feature:

| [tat] | tat'sun, heat', though often also [ $\mathrm{t}^{\text {¢ }} \mathrm{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| [ta:t] | tât'Arab, villager' |

A near minimal pair is:

| [tom] | tom 'I gave' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [do'm] | dōm 'Dom man' |

As mentioned above, we find vowel length correlating with morpheme alteration and word stress in the following minimal pairs:
[ha'li:bi] in aha halīb-i (this milk-PRED.SG) 'this is milk'
[hali:'bi:] in ama piyami halīb-i (I drink milk-OBL.M) 'I drink the milk'
[qa'lami] in aha qalam-i (this pencil-PRED.SG) 'this is a pencil'
[qala'mi:] in ama parami qalam-ī (I take pencil-OBL.M) 'I take the pencil'

Paradigmatic length distinctions may also be conditioned by the phoneme environment, and accompanied by minor quality adjustment:

| [put're] | putre 'the sons' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [put're:m] | putrēm'my sons' |

Minimal pairs among vowel qualities are somewhat more easily identified, despite considerable fluctuation and variation in the realisation of vowels both across speakers and within the repertoires of individual speakers. A nice illustration of vowel phoneme contrasts is provided by the set of demonstratives:

| [?a'ha] | aha 'this' (M.SG) |
| :--- | :--- |
| [?i'hi] | ihi 'this' (F.SG) |
| [?u'hu] | uhu' 'that' (M/F.SG) |
| [? 'h $\varepsilon$ ] | ehe 'these' |

Vowels are distinctive in other grammatical paradigms, too:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { [pa'rari] } & \text { parari 'he/she takes' } \\
\text { [pa'rara] } & \text { parara 'he/she used to take/ was taking' }
\end{array}
$$

| [par'da] | parda 'he took' |
| :---: | :---: |
| [par'di] | pardi 'she took' |
| [par'd $]$ | parde 'they took' |
| ['Pekak] | $e k a k ' s o m e b o d y ~(m a l e) ' ~ '$ |
| ['İkak] | ikak'somebody (female)' |
| ['hindar] | hindar 'here' |
| ['hundar] | hundar 'there' |

Phonemic distinctiveness does not, however, exclude variation and interchangeability of the same pair of sounds in specific lexical environments. Consider the following variants as examples:
[stn'dom], [sin'dom]
[kun'dom], [kın'dom]
[ma'nus], [ma'nis]
[dzu'wir], [dzi'wir]
[šuri:], [širi!]

[lak $\varepsilon^{\prime}$ da], [laka'da]
[bi:sa'wæhra], [bi:sa'wahra]
sundom, sindom 'I heard' kundom, kindom 'I bought' manus, manis 'person' džluwir, džiwir 'woman' šuıi, širi' 'knife'
quștota, qiștota 'small' lakeda, lakada 'he saw' bissawahra 'he married'

As can be seen here, Domari short vowels show frequent tendencies toward interchanging of corresponding front and back positions: $[\mathrm{u}]-[\mathrm{i}],[\mathrm{U}]-[\mathrm{I}],[\mathrm{u}]-[\mathrm{i}]$, $[\varepsilon]-[a]$. Much of this mirrors a corresponding tendency in Palestinian Arabic, and is indeed found also in the Arabic component:
[musul'mim], [misil'min] Arabic musulmin, misilmin 'Muslims'
['jumkin], ['jimkin] Arabic yumkin, yimkin 'perhaps'

Domari often goes beyond the 'permissible' variation in Arabic, applying vowel quality fluctuation to some Arabic-derived roots:
['skunæhrom], ['skinæhrom] skumahrom, skinahrom 'I reside', Arabic skun-
Nonetheless, this kind of variation is lexeme-specific and the respective vowel pairs are by no means generally interchangeable. Consider:
[bur'jul] burgul 'burgul', never *[bir'yıl]
[mu'tur] mutur 'urine', never *[mi'trr]
[pu'tur] putur 'son', never *[pr'trr]
and so on. This apparent regularity of the pattern is to some extent useful in distinguishing sound alternation from phonemic oppositions. Thus a rare near minimal pair is this:

| ['pandzi] | pandži 'he/she' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ['pındzes] | pandžes 'five' |

The contrast of [a] and [ $\Lambda$ ] is meaningful, albeit in just this particular pair of lexemes. It stands out from the type of alternation pattern seen above among vowel pairs, which in some environments equally constitute meaningful contrasts. A similar case might be made for [0] and [a], which do not show a front-back contrast either, as is typical of free variants. Consider the following contrasts:

| [ro'wari] | rowari 'he/she cries' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [ra'wari] | rawari 'he/she travels' |
| [bo'jom] | boyom 'my father' |
| [ba'jom] | bayom 'my wife' |
| [do'wari] | dowari 'he/she washes' <br> [da'wari] |
| dawari 'he/she dances' |  |

The phonemic contrast between $/ 0 /$ and $/ \mathrm{o} /$ is, however, as pointed out above, less clear-cut, since $/ 0 /$ is largely confined to the position preceding semi-vowels. However, there is no paradigmatic alternation that would trigger a shift between the two vowels. Both $/ \mathrm{o} /$ and $/ \mathrm{o} /$ remain stable in the respective lexical roots to which they belong. While $/ \mathrm{\sigma} /$ and $/ \mathrm{a} /$ are distinguishable to speakers through minimal pairs, speakers also emphatically reject substitution of $/ \mathrm{o} /$ through $/ \mathrm{o} /$ - as in, for instance, *[bo'jom] for 'my father' - as more than just a 'foreign accent', and view it as a thoroughly misconfigured pronunciation. This leaves the impression that native speaker intuition certainly does not accept the two as variants. As seen above for pairs like [u]$[\mathrm{I}]$, or $[\varepsilon]-[\mathrm{a}]$, free variation and interchangeability in one context does not exclude a meaningful contrast in another.

In the domain of consonants, voice opposition appears stable, even around contrasts such as [p] and [b] which are missing in the contact language Arabic:

| [pi:'rom] | pïrom 'I drank' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [bi:'rom] | birom 'I feared' |
| [par] | par! 'take!' |
| [bar] | bar 'brother' |


| [pen] | pen! 'take out!' <br> ben 'sister' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [ben] | payyom 'my husband' |
| [paj'jom] | payom 'my wise' |
| [bajom] | bayom 'my |

The contrast remains stable among affricates as well, to the extent that the voiceless affricate is preserved:

| ['tJari] | čari 'he/she says', also ['Sari] šari |
| :--- | :--- |
| ['dzari] | dz̈ari 'he/she goes' |

Well aligned are also the contrasts between stops, nasals, and semi-vowels:

| [ $\mathrm{wat}^{\text { }}$ ] | wat 'tstone' |
| :---: | :---: |
| [mat ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | mat' 'person' |
| [bitt] | $b \overline{i t}$ 'earth' |
| [mi:t] | Arabic mitt 'hundred' |
| [wæj] | way 'wind' |
| [baj] | bay 'wife' |

Dental and palatal sibilants show stability:
[ a a$] \quad$ šał 'well, waterhole'
[sał] sal'rice'
However, palato-alveolar affricates [d3] and [ t ] are undergoing a process of simplification to sibilants [3] and [5]. The process mirrors the ongoing simplification of [d3] in the Palestinian Arabic dialect of Jerusalem to [3]: [dzamb] 'next to' $>$ [3amb]. It may also be influenced by the absence in Jerusalem Arabic of [ t$]$ ]. As a result we can say that in Jerusalem Domari as a whole, palato-alveolar affricates and sibilants are interchangeable. In practice, variation is conditioned by sound, word form, and speaker. The voiceless affricate [ t ] shows a much greater tendency toward simplification and is missing almost entirely from the repertoire of some speakers. The most common lexical items with etymological [ t ] can be arranged on a hierarchy of affricate retention, with čanč- 'next to' most likely to show [ t ] irrespective of speaker, and $\check{c}$ - 'speak' most likely to show simplification to [ $[J]$ (šami 'I speak' etc.):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { čanč- 'next to' > lāčí 'girl' > čōna 'boy' > pači 'behind' > čuri 'knife' > č- } \\
& \text { 'to speak' }
\end{aligned}
$$

As a result, utterances such as the following can be found in the corpus, showing differential treatment of etymological [ t$]$ ]:
(1) lāči illi š-ird-om wāšī-s
girl REL speak-PAST-1SG with-3SG
'The girl that I spoke to'
(2) ama wes-r-om čanč-is-ma šōn-as-ki

I sit-PAST-1SG next.to-3SG.OBL-LOC boy-OBL.M-ABL
'I sat next to the boy'
It is noteworthy that Macalister (1914) records consistently [tf] for his informant.

The voiced counterpart [d3] is maintained in some words rather consistently, especially in positions following a dental nasal:
[la'dzi] ladži 'shame'
[d3u'dzi] džudži ‘Egyptian'
[dЗ甘'wir] džuwir 'woman'
[dza'nami] džanami 'I know'
['pandzi] pandži 'he/she'
[man'dza] mandža 'inside'
Elsewhere, there is variation, and especially in pre-consonantal position, general reduction:
[dza], [za]
[xu'dzoti], [xu'zoti]
[dzib], [zib]
[3bo:m]

```
dža!, ža!'go!'
xudžoti, xužoti` `yesterday
džib, žib'tongue'
žbom 'my tongue'
```

This distribution parallels the simplification pattern in the local variety of Arabic, which shows variation in ['dza:mif] džāme $\{$ 'mosque' vs. ['za:mif] žäme $\uparrow$, but consistently [3di:d] ždīd'new'.

As stated above, pharyngeal consonants occur entirely within the inventory of Arabic lexemes, and here the contrast between the two pharyngeal sounds [ $\hbar$ ] and $[\mathrm{Y}]$ as well as between the pharyngeals and neighbouring glottals is well maintained:

| [hajj] | Arabic hayy 'this' (discourse particle, filler) |
| :--- | :--- |
| [hajj] | Arabic hayy 'neighbourhood'' |
| ['s?ilks'dom] | s'ilkedom 'I asked', Arabic s'il- |
| ['zSilæh'rom] | ZSilahrom 'I became angry', Arabic zSil- |

Naturally, pharyngeals also stand in contrast to similar pre-Arabic lexemes that lack them:

| [个a'russ] | Arabic Sarūss 'bride' <br> [Ta'ru] |
| :--- | :--- |
| aru! 'come!' |  |

The pharyngealisation of dental consonants does, by contrast, infiltrate the pre-Arabic component, where it is often subject to word-internal variation:

| [do:m], [dro:m] <br> [tat], [ $t^{\text {f }}{ }^{\text { }}$ ] <br> [mu'tur], [mu'tivr] <br> [kafto'ta], [kaft ${ }^{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{o}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{S}} \mathrm{a}$ ] |
| :---: |
|  |  |

dōm, dōm 'Dom man'
tat, tat 'sun, heat'
mutur, mutur 'urine'
kaštota, kaștoṭa 'small'

A number of non-Arabic lexical items appear to have adopted pharyngealisation and tend to display it somewhat more consistently:

| [ $\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{and}^{\text {d }}$ ] | dand 'tooth' |
| :---: | :---: |
| [mat ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | matt 'person' |
| [wat ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | wat 'stone' |
| [bizzo't ${ }^{\text {fa] }}$ | bizzota 'poor' |

A group of consonants around the velar, uvular and glottal positions show a degree of word-specific variation in lexical roots. The most frequent alternations are listed here (for a discussion see sections 2.6 and 2.7 below):
[ka'pi], [qa'pi]
kapi, qapi 'door'

kaštota, qaștota 'small'
[kol'dom], [qol'dom], [xol'dom]
[qal], [ $\chi$ al], [gal]
[la'kami], [la'hami]
koldom, qoldom, xoldom 'I opened' qal, xal, gal (quotation particle)
lakami, lahami 'I see'

### 2.3. Assimilation processes

Domari shows both productive and non-productive sound assimilation processes. Those that are non-productive are paradigm alternations that are a result of an underlying process of assimilation. We find this in the forms of the non-verbal predication marker. There are two morphemes for the singular predication marker: The first, $-i$, attaches to consonantal stem: aha xudwar- $i$ 'it's a child', ihi džluwir-i 'it's a woman'. The second attaches to the vowel ending of the noun. The vowel endings of nouns are frequently inflection
endings that are distinguished for gender: masculine singular nominative $-a$, feminine singular nominative $-i$. The predication markers reflect gender distinction by incorporating the underlying inflectional ending:

```
šön-a 'boy' aha šon-èk'this is a boy'
šōn-i 'girl' ihi šōn-ik 'this is a girl'
```

From this we might derive the following historical reconstruction scenario: The original predication marker may have been *-ek- or indeed *-eki. The bisyllabic morpheme came under pressure to undergo simplification and erosion of duration as part of its increase in frequency, as a result of which it was reduced to just one syllable. With consonantal endings, it was shortened to $-i$, losing its consonantal value: *ihi džuwir-eki $>{ }^{*}$ ihi džuwir-i 'this is a woman'. With vowel endings, it assimilated the preceding inflectional marker, but lost its own final vowel to comply with the reduction trend. In this way, masculine ${ }^{*}-a+-e k i$ became ${ }^{*}$-ēki> -ēk, while feminine ${ }^{*}-i+$-eki became *-iki>-ik.

Productive assimilation processes continue to be dynamic. There are two noteworthy processes. The first involves vowels and is characterised by considerable variation and instability, which make it an option of 'choice' rather than a predictable rule. Moreover, the alternation produced by vowel assimilation tends to overlap with the variation already observed in many positions among neighbouring short vowels. Vowel assimilation is essentially a regressive assimilation process triggered by adaptation to an inflectional vowel ending. The following provide an illustration:
[wu'da]
[wi'di]
[rawzr'dom]
[rawnr'da]
[rawir'di]
[ge:'su]
[?a'ha ge:'siwi]

wud-a 'old man' wid-i 'old woman'<br>rawurd-om 'I travelled' raward-a 'he travelled' rawird- $i$ 'she travelled'<br>gēsu 'wheat'<br>aha gesiw-i 'this is wheat'

The process can also be found in isolation from paradigms, in the adaptation of root vowels to the inflectional vowel, as in šuri 'knife' > širi, or the fronting of the root vowel in nišyami 'I dance', for which the past stem is našǐrom.

Consonant assimilation is a process that reaches across morpheme boundaries and results in distinctive gemination. It has mainly two
environments. The first is the coming together of two identical segments at morpheme boundaries:

| [xıznawi'de:ssan] | xiz-naw-id-ēs-san <br> laugh-CAUS-PAST-2PL-3PL <br> 'you.PL made them laugh' |
| :--- | :--- |
| [xıznawi'de:san] | xiz-naw-id-ē-san <br> laugh-CAUS-PAST-3PL-3PL <br> 'they made them laugh' |
| [la'harri] | lah-ar-r-i <br> see-3SG-2SG-PRG <br> 'he sees you' |
| [la'hari] | lah-ar-i <br> see-3SG-PRG <br> 'he sees' |

The second is the regressive quality assimilation of a consonantal segment with the following consonant. This also occurs at morpheme boundaries, and leads to gemination:

| [kur'jamma] underlying | kury-a(n)-ma <br> house-OBL.PL-LOC <br> 'in the houses' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| [kur'jama] | kury-a-ma <br> house-OBL.F-LOC <br> 'in the house' |

Gemination is otherwise a feature of lexical roots. It is typical especially of the Arabic component - [ $\mathrm{hr}^{\prime} \mathrm{bbo}$ (mi] 'I like', from Arabic hibb- - though stem gemination also occurs sporadically in inherited (pre-Arabic) lexical items: [tı'lla] tilla 'big', [ka'dzdza] kadždža '(non-Dom) man', [bızzo'tª] bizzoṭa 'poor'.

Progressive consonantal assimilation is marginally attested in the form of pharyngealisation in non-Arabic items that follow a pharyngealised segment in an Arabic stem:

| [taw'le:ta] | tawl-ē-ta |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | table-OBL.F-DAT |
|  | 'on the table' |

### 2.4. Syllable structure

The majority of Domari lexical roots contain two or three syllables, sometimes with an additional syllable for a vocalic inflectional ending. Lexical roots with more than three syllables are rare, at least in the pre-Arabic component. The Arabic component enriches the inventory of patterns somewhat, though even in the Arabic component derivational templates of more than three syllables are very rare.

Word roots can usually be followed by up to three syllables of grammatical affixes in nouns, and even more in the case of verbs: consider in-xiz-naw-id-e-san-a' 'they had not made them laugh', containing the negation marker in-, the root xiz- 'to laugh', the causative marker -naw-, the perfective marker -id-, the 3PL subject marker -e, the 3PL object marker -san-, the remoteness tense marker $-a$, and the postposed negation marker -':

```
in-xiz-naw-id-e-san-á-'
NEG-laugh-CAUS-PAST-3PL-3PL-REM-NEG
'they had not made them laugh'
```

In word roots, there are four main types of syllable structure, each of which forms the core for word formation patterns. The first is the consonant-vowel or open syllable sequence (CV). The sequence can occur in single, duplicate and triplicate format, as well as in a hybrid (open-plus-closed syllable) format:

CV
CVCV
CVCVCV
CVCVC
> dža! 'go!'
> gēsu 'wheat'
> dusara 'black'
> džuwir 'woman'

The vowel-consonant sequence (VC) can occur on its own, or in an extended format with an additional vowel. The consonant in the sequence can be a cluster. A more complex pattern derives an historical duplicate open syllable pattern (CVCV) with an initial vocalic derivation marker. The pattern VCCVC is reserved for the Arabic comparative/superlative template, aCCaC .

| VC | ag 'fire' |
| :--- | :--- |
| VCV | eme 'we' |
| VCCV | ašti 'there is' |
| VCVCV | ažoti 'yesterday' |
| VCCVC | Arabic akbar 'bigger' |

A further core structure involves the closed syllable CVC. It can be extended by an open syllable, by another closed sequence, or by a closed sequence with vocalic inflectional ending:

| CVC | xur 'heart' |
| :--- | :--- |
| CVCCV | šlukna 'oil' |
| CVCCVC | pandžan 'they' |
| CVC(C)VCV | bizzota 'poor' |

Finally, a core syllable can begin in a consonant cluster, and can be either open (CCV) or closed (CCVC). Extension of the pattern is common with an inflectional vowel ending. Other patterns are typical of European loanwords, whereas the extension in protkilliya 'Jewish woman' is rare.

| CCV | ple 'money' |
| :--- | :--- |
| CCVC | drak' 'grape' |
| CCVCV | bkara 'hungry' |
| CCVCVC | spital 'hospital' |
| CCVCCVC | trombil'car' |
| CCVCCVCVCV | protkilliya 'Jewish woman' |

As these various syllable patterns show, word-final consonant clusters are rare and tend to be avoided, while word-internal clusters at syllable boundaries, such as ašti 'there is' and sukna 'oil', are quite common and do not seem to pose any obstacles to natural word-formation in the language. Onset clusters are varied, too, but there seem to be some constraints on possible combinations. Tables $4-5$ show attested onset consonant clusters. Some occur only in direct loans from Arabic. Others occur in verbal roots of Arabic etymology, which Domari derives by extracting the Arabic triconsonantal root in the template CCiC or CCuC (wlid- 'to be born', ftuh- 'to open', s'il- 'to ask', štrī- 'to buy', and so on).

Table 4. Word-initial clusters: stops and nasals

| Voiceless stop $+C$ |  | Voiced stop $+C$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [pl] | ple 'money' | [bk] | bkara 'hungry' |
| [pr] | prana 'white' | [bl] | Arabic blăd'country' |
| [pj] | pyami 'I drink' | [br] | brari 'cat' |
|  |  | [bj] | byari 'he/she fears' |
| [tm] | tmali'soldier' | [db] | Arabic $d$ binh 'slaughtered animal' |
| [tr] | trombil 'car' | [dr] | drak 'grape' |
| [tf] | tfang 'gun' | [df] | dfinkede 'they buried' |
| [th] | thimkeda 'he accused' | [ $\mathrm{d}^{\text {j }}$ ] | Arabic $d y \bar{u} \mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ 'guests' |
| [ $\mathrm{t}^{\text {² }}$ ] | thinn 'tahin' |  |  |
| [tw] | twadžidre 'they were found' |  |  |
| [kt] | Ktir' ${ }^{\text {c }}$ Christian' | [gr] | grēfkari' 'he/she sings' |

Table 4 (cont.) Word-initial clusters: stops and nasals

| Voiceless stop $+C$ | Voiced stop $+C$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [kn] knami'I buy' | [gh] | ghāy'good' |
| [kl] klami'I wake up' |  |  |
| [kr] krenn'where' | [qn] | qnawida 'he fed' |
| [kw] Kwira 'it burned' | [qr] | qrare 'Bedouins' |
| [kj] kyos 'his eye' | [q1] | Arabic qlăm 'pencils' |
| Nasal + C |  |  |
| [ml] Arabic mhük 'kings' |  |  |
| [mf] mfalla 'crazy' |  |  |
| [mh] mhom'my face' |  |  |
| [mw] Arabic mwazzaf'clerk' |  |  |
| [nh] nhe' 'there isn't' |  |  |

Table 5. Word-initial clusters: fricatives and semi-vowels

| Voiceless fricative + C |  | Voiced fricative or semi-vowe $1+C$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| [ft] | ftuhikeda 'he conquered' | [w] | wlidahra 'he was born' |
| [fl] | Arabic flan 'somebody, anonymous' | [ws ${ }^{\text { }}$ ] | wşulahra 'he arrived' |
| [fh] | fhimkedom 'I understood' |  |  |
| [sp] | spital'hospital' | [zl] | Arabic zlām 'men' |
| [st] | stannhōšǐl 'wait!' | [zr] | zraSkede 'they sowed' |
| [sk] | skunomi'I live' | [zh] | zhixrom 'I was bored' |
| [sb] | sbuqkeda 'he preceded' |  |  |
| [sn] | snami'I hear' |  |  |
| [sl] | slïm (family name) |  |  |
| [ $\mathrm{s}^{\text {r }}$ ] | șsrifkeda 'he exchanged money' |  |  |
| [ $\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathrm{h}$ ] | Arabic ș̣hab ' 'friends' |  |  |
| [s?] | s'ilkedom 'I asked' |  |  |
| [sw] | Arabic swēq 'markets' |  |  |
| [ 5 t ] | stirda 'he stood' | [3b] | žbom'my tongue' |
| [Sm] | šmari'chicken' | [3m] | žmiSkeda 'he collected' |
| [S1] | šlixkedom 'I undressed' |  |  |
| [Str] | strikeda 'he bought' |  |  |
| [ $\mathrm{xt}^{\text {i }}$ ] | xțubkeda 'he got engaged' | [ $\mathrm{\gamma r}$ ] | Arabic $y^{\text {räb }}$ 'raven' |
| [xb] | xbutkeda 'he hit' |  |  |
| [xm] | Arabic xmur'alcohol' |  |  |
| [x1] | xlawida 'he removed' |  |  |
| [xr] | xrom 'my heart' |  |  |
| [hn] | hnōn'here' | [ hk ] | hkumkeda 'he ruled' |
| [hr] | hra 'it became' | [ hl ] | hlaqkeda 'he shaved' |
|  |  | [hs] | hsän 'horse' |

Favourite onset combinations involve the sonorants [r] and [l] and the fricative [f] in second position, while no onset clusters show [tf], [d3], [r], [1], or [j] in the first position. The widest range of onset clusters is led by the sibilants [ s ]. More unusual is perhaps the appearance of several initial clusters where [ h ], a particularly energy-intensive sound, figures in the second position in the cluster.

The presence of a wide range of onset clusters is offset by a tendency to shift from a syllable pattern $\mathrm{CCV}(\mathrm{C})$ toward $\mathrm{VCCV}(\mathrm{C})$ (ple > iple 'money', ktir $>$ iktir 'Christian') attested in the form of a widespread insertion of epenthetic vowels before the onset position. This is well in line with similar tendencies in the neighbouring languages of the region - not just Arabic, but also Kurdish, Turkish, and Persian, though the Domari epenthetic vowel is invariably inserted before the cluster, rather than within it (as in Turkish gurup 'group' etc.):

| ['to:misi'ple] | tomis ple 'I gave him money' |
| :---: | :---: |
| [gifi'ple:m] | giš plēm 'all my money' |
| [Itmali'je xal nık'fi:] | tmaliye xal: nikšĭ! 'the soldiers said: enter!' |
| ['Rekakık'ti:ri] | ekak Ktīri'a Christian person' |
| [?a'marbka'ræhromi] | ama bkarahromi 'I am hungry' |
| [?ıt'mei'd ${ }^{\text {j }}$ ju:fah'resi] | itme dyūfahresi 'you are guests' |
| [hes ${ }^{\text {a }}$ isis' ${ }^{\text {nami] }}$ | hespas snami 'now I hear' |
| [Ikna'wirsi] | knawirsi' 'it hurts her' |

A somewhat contradictory trend is attested in word roots with the syllable pattern CVC(VC). Here we find a fully conventionalised, phonological rule that supports a limitation on the overall number of syllables within a word amidst fluctuation in the number of inflectional morphemes attached to the root. This results in the reduction of root syllables. In the following examples, a bisyllabic structure is maintained in the word despite the addition of a bisyllabic person and tense ending to a verbal root, by reducing the verbal root to an onset cluster in the position that precedes the stress-carrying syllable:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { snámi } & \text { 'I hear' }(*<\text { sun-ámi), cf. sun-dom 'I heard' } \\
\text { knámi } & \text { 'I sell' }\left({ }^{*}<\right.\text { kun-ámi), cf. kun-dom 'I sold' }
\end{array}
$$

In nominal paradigms, the addition of direct object (independent oblique) case marking as a stressed syllable triggers reduction of the preceding syllable:
manús
laherdom mans-ás
gēsu
pardom gēswás

```
'person'
'I saw the person' (* manus-ás)
'wheat'
'I took the wheat' (*gēsl-ás)
```

With feminine nouns ending in $-i$, the transition from vowel to glide may still have residual syllabic properties:
[ku'ri:]
[kurr'ja], [kur'ja]
kuri 'house’
kuriya, kurya 'house' (direct object)
The rule of maintaining stress position and number of syllables also triggers re-syllabification when consonantal object person endings on verbs co-occur with external tense markers $-i$ (progressive) and $-a$ (remote). In the subjunctive and simple past, where such tense affixes are absent, a vowel appears between the preceding inflectional ending (representing the subject) and the object marker:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { laha- } m^{‘} \text { (that) I see' (subjunctive) } & \text { laha-m-ir'(that) I see you' } \\
\text { lahado-m 'I saw' } & \text { lahado-m-ir'I saw you' }
\end{array}
$$

When external tense markers are present, i.e. in the present indicative, in the perfect, and in the pluperfect, pronominal object clitics lose their independent syllable status and are incorporated into the syllable of the tense marker:
> laha-m-i 'I see'
> lahado-m-i 'I have seen'
> lahado-m-a 'I had seen'
> laha-m-r-i'I see you'
> lahado-m-r-i'I have seen you'
> lahado-m-r-a 'I had seen you'

### 2.5. Prosody and stress

Word-level stress usually falls on the final syllable of lexical words that lack inflectional segments: ūyár 'town', bará 'outside', ehé 'these'. Some grammatical function words and adverbs are exceptions: húndar 'there', xudžóti 'yesterday', pándžan 'they', táran 'three'. In inflected words, stress accompanies stress-carrying inflectional segments. These include the following: nominal gender/number markers ( šōn-á/sōn-é ‘boy/boys'), Layer I case inflection markers (see below; dōm/dōm-ás 'Dom.NOM/ACC.'), possessive personal markers on the noun (boy-óm 'my father'), person inflection in prepositions (atni-r 'about you'), subject concord markers on the verb (lahed-óm 'I saw'), and the postposed synthetic negation marker on the verb (inmangam-é' 'I don't like'). Unstressed grammatical markers are Layer II case markers ( ūyár-ma 'in the town'), tense markers (see below; lahedóm-a 'I had seen'), and object person markers (lahedóm-ir 'I saw you'). Most of these patterns strongly resemble those found in the more conservative dialects
of Romani. The most noticeable difference between the two languages is the treatment of recent loan nouns. In Romani, European-origin nouns usually maintain their original non-ultimate stress in nominative forms. In Domari, Arabic nouns are adapted to ultimate accentuation patterns: baladiyyá 'municipality' < Arabic baladíyya. Exceptions are proper nouns, which retain their original stress in the nominative form - áhmad - but adapt in inflected forms - aḥmadás (ACC.).

### 2.6. Historical phonology

Domari shares a number of unique features in the development of its historical phonology with Romani, a fact that had added to speculation about the relationship between the two languages, both of which already stand out as Indo-Aryan diaspora languages of socially isolated communities outside of India (see Chapter 1). We owe much to Turner (1926) who illuminated stages in the development especially of Romani by taking into consideration historical layers in the developments of sounds, beginning with the earliest transition period from Old to Middle Indo-Aryan in the first half of the first millennium CE, through the emergence of late Middle Indo-Aryan and on to the development of the modern languages in early medieval times. Turner's conclusion for Romani had been that an ancient layer of changes was shared specifically with the Central Indian group of languages, which includes Hindi and Gujarati. A number of conservative traits are preserved in Romani, however, which testify to a break away from the Central group and the reach of its innovations, and to a period of settlement in the Northwest, which was left unaffected by them. From Turner's work grew the prevailing assumption in Romani linguistics that attributes to the early history of the Roma a migration from the Central regions into the Northwest, sometime in the first half of the first millennium, and subsequent migration from there westwards.

Much of this scenario can be directly adopted for Domari, too (see Chapter 1.4). Like Romani, Domari shares a number of ancient innovations with the Central languages of Indo-Aryan, most notably the realisation of Old IndoAryan syllabic $r$ as $u$ or $i$ (OIA ş́rn-, Domari sun-/sin-' 'to hear'; Hindi sun-, Romani šm-), the simplification of $k s$ - to $k(h)$ (OIA akși, MIA akkhi, Domari $i k k^{~ ' e y e ' ; ~ H i n d i ~} \tilde{\tilde{a} k}$, Romani (j)akh), and the shift from initial $y$ - to $d \check{z}$ - (OIA ya-, Domari dža- 'go'; Hindi dža-, Romani dža-). Along with other Central Indian languages such as Hindi, both Domari and Romani share the simplification of OIA initial and medial consonant clusters, first through gemination in MIA and later to simple consonants in the transition to NIA:

Table 6. Simplification of OIA initial and medial consonant clusters

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples <br>  <br>  |  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Romani | Domari | Gloss |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| pt | $>$ | t | taptáh | tatta | tātā | tato | tata | 'hot' |
| sth | $>$ | t | sthūla | thulla |  | thulo | tilla | 'big' |
| rp | $>$ | p | sarpa | sappa | sã̃p | sap | sap | 'snake' |

By contrast, both Domari and Romani retain medial and initial consonant clusters that have been lost in the Central languages already during the transition period to MIA:

Table 7. Retention of OIA initial and medial consonant clusters lost in MIA

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MA |  |  |  |  |
| sțh | > | št | osțtha | ottha | oth | uš̌t | ošt | 'lip' |
| tr | > | tar | triṇi | tiṇni | tin | trin | taran | 'three' |
| $\mathrm{rl}^{\text {t }}$ | $>$ | ard | krta | kada | kìā | kerdo | karda | 'done' |
| dr | > | dr | drâksa | dakkhā | $d \bar{k} k h$ | drakh | drak | 'grape' |
| st | $>$ | st | hasta | hattha | $h a ̈ t h$ | v -ast | xast | 'arm' |

Domari, like Romani, thus preserves an ancient, Old Indo-Aryan legacy while at the same time adhering to some of the common patterns that characterise the emergence of New Indo-Aryan well into the second half of the first millennium. This unique position can be explained on the basis of Turner's scenario of an early migration out of the Central areas and resettlement in the Northwest, and a migration out of the Indian sub-continent not before the ninth or tenth century CE.

In the context of its separation from Indo-Aryan, Domari undergoes several significant changes to its phonological structure (see Table 18). Vowel length is usually lost, and although present-day Domari does show vowel length opposition it is extremely difficult to draw any direct connections between the presence of length in a contemporary word and its cognate in older forms of Indo-Aryan. One of the few words for which such a correspondence can be established is in fact the group name, döm (OIA dömba). Even here, however, the similarity could be coincidental. Otherwise, vowel quality is generally continued, save for a lowering of historical $\bar{a}$ in positions preceding labial fricatives (OIA dhāv-, Romani thov-, Domari dow- 'to wash').

The principal changes in the inventory of sounds that Domari inherits are in the consonant inventory and its distribution. Domari shows the impact of many of the consonant losses, shifts, and simplifications that characterise the MIA period:

Table 8. Consonants continuing MIA simplifications

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples <br> OIA | MIA | Domari | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bh | $>$ | b | bhagini | bahini | ben | 'sister' |
| p | $>$ | w | appaya- | $\bar{a} V-$ | aw- | 'to come' |
| kh | $>$ | h | mukha | muha | muh | 'face' |
| sm | $>$ | m | asman | amhe | eme | 'we' |

On the other hand, like Romani, Domari is conservative in retaining consonantal segments that continue the OIA/MIA medial dental stops $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$, which are lost in many of the sub-continental languages. In Domari they are represented as $/ \mathrm{r} /$ :

Table 9. Medial dental stops

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples <br>  |  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | Romani | Domari | Gloss |  |  |  |  |
| t | $>$ | r | gatáh | gada | gayā | gelo | gara | 'gone' |
| d | $>$ | r | hrdayam | hiaya |  | ilo | xur | 'heart' |

A distinctive feature of the two diasporic Indo-Aryan languages, Romani and Domari, is the loss of retroflex consonants. In Domari they are usually replaced by dental stops:

Table 10. Loss of retroflex

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | MIA |  |  |  |  |
| ț | $>$ | t | atta |  | ata | ařo | ata | 'flour' |
| dạh | $>$ | d | *Vrddhah | vuḍ̣ha | budha | phuro | wuda | 'old man' |

Sometimes segments that continue the historical retroflex sounds appear in Domari as pharyngealised stops, but it is not possible to ascertain whether this is a coincidence or whether pharyngealisation, which appears to have been acquired through contact with Arabic, entered the language while retroflexes still had a distinct pronunciation, retroflex or other:

Table 11. Realisation of historical retroflex as pharyngealised stop

| OIA | Domari | Examples <br>  <br> OIA | MIA | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| t | $>$ | $\mathrm{t}\left[\mathrm{t}^{\uparrow}\right]$ | vata <br> pet | vada <br> petta | pet | bar | peř |

The historical retroflex cluster $/ \mathrm{n} d ̣ /$ is simplified in Domari to $/ \mathrm{n} /$ :
Table 12. Simplification of $/ \mathrm{n}$ / $/$ to $/ \mathrm{n} /$

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| ṇ̣ | > | n | anḍa <br> manda | anda <br> manda | anḍā | anřo <br> maň̌o | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ana } \\ & \text { mana } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'egg' } \\ & \text { 'bread' } \end{aligned}$ |

In the particular case of the cluster /dḍ/ we find a trill /r/ as successor:
Table 13. /ḍ̣/ to /r/

| OIA | Domari | Examples |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |  |
| ḍd | $>$ | r | hadda | hadda | hār | heroj | xar | 'bone' |

A further typical feature of Indo-Aryan (and wide parts of Indo-Iranian), distinctive aspiration, is also lost in Domari (but retained in Romani):

Table 14. Loss of aspiration

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| kh | > | q | khād- | khāi | kha- | xa- | qa- | 'to eat' |
| bh | > | b | bhagini | bahinin | behen | phen | ben | 'sister' |
| dh | $>$ | d | $d h \bar{a} v-$ | $d h a ̄ v-$ | dho- | thov- | dow- | 'to wash' |
| gh | $>$ | g | ghoti- | ghoda | ghorā |  | gori | 'horse' |

A small number of additional changes to the inherited stock of sounds and sound distribution lend Domari its present-day position within Indo-Aryan. First is the shift of initial and medial $/ \mathrm{v} /$ to $/ \mathrm{w} /$ :

Table 15. Initial and medial $/ \mathrm{v} /$ to $/ \mathrm{w} /$

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MIA |  |  |  |  |
| v | > | w | varṣa | varisa | baras | berš | wars | 'year' |
|  |  |  | nava |  | naya | nevo | nawa | 'new' |
|  |  |  | yuvatih |  |  | džuvel | džuwir | 'woman' |
|  |  |  | -Vis- | vis- | baith | bēš- | wis- | 'sit' |

All OIA voiceless sibilants converge in Domari in $/ \mathrm{s} /$ :

Table 16. Convergence of OIA voiceless sibilants to /s/

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MIA |  |  |  |  |
| s | $>$ | s | sarpa | sappa | sã̃p | sap | sap | 'snake' |
| s | $>$ | s | Siras | siru | sir | šero | siri | 'head' |
| S. | $>$ | s | manusa | manusā | mānus | manuš | manus | 'person' |

Finally, inherited $/ \mathrm{h} /$ becomes $/ \mathrm{x}$ /:
Table 17. OIA $/ \mathrm{h} />/ \mathrm{x} /$

| OIA |  | Domari | Examples |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | OIA | MIA | Hindi | Romani | Domari | Gloss |
| h | $>$ | x | hasta | hattha | hāth | v-ast | xast | 'arm' |

In addition to the re-structuring of the inherited sound system, there are several developments in the Domari sound system that might be attributed to the period following emigration from the Indian sub-continent and the influence of contact languages. The phonemes $/ \mathrm{f} / \mathrm{/} / \mathrm{z} /, / \mathrm{q} /$ and $/ \mathrm{y} /$ seem to have entered the language along with loanwords from Persian, Kurdish and later Turkish. The first, /f/, is quite rare in the pre-Arabic component, the root f-/fumn- 'to hit', fayiš 'fight' being an isolated exception. The oldest lexical items in which $/ \mathrm{z} /$ is attested are equally Iranian loans such as Persian-derived zard 'gold, coin' and Kurdish-derived zara 'boy', zari 'mouth'

The distribution of /q/ in Domari is quite remarkable. The citation particle for indirect speech, /qal/, from Arabic $q \bar{a} I$ 'he said', seems to be one of the earliest Arabic loans, as indicated by its grammaticalisation far beyond its original meaning in Arabic. Oddly, it is pronounced alternately as /gal/ as well as $/ \mathrm{xal} /$. The first, /gal/, is typical of Bedouin dialects but also of Mesopotamian and Gulf Arabic. The fricative pronunciation seems to be unattested in Arabic. At any rate, the fluctuation in the pronunciation of /qal/ suggests that earliest contacts with Arabic may well have been with a dialect in which historical Arabic $/ \mathrm{q} /$ is realised as $/ \mathrm{g} /$, and not $/ \mathrm{q} /$. The occasional interchangeability in Domari of / $q /$ and $/ \mathrm{x} /$ (e.g. qoldom/xoldom 'I opened') points to a link with Persian, where there remains variation along the spectrum $/ q-\overline{-}-x-\chi /$. But in Domari uvular /q/ sometimes interchanges with $/ \mathrm{k} /$, as in qapi/kapi (Turkish kapi), and it generally replaces historical segments of aspirated $/ \mathrm{kh} /$, as in $q a r$ 'donkey', $q$ - 'to eat'. It also alternates quite frequently with historical $/ \mathrm{k} /$, as in qala 'black'. This generalisation of the uvular to cover velar sounds is reminiscent of eastern Anatolian, Mesopotamian and Caucasian varieties of Turkish (Azeri), and may have been acquired in contact with one of those languages. The phoneme $/ \mathrm{\gamma} /$ appears to have entered the
language with Turkic and Iranian vocabulary such as bīY 'moustache' and yeyer 'horse', and is still rarely found outside the Arabic vocabulary.

Domari maintains a phoneme /ss/, which however continues in Indo-Aryan material only within the cluster /štt: missta 'ill', štirdom 'I stood', asti 'there is' Its distribution is extended as new words enter the language from Kurdish (saał 'well', gišt 'all') and Arabic (šubbāk 'window', štri- 'to buy'), and more recently as a result of ongoing de-affrication of / $\check{c} /$ ( $\check{s} m a r i ~<~ c ̌ c m a r i ~ ' c h i c k e n ', ~$ lās $s i$ < lăčic 'girl'). Its voiced counterpart /ž/ is a recent acquisition in the language, arising from ongoing de-affrication of historical [dž]. Finally, Domari, much like many dialects of Kurdish, has adopted Arabic pharyngeals in Arabic loanwords. There is no evidence in Domari to suggest the spread of pharyngeal phonemes into the pre-Arabic component, substituting for others, but we can observe a process of ongoing and seemingly random pharyngealisation of dental consonants, which we can trace in all likelihood to this recent Arabic influence (see above).

Table 18. The representation of Old Indo-Aryan sounds in Domari

| OIA | Domari | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| áh | a | OIA taptăh, Hindi tātā, Romani tato, Domari tata 'hot' |
| a | a | OIA nava, Romani nevo, Domari nawa 'new' |
|  | i | through assimilation: OIA akșiMIA akkhiDomari iki 'eye' |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | a | OIA $\bar{a} p a y a-$, MIA $\bar{a} v$-, Romani $a v$-, Domari aw- 'to come' |
|  | 0 | preceding labials: OIA $d h \bar{a} v$-, Romani $t h o v$-, Domari $d o w-$ 'to wash' |
| e | e | OIA pet, Romani peř, Domari pet 'belly' |
| $\overline{\text { e }}$ | e | OIA êka, Romani jekh, Domari ek 'one' |
| i | i | OIA siras, MIA siru, Hindi sir, Romani šero, Domari siri'head' |
| İ | i | OIA sita, MIA sita, Romani šil, Domari silda 'cold' |
| o | $\bigcirc$ | OIA gona, Domari goni 'sack' |
| $\overline{0}$ | ō | OIA $\dagger \overline{l o m b a, ~ D o m a r i ~} d \bar{o} m$ 'member of the Dom caste' |
| u | u | OIA kssurikā, MIA churi, Romani čuri, Domari čuri 'knife' |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | u | OIA mūtra, MIA mutta, Romani mutr, Domari mutur 'urine' |
| r | $\varnothing$ | OIA mrta, MIA muda, Hindi muă, Romani mulo, Domari mra 'dead' |
|  | 1 | OIA ghrta, Hindi ghi, Romani khil, Domari gir 'butter' |
|  | u | OIA hrdayam, Romani ilo, Domari xur 'heart' |
| ${ }^{\text {rt }}$ | ard | OIA krta, MIA kada, Hindi kiyā, Romani kerdo, Domari karda 'done' |
| p | p | OIA pānīya, MIA pāṇiya, Hindi pāni, Romani pani, Domari pani 'water' |
|  | w |  |
| t | t | OIA taruna, Romani terno, Domari tarna 'young' |
|  | r | OIA gatáh, Hindi gayā Romani gelo, Domari gara 'gone' |
| k | k/q | OIA kāla, Hindi kāla, Romani kalo, Domari kala/qala 'black' |
| b | b | OIA bahis, MIA vāhira, Romani avri, Domari bara 'out' |
| d | d | OIA divasa, MIA divasa, Romani dives, Domari dis 'day' |
|  | r | OIA hrdayam, Romani ilo, Domari xur 'heart' |

Table 18 (cont.) The representation of Old Indo-Aryan sounds in Domari

| OIA | Domari | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| g | g | OIA gandha, Romani khand-, Domari gan- 'stink' |
|  | $\varnothing$ | OIA bhagini, MIA bahinī, Hindi behen, Romani phen, Domari ben 'sister' |
| kh | q | OIA $k h \bar{a} d$-, MIA $k h \bar{a} \dot{u}$, Hindi $k h a-$, Romani $x a$-, Domari qa- 'to eat' |
|  | h | OIA mukha, MIA muha, Romani muj, Domari muh 'face' |
| bh | b | OIA bhagini, MIA bahini, Hindi behen, Romani phen, Domari ben 'sister' |
| dh | d | OIA dhāv-, Hindi dho-, Romani thov-, Domari dow- 'to wash' |
| gh | g | OIA ghotiz-, Hindi ghoda, Domari gori 'horse' |
| t | t | OIA vata, MIA vada, Romani bar, Domari wat'stone' |
| d | d | OIA $\grave{\text { öm }}$, Romani řom, Lomavren Iom, Domari dōm'member of the Dom caste/man' |
| da | r | OIA hadda, Hindi haddij, Romani heroj, Domari xar 'bone' |
| tt | t | OIA atta, Hindi ata, Romani ařo, Domari ata 'flour' |
| ḍḍh | d | OIA * Vrddhah, MIA vuddha, Romani phuřo, Domari wuda 'old man' |
| c | š | OIA catvari, Hindi cār, Romani štar, Domari štar-'four' |
| ch | č | OIA chin-, Romani cinn-, Domari čin- 'to cut' |
| jj | dž | OIA lajjā, Romani ladž-, Domari ladž'shame' |
| v | w | OIA varşa MIA varisa, Hindi baras, Romani berš, Domari wars 'year' |
|  | $\varnothing$ | OIA lavana, MIA lona, Domari lon 'salt' |
| h | x | OIA hasta, MIA hattha, Hindi häth, Romani v-ast, Domari xast 'arm' |
| m | m | OIA manuṣa, MIA maṇusā, Hindi mānus, Romani manuš, Domari manus 'person' |
| n | n | OIA nava, Romani nevo, Domari nawa 'new' |
| ṇ | n | OIA gona, Romani gono, Domari goni'sack' |
| r | r | OIA siras, MA siru, Hindi sir, Romani š̌ro, Domari siri 'head' |
| 1 | 1 | OIA lajjă, Domari ladž'shame' |
| y | dž | OIA yuvatịh, Romani džuvel, Domari džuwir 'woman' |
| s | S | OIA sarpa, Hindi sã̃p, Romani sap, Domari sap 'snake’ |
| s | s | OIA siras, MA siru, Hindi sir, Romani šero, Domari siri 'head' |
| s | s | OIA manuṣa, MIA maṇusā, Hindi mānus, Romani manuš, Domari manus 'person' |
| tr | tar | OIA triṇi, MIA timpi, Hindi tin, Romani trin, Domari taran 'three' |
| dr | dr | OIA drāksa, Hindi dākh, Romani drakh, Domari drak 'grape' |
| bhr | b | OIA bhrātr-, MIA bhāda, Hindi bhāi, Romani phral, Domari bar 'brother' |
| nd | n | OIA gandha, Romani khand-, Domari gan- 'stink' |
| nt | nd | OIA danta, Hindi dã̃t, Romani dand, Domari dand'tooth' |
| nc | ndž | OIA pancan, Hindi pã̃), Romani pandž, Domari pandž'five' |
| pt | t | OIA taptăh, Hindi tāta, Romani tato, Domari tata 'hot' |
| gn | g | OIA agni, Hindi āg, Romani jag, Domari ag 'fire' |
| sm | m | OIA asman, MIA amhe, Hindi ham, Romani ame, Domari eme 'we' |
| st | st | OIA hasta, MIA hattha, Hindi hāth, Romani v-ast, Domari xast 'arm' |
| sth | t | OIA sthūla, MIA thulla, Romani thulo, Domari tilla 'big' |

Table 18 (cont.) The representation of Old Indo-Aryan sounds in Domari

| OIA | Domari | Example |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rp | p | OIA sarpa, MIA sappa, Hindi sẫp, Romani sap, Domari sap 'snake' |
| rn | n | OIA karna, Hindi kān, Romani kan, Domari kan 'ear' |
| ks | k | OIA akssi, MIA akkhi, Hindi $\tilde{\tilde{a} k}$, Romani jakh, Domari iki'eye' |
|  | č | OIA kşurikā, MIA churỉ, Romani cuuri, Domari čuri 'knife' |
| sṭh | št | OIA osttha, MIA ottha, Hindi oth, Romani ušt, Domari ošt 'lip' |
| $\xrightarrow{\text { ņd }}$ | n | OIA aṇ̣a, Hindi anḍā, Romani anřo, Domari ana 'egg' |

In many ways, the present profile of Domari phonology reflects the language's areal position. Its phoneme inventory is characterised by the presence of a more or less symmetrical contrast of front and back and high and low vowels, with considerable volatility among neighbouring positions and a tendency toward back-front alternation: [u]-[i], [u]-[ I$]$, $[\mathrm{u}]-[\mathrm{i}]$. It is further characterised by the presence of a uvular stop, the distinctive use of glottals including [ h ] in coda position, and the presence of pharyngeal consonants and pharyngealisation of dentals. All these are fairly typical not just of Arabic but to a considerable extent also of Kurdish and Neo-Aramaic and to some extent of other languages of the region such as Persian and Azeri. The structure of syllables and the insertion of epenthetic vowels to break clusters in onset position is yet another regional trait, as is, albeit with more limited distribution, the presence of distinctive consonant gemination.

## Chapter 3

## Parts of speech and grammatical inflection

### 3.1. Semantic-pragmatic classification criteria

A theoretical approach that sees language structures as anchored in the pragmatics of communicative interaction might assume the position that parts of speech are natural categorisations of the way language-processing functions are mapped onto groups of structures. Pursuant of such a view, one is tempted to search for the semantic-pragmatic motivation behind sub-categories of linguistic structure. Such categorisation can be found in models such as Functional Pragmatics (Ehlich 2007, Ehlich and Rehbein 1986), which distinguish parts of speech on the basis of language-processing tasks that are triggered by linguistic expressions and on the basis of the functional 'fields' in which they operate. Their classification includes 'labels' (content-lexemes) that name objects, 'deixis' which focuses attention on object, 'operational procedures' which create links between propositional units, and so on. One of the problems with attempts at such consistent, function-based categorisations is that we tend to lose the link between the function, its word class potential (i.e. its ability to combine with other words) and its structural configuration potential (i.e. its inflectional potential). For instance, the crucial distinction between nouns and verbs is lost if the focus is placed on their lexical potential as 'labels' of topical entities and events and actions.

An alternative is to view parts of speech as accommodated on a continuum between the depiction of topical entities and that of events. This would give a cline ranging from nominal entities via referential devices to attributive structures or modifiers such as adjectives and quantifiers and on to the depiction of modality and actual events through verbs. Adjoining points on this continuum would be, for instance, the use of adjectives to denote topical referential entities (as in tilla 'the big one = the king'), on the one hand, and to depict the result of a process or event (as in mišta 'ill'), on the other. Various nominal sub-classes could be defined on the basis of their potential to express topicality and referential precision. Thus personal and demonstrative pronouns would figure close to nouns, though their referential content is not inherent but contextually dependent; indefinite expressions and interrogatives may represent topical entities, but their semantic specification is vague and is
merely outlined through a broad ontological categorisation (person, place, and so on).

### 3.2. Inflectional classification criteria

A more practical procedure, in line with the agenda of providing a descriptive account of the language and its structures, is to follow natural indicators of parts of speech in the way that the language assigns inflectional potential to different types of words. As an inflectional language, Domari shows a closed group of stable inflectional paradigms. They include the following:
(a) Gender and number marking, via the inflectional endings -a (masculine), $-i$ (feminine), and $-e$ (plural), in the inflected nominative, as well as $-a s$ and $-\bar{i}$ (masculine), $-a$ and $-\bar{e}$ (feminine), and -an(plural), in the oblique;
(b) Layer I case, in the form of the above distinction between nominative and oblique inflection markers on nouns, or in the form of the distinction between nominative aha/ihi/ehe and oblique eras/era/eran in demonstratives; or in the distinction between -os and -is- etc. in the possessive affix; or other similar distinctions in some interrogative and indefinites;
(c) Layer II case inflections, indicating semantic specifications to thematic roles: benefactive $-k e$, sociative/comitative -san, locative $-m a$, ablative and prepositional -ki, dative $-t a-k a$.
(d) Person inflection, within which there are three separate sets. The first is the set of present-tense subject concord markers: 1SG -am, 2SG $-\overline{c k}$, 3SG -ar, 1PL -an, 2PL -as, 3Pl -a(n)d The two others derive historically from object pronouns. The first of those serves as the set of subject concord markers with past-tense verbs: 1SG -om, 2 SG -or, 3SG $-a-i$ and $-o s$-, 1PL -en, 2PL -es, 3Pl -e. The third set serves as markers of possessors (attached to nouns) as well as object pronouns (attached to verbs): 1SG -om, 2SG -or, 3SG -os, 1PL -oman, 2PL -oran, 3Pl -osan. This set is sensitive to Layer I case, showing alternation in the vowel component between -o-(nominative) and $-i$ (oblique).
(e) Tense, aspect and modality markers, consisting of the following: The marker of the past (perfective) stem, usually $-d$ - or $-r$ - (sometimes accompanied by extensions), which attaches to the verbal lexical stem; markers of progressive ( $-i$ ) and remoteness ( $-a$ ) tense, which
attach to the final segment of the verb expression; and the marker of subjunctive ( $-\check{c}$ - with some verb stems only).
(f) The marker of indefiniteness $-a k$, and the marking of definiteness through various means, including the suffix $-n$ - in numerals.
(g) Non-verbal predication markers of the third person, which accompany non-finite predicates: the singular vocalic endings $-i k$ (following $-i$ ) and $-\bar{e} k$ (following $-a$ ), singular consonantal $-i$, and plural -ēni.

There are, of course, certain semantic correlates that accompany the distribution of inflectional paradigms. Gender and number relate to the classification of identifiable actors and objects to which reference is made. Case marking reflects the ability of conceptual entities depicted through words to take on thematic roles within propositions. Person inflection indicates a relation between words and the participants in the interaction as well as absentee topical entities (third persons), and as such compensates for the absence of an inherent deixis/anaphoric reading of the linguistic expression concerned. Indefiniteness is the relationship between the entity and contextual or situative knowledge. Tense, aspect and modality relate to the positioning of events and actions in the perspective of the speech situation. And non-verbal predications relate to the conceptualisation of a relation between entities that together constitute the core of a propositional unit. Thus, inflectional paradigms encode a kind of functional division of labour among different categories of words.

Domari parts of speech differ in their potential to be assigned one or more inflectional paradigms, as well as in their juxtaposition and serialisation potential (their potential to combine with one another) and their potential to represent different kinds of conceptual entities and language-processing tasks. On this basis of inflectional potential, distribution potential, and pragmatic referential function we can identify the following parts of speech: Verbs describe activities and processes, and take tense-aspect affixes and obligatory person inflection. Nouns describe stable entities, and take case inflection (which is sensitive to class, incorporating gender and number), indefiniteness marking, as well as person inflection indicating possession. Pronouns (including demonstratives and indefinites) refer to context-bound entities and may take case inflection, but not person inflection. Adjectives describe attributes of other entities, take agreement and potentially case inflection, but not person inflection (this latter factor distinguishes adjectives from nouns: consider tilla 'big', but till-osan 'their chief/king', lit. 'their big one') while numerals may take definiteness marking. Prepositions and location adverbs may either accompany nouns without inflection, or take person inflection. In
some cases，they can serve as carriers of the non－verbal predication．Elements that carry no inflection at all can be referred to collectively as particles，though they differ considerably in their distribution and referential potential，which justifies the identification of sub－sets such as quantifiers，conjunctions，focus particles，discourse markers，and so on．Of the various criteria named above， inflectional potential offers the most differentiated and least interpretative basis on which to distinguish between parts of speech（see Table 19）．

Table 19．Inflectional potential of parts of speech

|  |  |  |  | 苞 号 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 勻 } \\ & \text { 言 } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { I⿸\zh14⿹⿺乚一匕} \\ \text { D } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{H}{E}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Noun | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Demonstrative | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Interrogative | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Indefinite | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Personal Pronoun |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Local relation expression |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |
| Adjective | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Numeral | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Gerund |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Participle |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ |
| 3SG Past－tense verb |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  |  | $\checkmark$ |
| Finite verb |  |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
| Adverb |  |  |  |  |  | $\checkmark$ |  |  |
| Particle，incl．Quantifier |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Three main clusters of expressions stand out in Table 19：The first are the nominal categories，which take Layer I and Layer II case markers．The second are verbs，which take tense，aspect and modality markers．The third are particles and quantifiers（and one might add，with few exceptions，adverbs）， which do not take any inflection at all．We can thus divide Domari parts of speech into these three major categories．Within each of those there are sub－ categories，as indicated in Table 19，each with its own，unique inflectional behaviour．

### 3.3. Nominal categories, case inflection and indefiniteness

Nominal categories can be defined on the basis of their inflectional potential as those that take case inflection (Layers I and II). On the basis of their distribution and semantics, three additional categories can be identified as nominal modifiers: Adjectives and demonstrative adjectives, numerals, and quantifiers.

The typical carriers of Layer I and II case markers are nouns:
(1) Kuri $w a \overline{s c}-\overline{1}-r-\bar{I}$
house burn-ITR-PAST-F
'The house [subject] burned down.'
(2) nig-r-or ihi kury-a
enter-PAST-2SG this.F house-OBL.F
'You entered this house [direct object].'
(3) nhe' wala ikak Kury-a-ma
is.not any one-INDEF house-OBL.M-LOC
'There is nobody in the house [indirect object].'
(4) er-a šōna
arrived.PAST-M boy
'The boy [subject] arrived.'
(5) lake-d-om šōn-as
see-PAST-1SG boy-OBL.M
'I saw the boy [direct object].'
(6) pandži šir-d-a šōn-as-ke

3SG say-PAST-M boy-OBL.M-BEN
'He said to the boy [indirect object]'
Case inflection is also found with the closed class of interrogatives:
(7) kān-ik aha?
who-PRED this.M
'Who is this?'
(8) kān-as lake-d-or?
who-OBL.M see-PAST-2SG
'Whom did you see?'
(9) kiy-ik aha
what-PRED this.M
'What is this?'

| (10) | $k \bar{e} \quad$ mang-ēk? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | what.OBL ask-2SG |
|  | 'What are you asking for?' |

Personal pronouns are a paradigm mixture, but are in principle also potential carriers of nominal case inflection, as seen in the contrast between the subject ama ' I ' and the indirect object amake 'for me' in the following:
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { (11) ama mang-am-i } & \text { mišī- } r & \text { štri-ka } \\ \text { I ask-1SG-PRG } & \text { from-2SG } & \text { buy-VTR.SUBJ.2SG } \\ \text { ama-ke mana } & & \\ \text { 1SG-BEN bread } \\ & \text { 'I am asking you to buy bread for me.' }\end{array}$
For other persons, non-nominative pronominal forms are suffixed to either verbs or local expressions, as in the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person indirect object abuske 'for/to him', and $3^{\text {rd }}$ person direct object in štardomis 'I carried her':
(12) baSd zar-es-ki
after boy-M.OBL-ABL come
läčy-ak
girl-INDEF
'After the boy he will have a girl.'

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { štar-d-om-is } & \text { pišt-im-ta }  \tag{13}\\
\text { carry-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL } & \text { back-1SG.OBL-DAT } \\
\text { 'I carried her on my back.' } &
\end{array}
$$

Direct object personal pronouns are invariably expressed by person affixes on the verb, which is why personal pronouns exceptionally do not, strictly speaking, show inflection potential for Layer I, but only for Layer II:
(14) pandZ̆i š-ird-a emin-ke

3SG say-PAST-M 1PL-BEN
'He said to us'
(15) pandži žmi $\{-k$-id-os-man

3SG collect-VTR-PAST-3SG-1PL
'He made us meet/ called us for a meeting.'
Stand-alone modifiers of nouns, such as numerals, demonstratives, and adjectives, do not inflect for case in attributive position, but they may inflect for case in referential position:
er-e din-e
come.PAST-3PL two-PL
'The two of them [subject] arrived.'
lake-d-om din-an
see-PAST-1SG two-OBL.PL
'I saw the two of them [direct object].'
ehe tāt-ēni
these villager-PRED.PL
'Those (people) [subject] are villagers.'
s'il-k-ed-om oran
ask-VTR-PAST-1SG these.OBL.PL
'I asked those (people) [direct object]'
(20) wud-ī mišta-h-r-i
old-F ill-VITR-PAST-F
'The old woman [subject] fell ill.'

```
t-om-is
give.PAST-1SG-3SG old.F-OBL.F-BEN
'I gave it to the old woman [indirect object].'
```

We have seen that the potential carriers of case inflection are also potential carriers of thematic roles: Demonstratives, adjectives, and numerals can carry thematic roles when used in referential function (aha 'this one', wudi 'the old one', dine 'the two of them'), while nouns, indefinites, personal pronouns, and interrogatives carry thematic roles inherently. Two categories that take a peripheral position within or perhaps merely alongside the cluster of nominal parts of speech are local relations expressions and gerunds. The first belong historically in all likelihood to the category of adverbs. They acquire person inflection complementing the few (first person benefactive) pronominal forms that inflect for case:

| pandži | kar-d-os-is | ama-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG do-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL | 1SG-BEN |  |
| 'He did this for my benefit/ for me.' |  |  |

(23) ama kar-d-om-is ab-us-ke I do-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL for-3SG-BEN 'I did this for his benefit/ for him.'

Some local relation expressions may also take Layer II case endings, which act as modifiers and specifiers of local orientation:
mandž-is-ma kury-a-ki
inside-3SG.OBL-LOC house-OBL.F-ABL
'inside the house'

```
čanč-is-ma \check{subbāk-ki}
near-3SG.OBL-LOC window-ABL
'near the window'
```

Domari verbs show a gerundial form that is used in co-temporal (simultaneous) constructions. It is based on the subjunctive form of the verb, which is followed by a person-possessive ending agreeing with the subject of the construction and a Layer II Ablative-Prepositional case marker, which accompanies the preposition maS 'with' The construction replicates the Arabic co-temporal construction in which ma 'with' is employed with a nominalised form of the verb:
(26) maS šū-̌̌-ši-m-ki tiknaw-ar-m-i gurg-om with sleep-SUBJ-1SG.OBL-ABL hurt-3SG-1SG-PRG neck-1SG 'While I sleep, my neck hurts.'
(27) ma§ kil-š-im-ki
with exit-SUBJ-1SG.OBL-ABL
gar-om
go.PAST-1SG
mutbax-ta pīr-om $\bar{u}$ er-om
kitchen-DAT drink-PAST-1SG and come.PAST-1SG
'As I went out I entered the kitchen and had a drink and came back.'
Despite the presence of Layer II markers on both these types of expressions, local relations expressions and gerunds can be excluded from consideration as nominal categories since their case marking is not productive but stereotypical: Local relations possessive adverbs as seen in examples (22)(25) invariably show locative marking, and gerunds as seen in (26)-(27) invariably show ablative case accompanying the preposition maS' 'with'.

There is yet another inflectional indicator for nominal categories, and that is indefiniteness. The indefinite marker $-a k$ is most common with nouns, where its appearance is grammatically productive:

| $t$-os-san | bit-ak, | gony-ak | qameh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give.PAST-3SG-3PL land-INDEF | sack-INDEF flour | and |  |
| bakar-ak |  |  |  |
| sheep-INDEF |  |  |  |
| 'He gave them a piece of land, a sack of flour, and a sheep.' |  |  |  |

Some indefinite expressions draw on $-a k$ as part of their derivational structure:
(29) laḥ-ad-a na man-ī-r-a wala kiy-ak see-PAST-M NEG stay-ITR-PAST-M no what-INDEF 'He saw that nothing remained.'

The numeral 'one' may be accompanied by the marker of indefiniteness in order to highlight singularity:

| lak-ed-om | dōmiy-ak | $i k-a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| see-PAST-1SG | Dom.F-INDEF | one-INDEF |
| 'I saw one Dom woman.' |  |  |

Lastly, with Arabic numerals, the indefiniteness marker $-a k$ is used in the citation (counting) form:
(31) xams-ak-i
five-INDEF-PRED.SG
'five' lit. 'It's a five.'

### 3.4. Verbal categories and tense-aspect-modality marking

Domari verbal stems combine a lexical root depicting an event, action, or state with either a single or a combination of tense, aspect, and modality markers. Sub-categories of the verb can be recognised in varying semantic functions and inflectional features. The finite verb is the form that can take a variety of tense, aspect and modality markers while always combining them with a person affix representing subject concord. Thus in the following, we find awadi 'they come' in the present-indicative 3PL, mnalkari 'he prevents' in the present-indicative 3 SG , xarrifhōšar in the present-subjunctive 3 SG , eror in the past-tense 2 SG , and rabbika in the imperative-subjunctive 2 SG :
(32) aw-ad-i giš min dêy-ki matee come-3PL-PRG all from village-ABL person-PL 'All these people are coming from the village.'
(33) $\bar{u} \quad s \bar{a} r \quad$ mna $-k-a r-i \quad d a y-i m$ and began.3SG.M prevent-VTR-3SG-PRG mother-1SG.OBL yaSni na xarrif-hōš-ar wāš-īm, $\bar{u} \quad m a$ PART NEG speak-SUBJ-3SG with-1SG and NEG
lahar-im.
see-3SG.SUBJ-1SG.OBL
'And he started to prevent my mother from speaking to me and from seeing me.'
(34) atu er-or
you come.PAST-2SG COMP educate-VTR-SUBJ.2SG-1SG.OBL
dža rabbi-k-a bay-ir
go.SUBJ.2SG educate-VTR-SUBJ.2SG wife-2SG.OBL
'You came to educate me, go educate your wife.'
Closely related to the finite verb are the past tense of the 3SG and the participle, both of which express gender and number agreement rather than person in the subject-concord position. The participle utilises the same form as the past tense, but is accompanied by a non-verbal predication marker. Its distribution is limited to verbs that can describe states and situations:

| $d z ̌ a w i z-a h-r-i$ | $e k-a k$ | min | $y a f-\bar{e}-k i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| marry-VITR-PAST-F | one-INDEF | from | Jaffa-OBL.F-ABL |
| 'She married somebody from Jaffa.' |  |  |  |

(36) ašti ik-ak portkīliy-ēk
there.is one-INDEF Jewish.woman-PRED.SG
wēs-r-ik ihi balakon-è-ma $\bar{u}$
sit-PAST-PRED.SG this.F balcony-OBL.F-LOC and
min-d-ik aha $\varsigma \bar{u} d-a s \quad \bar{u}$
hold-PAST-PRED.SG this.M oud-OBL.M and
dandin-k-ar-i atni-s
play-VTR-3SG-PRG on-3SG
'There is a Jewish woman sitting on the balcony holding the oud and playing for him.'

The past-tense dz̈awizahri shows feminine gender agreement with the subject, while the predication marker -ik indirectly marks gender on the participles wēsrik 'sitting' and mindik 'holding' as it joins the underlying adjectival feminine agreement marker $-i$. The past tense of the 3SG in fact converges with finite verbs whenever a pronominal object is specified, in which case subject concord marking reverts from gender/number to person/actor:

| (37) | pandŽi | lak-ed-a |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | kee-PAST-M | something |
|  | 'He saw something.' |  |

pandži lak-ed-os-ir
3SG see-PAST-3SG-2SG.OBL
'He saw you.'
Like other finite forms, the past tense of the 3SG can also show a range of combinations of tense, aspect and modality markers:
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { pandži lak-ed-os-r-i } \\ \text { 3SG } & \text { see-PAST-3SG-2SG-PRG }\end{array}$
'He has seen you.'
(40) pandži lak-ed-os-r-a

3SG see-PAST-3SG-2SG-REM
'He had seen you.'
(41) pandži kān lak-ed-os-r-a

3SG was.3SG.M see-PAST-3SG-2SG-REM
'He would have seen you.'
The participle, by contrast, is less flexible, and its only modifiable component is the predication marker that attaches to it:
(42) panď̌i mind-ird-ēk

3SG stand-PAST-PRED.SG
'He is standing.'
(43) pandži mind-ird-èy-a

3SG stand-PAST-PRED.SG-REM
'He was standing.'
Thus, unlike the finite verb, including the 3SG past, the participle consistently lacks person marking as well as potential variation in tense, aspect, and modality marking. It is static, rather than dynamic, and as such semantically closer to nouns and adjectives than to verbs. The gerund, discussed above (examples (26)-(27)), displays similar traits: it is fixed in a particular tense-aspect-modality inflection. Although the gerund admits person inflection, this person inflection is not of the type displayed by finite verbs, but rather the set of person markers that accompany nouns as possessive agreement markers and expressions of local relations as case-inflected pronouns (or person-inflected location adverbs). The gerund and the participle can therefore both be regarded as fringe, non-finite sub-categories in the cluster of verbal forms. They both represent completed states-of-affairs that are attributable to their actors, and as such their morphological behaviour resembles that of nominal attributives.

Despite the variation in inflectional behaviour and its semantic correlates, verbal categories show greater coherence than nominal categories. Verbs are modified either by other verbs, which share full inflectional potential as verbs, or else by particles, which share none of the inflectional properties of verbs. Nominal categories on the other hand include a whole range of nominal modifiers that share only some properties with actual nouns. They also include para-nominal categories, or pronouns: Nominals that lack the contentreferential meaning that nouns usually display. In the verbal category, the copula and non-verbal predication markers are the only expressions of a predication that does not have a lexical specification and so is in some ways perhaps akin to pronouns in their relation to nouns (both having thematic roles but only one having an inherent lexical content). The verbal sub-categories above - past-tense 3SG verbs, gerunds, participles, finite verbs - are thus all essentially usages of a rather coherent cluster of functions which can comfortably be defined collectively as 'verbs'.

### 3.5. Gender, number and person inflection

Domari inherits the classic Indo-European system of participant-tracking through agreement in gender, number, and person with specified or inferred actors. Participant tracking involving at least some of these classification properties is a feature of nominal modifiers and indexical expressions (demonstrative and personal pronouns), of local relations adverbs, numerals, and verbs. Gender, number, and person inflection are thus cross cutting categories that accompany different parts of speech. Nonetheless, their distribution is asymmetrical and mirrors their functionality in conjunction with the specific functions of the various parts of speech. Number (or rather: plurality) appears to be a higher-ranking category. It is indicated on nouns, adjectives, demonstratives, personal pronouns of all persons, and within the sets of affixed person markers that attach to nouns as possessive markers and to local relations expressions, as well as within those sets that indicate subject and object concord on the verb. Number distinction also appears in non-verbal predication markers. One of the outstanding traits of Domari within the IndoAryan language family, which it shares with Romani, is the neutralisation of grammatical gender in the plural, a further indication of how number overrides other inflectional categorizations (elicited examples):

| (44) aha bizzot-a | kadža |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.M poor-M |  |
| 'this poor man' |  |

(45) ihi bizzot-i džuwir
this.F poor-F woman
'this poor woman'

| ehe | bizzot-e | kadž-e |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| these.PL poor-PL | man-PL |  |
| 'these poor men' |  |  |

(47) ehe bizzot-e džuwr-e
these.PL poor-PL woman-PL
'these poor women'
Grammatical gender is an inherent property of nouns, and gender agreement with nouns is indicated in adjectives and demonstratives. In participles, underlying gender agreement is visible through the adaptation of the non-verbal predication marker to the singular gender-bearing affixes masculine $-a$ (predication marker $-\bar{e} k$ ) and feminine $-i$ (predication marker $-i k$ ). Gender is also indicated in the past-tense of finite verbs, provided no object pronominal affix is attached. If a pronominal object is specified, then subjectconcord is expressed by a gender-neutral person ending (elicited examples):


Note that gender is not indicated on third person pronouns in Domari. Gender agreement does, however, accompany a series of further categories derived from Arabic. Thus the Arabic modals and auxiliaries such as sār- 'to begin', kān- 'to be (habituality auxiliary)', dall- 'to remain (continue)', the impersonal bidd- 'to want' and more retain their Arabic inflection, which includes gender agreement:
(51) š-ird-i ama-ke bidd-hā qumn-ar say-PAST-F 1SG-BEN want-3SG.F eat-SUBJ.3SG 'She said to me that she wants to eat.'

Also marked for gender are the Arabic resumptive object pronoun iyyā- and the complementisers inn- 'that' and $l i$ 'ann- 'because'.

Person, finally, is expressed inherently in personal pronouns and is otherwise encoded in the set of person markers used to indicate possession of nouns, personal objects of location expressions, and actors/participants in finite verbs and gerunds.

### 3.6. Non-verbal predications and combinations of parts of speech

Domari predications can be verbal as well as non-verbal. The availability of non-verbal predication markers and their wide distribution among parts of speech (see Table 19) makes it possible to combine various parts of speech into phrases:

Noun-Verb:
(52) džuwri mr-i
woman die.PAST-F
'The woman died.'

Verb-Verb:

```
gar-om kamk-am
go.PAST-1.SG work-1SG.SUBJ
    'I went to work.'
```

Noun-Noun:
(54) bar-om grawar-ēk
brother-1SG head.man-PRED.SG
'My brother is the head man.'
Noun-Adjective:
(55) zara till-ēk
boy big-PRED.SG
'The boy is big.'

Pronoun-Pronoun:
(56) aha ama-k-ēk
this.M 1.SG-BEN-PRED.SG
'This is for me.'
Noun-Preposition/Location expression:
(57) zara šanš-ir-m-ēk
boy next.to-2SG.OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
'The boy is next to you.'
Attached to lexical verbs, predication markers form gerundial constructions, which one might interpret as nominalisations of verbal stems, in effect, then, an intermediate stage on the continuum between prototypical verbs and nominals:
(58) kān-at şūr-os boy-im-ki
was-3.SG.F picture-3SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL
Sali-ka-d-ik kury-is-ma
hang-VTR-PAST-PRED.SG house-3SG.OBL-LOC
yāst-as-ki
Yassir-OBL.M-ABL
'My father's picture was hanging in Yassir's house.'
(59) džluwir mindir-d-ik
woman stand-PAST-PRED.SG
'The woman is standing.'
Non-finite verbs (participles) can assume a similar status to nouns and adjectives in non-verbal (non-finite) predications; compare (elicited)
(60) till-a zara mind-ird-a
big-M boy stand-PAST-M
'The big boy stood up.'
with
(61) till-a zara mind-ird-ēk
big-M boy stand-PAST-PRED.SG
'The big boy is standing.'
The status of tilla as an adjective in the above sentence is determined by its function as an attribute to zara 'boy', and characterised by its position, pre-
posed to the noun, and its inflectional agreement with the head. The example below illustrates the same word functioning as a noun:
(62) till-a mind-ird-ēk
big-M stand-PAST-PRED.SG
'The big one/ the chief/ the king is standing.'
The potential to accommodate predication markers is also a property of demonstratives and personal pronouns of the third person (while personal pronouns of other persons take verbal copula forms in existential predications):
(63) $\bar{u}$ itme lāzem maṣīr-oran hōš-as and you.PL must destiny-2PL become.SUBJ-2PL inni bass janni-kar-as našī-š-as. COMP only sing-VTR-2PL.SUBJ and dance-SUBJ-2SG aha-k Sišat-oran itme this.M-PRED.SG life-2PL you.PL
'And your destiny must be that you will only sing and dance. This is your life.'
(64) portkīliya kahind-ar-i min balakon-ē-ki, Jewess look-3SG-F from balcony-OBL.F-ABL lak-ed-os-i inn-o aha-k see-PAST-3SG-PRG COMP-3SG.M this.M-PRED.SG
'The Jewish woman is looking out from the balcony, and she saw that this was the one.'
(65) wi ihi-k illi nan-d-i hram-an and this.F-PRED.SG REL bring-PAST-F blanket-OBL.PL 'And this is the one [woman] who sent the blankets.'
(66) džan-d-om inni pandži-k illi kar-d-a
know-PAST-1SG COMP 3SG-PRED.SG REL do-PAST-M
hāds-ī maS portkilily-ē-ki
incident-OBL.M with Jewess-OBL.F-ABL
'I knew that it was he who carried out the incident with the Jewish girl.'
(67) t'akkid-h-r-i minšī-s qal pandži-k
assure-VITR-PAST-F from-3SG PART 3SG-PRED.SG
aha-k
this.M-PRED.SG
'She was certain about him, saying that he is the one.'

Adverbs are potential carriers of non-verbal predications when the lexical adverb depicts a state, as in (68), or a deictic reference to a location:
(68) ayyām I-’’́rcumn hnēna kān days.PL DEF-Jordan here was.3SG.M
bar-d-ēk dōm-ēni mnīn
fill-PAST-PRED.SG Dom-PRED.PL here
'Under the Jordanian rule it was full of Dom here.'
(69) w-ama dža-m-i skun-hōš-am kury-a-ma and-I go-1SG-PRG live-SUBJ-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC
illi hundar-i
REL there-PRED.SG
'And I am going to live in the house over there.'
Predication markers can attach to numerals in citation form, a practice that is restricted to Arabic numerals:
(70) sitt-ak-i
six-INDEF-PRED.SG
'six' lit. 'It's a six.'

## Chapter 4

## Nouns and nominal inflection

### 4.1. Derivation of nouns

Most nouns in Domari are base-form lexical elements that are not derived through any morphological procedure: ben 'sister', wāy 'wind', qar 'donkey' A further class are recognisable as members of distinct, gender-specific inflection classes: gori 'horse', kuri 'house', are both feminine (recognisable through the ending $-i$ in the nominative), while mana 'bread', qrara 'Bedouin', are masculine (recognisable through the nominative ending -a). Arabic nouns retain their morphological derivation templates, which however are not productive in Domari: šibbāk 'window', haddād 'blacksmith', assās 'origin'; makanse 'broom', mahkame 'court', maqbare 'cemetery', and so on.

Morphological derivation relies on suffixing, mostly of word-classchanging derivational morphemes. Among the few productive derivational suffixes of this kind is -iš. Attached to verbal stems, it can derive nouns denoting activities (akin to Arabic masdar nominalisation, or the formation of a 'gerund'), as in našy- 'to dance' > našiš 'dancing', mang- 'to beg' > mangiš 'begging', dow- 'to dance' $>{ }^{2} \omega w-i \check{s}$ 'dancing':
(1) Sišat-osan hō-š-ad našiš
life-3PL be-SUBJ-3PL dancing
'May their life consist of dancing.'
(2) dža-n-a mangǐ̌-kar-and-a giš dōm-ē-man hundar go-1PL-REM begging-VTR-3PL-REM all Dom-PL-1PL there 'All us Doms, they used to go begging there.'

The same suffix can also derive 'plain' nouns from verbal stems: $q$ - 'to eat' $>$ qayiš 'food'; fè- 'to hit' > fēyiš 'fight'; by- 'to fear' > biyyiš 'fear'; dow- 'to wash' > dowiš 'shower'; lagiš 'argument, fight', from an obsolete verbal stem *lag-:

| $t$-ar-a | ab-us-ke | qayiš |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give-3SG-REM | qumn-ar |  |
| boy-im-ke |  |  |

$$
\begin{array}{lcc}
\text { gar-i } & \text { hayāt } & \text { kury-is-ka }  \tag{4}\\
\text { went-F } & \text { Hayat } & \text { house-3SG.OBL.DAT } \\
\text { yāsr-as-ki, } & \bar{u} \quad \text { lagiš-ka-d-e. } \\
\text { Yassir-OBL.M-ABL und fight-VTR-PAST-3PL } \\
\text { 'Hayat went to Yassir's house and they had an argument.' }
\end{array}
$$

(5) $k s ̌$-os min biyyiš-ki eh-r-i
beard-3SG from fear-ABL become-PAST-F
pran-ik
white-PRED.SG
'From fear his beard became white.'
The suffix -wāy is used to derive abstract nouns from adjectives: lidža 'ashamed' > lidžwāy ‘shame', mišta ‘ill' > mištawāy ‘illness' The suffix -inna derives agentive nouns from verbs and nominalised verbs: kiš-naw- 'to tell a lie' > kišinna 'liar'; by- 'to fear' > bayinna 'coward'; qaft- 'to steal' > qaftinna 'thief'; mangiš 'begging' > mangišinna 'beggar'. Nouns can also be derived with no morphological adjustment through referential use of adjectives: tilla 'big' > tilla 'head man'; nohra 'red' > nohra 'tomato' as well as 'Englishman'; wuda 'old' > wuda 'old man'. An historical derivational ending for participles and adjectives, masculine -na feminine $-n i$, can similarly be interpreted as nominal: mirna 'a dead man', mimni 'a dead woman'.

Somewhat more common in their overall distribution are feminine agentive derivations of masculine animate nouns: -iya, as in dōm 'Dom man' > dōmiya 'Dom woman', tāat 'villager' > tātiya 'woman villager'; -ni, as in ktīr 'Christian man' > ktirr-ni 'Christian woman', and -ī as in džatir 'brother in law' $>$ džatr- $\bar{i}$ 'sister in law', mām 'uncle' > mām- $\bar{i}$ 'aunt'. Of all the derivation markers discussed here, only the latter seems to be actively productive in the language. It is used not just with fixed expressions that form part of the inherited vocabulary, but also with Arabic loanwords: $x \bar{a} I$ 'uncle (maternal) > $x a \bar{l}-\overline{1}$ 'aunt (maternal)'.

On the whole, nominal derivation can be said to be marginal in the formation of the Domari lexicon. The above examples sum up not just the morphological means for the productive grammatical derivation of nouns, but also, at least as far as word-class changing derivation is concerned (i.e. not including the feminine derivation markers mentioned), pretty much the entire inventory of lexical items derived in this manner. There is little doubt that the enormous impact of Arabic on the Domari lexicon, especially on nouns, makes the reliance on internal grammatical derivation procedures redundant and so limits considerably the distribution of derivational procedures.

### 4.2. Properties of nouns

### 4.2.1. Gender

The Domari noun has two genders, masculine and feminine. With animate nouns that refer to human beings, grammatical gender tends to reflect natural gender: bar 'brother' (M), boy- 'father' (M), putur 'son' (M), payy-husband' (M), ben 'sister' (F), day- 'mother' (F), dīr 'daughter', bay- 'wife' (F). Nouns representing other, non-human animates show a mixture of genders: gori 'horse' (F), brari 'cat' (F), gorwi 'cow' (F), qar 'donkey' (M), snọta 'dog' (M), bakra 'lamb' (M). Gender assignment with inanimates is generally random: Kuri 'house' (F), ūyar 'town' (F), bitt 'earth' (M), šal 'well' (M), kam 'work' (M), masi 'meat' (M).

However, nominal declension classes are usually gender-specific and so some nominal inflection endings also represent gender affiliation. Thus there is a masculine inflection class that is characterised by the nominative ending -a (qrar-a 'Bedouin man', šōn-a 'son', zar-a 'boy', snōt-a 'dog'), and a feminine class in $-\bar{i}$ (qrar- $\bar{i}$ ‘Bedouin woman', šōn-í ‘daughter', lāš- -1 'girl', brar- ${ }^{\text {' }}$ 'cat') as well as one in -iya ( dōm-iya 'Dom woman', protkiliya 'Jewish woman'). The original gender of Arabic nouns, which is also masculine or feminine, is retained in Domari:
(6) dīsak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i siry-is-ka day-INDEF this.F lamp fall-PAST-F head-3SG.OBL-DAT hay-ki, bar-im dir-ki this-ABL brother-1SG.OBL daughter-ABL 'One day this lamp fell on the head of thingy, my brother's daughter.'
(7) zābit xarrif-h-r-a wāšī-s Sībrāni-as-ma officer speak-VITR-PAST-M with-3SG Hebrew-OBL.M-LOC 'The officer spoke with him in Hebrew.'

Here, the feminine Arabic loan noun lamba 'lamp' is accompanied by an attributive demonstrative with feminine inflection, ihi 'this', and by a pasttense verb the feminine singular, kuwī-r-i '(she) fell' The masculine Arabic loan noun zābit 'officer' is accompanied by a past-tense verb in the masculine, xarrifhra 'spoke'.

Gender is expressed most overtly and consistently in the agreement marking of demonstratives and adjectives, as well as in past-tense verbs in the third person singular (elicited examples):
(8) aha zara man-īr-a kury-a-m-èk
this.M boy stay-PAST-M house-OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
'This boy stayed at home.'
(9) ihi lāči man-īr-i kury-a-m-ēk
this.F girl stay-PAST-F house-OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
'This girl stayed at home.'
(10) er-a till-a zara
came-M big-M boy
'A big boy arrived.'
(11) er-i till-i lāš-i
came-F big-F girl
'A big girl arrived.'
With Arabic auxiliaries and modal verbs, such as the habitual auxiliary $k \bar{a} n$-, Arabic feminine agreement inflection is used to express congruence with Domari feminine subject nouns:
(12) kān-at par-ar-m-a wās̄ī-s, ihi Hayāt was-3SG.F take-3SG-1SG-REM with-3SG this.F Hayat kam-ka-m $\bar{u}$ kān-at par-ar-a work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ and was-3SG.F take-3SG-PAST plè-m.
money.PL-1SG
'She used to take me with her to work, this [girl] Hayat, and she used to take away my money.'
(13) bass kān-at day-os hayat-ē-ki ghāy
but was-3SG.F mother-3SG Hayat-OBL.F-ABL good
wāšī-m
with-1SG
'But Hayat's mother was good to me.'
(14) $\bar{u} \quad k u l l$ ma $k a ̄ n \quad a w-a r-m-a$
and every COMP was.3SG.M come-3SG-1SG-REM
ৎārīs-ak kān dīb š-ar-a
bridegroom-INDEF was.3SG.M Dib say-3SG-REM
ab-us-ke ihi mfăll-ik, mišš ghāy
to-3SG-BEN this.F crazy-PRED.SG NEG good
'And every time a potential bridegroom came to me Dib used to say to him this one's crazy, she's no good.'

Indirectly, non-verbal predication markers may also signal the gender of nouns belonging to the vowel classes of masculine $-a$ and feminine $-i$, and of adjectives in predicative function, which also carry these same vowel endings, since the vowel of the nominative inflection marker is assimilated to that of the predication marker (elicited examples):
(15) bar-om grawar-ēk
brother-1SG head.man-PRED.SG
'My brother is the head man.' (independent: grawara)
bar-om mišt-ēk
brother-1SG ill-PRED.SG
'My brother is ill.' (independent: mišta)
(17) day-om ktīn-ik
mother-1SG Christian-PRED.SG
'My mother is a Christian.' (independent: ktïni)
(18) day-om mišt-ik
mother-1SG ill-PRED.SG
'My sister is ill.' (independent: mišti)
This distinction is not found with nouns ending in a consonant, where the predication marker is a uniform $-i$ :
(19) aha
aha zlām-i
this.M man-PRED.SG
'This is a man.'
(20) ihi džluwr-i
this.F woman-PRED.SG
'This is a woman.'
Occasionally, gender may also be expressed through the use of the Arabic direct object pronoun iyyā- and the Arabic complementiser inn-, both of which retain their Arabic gender and number inflection (see also section on Arabicderived referential devices in Chapter 6, and Chapter 11).

Grammatical gender distinction is neutralised in the plural. In this respect, Domari is similar to Romani, which also has no gender distinction in plural agreement markers. The plural agreement marker in Domari is a uniform -efor both genders in attributive constructions. However, plural endings usually attach to the stem of the respective noun class. This allows us to recognise underlying feminine derivation markers such a -ni and -iya, and so it creates a structural contrast between some masculine and feminine nouns in the plural:
dōm-e 'Dom men' (singular dōm), dōmiy-e 'Dom women' (singular dōmiya); ktir-e 'Christian men' (singular ktir), Ktirniy-e 'Christian women' (singular Ktīnni).

Hancock (2006) has suggested that Domari in fact has three genders. This suggestion is not based on any direct analysis of Domari data, either first-hand or from secondary sources, nor does Hancock attempt to illustrate his claim with any examples. The purpose of the claim is to support a historiographical narrative according to which the Dom moved out of India at an earlier date than the Rom. This, in turn, serves to dismiss ethnographic similarities between the Dom and the Rom, most notably their traditional socio-economic profile as commercial, service-providing nomads, and instead to argue that the Rom are descendants of warriors, while the Dom descend from itinerant service castes. The Romani migration from India is constructed within this narrative to coincide with the Islamic invasions of India, while that of the Dom is positioned much earlier. The idea that Domari preserves three genders, as in Old and Middle Indo-Aryan, is intended to support the theory of an earlier Dom migration out of India.

Hancock relies on Macalister in his interpretation of the Domari gender system. Macalister (1914: 9) does indeed mention three genders for Domari, claiming that the neuter is characterised by the identity of nominative and accusative forms; but he fails to provide any examples at all for the neuter, admitting ( $\mathbf{p} .11$ ) that neuter nouns "appear to be in a process of assimilation to the masculine or feminine declension". Presumably - he does not provide examples - Macalister was referring to nouns of the type ūyar 'town', in which, by contrast to other declension classes, Layer II case markers attach directly to the nominative stem: $\bar{y} y a r-m a$ 'in the town'. Nouns of this type do, however, have a distinct direct object (accusative) marker, which is -i: lahami $\bar{u} y a r-\bar{I}$ ' $I$ see the town'. Macalister was thus mistaken, though it may be that his impression that these nouns were of neuter gender was based on the realisation that this very same accusative ending -i derives from the historical dative form of the neuter class in Middle Indo-Aryan (see 4.1.2).

In any event, Domari nouns that take an accusative in $-\bar{i}$ have either masculine or feminine gender. This can be seen by examining their agreement pattern. In the following (elicited) examples, there are only two agreement markers on the attributive demonstrative, masculine $-a$ and feminine $-i$, and there are only two agreement markers on the past-tense verb, masculine $-a$ and feminine $-i$. They serve, respectively, the masculine nouns zara 'boy' (vowel ending) and xudwar 'child' (consonantal ending), and the feminine nouns šōni 'girl' (vowel ending) and luyar 'town' (consonantal ending). There is therefore no connection between the oblique ending $-\bar{i}$ and a third gender agreement pattern, either, and thus altogether no evidence for a neuter gender in Domari:
(21) ama džan-am-i aha zar-es

I know-1SG-PRG this.M boy-OBL.M
'I know this boy.'
(22) aha zar-ēk
this.M boy-PRED.SG
'This is a boy.'
(23) zara tilla-h-r-a
boy big-VITR-PAST-M
'The boy has grown.'
(24) ama džan-am-i aha xudwar-ī

I know-1SG-PRG this.M child-OBL.M 'I know this child.'
(25) aha xudwar-i
this.M child-PRED.SG
'This is a child.'
(26) xudwar tilla-h-r-a
child big-VITR-PAST-M
'The child has grown.'
(27) ama džan-am-i ihi šōny-a

I know-1SG-PRG this.F girl-OBL.F
'I know this girl.'
(28) ihi šōny-ēk
this.F girl-PRED.SG
'This is a girl.'
(29) šōni tilla-h-r-i
girl big-VITR-PAST-F
'The girl has grown.'
(30) ama džan-am-i ihi ūyar-ī

I know-1SG-PRG this.F town-OBL.F
'I know this town.'
(31) ihi ūyar-i
this.F town-PRED.SG
'This is a town.'
(32) ūyar tilla-h-r-i
town big-VITR-PAST-F
'The town has grown.'

### 4.2.2. Number

### 4.2.2.1. Number agreement

Plural number is generally expressed on nouns by the ending -e (dōm-e 'Dom men', dömiy-e 'Dom women', xudwar-e 'children'). The same ending -e is also the plural agreement marker on preposed adjectives, demonstratives, and numerals:
(33) qištot-e xudwar-e
small-PL child-PL
'small children'
(34) ehe xudwar-e
these child-PL
'these children'
(35) ehe din-e zirt-e gar-e ūyar-ka
these two-PL child-PL go.PAST-3PL town-DAT
'These two boys went to town.'
Numerals in referential function may also take -e:
(36) ehe din-e
these two-PL
'these two/ the two of them'
(37) din-ē-san m-r-e, tōr $\bar{u}$ nimer two.CARD-PL-3PL die-PAST-3PL Tor and Nimer 'Both of them died, Tor and Nimer.'

In the oblique case, the plural inflection marker on nouns is -an. Attributive adjectives, demonstratives and numerals show number agreement but not case agreement with oblique plural nouns:
(38) lak-ed-om xudwar-an
see-PAST-1SG child-OBL.PL
'I saw the children.'
(39) lak-ed-om ehe din-an
see-PAST-1SG these.PL two-OBL.PL
'I saw the two of them.'
(40) manī-r-e min dïn-an-ki xar-e bass stay-PAST-3PL from two-OBL.PL-ABL bone-PL only
'From both of them only bones remained.'

| (41) lak-ed-om | ehe | din-e | xudwar-an |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| see-PAST-1SG these.PL | two-PL | child-OBL.PL |  |
| 'I saw these two children' |  |  |  |

(42) ama džan-am-i ehe din-e džluwr-an I know-1SG-PRG these.PL two-PL woman-OBL.PL 'I know these two women.'

The same suffix -an also indicates plurality on the independent third person pronoun - pandži 'he/she', pandžan 'they' - as well as on the enclitic personal-possessive and object pronominal affixes: -o/i-m-an (1PL), -o/i-r-an (2PL), ooli-s-an (3PL). Arabic nouns often retain their original plural formation: Iīra 'pound' plural līrāt, xārū̄f'lamb' plural xurfăn, 'alf 'thousands' plural 'alāf. Occasionally Domari plurals are derived from singular Arabic nouns, co-existing with the Arabic plural formation: suwar 'bracelet' plural asāwir alongside slware. More frequently, however, the Arabic plurals are adapted into the Domari nominal inflection: xēma 'tent' plural xiyam alongside xiyame, đukkān 'shop' plural dakākīn alongside dakākīne, muslim 'Muslim' plural musilmin alongside musilmine:
(43) musilmīn-e kān-ū fēm-and-a inglīziy-an,
muslims-PL was-3PL fight-3PL-REM English-OBL.PL
nohr-an
red-OBL.PL
'The Muslims were fighting the English.'
Plural number can also be indicated by the plural predicative ending -ēni:
(44) ehe dōm-ēni
these Dom-PRED.PL
'These are Doms.'
(45) gišt putr-ē-m till-ēni
all son-PL-1SG big-PRED.PL
'All my sons are big.'
The Arabic object pronoun iyyā-retains its Arabic inflection for number, as in the following example of pronominal resumption in a relative construction:

| (46) ple | illi t-or-im | iyyā-hum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| money.PL REL give.PAST-2SG-1SG.OBL | OBJ-PL |  |
|  | 'the money that you gave to me' |  |

Arabic enclitic plural agreement markers may also accompany a number of Arabic modal verbs, auxiliaries and semi-modal verbs (lexical verbs that may also modify another verb, such as 'to keep/let/allow'):

| par-as | $e r$-an | $\bar{u}$ | $e-r a n$ | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-2PL.SUBJ | these.OBL.PL and these.OBL.PL and |  |  |  |
| $t$-as-san | habis-ma. | xallī-hom | habis-ma |  |
| put-2PL-SUBJ | prison-LOC | let.2SG.IMP-3PL | prison-LOC |  |
| talatīn wars |  |  |  |  |
| thirty year |  |  |  |  |

'Take those and those and put them in prison. Keep them in prison for thirty years.'

'They started to say let them, these dustmen, clean up these corpses.'
The prototypical semantic reading of plurality is a single referential unit that represents an assembly of discrete conceptual entities belonging to a shared category (e.g. putrēm 'my sons'). Normally, a plural entity can be decomposed or de-constructed and its discrete individual members can be identified and verbalised as singular units (e.g. putrom 'my son'). Conversely, discrete entities can be compiled for referential purposes under a shared plural referent provided they can be defined as a set or category (thus putrom 'my son' and dirom 'my daughter' can be compiled as zirtëm 'my children', and so on; while on the other hand Domari lacks a collective category that would allow to group together boyom 'my father' and dayom 'my mother', as a translation of 'my parents'). There are some exceptions to these rules, however. The word ple 'money', for instance, may be conceptualised as an assembly of discrete objects in reality, but it lacks a singular counterpart that would allow speakers to verbalise or name these discrete entities (the etymology however is Persian pol 'unit of payment, coin'; Domari plural formation *pol-e>ple). Collectives consisting of animates also usually carry explicit plural marking:

(49) | drūz-e | lagiš-ka-d-e |
| :--- | :--- |
| Druse-PL fight-VTR-PAST-3PL wa | with |
|  | tmaliy-an-ki |
| 'The Druze argued with the soldiers.' |  |

$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { (50) } & \text { er-e } & n k i ̄ i-m a n & d \bar{m} m-e, & q e y-r-e \\ \text { come.PAST3PL } & \text { at-1PL } & \text { Dom-PL } & \text { eat-PAST-3PL } & \bar{u} \\ \text { and } \\ \text { pī-r-e } & n k i ̄-m a n & & \\ \text { drink-PAST-3PL at-1PL } & & \\ & \text { 'The Dom came to us, they ate and drank at our place.' }\end{array}$
The conceptualisation of plurality as an assembly of discrete entities that belong to a single category is nicely illustrated by the automatic triggering of morphological plurality on the noun in conjunction with the quantitative determiner giš 'all':
(51) aha kažž-a illi kān mišt-ēk
this.M man-NOM.M REL was.3SG.M ill-PRED.SG
qaft-id-a gis xurfăn-an illi Sind
steal-PAST-M all sheep.PL-OBL.PL REL at
šēX-as-ki
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL
'This man who was ill stole all the sheep that belonged to the Sheikh.'
(52) abu hasan qeē-r-a giš šmary-an

Abu Hasan eat-PAST-M all chicken-OBL.PL
'Abu Hasan ate all the chickens.'

### 4.2.2.2. Number neutralisation

Morphological expression of plurality on nouns is generally neutralised if the noun is accompanied by a numerical expression that already indicates its plurality. Usually, the noun accompanied by a numeral will appear either in a plain singular form, or accompanied by a singular predication marker:

| $\begin{align*} & \text { boy-om }  \tag{53}\\ & \text { father-1SG } \end{align*}$ | gar-a | $q$ ādy-as-ke, |  | nēr-d-a |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | go.PAS |  | judge-OBL | -BEN | nd |
| pašĭ-san | taran | tmāl |  | gar-e |  |
| behind-3PL | three | soldi | r-PRED.SG | go.PA | -PL |
| di dōm | min | hayy | a-man-ki |  |  |
| two Dom | from | PAR | T-1PL-ABL |  |  |
| My father | to th | judg | he sent | e sold | s aft |
| Dom from |  |  |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { (54) } & \text { panži } & n k i ̄-s & \text { taran } \\ \text { he } & \text { zar-ē } k \\ \text { he } & \text { by } & \text { SG } & \text { three } \\ & \text { boy-PRED.SG }\end{array}$
'He has three children.'

| ama | diss-ak-i | rawih-r-om | min |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | day-INDEF-PRED.SG | walk-PAST-1SG | from | kam-as-ki willa ašti taran čōn-ēk work-OBL.M-ABL PART there.is three boy-PRED.SG ${ }^{\text {'I }}$ walked from work one day and suddenly there are three boys [standing] there.'

(56) par-d-ēn-i wāšī-man taran qar $\bar{u}$ gory-ak take-PAST-1PL-PRG with-1PL three donkey and horse-INDEF 'We took with us three donkeys and a horse.'
(57) ihi kury-a, badāl-ma ihi sakir-r-ik, this.F house-OBL.F instead.of this.F close-PAST-PRED.SG aw-ar-i taran kur-ik mindž̄̄-s come-3SG-PRG three house-PRED.SG inside-3SG 'Instead of keeping this house closed up, it will be converted into three houses.'
(58) Sǐs-oman ghāy bol bol, yaSni ehe kury-osan life-1PL good much much PART these.PL house-3PL di Sēle taran Sēl-ēk
two family three family-PRED.SG
'Our life is very very good, I mean, these households, these two-three families.'

Number neutralisation appears regularly with measurements of time, money, distance, weight, and so on:
(59) row-am-i, many-am-i di sēৎa taran sē؟a cry-1SG-PRG stay-1SG-PRG two hour three hour wēs-r-om-i row-am-i
sit-PAST-1SG-PRG cry-1SG-PRG
'I cry, I stay there for two hours, three hours, I sit and cry.'
(60) di dīs pand-as-ma-hrom-a
two day road-OBL.M-LOC-be.1SG-REM
'I had been on the road for two days.'
(61) kull usbū̧̄ yaSni wēšt-ad-a di dīs taran dīs every week PART sit-3PL-REM two day three day

| hay-ma | dēy-a-ma, | rawwuh-ho-d-a |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART-LOC | village-OBL.F-LOC | walk-VITR-3PL-REM |
| kury-a-ka, | gēna xatra | gēna di dīs taran dīs | house-OBL.F-DAT again time again two day three day 'Every week they used to spend two-three days there in the village, they used to go home, and then once again [they stayed for] two-three days.'

(62) mani-r-e Sind drūz-an-ka taran mas, stay-PAST-3PL at Druse-OBL.PL-DAT three month baid taran mas nas-r-e
after three month leave-PAST-3PL
'They stayed with the Druse for three months, after three months they left.'
(63) hkum-ke-d-os taran wars, mahkame
sentence-VTR-PAST-3SG three year court
'The court sentenced him to three years.'
(64) kull ikak tir-d-a taran zard
every one put-PAST-M three gold
'Each one contributed three pounds.'
(65) tuxx-ka-d-ed-is di xatra
shoot-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL two time
'They shot it twice.'
Numerals are followed by singular nouns both in the expression of the unit of measurement (e.g. 'sack', 'box', 'head') and often in the expression of the substance or material that is being measured:
(66) di falla šał, di Silbe mindžī-san zibd-ēk two sack rice two box inside-3PL butter-PRED.SG 'two sacks of rice, two boxes containing butter'
(67) par-d-om di falla gēsu
take-PAST-1SG two sack wheat
'I took two sacks of wheat.'
qaft-id-om taran siri xurfăn-i
steal-PAST-1SG three head lamb.PL-PRED.SG
'I stole three lambs. ${ }^{\text {'19 }}$
In the following, the anaphoric reference to a plural entity - -san - in the second half of the sentence shows clearly that there is an underlying
conceptualisation of the subject $d i d b i \not h-$ 'two lambs' as a plural entity, despite the appearance of the noun in the singular. Number neutralisation thus appears to be a strictly formal morphological procedure accompanying numeral specifications of quantity. The subject is marked by the singular predication marker, and agrees with the auxiliary kän (via its Arabic inflection in the singular masculine), which carries the past-tense existential construction:


From this we can draw the general conclusion that explicit expression of numerical quantity overrides the morphological expression of plurality on the noun.

However, things are somewhat complicated due to the hybrid etymology of the Domari numeral system. All speakers of Jerusalem Domari use Arabicderived forms for the numerals ' $6-9$ ' and for those above ' 10 ' (with the occasional exception of ' 100 '), and Arabic numerals are usually preferred also for '4-5'. Inherited (pre-Arabic) numeral forms are used consistently only for ' $1-3$ ' (see also Chapter 5). In Arabic, there are singular, dual, and plural forms of the noun; plural forms accompany numerals between ' $3-10$ ', inclusively, while with numerals above ' 10 ' the noun appears in the singular. This general rule is inherited from Old or Classical Arabic, and is retained both in Modern Standard Arabic and in the Palestinian Colloquial Arabic of Jerusalem. At first glance it seems that these rules are respected by Domari speakers when using Arabic-derived numerals. Thus Arabic numerals above ' 10 ' are accompanied by singular nouns, i.e. they show number neutralisation. This is observed both with nouns of Arabic origin, as in sane 'year' ${ }^{20}$ and Iira 'pound', and with nouns belonging to the inherited (pre-Arabic) component, as is the case with wars 'year' and kuri 'household':

| (70) $\bar{u} \quad$ kam-k-am-a | $n k \overline{1}-s$ | aktar | min |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and work-VTR-1SG-REM | by-3SG | more | from |
| sitta-ū-Sisrīn sane |  |  |  |
| six-and-twenty year |  |  |  |
| 'And I worked for her for over twenty six years.' |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { (71) } & \text { kull wars dē-r-i } & \text { bizzot-an-ke } & \text { xamsīn }\end{array} \begin{aligned} & \text { Iìra } \\ & \text { every year give-3SG-PRG } \\ & \\ & \\ & \text { 'Every year he gives fifty pounds to the poor.' }\end{aligned}$
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { (72) ama } & \text { džawiz-r-om } & \text { bay-om } & \text { xamsa } & \bar{u} & \text { Sašrīn Iīra } \\ \text { I } & \text { marry-PAST-1SG } & \text { wife-1SG } & \text { five } & \text { and twenty } & \text { lira } \\ & \text { 'I married my wife [paid bride price] for twenty five pounds.' }\end{array}$

| par-as | $e r$-an | $\bar{u}$ | $e$-ran | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-2PL.SUBJ | these.OBL.PL | and | these.OBL.PL and |  |
| $t$-as-san | habis-ma. | xalli-hom | habis-ma |  |
| put-2PL-SUBJ | prison-LOC | keep-2SG.IMP-3PL | prison-LOC |  |
| talãtīn wars |  |  |  |  |
| thirty year |  |  |  |  |

'Take those and those and put them in prison. Keep them in prison for thirty years.'
(74) ašti kān Sašrīn kuri dom-ēni, there.is was.3SG.M twenty house Dom-PRED.PL furr-und-i travel-3PL-PRG
'There were twenty households of Dom, they were travelling...'
With Arabic-derived numerals below ' 10 ', speakers equally tend to follow the rules of number agreement in Arabic, whereby lower numerals are accompanied by plural nouns:
(75) kažž-e li min-d-e-san t-e la
man-PL REL send-PAST-3PL-3PL give.PAST-3PL to
kull ika 'arbaS līrāt
every one four pound.PL
'The people who sent them gave each one four pounds.'
hākim par-d-a xamas līrāt $\bar{u}$
governor take-PAST-M five pound.PL and
$t$-a boy-im-ke xamas lïrāt
give.PAST-M father-1SG.OBL-BEN five pound.PL
'The governor took five pounds and gave my father five pounds.'
(77) baid xamast ušhur kil-d-e
after five month.PL left-PAST-3PL
'After five months they left.'


## mat-ēnī

people-PRED.PL
'Dom weddings are normal, that is, they bring over five or six lambs, they slaughter them and make food, they invite people.'
(79) tir-d-e-san
put-PAST-3PL-3PL prison-LOC shut-PAST-3PL-3PL
manī-r-e hbis-ah-r-e sitte snin
stay-PAST-3PL imprison-VITR-PAST-3PL six years.PL
'They put them in prison, they locked them up, they stayed imprisoned for six years.'

(81) $\bar{u} \quad$ xatra-k $\bar{u}$ ama qasttot̀t-ik kān-ū
and time-INDEF and I small-PRED.SG was-3PL
yāsir $\bar{u}$ boy-im kuri harab-ēni. hada
Yassir and father-1SG.OBL house rival-PRED.PL this
kān Sumr-om yimkin sitte snīn sab̧a snīn was.3SG.M age-1SG maybe six year.PL seven year.PL 'And once when I was small, Yassir and my father's family had a dispute. I was then perhaps six or seven years old.'


Note that the expressions xamast ušhur 'five months', sitte snin 'six years', xamis-sitt xurfăn 'five or six lambs', and sabaSt iyyām 'seven days' are wholesale Arabic, i.e. both numeral and noun are Arabic. The nouns appear
consistently in the plural. Table 20 provides an overview of the plural and singular forms used in examples (75)-(82).

Table 20. Arabic nouns accompanied by numerals in examples (75)-(82)

| Plural | Singular | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lïrāt | līra | 'pound' |
| ušhur | saher | 'month' |
| xurfăn | xārū̄f | 'lamb' |
| Snīn | sane | 'year' |
| iyyām | yōm | 'day' |

The choice of noun lexemes with inherited and Arabic numerals is discussed further in the section on Numerals in Chapter 5 (Noun modifiers).

### 4.2.3. Definiteness and indefiniteness

### 4.2.3.1. Functions of the indefiniteness marker

Domari has a postposed marker of indefiniteness $-a k$, which appears to derive directly from the historical expression for the numeral ' 1 ' in Indo-Iranian, *-ek. The contemporary expression for ' 1 ' in Domari is ekak, which combines the original numeral stem with the suffixed indefinite marker. The Domari indefiniteness marker strongly resembles the indefiniteness marker -ek in Kurdish (cf. Kurmanji/Bahdini Kurdish car-ek 'once', bajar-ek 'a town', Sorani Kurdish ktaw-ek 'a book', nama-yek 'a letter', both varieties of Kurdish roj-ek 'a day/one day'), both in its structural appearance and etymology and in its semantic functions. Given other Kurdish influences on Domari, a parallel development or even a direct borrowing from Kurdish cannot be ruled out. The same form $-e k(-a ̆ k)$ has been borrowed from Kurdish into some of the co-territorial dialects of Jewish Neo-Aramaic in Iraq (Khan 2004: 295). An indefinite marker based on *ek 'one' is otherwise not very common in Indo-Iranian, but the grammaticalisation path from the numeral 'one' to a marker of indefiniteness is quite frequent and not at all unusual in universal terms. Romani, too, has developed an indefinite marker (j)ekh, which continues to be identical to the numeral jekh 'one', though in Romani it is an independent word form and is preposed to the noun (jekh var'once', jekh foro 'a town', jekh dives 'a day/one day'). We might even speculate about a two-stage development in Domari, leading first to the internal grammaticalisation of 'one' to a preposed, independent indefinite article *ek, and then to the re-positioning of this article as an enclitic marker, triggered by contact with Kurdish and the structural and functional similarities of the
morphemes. An argument in favour of a straightforward borrowing scenario is the fact that there is no obvious explanation for the sound shift in the vowel of the numeral *ek to that of the indefinite marker -ak. In Kurdish, the pronunciation is generally [ kk ] or even [æk], that is, more open than the Domari closed vowel/ek/, which might have led to the replication of the Kurdish article in Domari with a fronted /a/.

The indefiniteness marker has a series of semantic functions in Domari. Firstly, it is used to indicate numerical singularity. In conceptual terms singularity means that the lexical item marked as indefinite represents just one discrete entity out of a set of potential referents, or else a clearly demarcated space or time frame. In this function, the indefiniteness marker is probably closest semantically to the numeral 'one' from which it is derived:
$\begin{array}{lllll}t \text {-os-san } & \text { bitt-ak, } & \text { gony-ak } & q a m e h, & \bar{u} \\ \text { give.PAST-3PL } & \text { land-INDEF } & \text { sack-INDEF } & \text { flour } & \text { and }\end{array}$
bakar-ak
sheep-INDEF
'He gave them a piece of land, a sack of flour, and a sheep.'
$p \bar{e} n-a m-i \quad$ 'alf- $a k \quad \bar{u} \quad d \bar{e}-m-s-i$
take-1SG-PRG thousand-INDEF and give-1SG-3SG-PRG 'I take out one thousand and give it to him.'
$\bar{u}$ eme kištota-hr-ēni $t$-ar- $i$
and we small-be-PRED.PL give-3SG-PRG emin-ke kull eka ṣahn-ak
1PL-BEN every one plate-INDEF
'And when we were small, she gave each one of us a plate.'
(86) $\bar{u} \quad n$-h-e' wāšī-s wala qirš-ak aha/ and NEG-is-NEG with-3SG no penny-INDEF this.M aha kurdī
this.M Kurd
'And this Kurd doesn't have a penny.'
(87) mani-r-ēn ihi ūyar-ma wars-ak stay-PAST-1PL this.F town-LOC year-INDEF 'We stayed in this town for one year.'
(88) Sabi-ka-ta ama-ke tanak-ak zēt $\bar{u}$ tanak-ak fill-VTR-EMP ISG-BEN pot-INDEF oil and pot-INDEF min mamlūhh-i
from salted-PRED.SG
'Fill up a pot of oil and a pot of salted vegetables.'

Note that indefinite direct objects are not marked for the oblique case. In this respect they behave like nouns that are accompanied by the lower numerals ' $2-3$ ', and which are neutralised for both number and case:

```
par-d-ēn-i wäšī-man taran qar u
take-PAST-1PL-PRG with-1PL three donkey and
gory-ak
horse-INDEF
    'We took with us three donkeys and a horse.'
```

Singularity of the noun may be reinforced by adding the numeral ' 1 ' to the indefiniteness marker:
(90) pēn-d-om wāl-ak ikak take-PAST-1SG hair-INDEF one 'I removed one hair.'
(91) $k w \bar{i}-r-i \quad m a ̄ s u \bar{i}-a k$ mēšī-s manī-r-i
fall-PAST-F tube-INDEF from-3SG stay-PAST-F
māsūr-ak ikak
tube-INDEF one
'He dropped one tube, [only] one tube remained.'
A second semantic use of the indefiniteness marker appears less concerned with the quantitative demarcation of the referent as a singular entity and more directed toward the identification of a particular referent and its qualitative disambiguation from a potential set of similar entities. This procedure is carried out in order to help establish a conceptualisation of a referent that might play a role in the unfolding discourse. It is the type of indefiniteness that Givón (1984: 440ff and elsewhere) refers to as a tool used to introduce new topics:
(92) kull ma aw-ar-i Sarīs-ak wila
every COMP come-3SG-PRG bridegroom-INDEF or 'ǐ̌si ša-d-i n-h-e, nkī-man läšy-e something say-3PL-PRG NEG-is-NEG at-1PL girl-PL
'Every time a bridegroom or something arrived they would say we don't have girls.'
(93) pandži adžir-ahr-i kury-ak

3SG rent-VITR-PRED.SG house-INDEF
'He is renting a house.'

| par-d-om | wat-ak |
| :--- | :--- |
| take-PAST-1SG | $\bar{u}$ |
| stone-INDEF | and |
| siry-is-ma |  |
| sit-om-is |  |

head-3SG.OBL-LOC
'I took a stone and I hit her on the head.'
(95) eh-r-a wāšī-m quṣs-ak
become-PAST-M with-1SG story-INDEF
'Something happened to me.'
(96) fi dèy-ak min dèy-e-s-ki I-Sīrāq
in town-INDEF from town-PL-3SG-ABL DEF-Iraq
'In one of the towns of Iraq'
(97) ama par-d-om kitāb-ak min muddaSi l-؟ām

I take-PAST-1SG letter-INDEF from prosecutor general 'I received a letter from the prosecutor general.'

A further point on the continuum between numerical singularity and openended indefinite reference (see below) is the use of the indefiniteness marker to introduce an entity that does not, in fact, require further specification. Here, the likelihood that the entity will assume a topical role in the unfolding discourse is relatively low. As in other usages of the indefiniteness marker, here too there is an encoding of the singularity and discreteness of the referent. But explicit exemption of the referent from a set is not the pragmatic objective. Nothing particular is being highlighted about the referent. On the contrary, it is its potential to be replaced by any other member of the same set of potential referents - that is, its non-uniqueness - that is being conveyed:

| (98) | xatr-ak | $d i \bar{b}$ | fē-r-Os-im |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| buks-ak |
| :--- |
| time-INDEF |
| pirnē-m-ma |
| nose-1SG-LOC |


| (99) $\bar{u}$ ama | yanni-k-ed-om | mawāl-ak | abctul |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and I | sing.1SG-VTR-PAST-1SG | song-NDEF | Abdul |
| wahāb-as-ki |  |  |  |
| Wahab-OBL.M-ABL |  |  |  |
|  | 'And I have sung a song by Abdul Wahab.' |  |  |


| (100) man-d-om | 'arbaStaľ̌r | yōm | spitar-ma, | kar-d-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| stay-PAST-1SG | fourteen | day | hospital-LOC | do-PAST-3PL |



In effect, we have a continuum of usages stretching in two directions from a common semantic-conceptual core. In this core meaning of indefiniteness, the explicit marking of the singularity of the referent - its 'one-ness' or being 'one (of a kind)' - signals the potential existence of a conceptual set of entities that share properties with the referent. Indefiniteness in Domari might be defined in the most basic terms as an instruction to conceptualise such a set. The specific relevance of the set may go in two different directions. In the one direction, the emphasis is on the separation between the referent and the set, and the referent's quantitative uniqueness (numerical singularity, i.e. 'only one from the set') or qualitative uniqueness (particularity and potential topicality, i.e. 'a specific one from the set'). Taken in the other direction, the emphasis shifts to the non-prominence of the referent as merely an individual member of an entire set of similar entities with similar properties. In this domain, selection of the referent is accidental, even random, or indeed unspecified altogether.

Such is the use of the indefiniteness marker to convey an indefinite expression of time, person, manner, place, quantity, and so on. Its function here is to indicate the randomness of the selection of a day, an occasion, a measure or a location:


The final point on the continuum of indefiniteness is the lexicalisation or indeed grammaticalisation of the expression of open-ended, random selection from a pre-defined semantic set. This takes on the form of indefiniteness expressions (indefinite pronouns). The expression 'pronominal indefiniteness' used in many descriptive works conveys the sense of open-endedness by relating to the place-holder function that the indefinite expression has (as a 'pronoun') and the fact that it can be replaced by any concrete specification that complies with the semantic characterisation of the ontological set. In pragmatic-functional terms, indefinites constitute a hearer-oriented processing task, one that requires the hearer's imagination in order to conceptualise the precise entity for which the speaker merely defines the broad ontological category. In Domari, not all, but some expressions of indefiniteness rely on the indefiniteness marker $-a k$. those relating to person (ekak, ikak'somebody, nobody, anybody', from ek/ik 'one'), thing (kiyak 'something, anything, nothing', from $k i$ - 'what', as well as $h \bar{a} d z ̌ a k$, from Arabic $h \bar{a} d \check{z} a$ 'object'), and place (mahallak 'somewhere, anywhere, nowhere', from Arabic maḥall 'place') (see discussion of indefinite expressions in Chapter 6).

Indefiniteness in the sense of non-specificity is expressed with plural entities contextually, without any explicit marking of indefiniteness:
(108) nēr-d-e 'arbaS tmaliy-e pašī-san send-PAST-3PL four soldier-PL after-3PL 'They sent four soldiers after them.'
(109) par-and-a bol ple yaSni, ple
take-3PL-REM much money.PL PART money.PL
kar-and-a
make-3PL-REM
'They used to earn a lot of money, they made money.'
It is noteworthy that the indefinite marker interacts with case inflection, in that it is only compatible with Layer I case markers (see Chapter 4.1.1). Thus, indefinite markers can only appear with nouns in subject or direct object role where they do not inflect for Layer II case markings (indirect objects) and are not accompanied by prepositions. When indirect objects are involved, an indefiniteness marker is ruled out and the interpretation of indefiniteness is always contextual. The following example is therefore ambivalent and the noun could be interpreted out of context as either definite or indefinite:

| (110) ama | š-am- $i$ | $m a S$ | $k a z ̌-a s-k i$ |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| I | talk-1SG-PRG | with | man-OBL.M-ABL |
|  | 'I am talking to a/the man.' |  |  |

### 4.2.3.2. Indefiniteness and predication markers

Frequently, indefinite plurals are presented with the non-verbal predication marker:

| (111) $\bar{u}$ | baSdēn | wēnma | $\check{c}-\bar{a} k$, | yaSni | $z$-āk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | then | wherever | go-2SG | PART | go-2SG |

šām-a-ka, slūrīy-a-ka, ž-āk
Sham-OBL.F-DAT Syria-OBL.F-DAT go-2SG
libnān-a-ka, lak-ēk dōm-ēni bol
Lebanon-OBL.F-DAT see-2SG Dom-PRED.PL much
'Wherever you go, if you go to al-Sham, to Syria, to Lebanon, you find many Dom.'
$\begin{array}{clll}\text { (112) giš } & \text { ašti, } & \text { kury-ē-san } & \text { bard-ēni, } \\ \text { all } & \text { there.is } & \text { house-PL-3PL } & \text { full-PRED.PL }\end{array}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { telefizyon-ēni, tallāž-ēni } \\
& \text { television-PRED.PL refrigerator-PRED.PL } \\
& \text { 'They have, everything, their houses are full, televisions, } \\
& \text { refrigerators.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

The predicative marker can also accompany indefinite singular nouns, taking the same position as an indefiniteness marker. It does not seem to convey any distinct function and appears in free variation with the indefiniteness marker, though less frequently:
(113)

| $e r-a$ | wāšī-san | zābititi | nām-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-3SG | with-3PL <br> officer-PRED.SG | name-3SG |  | Collinge

Collinge
'An officer called Collinge came with them.'
(114) bar-om par-d-a kurdiy-ēk
brother-1SG take-PAST-M Kurd.F-PRED.SG
'My brother married a Kurdish woman.'
wari-k-ar-a mlāy-ēk minšān ma
wear-VTR-3SG-REM headscarf-PRED.SG so.that NEG
džan-ad-is yaSni, $\bar{u} \quad x u l \grave{s}-a r-a$
know-3PL-3SG.OBL PART and exit-3SG-REM
mangiš-k-ar-a.
beg-VTR-3SG-REM
'She used to wear a headscarf so that they would not recognise her, right, and she used to go out to beg.'

| ga-r-om | rihhl-ēk | amakl | yaSni | ama | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| go.PAST-1SG | trip-PRED.SG | I | PART | I | and |
| Šōny-ēni |  |  |  |  |  |
| girl-PRED.PL |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'I went on a trip me/ I mean me and some girls.' |  |  |  |  |  |

pandži adžir-k-ad-a qaS-ēk minšān
3SG rent-VTR-PAST-M hall-PRED.SG for
Surus-ki.
wedding-ABL
'He rented a hall for the wedding.'
(118) dža-n-a mangiš-kar-and-a giš dōm-ē-man
go-1PL-REM begging-VTR-3PL-REM all Dom-PL-1PL
hundar, nan-and-a kiyās-am-ma pl-ēni, there bring-3PL-REM sack.PL-OBL.PL-LOC money-PRED.PL

```
man-ēk, sābūn}-i,\quadzēt-
bread-PRED.SG soap-PRED.SG oil-PRED.SG
'We used to go begging there all our people they used to bring sacks
of money, bread, soap, oil.'
```

Though in most cases speakers opt either for the indefiniteness marker or for the predication marker to indicate indefinite nouns, the two morphemes are not incompatible and they may appear together on the same nouns:


It seems to have been the potential interchangeability of the indefinite marker with the predication marker that was behind Macalister's (1914: 7) translation of $d \check{z} u r-i k$, with a predication marker, as 'a woman' - and thus as an example of an indefinite article or at least indefinite usage of the predication marker. Littmann (1920:126) even refers explicitly to the predicative endings $-i k /-\bar{e} k$ as "indefinite articles". In our corpus, predicative markers are especially common with attributive nouns and adjectives that accompany indefinite head nouns, the latter carrying the indefinite marker $-a k$.
(120) mart-ak ek-ak-i saḥaf-ik
time-INDEF one-INDEF-PRED.SG journalist-PRED.SG mascr-ik er-a izzā̧-ē-ta
Egyptian-PRED.SG come.PAST-M radio.station-OBL.F-DAT乌ammān-a-ki.
Amman-OBL.F-ABL
'Once somebody, an Egyptian journalist, came to Amman radio station.'
(121) ašti nkī-s ek-ak dusar-ēk
there.is at-3SG one-INDEF black-PRED.SG
'With him is a black person.'
$k e \overline{k a}$ wēs-t-or-i mas ek-ak dōm-i?
why sit-PAST-2SG-PRG with one-INDEF Dom-PRED.SG 'Why are you sitting together with a Dom person?'

| nan-d-a | ama-ke | findžan-ak | qahw-ēk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bring-PAST-M | 1SG-BEN | cup-INDEF | coffee-PRED.SG |
| 'He brought me a cup of coffee.' |  |  |  |


| $\begin{align*} & \text { čir-d-a }  \tag{124}\\ & \text { say-PAST-M } \end{align*}$ | ab-san-ke. | mušs |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | for-3PL-BEN | N |  |  |
| ik-ak | fall | $\bar{u}$ | k-ak ša |  |
|  | azy | and | one-INDEF gift | -PRED.SG |
| 'He said to them: this isn't true, one of you is crazy an gifted?' |  |  |  |  |


'The officer and the girl started to describe him, that he had with him a plate of hummus, with him was bread/ a loaf of bread, and that he has a golden tooth.'

From these examples it is clear that the role of defining a referential entity as indefinite, by any of the semantic characteristics of the category (numerical singularity, new topic, random selection of an item from a set, and so on), rests primarily with the indefiniteness marker $-a k$ itself. The predicative marker accompanies the attributive component, creating a kind of embedded predication: xalb-ak man-èk 'a loaf of bread', lit. 'a loaf, being bread'; ek-ak dusar-ēk'a black person'. lit 'somebody, being black', and so on. There is thus nothing in the attributive part of the construction that is of direct relevance to our definition and characterisation of indefinite structures in Domari. The only direct relevance of predication marking to indefiniteness is that it can either accompany the indefiniteness marker - ek-ak-i sahaf-ik ‘[being] somebody, being a journalist', ben-ak-i '[being] a sister' - or indeed take over the indefiniteness slot altogether: er-a wāšī-san zābiṭ-i 'an officer came with them', lit. 'there came with them, being an officer'.

As seen in the above examples, this strategy is especially popular when the indefinite entity is a direct object, and otherwise generally in a position following a lexical (verbal) predicate. Thus, although the preferred option is to mark out indefiniteness of the noun through the indefinite marker $-a k$, there is a clear intrusion of the predicative marker into the construction, via attributes to indefinite head nouns, but also accompanying or even replacing the indefiniteness marker with entities that are pragmatically exposed in post-
verbal position. Nevertheless, a clear-cut functional and structural distinction between indefiniteness markers and predication markers remains.

### 4.2.3.3. The expression of definiteness

Domari does not have a definite article. Definiteness can be expressed on singular and plural direct objects through the use of oblique case marking. By contrast, the absence of case marking on direct objects indicates an unspecified quantity or entity. Consider the following elicited contrasts:

| (126) ama | piy-am-i | guld-as |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| I | drink-1SG-PRG | tea-OBL.M |

'I am drinking my tea' (with situational reference to a particular cup of tea)

| (127) ama $\quad$ in-mang-am-e' | piy-am | gulda <br> I <br> NEG-ask-1SG-NEG <br> drink-1SG.SUBJ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tea |  |  |

(128) pi-r-om qarwy-a
drink-PAST-1SG coffee-OBL.F
'I drank (the/my) coffee.'
(129) pi-r-om qarwi
drink-PAST-1SG coffee
'I drank (some) coffee.'
(130) par-d-om man-as
take-PAST-1SG bread-OBL.M
'I took/bought (an identifiable loaf of) bread.'
par-d-om mana
take-PAST-1SG bread
'I took/bought (some) bread.'
(132) ama šar-d-om pl-an
I hide-PAST-1SG money-OBL.PL
'I hid the money.'
(133) ama šar-d-om ple
I hide-PAST-1SG money
'I hid some money.'

The sometimes rather subtle distinction between definite and indefinite direct object is nicely illustrated by the following utterance from a narration:

| (134)pandži šir-d-a: pandžan <br> 3SG kān- $\bar{l}$ qol-ad-a <br> 3SG say-PAST-M they <br> was-3PL open-3PL-REM  <br> kury-an $\bar{l}$ bidd-hom qaft-ad | ple |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| house-OBL.PL and want-3PL steal-3PL money |  |
| 'He said they used to break into the houses and wanted to steal |  |
| money.' |  |

The oblique marking on kuryan 'the houses' indicates that there is a preestablished understanding shared by speaker and hearer as to the identity of the houses in question, which may be derived for instance by conceptualising all houses in a given, identifiable location as the potential targets for the thieves. In any case a signal is given that knowledge about which houses were being raided is available to the listener. By contrast, there is no such pre-conception about any money that is yet to be stolen, and so this entity - ple'money' in the nominative plural - is part of an open-ended set of entities that answer to the specifications of the semantic category 'money': The hearer does not know, and is unable to create a picture, of whose money, or how much money, the raiders would steal.

The use of direct object case marking to indicate definiteness is widespread in other languages that lack overt definite articles (but may have overt markers of indefiniteness), including languages of the region such as Kurdish, Turkish, and Persian, but also Indo-Aryan languages. Domari thus combines an inherited feature with an areal feature, or perhaps it simply allows us to identify a huge area as a convergent macro-area for this particular feature.

The following examples illustrate the promotion of nouns from an unknown, non-topical entity to one that is in the centre of attention and so determined and identifiable ('definite') in the mind of the listener. The initial introduction of the entity is in the form of an indefinite noun, then as a definite noun, which, in the role of the direct object is case-marked for the oblique: 'alf-ak 'one thousand' is thus picked up again as qēra 'alf-as 'he gave the thousand' in (135); zard, an indefinite currency reference, is continued as parda plan 'he took the money' in (136); mana ū saḥnak ḥummuṣ 'bread and a plate of hummus' in (137) is referred to in the continuation of the narrative as manas $\bar{u} h$ hummṣī 'the bread and the hummus' Note the absence of overt indefinite marking with expressions of quantity, material, and measurements such as zard 'money, currency' and mana 'bread':
(135) ha 'alf-ak,
here thousand-INDEF and here five-hundred
xamismiyye $\bar{u}$ put
five-hundred and eat-PAST-M thousand-OBL.M
(136)
qol-d-a
open-PAST-M talātīn zard thirty gold
dozdan-os šōny-a-ki. lak-id-a
wallet-3SG girl-OBL.F-ABL see-PAST-M
isra'il-ik. par-d-a pl-an min dozdan-ki ū tir-d-osan džēb-is-ma from wallet-ABL and put-PAST-3PL pocket-3SG.OBL-LOC 'He opened the girl's wallet. He found thirty Israeli pounds. He took the money from the wallet and put it in his pocket.'
(137) a. qabel sab§a $\bar{u}$ Š̌rīn wars mām-om before seven and twenty year uncle-1SG putur yāsir gar-a swēq-ē-ta son Yassir go.PAST-M market-OBL.F-DAT štrī-k-ar mana $\bar{u}$ ṣaḥn-ak buy-VTR-3SG.SUBJ bread and plate-INDEF hummuṣ
hummus
b. basd ma štrī-k-ad-a man-as $\bar{u}$
after COMP buy-VTR-PAST-M bread-OBL.M and humms-ī $\quad$ xul-d-a min
hummus-OBL.M open-PAST-M from
dakākīn-an-kil bāb isbāt $\bar{u}$
shops.PL-OBL.PL-ABL gate Lions and
kil-d-a daradz̈-ē-s hay-ki illi Sand descend-PAST-M stair-PL-3SG this-ABL REL at bāb isbāt $\bar{u}$ lek-id-a ik/ šōn-ik gate Lions and see-PAST-M one girl-PRED.SG yahūdiy-ēk Jewish-PRED.SG name-3SG Eliza
a. 'Twenty seven years ago my cousin Yassir went to the market to buy bread and a plate of hummus.
b. After he bought the bread and the hummus he came out of the shops at/Lions Gate/ and went down the stairs of this place, at Lions Gate, and he saw a/ a Jewish girl, her name was Eliza.

Explicit morphological marking for definiteness independently of oblique case marking exists only with a single lexico-grammatical item in Domari, namely the numeral 'two'. Here, the indefinite form is di (di tāt 'two Arabs', di bare 'two brothers') while the definite form is dinne (dine dōman 'the two

Doms', dine bare 'the two brothers'). Consider the distribution in the following examples:

'The old man went away, he brought two Arabs from the village, they tied up the two Doms and they took them to the judge, to the court.'
(139) ašti di bar-e, gar-e. minn-d-ē-san
there.is two brother-PL go.PAST-PL hold-PAST-PL-3PL tmaliy-e pand-as-ma.
soldier-PL road-OBL.M-LOC
'There were two brothers. They travelled. Soldiers stopped them on the road. [...]'
(140) dine bar-e gar-e dèy-ka two.DEF brother-PL go.PAST-PL village-DAT gari-r-e, ma lak-ad-e wala ik-ak return-PAST-3PL NEG see-PAST-3PL and.not one dêy-ma
village-LOC
'The two brothers went back to the village, they didn't find anyone in the village.'
(141) bardo aha qrara yaSni baSd m-r-i also this.M Bedouin PART after die-PAST-F
ihi šōnī gēna mišta-h-r-a wi-m-r-a
this.F girl further ill-VITR-PAST.M and-die-PAST-M
$\bar{u}$ dfin-k-ad-e din-an malbald
and bury-VTR-PAST-3PL two-OBL.PL together
'And then, after the girl died, the Bedouin also fell ill and died and they buried the two of them together.'

With Arabic numerals, a similar effect is occasionally achieved by the use of Arabic definite articles:
mar-d-e I-'arbaS xurfăn
kill-PAST-3PL DEF-four sheep.PL
'They slaughtered the four sheep.'
This includes all ordinal numerals, which are all Arabic-derived:
šōnī kahind-ar-i emin-ta, er-i min girl look-3SG-PRG 1PL-DAT come.PAST-F from awwal eka, wi-t-tāni wi-t-tālet wi-r-rābiৎ first one and-DEF-second and-DEF-third and-DEF-fourth wi-I-xāmis, lak-ed-i yāsr-as and-DEF-fifth see-PAST-3SG-F Yassir-OBL.M
'The girl looked at us, she approached the first one, and the second, and the third, and the fourth, and the fifth, she saw Yassir.'
$\bar{u}$ putr-os hesṣaS Salim-ah-r-a till-a and son-3SG now learn-VITR-PAST-M big-M eh-r-a muhāam-ik, $\bar{u} \quad d \bar{l}$-os become-PAST-M lawyer-PRED.SG and daughter-3SG it-täniye eh-r-i muhandis-ēk. DEF-second.F become-PAST-F engineer-PRED.SG 'And her son has now studied and has become an important lawyer, and her other daughter has become an engineer.'

Other widespread usages of the Arabic definite article include indications of dates and times of the day (e.g. sinet 1 -'arba $\bar{u}$ xamsin 'the year fifty four', l-murgrub 'in the evening'), formulaic and discourse-regulating expressions such as $l$-muhimm 'anyway' (lit. 'the important [thing]') or bi-l-’āxir 'finally', and place names and institution names (deyeski l-Sirāq 'the towns of Iraq', l'urdumn 'Jordan'). Occasionally, however, speakers make use of Arabic articles in conjunction with Arabic nouns, though mostly formal terms, institution names, collectives, and other non-domestic vocabulary:
$d z ̌-a ̄ k$ par-ēk ihi mūdīr-as-ke l-izāৎa
go-2SG take-2SG this.F director-OBL.M-BEN DEF-radio
illi musrār-ē-m-ik
REL Musrara-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
'Go and take this to the diretor of the radio station in Musrara.'

| (146) Sašān ihne ama | n-mang-am-san-é' | I-Sarab |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| because thus I | NEG-want-1SG-3PL-NEG | DEF-Arabs |
| 'Because of this I don't like the Arabs.' |  |  |

Definite subjects in Domari generally lack any form of morphological marking for definiteness. Their pragmatic status as definite is derivable strictly from their contextual interpretation. Quite often, definiteness of the subject correlates with topicality, which may be expressed by exposing the subject in the first, pre-verbal position in the utterance. Consider in (147) the shift between the first mention of tmaliye 'soldiers' in minndēsan tmaliye 'soldiers stopped them', as an indefinite subject in post-verbal position, and the second mention in tmaliye pardēsan 'the soldiers took them', here as a definite subject in pre-verbal position:

```
(147) a. ašti di bar-e, gar-e.
    there.is two brother-PL go.PAST-PL
    b. min-d-e-san tmaliy-e pand-as-ma
    hold-PAST-PL-3PL soldier-PL road-OBL.M-LOC
    c. itme qaftinn-e-hr-es-i.
    you.PL thief-PL-be -2PL-PRG
    d. eme miš̌̌ qaftinn-ahr-ēn-i.
    we NEG thief-be-1PL-PRG
    e. eme/ er-èn-i
    we come.PAST-1PL-PRG take-1PL.SUBJ
    qarā`ib-è-man
    relative.PL-PL-1PL
    f. tmaliy-e par-d-è-san. ban-d-è-san.
    soldier-PL take-PAST-PL-3PL tie-PAST-PL-3PL
    nan-d-è-san maḩkam-è-ka
    bring-PAST-PL-3PL court-OBL.F-DAT
    a. 'There were two brothers, they travelled.
    b. Soldiers stopped them on the road.
    c. You are thieves.
    d. We are not thieves.
    e. We have come to take our relatives.
    f. The soldiers took them, they tied them up, they brought them
        before the court.'
```

In the following example, the first mention of mūdir' 'the director' is as an indirect object, appearing after the predicate. Arguably, the definiteness status of 'director' is given by the nature of the term (the expectation that there is one director in every institution and hence the anticipation that knowledge about the existence of a director is presupposed), but no structural indication accompanies this semantic-pragmatic status in either müdïr parda 'the director
took', mūdīr xal 'the director said' or in biddo iyyāk mudīr 'the director wants you'. We do, however, see the promotion of kart 'card' from an indefinite referent (kart in ašti wāšīm karti 'I have a card in my possession') to one that is definite, signalled by the oblique marking of the direct object in parde ehe tmaliye aha kartas 'the soldiers took the card':

g. nig-ir-a džamī $\bar{u}$ sallim-k-ad-a enter-PAST-M Jamil and greet-VTR-PAST-M aha mudir-as-ta. this.M director-OBL.M-DAT
a. 'Jamil said to the soldiers I have with me a letter, take it and give it to this guy, the director
b. The soldiers took the letter and brought it in to the director.
c. The director took the envelope and opened it.
d. He read the letter and saw that it was the director's wife who had written it.
e. The director said: go and call this Dom man.
f. The soldiers said, go in, the director wants you.
g. Jamil entered and greeted the director.'

While there is obviously no overt definite article that indicates definiteness with subjects in Domari, we do find usage of the demonstrative in a function that does not necessarily serve the focusing or disambiguation of a referent, as in the above example sallimkada aha mudirasta 'he greeted the director', or müdïr parda aha zarfas 'the director took the envelope', or indeed parde ehe tmaliye aha kartas 'the soldiers took the letter'. This appears to be the construction to which Macalister (1914: 8) referred as the so-called "superdefinite article". Macalister's description of a structurally reduced demonstrative that is attached to the noun does not quite match the structure found in our corpus, however. What we do find is the use of a full adnominal demonstrative with a reduced contrastive deictic function.

In the following narrative excerpt, the speaker introduces the referent 'lantern' as part of the background for the event that is being retold. The 'lantern' appears as an indefinite noun - an unknown and in the first instance unspecified entity - with a predicative marker: lambēk (in 'we used to light a lantern'). Note that indefiniteness here allows the speaker to introduce the activity of lighting a lamp, rather than establish information about any particular lantern. The speaker then continues to establish the setting of the actual event, now referring to the lantern as ihi lambē (in 'I lit the lantern every night'), accompanied by a demonstrative. Having established the pattern of lighting a lantern in the household as the background to the event, the speaker can now refer to it as a familiar pattern: Lighting the lantern now portrays a routine activity that is familiar to the hearer from the previous context. The complicating event is introduced in the next segment: The lantern fell on somebody's head. Here again, the speaker refers to the lantern as ihi lamba, accompanied by a demonstrative. It is still clear, however, that there is no need for disambiguation, that is for singling out a particular lantern from
among a potential set of similar objects. The demonstrative merely serves to reinforce the familiarity of the lantern - its definiteness - but is not employed in order to instigate any additional processing effort on the part of the hearer in order to identify the specificity of a particular lantern, i.e. to bring a particular lantern into special 'focus':

| (149) a. | $\begin{array}{lllll}\bar{u} & d i \bar{s}-a k & \text { min } & \text { arat-an-ki } & k z n-t / \\ \text { and } & \text { day-INDEF } & \text { from } & \text { night-OBL.PL-ABL } & \text { was.-SG }\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | hadal $k a ̄ n$ $n k \overline{1}-m a n$ $n-h e-’$ kahraba, <br> this.M was.3SG.M by-1PL NEG-is-NEG electricity <br> kun-nā walaS-k-ēn-a lamb-ēk.   <br> was-1PL light-VTR-1PL-REM lantern-PRED.SG   |
| b. | $\begin{array}{llllll}\bar{u} & \text { kull } & \text { lēle } & \text { ama } & \text { walaS- } k \text {-am- } i & \text { ihi } \\ \text { and } & \text { every } & \text { night } & \text { I } & \text { light-VTR-1SG-PRG } & \text { this.F }\end{array}$ |
|  | lamb-è. |
|  | lantern-OBL.F |
| c. | dīs-ak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i <br> day-INDEF this.F lantern fall-PAST-F |
|  | $\begin{array}{lll}\text { siry-is-ka } & h a y-k i & \text { bar-im } \\ \text { head-3SG.OBL-DAT } & \text { this-ABL } & \text { brother-1SG.OBL }\end{array}$ |
|  | dir-ki. |
|  | daughter-ABL |
| a. | 'And one night I was/ this/ we had no electricity, we used to light a lantern. |
| b. | And every night I would light the lantern. |
| c. | And one day the lantern fell on the head of what's her name, my brother's daughter.' |

One might still ask how we know that the speaker in the previous example is using the demonstrative merely in order to identify an entity that is familiar to the hearer from the immediate context of the discourse, and not in order to single out a particular entity; in order words, how do we know that we are dealing here with definiteness rather than with a situative or discourse-oriented deictic force? The answer lies, beyond the interpretation of the narration itself, also in the comparison of the distribution of demonstratives in other narrations. The following extract from a traditional story allows us to track the typical procedure for the promotion of topical referents along the definiteness scale. Tables 21 and 22 provide an overview of the morphological devices that are used to refer to the two main characters in the story, the Bedouin boy, who is
the Sheikh's son, and the Dom girl Ghazzale, the daughter of the Dom head man:


| putr-os- $i$ | šēex-as-ki | till-ēk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| son-3SG-PRED.SG | Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL | big-PRED.SG |
| aha, |  |  |
| this.M |  |  |

j. ṣār kull lēle aw-ar-i nkī-san $\bar{u}$ began.M every night come-3SG-PRG at-3PL and shu-r-or-i Sand dōm-an-ki. spend.night-VITR.PAST-3SG-PRG at Dom-OBL.PL-ABL
k . $\bar{u}$ ihi dōmiya jazzāle našy-ar-i
and this.F Dom.F Ghazzale dance-3SG-PRG
$a b-u s-k e$.
for-3SG-BEN

1. putr-os šēx-as-ki aha qrara
son-3SG Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL this.M Bedouin
hay-os hibb-r-a ihi dömiy-ē $\bar{u}$
this-3SG like-PAST-M this.F Dom-OBL.F and
ihi dōmiya gēna ḥubb-r-os-is.
this.F Dom.F further love-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL
m. ṣār qaft-ar-i min boy-os
began.M steal-3SG-PRG from father-3SG
kury-a-ki aha qrara nan-ar-i
house-OBL.F-ABL this.M Bedouin bring-3SG-PRG
ihi domiy-ē-ke $\bar{u}$ dräri-k-ed-os-san
this.F Dom-OBL.F-BEN and fill-VTR-PAST-3SG-3PL
ple
money
n. qrara aha šōna, mang-id-a ihi

Bedouin this.M boy ask-PAST-M this.F
domi-yē min boy-is-ki
Dom-OBL.F from father-3SG.OBL-ABL
o. boy-os ma rd-ah-r-a de-r-is.
father-3SG NEG accept-VITR-PAST-M give-3SG.OBL
p. yalni atu boy-or šēx-i

PART you.SG father-2SG Sheikh-PRED.SG
till-ēk
big-PRED.SG

| q. | $\bar{u}$ | par | $i k-a k$ | dōmiya |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | take.2SG.SUBJ one-INDEF | Dom.F | PART |  |
| aha | yaSni | na-qbul- $h$-ond-é, |  | yaSni |
| this.M | PART | NEG-accept-VITR-3PL-NEG | PART |  |
| ahl-or. |  |  |  |  |
| family-2SG |  |  |  |  |

r. gar-a aha šōna šir-d-a go.PAST-M this.M boy speak-PAST-M boy-is-ke, qrara, inni ama father-OBL.M-BEN Bedouin COMP.1SG I mang-am-i ihi domiy-ē bidd-ī
want-1SG-PRG this.F Dom-OBL.F want-1SG par-am itžawwiz-h-om-is. take-1SG.SUBJ marry-VITR-1SG-3SG.OBL
s. boy-os qal ehe dom-ēni $\bar{u}$ iza
father-3SG said these.PL Dom-PRED.PL and if par-d-or-is mar-am/
take-PAST-2SG-3SG.OBL kill-1SG.SUBJ
mar-am-san-i gištāne, giš dōm-an
kill-1SG.SUBJ-3PL-PRG all all Dom-OBL.PL mar-am-i.
kill-1SG-PRG
t. rfự-k-ed-a ka aha boy-os aha refuse-VTR-PAST-M this.M father-3SG this.M šōn-as-ki.
boy-OBL.M-ABL
u. arātin, $=$ yaSni fi-l-lēl, $=$ aha šēx
at.night PART in-DEF-night this.M Sheikh qrara šir-d-a qrar-an-ke
Bedouin speak-PAST-M Bedouin-OBL.PL-BEN hawū-k-as giš dōm-an min hindar
expel-VTR-2PL.SUBJ all Dom-OBL.PL from here
v. tānī dīs aha šōna qrara, putr-os
next day this.M boy Bedouin son-3SG
šēx-as-ki, gar-a ta lak-ar
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL go.PAST-M COMP see-3SG.SUBJ

| dōm-an | ma | lak-ed-os-san, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Dom-OBL.PL | NEG | see-PAST-3SG-3PL |  |
| raw-ird-ēd-i | min hundar min | uhu |  |
| travel-PAST-3PL-PRG | from | there from | that.M |

x ehe dōm-e raw-ird-e min
these.PL Dom-PL walk-PAST-3PL from halab-a-ki gar-e krēn?
Aleppo-OBL.F-ABL go.PAST-3PL where
Sīraq-a-ta
Iraq-OBL.F-DAT
y. aha šōna șār row-ar-i atnī-san,
this.M boy began.M cry-3SG-PRG about-3PL
man-d-a boy-is kury-a $\bar{u}$
leave-PAST-M father-3SG.OBL house-OBL.F and
gar-a t/ ras-r-a döm-an.
go.PAST-M return-PAST-M Dom-OBL.PL
a. 'There were twenty Dom households, they travelled.
b. They came to the Bedouin lands of Aleppo.
c. They began to give parties.
d. One of them, her name was Ghazzale, she was very pretty.
e. Her father was the leader of the Dom.
f. She began to dance and the Dom would play the rabbaba for her.
g. They would play the rabbaba and she would dance.
h. The Bedouin came and began to give them flour, wheat, = that is flour right and wheat $=$ and oil $=$ that is oil $=$.
i. One of these Bedouins was the son of an important Sheikh.
j. He began to visit them every night and spend the night with the Dom.
k. And this Dom girl Ghazzale would dance for him.

1. The Sheikh's son, the Bedouin, liked the Dom girl and the Dom girl liked him too.
m. The Bedouin started to steal from his father's household and to bring things to this Dom girl and to bestow her with money.
n. The Bedouin boy asked her father for the Dom girl's hand.
o. Her father did not agree to give her away.
p. You are the son of an important Sheikh,
q. and should you take a Dom girl, your people would not accept this.
r. The boy went and told his father, the Bedouin, I want this Dom girl, I would like to marry her.
s. His father said, these are Dom, and if you were to marry her I will kill all of them, I will kill all the Dom.
t. The boy's father refused.
u. At night $=$ that is, at night $=$ the Bedouin Sheikh said to the Bedouins expel all the Dom from here.
v. The next day the Bedouin boy, the Sheikh's son, went to see the Dom but could not find them.
w. They travelled from there from that village of his.
x. The Dom left Aleppo and where did they go? to Iraq.
y. The boy started to cry, he left his father's house and he went/ he went back to the Dom.'

Table 21. Use of referential forms for 'The Dom girl Ghazzale' in example (150)

| Segment | Form | Gloss | Phrase | Phrase translation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| d. | ikak | somebody.F | ikak nāmōsēya yazzālēk | 'a girl, her name was Ghazzale' |
| d. | ihi | this.F | ihi guldik bol | 'she is very pretty' |
| e. | -s | 3.SG possessive | boyos tillosi dōmanki | 'her father is the leader of the Dom' |
| f. | -t | 3.SG finite | şārat našyari | 'she began to dance' |
| g . | pandži | 3.SG pronoun | ū pandži našyari | and she dances' |
| k. | ihi dōmiya | this.F Dom girl | ū ihi dōmìa yazzāle | 'and this Dom girl Ghazzale' |
| 1. | ihi dōmiyē | this.F Dom girl OBL | hibbra ihi dōmiyē | 'he liked the Dom girl' |
| 1. | ihi dōmìya | this.F Dom girl | ihi dömiya gēna hubbrosis | 'the Dom girl like him too' |
| n . | ihi <br> domiyē | this.F Dom girl OBL | mangida ihi domiyē | 'he asked [to marry] the Dom girl' |
| r. | ihi domìyē | this.F Dom girl OBL | ama mangami ihi domiyē | 'I am asking for this Dom girl' |

Table 22. Use of referential forms for 'The Bedouin boy' in example (150)

| Segment | Form | Gloss | Phrase | Phrase translation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | ekak | somebody.M | ekak min ehe | 'one of these |
|  |  |  | qraranki | Bedouins' |
| 1. | aha | this.M | putrosi šēxaski tillēk aha | 'he is the older son of the Sheikh' |
| j. | - | 3.SG finite | ṣār Kull lēle awari | 'he began to visit every night' |
| k. | abuske | for-3SG-BEN | našyari abuske | 'she dances for him' |
| 1. | aha qrara | this.M Bedouin | aha qrara hibbra | 'this Bedouin boy loved' |
| m. | aha qrara | this.M Bedouin | ṣār qaftari ... aha qrara | 'the Bedouin started stealing' |
| n. | aha šōna | this.M boy | qrara aha šōna, mangida | 'the Bedouin boy asked' |
| r. | aha šōna | this. M boy | gara aha šōna širda byyiske | 'the boy went to speak to his father' |
| t. | aha šōnaski | this.M boy-OBL.M-ABL | rfudkeda aha boyos aha šōnaski | 'the boy's father refused' |
| v. | aha šōna | this.M boy | aha šōna qrara, ... gara ta lakar | 'the Bedouin boy went to see' |
| y . | aha šōna | this.M boy | aha šōna ṣār rowari atnisan | 'the Bedouin boy began to cry' |

It is noteworthy that continuous nominal reference to the two identified, principal protagonists in the story is always accompanied by a demonstrative. This use of the demonstrative is not contrastive, and does not involve any shift of focus or disambiguation of the referent within a set of potential referents. We can conclude that Domari has rather lax rules on the distribution of the demonstrative in narrative discourse, or rather that the demonstrative also serves to indicate an established, definite referent in narrations, and not just one that is at the centre of a disambiguating focus. At the same time, we have seen above that definiteness of the noun does not at all require the presence of the demonstrative. In subject (and in indirect object) role, the plain noun, unaccompanied by any morphological modification, is treated as definite when it is a contextually established and familiar entity. In direct object role, definiteness is expressed by the use of the oblique case.

### 4.3. Case inflection

### 4.3.1. The layout of nominal case

Like other New Indo-Aryan (NIA) languages, Domari shows a layered system of nominal inflection. I use the terminology coined by Masica (1991), where Layer I refers to inflectional elements inherited directly from Old Indo-Aryan (OIA) which in NIA indicate an opposition of nominative and general oblique; Layer II is a closed and limited set of abstract, grammaticalised markers deriving form Middle Indo-Aryan (MIA) postpositions and postposed location adverbs; and Layer III elements are adpositions, i.e. analytical location specifiers.

Domari resembles Romani in much of its nominal inflection typology: Both languages have resisted phonological erosion of Layer I markers to a considerable extent. The general oblique, a Layer I marker, serves in both languages not only as the basis for further case formations with Layer II-III markers, as it does in other NIA languages, but also as an independent marker of the direct object. Gender, like number, a Layer I property, is maintained in both languages only in the singular, and neutralised in the plural. In both Domari and Romani, Layer II affixes are attached directly to, and are inseparable from the noun, forming in effect a new set of agglutinative synthetic case markers. And both languages are unique among the Indo-Aryan languages in showing exclusively prepositions rather than postpositions as Layer III markers. ${ }^{21}$ Unlike Romani, however, Domari shows no phonological assimilation to the preceding consonant and so no morphophonological alternation in the forms of Layer II markers (cf. Romani -ke/-ge, -te/-de, etc.). Also in contrast with Romani, the distribution of Layer I-II markers is not constrained by a hierarchy of either animacy or intrinsic referential prominence (see Matras 1997). Nonetheless, referentiality in the form of definiteness does play a role; as we saw above, definite direct objects take on a Layer I oblique case marker while indefinite direct objects do not. The following examples illustrate the distribution of case layers in Domari:

Layer I (inflectional case marking for nominative and oblique):
(151) gori
horse
'horse' [subject]
(152) qar
donkey
'donkey' [subject]
(153) gory-a
horse-OBL.F
'horse' [direct object]
(154) qar-as
donkey-OBL.M
'donkey' [direct object]
Layer II (agglutinating case suffixes based on the oblique form):
(155) gory-a-ta
horse-OBL.F-DAT
'on the horse' [indirect object]
(156) qar-as-ta
donkey-OBL.M-DAT
'on the donkey' [indirect object]
Layer III (prepositions, accompanied by the noun in the Layer II Ablative/ Prepositional case):
(157) agir gory-a-ki
in.front horse-OBL.F-ABL
'in front of the horse' [prepositional object]
(158) agir qar-as-ki
in.front donkey-OBL.M-ABL
'in front of the donkey' [prepositional object]
Three additional morphological devices interact potentially with nominal case markers. As discussed above, the indefiniteness marker attaches to singular nouns and neutralises Layer I case marking:

| (159) | $e r-a$ | kaž-ak |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | come.PAST-M | man-INDEF |
|  | 'A man arrived.' |  |
| (160) | lah-ed-om | kaž-ak |
|  | see-PAST-1SG | man-INDEF |
|  | 'I saw a man.' |  |

At the same time, the indefiniteness marker is not compatible with Layer II/III case marking, leaving the definiteness status of the noun structurally undefined and so dependent on contextual interpretation:

```
(161) š-ird-om
    talk-PAST-1SG with man-OBL.M-ABL
    'I talked with a/the man.'
```

Second, possessive markers occupy the Layer I case inflection slot. They are generally sensitive, therefore, to nominative (subject-role) and oblique (direct and indirect object-role) case marking, and can be combined with Layer II/III markers as well:
(162) aha bar-om
this.M brother-1SG.NOM ${ }^{22}$
'This is my brother.'
(163) mar-d-om bar-im
hit-PAST-1SG brother-1SG.OBL
'I hit my brother.'
(164) š-ir-d-om maS bar-im-ki
talk-PAST-1SG with brother-1SG.OBL-ABL 'I talked with my brother.'

Finally, non-verbal predication markers occupy a slot that either overrides Layer I case markers, or attaches to Layer II case markers:
ihi kur-ik nohr-ik
this.F house-PRED.SG red-PRED.SG
'This is a/the red house.'

| lah-ed-om | kur-ik | nohr-ik |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| see-PAST-1SG | house-PRED.SG | red-PRED.SG |
| 'I saw a/the red house.' |  |  |

(167) bar-om
kury-a-m-ēk
brother-1SG house-OBL.F.-LOC-PRED.SG
'My brother is in the house.'

Tables 23 and 24 illustrate the interaction of these morphological devices with nominal case inflection for the nouns gori 'horse' (feminine, $i$-declension) and $q a r$ 'donkey' (masculine, consonantal declension).

Table 23. Noun layout, feminine $i$-declension

| Singular |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nominative | gori | 'horse' |
| Presentation with predication marker | ihi gorik | 'this is a horse' |
| Nominative with possessive marker | goryom | 'my horse' |
| Indirect object with possessive marker | qoldom goryimta | 'I rode my horse' |
| Indefinite direct object | lakedom goryak | 'I saw a horse' |
| Definite direct object | lakedom gorya | 'I saw the horse' |
| Indirect object with Layer II marker | qoldom goryata | 'I rode the horse' |
| Indirect object with predication marker | pandži goryatēk | 'he is on the horse' |
| Plural |  |  |
| Nominative | goriye | 'horses' |
| Presentation with predication marker | ehe goryēni | 'these are horses' |
| Nominative with possessive marker | goryēman | 'our horses' |
| Indirect object with possessive marker | qildē̄n goryēmanta | 'we rode our horses' |
| Indefinite direct object | lakedom goryēni | ''I saw some horses' |
| Definite direct object | lakedom goryan | '' saw the horses' |
| Indirect object with Layer II marker | qildēn goryanta | 'we rode the horses' |
| Indirect object with predication marker | pandžan goryantēk | 'they are on the horses' |

Table 24. Noun layout: masculine, consonantal declension

| Singular |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nominative | qar | 'donkey' |
| Presentation with predication marker | aha qari | 'this is a donkey' |
| Nominative with possessive marker | qarom | 'my donkey' |
| Indirect object with possessive marker | qoldom qarimta | 'I rode my donkey' |
| Indefinite direct object | lakedom qarak | 'I saw a donkey' |
| Definite direct object | lakedom qaras | 'I saw the donkey' |
| Indirect object with Layer II marker | qoldom qarasta | 'I rode the donkey' |
| Indirect object with predication marker | pandži qarastēk | 'he is on the donkey' |
| Plural |  |  |
| Nominative | qare | 'donkeys' |
| Presentation with predication marker | ehe qarēni | 'these are donkeys' |
| Nominative with possessive marker | qarēman | 'our donkeys' |
| Indirect object with possessive marker | qildēn qarēmanta | 'we rode our donkeys' |
| Indefinite direct object | lakedom qarēni | 'I saw some donkeys' |
| Definite direct object | lakedom qaran | 'I saw the donkeys' |
| Indirect object with Layer II | qildēn qaranta | 'we rode the donkeys' |
| Indirect object with predication marker | pandžan qarantēk | 'they are on the donkeys' |

The interaction of case marking, indefiniteness marking, possessive marking, and non-verbal predication marking is shown once more in the following narrative examples: In (168), we find a contrast between the phrase
ma§ šōnyanki 'with the girls', where the noun shows Layer I and II affixes in conjunction with a Layer III preposition, and the phrase ma§ sạhbeēmki 'with my friends', where the possessive marker occupies the slot of Layer I case marking:
(168) $\bar{u}$ in-man-ad-m-e, kil-š-am mas
and NEG-let-3PL-1SG-NEG exit-SUBJ-1SG with
šōny-an-ki, mas sāhb-ē-m-ki, mas
girl-OBL.PL-ABL with friend-PL-1SG-ABL with
'iši
something
'And they wouldn't let me go out with the girls, with my friends, with anything.'

Next, we see how the indefinite marker blocks any nominal case inflection on the indirect object $f i$ dēy-ak' in a village', while the possessive marker (which is co-referential with the possessor 'Iraq') blocks Layer I case inflection on min dèyeski 'from the villages of'':
(169) fí dēy-ak min dēy-ē-s-ki I-Sīrāq in town-INDEF from village-SG.OBL-3SG-ABL DEF-Iraq 'In one of the villages of Iraq'

Finally, we see how the predicative marker attaches to the indirect object marked by Layer I and II inflection endings in kuryamēk 'at home':

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (170) } \bar{u} \text { da'iman yaSni kun-t ama } \\
& \text { and always PART was-1SG I } \\
& \begin{array}{lll}
\text { kury-a-m-ēk } & \text { wala } & \text { kil-š-am-i } \\
\text { house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { and.NEG } \\
\text { exit-SUBJ-1SG-PRG }
\end{array}
\end{array} \\
& \text { wala aw-am-i wala } \\
& \text { and.NEG come-1SG-PRES and.NEG } \\
& \text { waddi-k-ar-m-i mahall-ak } \\
& \text { bring-VTR-3SG-1SG-PRG place-INDEF } \\
& \text { 'And I was always at home, I wouldn't go out and I wouldn't come } \\
& \text { back nor would she take me anywhere.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 4.3.2. Layer I declension classes

As in other Indo-Aryan languages, Domari Layer I inflection continues a small selection of Old- and Middle Indo-Aryan case inflection endings, which have been re-distributed to form a new set of several declension classes. In the
nominative singular, Domari, like other Modern Indo-Aryan languages, tends to form a set of nominative vowel endings by assimilating traces of old nominative endings to contemporary adjectival endings, which distinguish gender and number. Thus we find masculine $-a$ and feminine $-i$. In addition there are also consonantal stems and feminine derivation markers -iya and ni. The nominative plural ending is invariably $-e$, it too matching the adjectival ending ee. Arabic loans for the most part retain their Arabic plural forms, to which the Domari plural suffix -e is usually added. All possible Arabic plural formations are retained, including 'full' (suffixed) plurals in -in (masculine) and $-\bar{a} t$ (feminine), and the so-called 'broken' (internal-inflectional) plurals in $\mathrm{CCu} \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{CCa} \mathrm{C}$ (= Modern Standard Arabic 'aCCāC), CuCCān, and CaCāCīn.

In the oblique, we find masculine -as- continuing the Old and Middle IndoAryan masculine and neuter genitive form in -asya and -assa respectively, and feminine -a-continuing the old feminine dative, ablative, and genitive forms containing the segment - $\bar{a} y(\bar{a})$. Consonantal declension classes of both genders may show an accusative ending in $-\bar{i}$ (see below), which appears to continue an old locative case ending of neuter stems in $-i$. Feminine nouns carrying the nominative derivation endings -iya and Arabic vocalic feminine nouns in $-a$ tend to have an oblique ending $-\bar{e}$, in all likelihood a result of vowel assimilation deriving from the old feminine instrumental in -ayā-. The overall inherited inventory is thus more complex than in Romani, where the only surviving oblique endings are masculine -es- and feminine -a-. (Romani declensions are further enriched by Greek-derived nominal endings.) The Domari plural oblique ending is invariably -an-, continuing the old genitive plural ending -ānām (Romani -en-). Arabic nouns are assimilated into the Domari oblique inflection and are distributed among the different declension classes.

Nominal gender is indicated more frequently in the singular oblique stem (-as-for masculines, -iya- or -iyē- for feminines), and for some classes in the vocalic ending of the nominative singular ( $-a$ for masculines, $-i$ for feminines). In the plural, feminine gender is often indicated through the presence of the glide $-y$-between the stem and plural marker (thus nominative -iye, oblique $-i y a n$ ). Arabic nouns with gender-specific indicators are feminines in $-a$ (often dialectal -e), masculine plurals in -in and feminine plurals in -āt.

The interaction of Layer I nominative and oblique markers in both singular and plural, and their frequent interaction with gender, provide the basis for a division of Domari nouns into declension classes. This division is summarised in Tables 25-26 and explained in the following paragraphs. The Tables present for each declension group (class) an example of nominative and direct object (oblique) forms, as well as of a form with a selected Layer II marker (an indirect object). The latter serves to illustrate the mode of attachment of Layer II markers to the oblique stem, which may differ for the individual classes. ${ }^{23}$

Table 25. Layer I nominal declension classes: Singular

| Group | Nominative |  | Oblique <br> (Direct Object) | with Layer II (Indirect Object) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1a | döm | 'Dom man' | dōm-as | döm-as-ka |
| 1 b | manus | 'person' | mans-as | mans-as-ka |
| 1 c | mwazzaf | 'employee' | mwazzaf-as | mwazzaf-as-ka |
| 1 d | malik | 'king' | malak-as | malak-as-ka |
| 2 | šōna | 'boy' | šōn-as | šōn-as-ka |
| 3 | tmali | 'soldier' | tmaly-as | tmaliy-as-ke |
| 4a | xudwar | 'child' | xudwar-i | xudwar-ki |
| 4b | bustān | 'garden' | bustān-i | bustān-ma |
| 4 c | xā̆ūf | 'sheep' | $x \overline{a r} r-\bar{i}$ | xārūf-ki |
| 5 | dïr | 'daughter' | $d i \underline{r}-\mathrm{a}$ | $d i \underline{r}-\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{ki}$ |
| 6 | şōni | 'girl' | sōny-a | şōniy-a-ka |
| 7 | dōmiya | 'Dom woman' | dōmìy-ē | dōmìy-è-ki |
| 8 | lamba | 'lantern' | lamb-ē | lamb-ē-ki |
| 9 | džuwir | 'woman' | dZ̆uwr-ī | džuwir-ka |
| 10 | libnān | 'Lebanon' |  | libnān-á-ka |

For the sake of simplicity, the groups are numbered consecutively, with their order chosen pretty much at random except for internal groupings based on selected features (i.e. all classes with oblique in -as at the beginning, etc.). An alternative labelling scheme might follow Elšík's (2000) classification scheme for Romani declension classes, which tags the noun's gender, etymology, phonological shape of the stem, and plural formation. The latter, variation in plural formation, is almost redundant for Domari save for the variation in the carry-over of Arabic plural formation. On this basis, plausible inflection classes for Domari might be Mo (inherited masculines ending in a consonant, i.e. with no vowel ending), Ma (inherited masculines with the vowel ending -a), *Mø-F (borrowed, for our purposes Arabic-derived, masculines ending in a consonant, with Arabic 'full', i.e. suffixed plural formation), *Mø-B (borrowed, for our purposes Arabic-derived, masculines ending in a consonant, with Arabic 'broken', i.e. internal plural formation), Fø (inherited feminines ending in a consonant), Mī (inherited masculines with the vowel ending $-i$ ), and so forth. I choose not to follow such a model below since the differences among the classes are expressed as much in the identity of the oblique marking morpheme as in the features that figure in the class label; adding yet another slot to the formal abbreviation would render a rather complex key to the labelling system. A broad division into numbered groups and selected sub-groups, despite the randomness of their ordering, seems more practical.

Table 26. Layer I nominal declension classes: Plural

| Group | Nominative |  | Oblique <br> (Direct Object) | with Layer II (Indirect Object) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 a | dōm-e | 'Dom men' | döm-an | dōm-an-ka |
| 1 b | mans-e | 'people' | mans-an | mans-an-ka |
| 1 c | mwazzafin-e | 'employees' | mwazzafinn-an | mwazzafin-an-ke |
| 1 d | $m / \bar{u} k$-e | 'kings' | $m i \bar{u} k$-an | mlūk-an-ka |
| 2 | soon-e | 'boys' | soon-an | soon-an-ka |
| 3 | tmaliy-e | 'soldiers' | tmaly-an | tmaly-an-ke |
| 4a | xudwar-e | 'children' | xudwar-an | xudwar-an-ki |
| 4b | basātīn-e | 'gardens' | basātin-an | basātīn-am-ma |
| 4c | xurfăn-e | 'sheep' | xurfăn-an | xurfăn-an-ki |
| 5 | dirre | 'daughters' | dì-an | dì-an-ki |
| 6 | sooniy-e | 'girls' | soōny-an | šōny-an-ka |
| 7 | dōmìy-e | 'Dom women' | dōmiy-an | dōmiy-an-ki |
| 8 | lamb-e | 'lanterns' | lamb-an | lamb-an-ki |
| 9 | džuwr-e | 'women' | džuwr-an | džuwr-an-ke |

Group 1 contains masculine nouns ending in a consonant whose characteristic inflectional feature is the oblique suffix -as. The group can be sub-divided into four sub-classes.

Group la encompasses what might be termed as the prototypical Group 1 nouns, which tend to be mostly monosyllabic. Examples are dōm 'Dom man', kam 'work', lon 'salt', mat 'person', ag 'fire', sał 'rice', tā̄n 'mattress', tā̀t 'villager', zard 'gold', wars 'year, rain', wat 'stone', gul 'beast', diss 'day', qar 'donkey', nām 'name', bāṣ 'bus', bīy 'moustache', bīt 'land', pand 'road', kan 'ear'. Arabic male names ending in consonants are usually included in this group, too; e.g. yāsir, oblique yāsras, klēb oblique klēbas. Since the stem ending is consonantal, the predication marker is $-i$ : aha d $\bar{o} m-i$ 'this is a Dom man'. Plural formation in this class is through simple addition of the plural marker -e (nominative) or -an (oblique), and the plural predication marker is the usual -ēni.

Group 1 b is similar, but its members are bi- or potentially poly-syllabic, resulting in syllable contraction in the oblique stem: manus 'person', oblique mansas, putur ‘son', oblique putras. Other examples include lagiš'fight', qayiš 'food' Isolated cases such as gēsu 'wheat' might be included in this group, since the final vowel can be treated as an underlying /w/, which emerges in the contraction in the oblique form gēswas. On other hand, dawāy 'camel' does not show contraction in the oblique (dawāyas) since it contains a long vowel in the second syllable, and it can therefore be accommodated in Group la.

Groups 1c-1d include consonantal masculine nouns of Arabic origin. They behave in the same way as the other, inherited nouns in Group 1, but they retain their Arabic plural formation, to which the inherited plural marker $-e$ is
suffixed. Group 1c are masculines that show Arabic full plural in -inr: mwazzaf 'employee' plural mwazzafîn-e, zēt 'olive' plural zētīn-e, muslim 'Muslim' plural musilminn-e. Nouns of Group 1d shows an Arabic 'broken' plural: malik 'king' plural mlūk-e, dukkān 'shop' plual dakākīn-e. Other members include qird 'monkey', $\varsigma \bar{d} d ~ ' h o l i d a y ', ~ s u \bar{l} q$ 'market', and so on. Since more or less the full inventory of Arabic lexicon may be integrated either habitually or spontaneously into Domari speech and into Domari morphology, Groups 1c1d are effectively open-ended. Their choice and frequency is subject to considerable speaker variation.

Group 2 consists of inherited masculine nouns whose nominative singular ending is $-a$, and whose oblique singular affix is -as. šōna 'boy', kaža 'non-Gypsy man/ urban dweller', qrara 'Bedouin' The class includes all adjectives that appear in a nominal role, such as mišta 'ill' (as in ama zürahrom mištas 'I visited the sick person'), wuda 'old man', tilla 'chief', grawara 'head man', nohra 'Englishman', and so on. The plural marker is the usual $-e$, which in the nominative replaces the nominative singular marker. The nominative singular vowel ending in -a triggers a predication marker singular in -èk: aha grawarēk 'this is the head man'

Group 3 is a relatively small and etymologically mixed class of masculine nouns showing a nominative singular vowel ending in $-\bar{l}$ and an oblique singular in -iyas. The nominative plural is -iye: tmalī 'soldier', masì 'meat'. The group includes Arabic loans in $-\bar{i}$. kursī 'chair', yahūdī 'Jew'. One of the members of the group is the language name 'Domari': šu dōmariyasma 'say it in Domari' The nominative vowel ending triggers a predication marker singular -ik: aha tmalik 'this is a soldier'.

Group 4 is generally characterised by consonantal masculines whose oblique ending is $-\bar{i}$. A unique feature of this group (along with the matching feminine nouns of Group 9) is the absence, in ths singular, of an oblique marker mediating between the noun stem and Layer II markers. Consider the use of (the Arabic loanword) hummuṣ 'hummus' (sesame paste) in the following examples:

(172) baSd
ma
after
COMP
štrī-k-ad-a
buy-VTR-PAST-M
man-as
$\bar{u}$ bread-OBL.M
and

ḥumms-ī $\quad$ xul-d-a min dakākinn-an-ki hummus-OBL.M open-PAST-M from shops.PL-OBL.PL-ABL 'After he bought the bread and the hummus he came out of the shops.'


The nominative form is hummus, the direct object form with Layer I marking is hummsi, and the indirect object (of possession) with Layer II marking is hummuṣki. In this respect, the suffix -i might be interpreted as an accusative marker, and so it does not at all have the function of a general oblique. While this is true for this particular marker, on the whole the system relies on the same marker for accusative and oblique functions and the general characterisation of the marker of definite direct objects as 'oblique' (serving an accusative function) is therefore justified. Still, in this particular class there is no obvious explanation for the absence of an oblique stem as a basis for Layer II. Unlike Romani, where such cases are phonologically conditioned (through loss of /s/ in final position, leading to rome 'the man.Direct.Object', but romeske 'for the man'), there is no evidence of any phonological erosion here, especially since it is the more exposed position that actually does show the marker $-\bar{i}$.

Among the sub-divisions, Group 4a contains inherited nouns such as xudwar 'child', titin 'smoke', bākur 'walking stick', as well as Arabic loans such as halīb 'milk', qalam 'pencil', hṣān 'horse'. The criteria for the assignment of Arabic loans to this class, rather than to the consonantal masculines of Group 1, remain unclear, but the group affiliation of nouns is consistent for all the relevant words and appears to be uniform for all speakers. Group 4b encompasses Arabic loans that show Arabic broken plural formation, such as bustān 'garden', šubbāk 'window', iṣbaS' 'finger', while Group 4c has Arabic loans with an Arabic broken plural, such as xarūf 'lamb, xatam 'ring', which in the oblique singular show phonological contraction (xarfi, xatmi). Having consonantal stems, all nouns in Group 4 take the singular predication marker -i: aha xudwari 'this is a child'

Group 5 contains a relatively small number of consonantal feminine noun stems whose oblique is normally -a. They include dēy 'village', dīr 'daughter', day 'mother', bay 'wife', and ben 'sister'. The latter are kinship terms to which inalienable possession applies, and so they normally appear with possessive suffixes, which in turn neutralise oblique case marking. Thus forms such as dayimke 'for my mother' and bayissan 'with his wife' are much more
common than *dayake 'for the mother' or *bayasan 'with the wife', which are not encountered at all in the corpus. It is perhaps not surprising that the word dēy 'village', which is not subject to inalienable possession, shows fluctuation between retention of the oblique marker, as in garïrom min dēyaki' 'I returned from the village', and assimilation to Group 9, where Layer II markers attach directly to the nominative stem: garirom min dēyki. The corpus even contains one example of assignment of this word to Group 1 , with an oblique ending in -as. mindē̄n dēyas $\bar{u}$ garēn xalīlaka 'we left the village and went to Hebron'. As consonantal stems, Group 5 nouns take the singular predication marker $-i$, though with most of the nouns in this group the predication marker is likely to follow not the bare nominal stem but a possessive ending: ihi bayomi 'this is my wife'

Group 6 contains a fairly large number of feminine nouns whose nominative singular ending is $-i$ and whose oblique singular ending is $-i y a$ (the historical $-a$ is added to the nominative stem), which is usually contracted to -ya. The plural formations equally integrate the singular nominative ending, giving nominative plural -iye and contracted oblique plural -yan-. The group contains inherited animate nouns that have counterpart masculine nouns in $-a$, or in some cases in a consonant: šōni 'girl', protkili 'Jewess', kaži 'non-Gypsy woman', țāti 'Arab woman', qrari 'Bedouin woman', dadi 'grandmother', māmi 'aunt (paternal), xāli 'aunt (maternal)' Other inherited (pre-Arabic) nouns belonging to the group include kuri 'house', siri 'head', läši 'girl', gori 'horse', brari 'cat', pani 'water', kapi 'door', kali 'goat'. The predication marker singular is-ik: ihi kurik tillik 'this is a big house'.

Group 7 consists of feminine nouns carrying the nominative derivation ending -iya. The oblique formation is -iye, and plural forms are nominative -iye and oblique -iyan. Note that there is no contraction here, unlike Group 6, indicating the segmental stability of $-i y(a)$ as a nominal derivation marker. The group contains foremostly inherited vocabulary, usually feminine counterparts to masculines in a consonantal stem: dōmiya 'Dom woman', ktīriya 'Christian woman'. Note that some nouns in this group double forms belonging to Group 6: tạtitya 'Arab woman', protkiliya 'Jewish woman'. The singular predication marker is -iyēk. dadyom dōmiyēk'my grandmother is a Dom woman'.

Group 8 are feminine nouns whose nominative singular ending is $-a$ and oblique singular $-\bar{e}$. The majority of items in this class are feminine Arabic loans: lamba 'lantern', tawla 'table', sȩ̄a 'hour', sūra 'picture', šažara 'tree', hāra 'neighbourhood', rị̣la 'journey', kahraba 'electricity', $̣$ biḷa 'slaughtered animal'. The group also includes nouns whose Arabic nominal ending is -iyya, as well as other feminine nouns where the final $-a$ is often interchangeable with $-e$ in the Palestinian Arabic dialect of Jerusalem: hafla 'party', mahkame 'court', baladiyya 'municipality', hanafiyye 'tap'. Feminine Arabic place
names in -a also belong to this class: yāfa 'Jaffa', hayfa 'Haifa' The singular predication marker is $-\bar{e} k$. ihi lambēk' 'this is a lantern'.

Group 9 contains a small number of feminine nouns - džuwir 'woman', ūyar 'town' - that behave much like the masculine nouns of Group 4. In fact, if nominal gender were to be considered in the classification only when it has overt structural manifestation on the noun itself and not in relation to agreement patterns, then one could easily accommodate nouns of groups 4 and 9 in just one single declension class, containing nouns of both genders. As in Group 4, nouns of Group 9 take an independent oblique or direct object marker in $-\bar{L}$, but Layer II markers attach directly to the nominative stem without an oblique base:

```
(174) lah-ed-om džuwr-ī
    see-PAST-1SG woman-OBL.F
    'I saw the woman'
(175) š-ird-om džluwir-ka
    say-PAST-1SG woman-DAT
    'I said to the woman'
```

Finally, Group 10 is a peripheral class that contains exclusively feminine place names ending in a consonant. Direct object forms are not attested for any of these place names (nor do they form plurals), but their characteristic feature is the insertion of a stressed segment -á- as an oblique marker mediating between the name and Layer II endings:



| $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{l}$ | baSde | we |  | y |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| and | then | wherever | go-2SG | PART | go-2SG |
| m |  | surı |  |  |  |
| ham | BL.F | Syri | BL.F |  | 2SG |

libnān-a-ka, lak-ēk dōm-ēni bol Lebanon-OBL.F-DAT see-2SG Dom-PRED.PL much 'Wherever you go, if you go to al-Sham, to Syria, to Lebanon, you find many Dom.'

This inflection strategy appears to be productive and thus applicable to any place name, e.g. Sïräqata 'to Iraq', qudsata 'to Jerusalem', halabaki 'from Aleppo', including in some cases to place names that end in a vowel: ram'allama 'in Ramalla'. Exceptional cases are liddita 'to Lydda' and talabibita 'to Tel Aviv', where the same principle applies, but where the oblique segment consists of the vowel $-i$ - rather than $-a$ - In both these cases it appears that we are dealing with an assimilation to the vowel segment of the preceding, final stem syllable, which is $/ \mathrm{i} /$. The rule is not generally one of vowel reduplication, however; thus qudsata 'to Jerusalem', bērūtama 'in Beirut'. There seem to be only two vowel variants of the oblique affix, a front one and a back one. A number of place names fluctuate between Group 10 and Group 8 (loan feminines in -a). Thus we find for faransa 'France' an indirect object min faransēki 'from France', but also min faransáki as well as min faransayēki.

There are a few peripheral declension patterns. The word zara 'child' (of Kurdish origin zaro, 'boy') seemingly assimilates to Group 2 of masculine (animate) nouns in -a, but its oblique form is zares. The plural formation is also irregular, showing modification to the lexical stem: zirte 'children', oblique zirtan. Somewhat related is the inherited word bar 'brother', for which the oblique form is bares. The plural, however, is regular: bare 'brothers', oblique baran. The word ple 'money' exists only as a plural formation (oblique
plan); it derives from Persian pol, for which the Domari plural will have been *pol-e, giving through syllable contraction ple. One finds occasional fluctuations between classes for some words, though this is the exception. Thus we find min komirki 'from/of coal' (nominative komir, or Turkish origin), following Group 4 patterns, alongside min komraski, which follows Group 1. Similar variation is attested for the Arabic loan hašišs 'grass': hašišasma 'on the grass' alongside hašišma, and šindom hašišas 'I cut the grass' alongside šindom hasšǐši. For the Arabic loan Kursí 'chair', we find kursiyasta 'on the chair', but also kursata as well as kursita. Proper names are also often assigned spontaneous oblique formations, inspired by the genderrelevant inflection patterns:
(179) yaSni
PARa akbar min nadžw-a-ki
PART I
'I mean, I'm two years older than Najwa [female name].

| (180)kam-k-ed-om Sind <br> work-VTR-PAST-1SG at | PAy-ki | ihi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | PART-ABL | this.F |

ester-ē-ki
Esther-OBL.F-ABL
'I worked for this one, Esther [female name].'

| (181) ama | š-am- $i$ | ma | mūsa-yes-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | speak-1SG-PRG | with | Musa-OBL.M-ABL |
| 'I am talking to Musa [male name].' |  |  |  |


| (182) ama | $d \check{z ̌}-a m-i$ | ūyar-ka | maS | $m u \bar{u} s-a s-k i$ |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | go-1SG-PRG | town-DAT | with | Musa-OBL.M-ABL |

'I am going to town with Musa [male name].'

### 4.3.3. Functions of Layer I case endings

Layer I case inflection generally encodes the opposition between nouns in subject and direct object role. These correspond to nominative and independent oblique (i.e. an oblique ending that is not accompanied by Layer II markers) respectively, the latter functioning as an accusative. Citation forms of the noun are nominative, but usually appear with a predicative ending, so that only the underlying nominative inflectional ending can be detected (thus zarēk 'boy' to nominative zara, kurik 'house' to nominative kuri, wati 'stone' to nominative wat

Nominative marking allows us to identify nouns in the subject role independently of their position in the utterance and often unguided by the
semantics of the nominal participants (as there is more than one semantic candidate for subject):
(183) ehe dōm-e raw-ard-e min dary-osan-ki these.PL Dom-PL travel-PAST-3PL from place-3PL-ABL 'Those Doms left their place (of temporary residence).'
(184) bī-r-e portkīl-an-ki dōm-e
fear-PAST-3PL Jew-OBL.PL-ABL Dom-PL
'The Doms were afraid of the Jews.'
The independent oblique - oblique marking that is unaccompanied by Layer II markers - indicates the definite or familiar direct object:
$t$-ird-a man-as
put-PAST-M bread-OBL.M
'He put down the bread'
(186) ama qōl-am-i $\check{l}$ šubbāk- $\bar{I}$

I open-1SG-PRG window-OBL.M
'I am opening the window'
(187) kol-d-om
kapy-a
open-PAST-1SG door-OBL.F
'I opened the door'
Independent Layer I oblique marking allows differentiation between different arguments of the verb, similarly releasing the direct object from any dependency on a fixed position within the utterance. Note the direct object snōtas 'dog' that follows the verb in (188), the direct object qayišī 'food' in the final position of the utterance in (189), and the direct object qraras the Bedouin' in the initial position in (190):
(188) lak-ed-e snōt-as mar-as-s-i $\quad$ dabīs-i
see-PAST-3PL dog-OBL.M kill-3SG-3SG-PRG hyena-PRED.SG
'They saw the dog being killed by a hyena.'

| (189) pandži | dè-r-i | $z e r-t a n-k e$ | qay $\bar{s} \check{s}-\bar{i}$ |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | give-3SG-PRG | boy-OBL.PL-BEN | food-OBL.M | 'She gives the food to the children.'

(190) aha qrar-as putr-os aha
this.M Bedouin-OBL.M son-3SG this.M
šē̃-as-ki t-ird-ed-is sidžin-ma
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL put-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL prison-LOC
'They put this Bedouin, the Sheikh's son, in prison.'

In the above examples, the independent oblique accompanies direct objects that are contextually familiar or retrievable and hence can be regarded as definite. The contextual retrievability of an identified direct object entity is a condition for Layer I independent oblique marking. There are various ways in which such retrievability can be achieved. Apart from situative deixis, as in the examples with 'door' and 'window' above, the independent oblique can indicate inherent familiarity of proper names:

| (191)gar-om <br> go.PAST-1SG | ūyar-ta <br> town-DAT | lak-am | mūsay-es |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'I went to town to visit Musa. |  |  |  |

Syntactic constructions such as relative clauses may contain clarification of unknown entities, allowing them to appear as a definite direct object even in the absence of deictic reference or contextual background:


Alternatively, and probably most frequently in narrative discourse, familiarity with an entity is established at the discourse level, allowing its promotion to a definite direct object marked out by Layer I independent oblique (portkiliye 'the Jewish woman'):

| (193) a. | ašti | ik-ak | portkiliy-ēk | wēs-r-ik |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | there.is | one-INDEF | Jew.F-PRED.SG sit-PAST-PRED.SG |  |

When familiarity with an entity is given, then an attribute can also carry oblique case and serve as a definite direct object, as in dinan 'the two':
(194) bardo aha qrara yaSni baSd m-r-i
also this.M Bedouin PART after die-PAST-F
ihi šōnī gēna mišta-h-r-a wi-m-r-a
this.F girl further ill-VITR-PAST.M and-die-PAST-M
$\bar{u}$ dfin-k-ad-e dinn-an maSbaSd
and bury-VTR-PAST-3PL two-OBL.PL together
'And then, after the girl died, the Bedouin also fell ill and died and
they buried the two of them together.'

An entity may be regarded as familiar or retrievable and so qualify for independent oblique marking when it is associated with specialised information, even if it has not been established overtly or explicitly in the immediate contextual environment. On the other hand, indefinite reference that is open-ended (does not limit the set of referents through any specialised information or identification with an aforementioned referent) will not receive independent oblique marking even if it appears in the syntactic-semantic role of a direct object. Compare the direct objects dakātran 'doctors' (with independent oblique) and mate 'people' (in the nominative, i.e. with no oblique marking) in the two following utterance, with rather similar environments:


Exceptionally, we find oblique marking on head nouns in isolated, elicited phrases, where the head noun represents a semantic patient. No comparable examples were found in connected speech:
(197) man-as illi t-or-im iyyā-h
bread-OBL.M REL give-2SG-1SG.OBL OBJ-M 'the bread that you gave me'

| pl-an | illi | t-or-san | ama-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| money-OBL.PL | REL | give-2SG-3SG | 1SG-BEN |
| 'the money that you gave me' |  |  |  |

### 4.3.4. The Vocative

A marginal component of the nominal case system in Domari is the vocative case. Quite like the Romani vocative, the Domari vocative appears to be a rather late development, that is, not a structure that is directly inherited from Middle Indo-Aryan or even from the early, transitional phase into New Indo-Aryan. The synthetic vocative takes on the form of a stressed suffix -a that is attached to selected consonantal stems of both genders in the singular only: māma! 'uncle (paternal)!', xāla! 'uncle (maternal)!', bāda! 'grandfather!', bara! 'brother!', bena! 'sister!'. The origin of the suffix may be in a postposed deictic form *ha. Plural forms as well as additional nouns can take the more productive, preposed Arabic vocative particle ya: ya dadi! 'grandmother!', ya zara! 'child!', ya manis! 'man!', ya bare! 'brothers!', ya bene! 'sisters!', ya läši! 'girl!' (see also Macalister 1914: 11).

### 4.3.5. Forms and functions of Layer II case endings

As in the other New Indo-Aryan languages, Domari Layer II case markers derive from Middle Indo-Aryan postposed local relations expressions. While in many modern Indo-Aryan languages the set consists of enclitic forms whose position is generally adjacent to the noun phrase, but not necessarily to the noun itself, in both Domari and Romani Layer II markers have become a set of agglutinating case endings that are inseparable from the noun. Each marker is specialised for a range of meanings that categorises a set of relations between the agent, experiencer or undergoer of an activity and other participants (verb arguments) in that activity. An overview of Layer II markers in Domari is provided in Tables 27-28.

Table 27. Layer II markers (singular nouns) (with Layer I in shaded areas)

|  | Masculine Sg . | Feminine Sg. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | sōna | soōni | 'boy/girl' |
| Oblique | sōn-as | sơny-a | 'boy/girl (Direct Object)' |
| Dative | šŏn-as-ta/-ka | šōny-a-tal-ka | 'about the boy/girl' |
| Locative | sōn-as-ma | soōny-a-ma | 'on the boy/girl' |
| Benefactive | šōn-as-ke | sōny-a-ke | 'for the boy/girl' |
| Ablative | sōn-as-ki | šōny-a-ki | 'from the boy/girl' |
| Sociative | sōn-as-san | soony-a-san | 'with the boy/girl' |

Table 28. Layer II markers (with Layer I in shaded areas)

|  | Masculine Pl. | Feminine Pl. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | soone | söny-e | 'boys/girls' |
| Oblique | soon-an | sōny-an | 'boys/girls (Direct Object)' |
| Dative | soon-an-ta/-ka | šōny-an-tal-ka | 'about the boys/girls' |
| Locative | šōn-an-ma | söny-an-ma | 'on the boys/girls' |
| Benefactive | soon-an-ke | sōny-an-ke | 'for the boys/girls' |
| Ablative | šōn-an-ki | soony-an-ki | 'from the boys/girls' |
| Sociative | soon-an-san | söny-an-san | 'with the boys/girls' |

Layer II markers follow the oblique ending. They therefore attach to a different stem base for each and every declension class. Since plural formation is uniform in Layer I, Layer II marking in the plural is also uniform. The markers themselves do not change, however. Domari is conservative in comparison with Romani in that it does not show partial phonological assimilation of Layer II consonantal segments to the preceding segment (cf. Romani manušeske 'for the man', manušenge 'for the people'; but Domari mansaska 'for the man' and mansanka 'for the people').

In terms of the overall stock of forms, compared with Romani, Domari is conservative in maintaining the Locative marker -ma (cf. Hindi -mẽ), which in Romani appears to have merged with the Dative (allative) marker *-ta (Romani -te). In contrast to both Hindi and Romani, Domari does not show adjectival genitive Layer II markers with Suffixaufnahme (agreement with both head and modifier). It seems to have re-interpreted the original genitive marker in ${ }^{*}$ - $k$ - as a general ablative/prepositional case marker (min kuryimki 'from my house', mas dirimki 'with my daughter'). Romani has a specialised ablative marker -tar indicating source, while in most Romani dialects it is the locative marke -te that takes on the function of a general prepositional case (Romani mande 'with me/ at mine', pala mande 'behind me'). The Domari Benefactive case -ke and the Sociative -san appear to have the same origins and similar functions as they do in Romani ( $-k e$ and $-s a$ ).

Herin (2012) confirms the same set of Layer II markers for the Domari variety of Aleppo, and reports in addition on a form -va, which he calls 'versative" (with the meaning 'towards', 'in the direction of'). This latter form, recorded both in Aleppo and in Beirut, seems not to be attested with actual nouns, however. It is found only with the interrogative 'where' (in the sense of 'where to') and with temporal and local expressions. The limited distribution and the absence of attestation of -va with nouns calls into question its place on the paradigm of Layer II markers. It is more likely that this is a borrowing of the Kurdish postposition ve, which has similar semantic functions.

The set of Layer II markers in Jerusalem Domari shows some volatility. Firstly, there is general competition at the level of individual expressions between inherited case marking and Arabic expressions of local relations, which may accompany Arabic lexicon. The carry-over of Arabic relational expressions into the inventory of inherited vocabulary is found with Arabic maS 'with', which many speakers use to accompany, or to replace the Layer II Sociative marker -san (thus maS džuwrisan 'with the woman', but maS $s$ sähbeemki 'with my friends'). The Ablative marker -ki is equally accompanied in most instances by the Arabic preposition min (min kuryaki 'from the house'), and is otherwise used with other prepositions, bleached of its individual semantics, as a generic prepositional case. Finally, some speakers replace the Dative marker - $t$ a by a form in $-k$ a, which appears to be a contamination of Dative -ta and Benefactive -ke. The functions of individual Layer II markers are discussed below.

### 4.3.5.1. Dative

The Dative in -ta (-ka for some speakers) generally expresses direction. It appears most commonly with the expression of the target of physical motion involving displacement of the subject or experiencer into a defined, demarcated space. This includes various forms of location, such as place-names, buildings, institutions, and so on:

| (199)dža- $n$ yaf-ē-ta, dža- $n$ | lidd-í-ta, |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| go-1PL | Jaffa-OBL.F-DAT | go-1PL | Lydda-OBL.F-DAT |
| dža- $n$ | raml-ē-ta. |  |  |
| go-1PL | Ramallah-OBL.F-DAT |  |  |
| 'We go to Jaffa, we go to Lydda, we go to Ramlah.' |  |  |  |

[^0]| (201)bidd-ī $d z ̌ a-m$ <br> want-1SG go-1SG.SUBJ | kury-a-ta <br> house-OBL.F-DAT |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 'I want to go home.' |  |


| (202) mūdīr | ning-aw-id-os | jurf-is-ta |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| director | enter-CAUS-PAST-3SG | room-3SG |

director enter-CAUS-PAST-3SG room-3SG.OBL-DAT prov-an-ki
rehearsal-OBL.PL-DAT
'The director took him into the rehearsal room.'
(203) dža-nd-i qahawē/ qahawīy-an-ta, džan-d-i go-3PL-PRG café café-OBL.PL-DAT go-3PL-PRG kury-an-ta, našy-and-i $\bar{u}$ hada
house-ONL.PL-DAT dance-3PL-PRG and PART
minšān lim-kar-ad
in.order.to earn-VTR-3PL.SUBJ
'They go to the café/ to the cafés, they go to the houses, they dance and so on in order to earn a living.'
(204) qabel sabৎa $\bar{u}$ ৎšrīn wars mām-om putur
before seven and twenty year uncle-1SG son
yāsir gar-a swēq-ē-ta štrī-k-ar
Yassir go.PAST-M market-OBL.F-DAT buy-VTR-3SG.SUBJ
mana $\bar{u} \quad s ̣ a h n-a k \quad h u m m u s ̣$
bread and plate-INDEF hummus
'Twenty seven years ago my cousin Yassir went to the market to buy bread and a plate of hummus.'
(205) bidd-ī dža-m haram-ka salli-k-am. want-1SG go-1SG.SUBJ Haram-DAT pray-VTR-1SG.SUBJ 'I want to go to the Mosque to pray.'
(206) ben-os hey-ki la-ha-s-sā̧a mangiš-k-ar-i
sister-3SG PART-ABL to.this.day begging-VTR-3SG-PRG yaSni mangiš-k-ar-i, dž-ar-i
PART begging-VTR-3SG-PRG go-3SG-PRG
dēy-an-ka, Sind 乌arab 'isrā̀īl
village-OBL.PL-DAT at Arab Israel
'What's her name's sister to this day continues to go begging I mean she goes begging, she goes to the villages, to the Israeli Arabs.'

Expression of location in smaller, contained spaces is a further, albeit less frequent usage of the Dative. Note that this may include movement and static location:
(207) lak-ed-om-s-i wēs-r-ēk kurs-a-ta see-PAST-1SG-3SG-PRG sit-PAST-PRED.SG chair-OBL.F-DAT 'I have seen him sitting on the chair.'
(208) t-ird-om kubay-ē tawl-ē-ta put-PAST-1SG cup-OBL.F table-OBL.F-DAT
'I put the cup on the table.'
(209) dis-ak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i siry-is-ka
day-INDEF this.F lantern fall-PAST-F head-3SG.OBL-DAT hay-ki bar-im dir-ki this-ABL brother-1SG.OBL daughter-ABL 'And one day the lantern fell on the head of what's her name, my brother's daughter.'

The target location identified by the Dative also consist of the property associated with persons:
(210) wara-k-ad-i ghāy $\bar{u}$ ya§ni $\bar{u}$ dža-d-i dress-VTR-3PL-PRG good and PART and go-3PL-PRG boy-os-an-ka Sayid-k-ad-i $\bar{u}$ father-3SG-OBL.PL-DAT celebrate-VTR-3PL-PRG and par-ad-i putr-ē-san. take-3PL-PRG son-PL-3PL
'They dress well and they go to their parents' to celebrate and they take their sons.'

A further use of the Dative is to identify a physical location that is the target of bodily movement involving displacement of a secondary object by an agent:
(211) štar-d-om-is
lift-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL
piš-im-ta
'I lifted it on my back.'
(212) Sumur in-te-m-e, paty-a siry-im-ka ever NEG-put-1SG-NEG scarf-OBL.F head-1SG.OBL-DAT 'I never put the headscarf on my head.'
(213) štal-ar-a tanak-ē-s wasax-ki kitf-is-ta lift-3SG-REM barrel-PL-3SG dirt-ABL shoulder-3SG.OBL-DAT 'He carried barrels of rubbish on his shoulder.'

| $t-i r d-a$ |  | $\bar{u}$ | salhn-os | hummuss-i |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| put-PAST-M | bread-OBL.M |  | plate-3SG | hummus-PRE |
| bitt-as-ta ground-OBL | DAT |  |  |  |
| He put the | and |  | mus | groun, |

This same meaning of the Dative can also be identified in references to tools, instruments and domestic animals of various kinds:
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { mamnū̄-i } & \begin{array}{l}x \bar{L} I-s-s-a d \\ \text { prohibited-PRED.SG } \\ \text { ride-SUBJ-3PL }\end{array}\end{array}$
gor-yan-ta
'They are not allowed to ride horses.'
horse-PL.OBL-DAT
(216) Sazifk-and-i rabbab-ē-ta
play-3PL-PRG rabbab-OBL.F-DAT
'They play the rabbab.'
(217) lak-ed-a ihi portkīliy-ē fêmn-ar-i aha
see-PAST-M this.F Jew.F-OBL.F strike-3SG-PRG this.M
¢ $\bar{u} d-a s-t a$
oud-OBL.M-DAT
'He saw this Jewish woman playing the oud.'
(218) $\bar{u} \quad x i$ i-k-ad-a kart-as, lak-ed-a
and read-VTR-PAST-M card-OBL.M see-PAST-M
ihi illi ktib-k-ad-i kart-as-ta
this.F REL write-VTR-PAST-F card-OBL.M
bay-os-i mūdir-as-ki.
wife-3SG-PRED director-OBL.M-ABL
'He read the card, he saw that the one who wrote on the card was the director's wife.'

Human beings can also figure as the target of physical movement associated with the Dative:
(219) wazaS- $k$-and-i ehe mat-an-ta illi
divide-VTR-3PL-PRG these.PL person-OB.PL REL
mawdžud-ni.
present-PRED.PL
'They distribute it among those people who are present.'
(220)
nan-d-a

bring-PAST-M \begin{tabular}{l}
farriq- $k$-ad-a <br>
divide-VTR-PAST-REM

$\quad$

gis <br>
all
\end{tabular}

```
dōm-an-ka ehe hram-an
Dom-OBL.PL-DAT these.PL blanket-OBL.PL 'He brought and distributed these blankets to all the Dom.'
```

A substantial use of the Dative is in a manner that is metaphorical to physical movement, where the object is the target of an emotional, cognitive, vocal or other sensory activity:
sn-ar-i dōm-an-ta
hear-3SG-PRG Dom-OBL.PL-DAT
'He hears about the Dom.'
(222) $\bar{u} \quad s a \bar{r}-\bar{u} \quad$ farrudž-h-ond-i ehe
and began.3PL watch-VITR-3PPL-PRG these.PL
raqqāsīn-an-ta
dancer.PL-OBL.PL-DAT
'And they started watching the dancers.'
(223) š-ird-om abu-s-ke putr-è-m-ta
say-PAST-1SG to-3SG-BEN son-PL-1SG-DAT
'I told him about my sons.'
(224) tSarraf-h-r-ēn
baSdC-ē-man-ta
meet-VITR-PAST-1PL REC-PL-1PL-DAT
'We met one another.'
(225) dawwir-kar-ad-i
putr-o-s-ta
search-LOAN.TR-3PL-PRES son-SG.NOM-3SG-DAT
'They are looking for his son.'
(226) lagiška-d-e ehe raqqāṣ-an-ta
argue-PAST-3PL these.PL dancer-PL.OBL-DAT
'They had an argument about those dancers.'
(227) kahind-or-i $\quad s \bar{e} \varsigma-\bar{e}-k a$
look-3SG-PRG watch-OBL.F-DAT
'She is looking at the watch.'
An extension of the latter are activities that exercise control or power over a target:
(228) min waxt-as-ki boy-om ehr-a
from time-OBL.M-ABL father-1SG become.PAST-M
muxtār dōm-an-ta.
head.man Dom-OBL.PL-DAT
'From then on my father became the head man of the Dom.'
(229)
wafaq-k-ad-a agree-VTR-PAST-M taSyin-im-ta, muxtār. appointment-1SG.OBL-DAT head.man 'He agreed to my appointment as head man.'
putr-os klēb-as-ki gar-a mar-d-a
son-3SG Kleb-OBL.M-ABL go.PAST-M kill-PAST-M
džassās-as ū 'umur-k-ad-a Sašīr-is-ta
Jassas-OBL.M and order-VTR-PAST-M tribe-3SG.OBL-DAT
žassās-as-ki innī mamnū̧̄-i qil-š-ad
Jassas-OBL.M COMP forbidden-PRED.SG ride-SUBJ-3PL
gory-an-ta
horse-OBL.PL-DAT
'Kleb's son went and killed Jassas and he issued an order to Jassas's tribe that they are not allowed to ride horses.'

Finally, the Dative can also express the object of emotions in metaphorical, idiomatic constructions:
(231) $t$-ird-i ky-is sāḥb-is-ka hammām-ki put-PAST-F eye-3SG.OBL owner-3SG.OBL-DAT bath-ABL 'She became fond of $[=$ she put her eye on] the manager of the bathhouse'.
(232) bass dōm illi mn-ēni giš
but Dom REL here-PRED.PL all
dayyal-k-id-os-i pēt-is-ka
lose-VTR-PAST-3SG-PRG stomach-3SG.OBL-DAT
'But the Dom who are here waste all their money on food $[=$ lose it all to the stomach].'
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { mutr-am- } i & \begin{array}{l}\text { siry-ir-ka } \\ \text { urinate-1SG-PRG } \\ \text { head-2SG.OBL-DAT }\end{array}\end{array}$
'I despise you [= urinate on your head].'
It should be noted that the great majority of these usages of the Domari Dative, if not indeed all, correspond to uses of the Arabic preposition Sa(la) 'on, at, upon'. The following example is a nice illustration, as the use of the Arabic word $h s \bar{a} b$ 'expense' serves to replicate in Domari the Arabic expression $\varsigma a(l a) h s a \bar{a} b$ 'at the expense of', which is used in its original Arabic form in the first part of the utterance:

| (234) itme | bi | isrā'il | tSallim-h-os | Ca | hsāb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you.PL | in | Israel | learn-VITR-2PL | at | expense |

dawl-ē-ki. eme tSallim-h-on-i
government-OBL.F-ABL we learn-VITR-1PL-PRG
$h s a \bar{b}-i s-k a$
expense-3SG.OBL-DAT pocket-1PL-ABL
'You in Israel study at the expense of the state, we study at our own expense [ = at the expense of our pocket].'

### 4.3.5.2. Locative

The Locative in -ma indicates containment within a location:
(235) šar-y-and-i kury-is-ma dōm-an-ki
hide-ITR-3PL-PRG house-3SG.OBL-LOC Dom-OBL.PL-ABL 'They are hiding in the houses of the Doms.'
boy-os kam-k-ar-a baladiy-ē-ma
father-3SG work-VTR-3SG-REM municipality-OBL.F-DAT 'His father used to work at the municipality.'
(237) ašti ik-ak portkīliy-ēk wēs-r-ik
there.is one-INDEF Jew.F-PRED.SG sit-PAST-PRED.SG
ihi balakōn-ē-ma
this.F balcony-OBL.F-LOC
'There is a Jewish woman sitting on the balcony.'
(238) qol-d-e izāS-ak ramall-a-ma.
open-PAST-3PL radio.station-INDEF Ramallah-OBL.F-LOC
kam-k-ed-a mindžz̄-s aha džamīl l-\{ās
work-VTR-PAST-M inside-3SG.OBL this.M Jamil 1-Aas
$i z a \bar{S} S \bar{e}-m a$.
radio.station-OBL.F-LOC
'They opened a radio station in Ramallah. Jamil l-Aas worked in it, at the radio station.'
(239) di dīs pand-as-ma-hr-om-a
two day road-OBL.M-LOC-be-1SG-REM
'I was on the road for two days.'
With place names, the Locative expresses a static relation, complementing the Dative, which expresses re-location to a destination:

| (240) sanat | sitte-ū-xamsinn | qol-d-a | izā̧-ak |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| year | six-and-fifty | open-PAST-M | radio.station-INDEF |

```
Samman-a-ma, nqul-ah-r-a min
Amman-OBL.F-LOC move-VITR-PAST-M from
ramall-a-ki Samman-a-ta.
Ramallah-OBL.F-ABL Amman-OBL.F-DAT
'In the year fifty-six he opened a radio station in Amman, and he
moved from Ramallah to Amman.'
```

With other spatial descriptions, however, the Locative may also indicate the target of movement, provided the movement results in the containment of the subject that moves or the object that is being moved within the spatial domain of the target:
nig-r-om kury-a-ma
enter-PAST-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC
'I entered the house.'
(242) nan-d-a kart kaškot-ēk, ū ktib-k-ad-a bring-PAST-M card small-PRED.SG and write-VTR-PAST-M atnī-S, $\bar{u} \quad t$-ird-os-is aha
on-3SG and put-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL this.M zarf-as-ma
envelope-M.OBL-LOC
'He brought a small card and he wrote on it, and he put it in the envelope.'
(243) kull usbū̧ yaSni wēšt-ad-a di dīs taran dīs every week PART sit-3PL-REM two day three day
hay-ma dèy-am-ma
PART-LOC village-OBL.PL-LOC
'Every week like they would sit like in the villages for two or three days.'
(244) er-e hindar ūyar-ma
come.PAST-3PL here town-LOC
'They came here into the town.'

| par-as | $e r$-an | $\bar{u}$ | $e$-ran | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-2PL.SUBJ | these.OBL.PL | and | these.OBL.PL | and |
| $t$-as-san | habis-ma. |  |  |  |
| put-2PL-SUBJ | prison-LOC |  |  |  |
| 'Take them and put them in prison.' |  |  |  |  |

(246)

| par-d-os | $m e ̄ \check{s}-m$, | lah-ed-om-is |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-PAST-3SG | from-1SG | see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL |



```
hand-3SG.OBL-LOC say-1SG-PRG this.M
ama-k-ēk aha xätim.
1SG-BEN-PRED.SG this.M ring
'She took it from me, I saw it in her hand, I say this is mine, that
ring.'
```

The Locative can describe a target of an action performed through a body part or an instrument; once again the meaning associated with the Locative is physical containment or absorption of the action within the spatial limits of the target:
(247) la PART give-1SG.SUBJ knife-OBL.F stomach-2SG.OBL-LOC $\bar{u}$ kar-am-ir di šaqfa. and do-1SG.SUBJ-2SG two piece
'I shall stick the knife in your stomach and cut you in two pieces.'
(248) par-d-om wat-ak $\bar{u} \quad$ fé-r-om-is
take-PAST-1SG stone-INDEF and hit-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL siry-is-ma.
head-3SG.OBL-LOC
'I took a stone and hit him on the head.'
In a number of cases there are metaphorical extensions to this reading of spatial containment:
(249) $\bar{u}$ giš bīt-or ktib-k-ēs-i nām-is-ma
and all land-2SG write-VTR-2PL-PRG name-3SG.OBL-LOC 'And you register all your land in her name.'

Expressions of time are similarly treated by analogy to spatial containment:

| zaman-is-ma |  | $n o h r-a n-k i$ | ašti |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| time-3SG.OBL-LOC | English-OBL.PL-ABL | there.is |  |
| $d \bar{m} m-\bar{e} n i$ | $k a ̄ n-\bar{u}$ | aw-and-a | min |
| DOM-PRED.PL | was-3PL | come-3PL-REM | from | džū ${ }^{\text {džu}}-a-k i$.

Egypt-OBL.F-ABL
'During the times of the English there were Dom who used to come from Egypt.'

A separate function of the Locative is the expression of instrumental usages of an object:

```
sär-u\overline{u}}\mathrm{ fêr-and-i ba\d ba{d\-e-san
began-3PL hit-3PL-PRG REC REC-PL-3PL
    wat-an-ma.
    stone-OBL.PL-LOC
'They began to throw stones at one another.'
```

(252) $\bar{u} \quad$ fer-d-os-im siry-a-ma/ pišt-im-ma
and hit-3SG-1SG.OBL knife-OBL.F-LOC back-1SG.OBL-LOC yaSni
PART
'He struck me with the knife in my back.'
(253) kān-ū dbw-ad-a masalan quš-k-ad-a was.3PL wash-3PL-REM for.example sweep-VTR-3Pl-REM kury-a pany-a-ma
house-OBL.F water-OBL.F-LOC
'They used to wash for example they would sweep the house with water.'
(254) qol ama-ke fall-ē minšān
open 1SG-BEN sack-OBL.F so.that
salid-k-am-ir ag-as-ma.
help-VTR-1SG.SUBJ-2SG.OBL fire-OBL.M-LOC
'Open the sack for me so that I can help you with the fire.'
(255) qayiš-i masī tan-d-e ab-us-ke
food-PRED.SG meat put-PAST-3PL for-3SG-BEN
qayiš-as-ma
food-OBL.M-LOC
'They gave him a meat dish as a meal.'
(256) Kay-ma kallam-ōk atu? dōm-as-ma!
what-LOC speak-2SG you Dom-OBL.M-LOC
'What are you speaking (in)? In Domari!'
(257) fém-as-s-i
hit-3SG-3SG-PRG spear-LOC direct
pist-is-m-ek
back-3SG.OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
'He hits him with the spear directly in his back.'
(258) eme skun-ahr-ēni we live-VITR-PRED.PL 'We live [in return for] rent.'
adžar-ma
rent-LOC

### 4.3.5.3. Benefactive

The Benefactive is the case of the recipient and beneficiary, usually the animate goal of an activity, often involving transfer of an object, or else a sensory action intended to be understood and taken on by the target. Typical verbs that control the Benefactive case are 'to give', 'to bring', 'to say/tell', 'to show', 'to sell', all of which allow and in some cases require both a direct object and a target:
(259) t-a boy-is-ke xamsinn līra
gave.PAST-M father-3SG.OBL-BEN fifty pound 'He gave my father fifty pounds.'
(260) t-om-is ple sadīq-im-ke give.PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL money friend-1SG.OBL-BEN 'I gave money to my friend.'
$\check{s}$-ird-om day-im-ke
say-PAST-1SG mother-1SG.OBL-BEN
'I said to my mother'
(262) $\bar{u} \quad$ xarrif-k-ad-a $\quad a b-u s-k e \quad k i ̄$
and speak-VTR-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN what
eh-r-a wāšī-s
become-PAST-M with-3SG.OBL
'And he told him what had happened to him.'
(263) nimer nan-d-a gēna dbịh-ak abu

Nimer bring-PAST-M again sheep-INDEF Abu hasan-as-ke.
Hasan-OBL.M-BEN
'Nimer brought Abu Hasan another sheep.'
(264) dfas-kar-d-i mahr-ī boy-is-ke
pay-VTR-PAST-F bride.price-OBL.M father-3SG.OBL-BEN
'She paid the bride price to her father.'
(265) nēr-d-a tmaliy-ak boy-im-ke
send-PAST-M soldier-INDEF father-1SG.OBL-BEN
'He sent a soldier to my father.'
(266) tu qayiš putr-im-ke!
put food son-1SG.OBL-BEN
'Serve food to my son!'
In addition, the Benefactive can appear with an open set of other activities from which the target can benefit:
pandži qol-d-a $a b-u s-k e \quad$ fall-ē
3SG open-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN sack-OBL.F
'She opened the sack for him.'
(268) kar-d-e ama-ke Samaliy-ak $\bar{u}$
do-PAST-3PL 1SG-BEN operation-INDEF and
kil-d-om
leave-PAST-1SG
'They operated on me and I left.'
(269) par-d-a šmary-an, nan-d-osan
take-PAST-M chicken-OBL.PL bring-PAST-3PL
bar-is-ke
brother-3SG.OBL-BEN
'He took the chickens, he brought them to his brother.'
In some cases, the Benefactive identifies a person who is the destination of a physical movement. Encoded in the use of the Benefactive in such cases is the notion that the target benefits in some form from the movement, i.e. from the arrival of the actor or object that is being moved, or at the very least acts as an active recipient of the entity that has moved:
(270) $\bar{l}$ eme gar-ēn hākm-as-ke
and we go.PAST-1PL governor-OBL.M-BEN
'And we went to the governor.'
In a construction with ašti 'there is', the Benefactive encodes the possessor:
(271) $k a ̄ n$ was.3SG.M there.is for-3SG-BEN two child-PL 'He had two children.'
(272) boy-im-ke kān assti bol kam
father-1SG.OBL-BEN was.3SG.M there.is much work 'My father had a lot of work.'

Further uses of the Benefactive which exploit its inherent meaning of a recipient that is affected by an action of transfer or movement, can be seen in the following, where it encodes the object of a transaction and the outcome of physical growth, respectively:

| (273) dfaS-ka-d-e | hākm-as-ke | badāl |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| pay-VTR-PAST-PL | governon-OBL.M-BEN | instead |
| aha snōt-as-ke | Sašar līā̄t |  |
| this.M dog-OBL.M-BEN ten pound.PL |  |  |
| 'They paid the governor ten pounds for the dog.' |  |  |


| kil-d-a | wāI | ab-us-ke | $k s ̌$-os-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| emerge-PAST-M | hair | for-3SG-BEN | beard-3SG-BEN |
| 'He grew his hair to a beard.' |  |  |  |

A variant form of the Benefactive marker is -kera, which appears to be older, though the presence of contracted $-k e$ in other Domari varieties as well as in Romani suggest a prolonged co-existence of the variants -ke and -kera in the language, rather than an innovation from -kera directly to -ke in Jerusalem Domari:

| awwal | läs̆y-ak | yanni- $k$-ad-i | džuwr-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| first | girl-INDEF | sing-VTR-3PL-PRG | woman-PL |
| usbū̄S-ak, | lāšy-a-kera. |  |  |
| week-INDEF | girl-OBL.F-BEN |  |  |

'A first girl [= who is born], the women sing for a week, for the girl.'
(276) hatta giš dōm-e/ š-ird-om-is ab-ur-kera,
even all Dom-PL say-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL for-2SG-BEN dōm-e min awwal giš hindari, ghāy-ni.
Dom-PL from first all here good-PRED.PL 'And even all the Dom/ I told you this, the Dom were here from the beginning, they are good.'

| nan- $d-a /$ | farriq-k-ad-e | gǐ̌ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| bring-PAST-M | distribute-VTR-PAST-PL | all |

ik-ak protkil-èk, hayy dōm-i zayy/ one-INDEF Jew-PRED.SG PART Dom-PRED.SG like gar-a bara, š-ird-a ab-us-kera dōm-e-man go.PAST outside say-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN Dom-3PL-1PL hinēk bizot-ēni ū mizot-ēni, here poor-PRED.PL and REDUP-PRED.PL 'Somebody, a Jewish woman, and this Dom person, like/ he went out and he told her that our Dom here are poor and all that.'

### 4.3.5.4. Ablative

The Ablative appears to be related historically to the genitive marker *-k-, but its meaning has shifted to cover other functions. The term 'ablative' is justified based on the meaning of the affix when attached to a noun in isolation, where it normally indicates source or origin of movement or of emotional or sensory activity, as well as material source (texture):
(279) man-ad-m-e' kil-š-am kury-a-ki.
let-3PL-1SG-NEG emerge-SUBJ-1SG house-OBL.F-ABL
'They wouldn't allow me to leave the house.'
(280) sin-d-om min zar-es-ki
hear-PAST-1SG from boy-OBL.M-ABL
'I heard from the boy.'
(281) yaSni šar-y-an-e' baSd-e-man-ki

PART hide-ITR-1PL-NEG REC-PL-1PL-ABL
'We don't hide from one another.'
(282) eme skum-ēn hindar kury-is-ma
we live-1PL here house-3SG.OBL-LOC
wat-an-ki
stone-OBL.PL-ABL
'We live here in stone houses.'
Embedded in a two-word structure, however, the Ablative covers a range of other functions. Closest to its original genitive meaning is the use of the Ablative to encode the possessor. Note that the contemporary possessive construction relies equally on the possessive morphology that is attached to the head, whereas the historical New Indo-Aryan genitive-possession construction will have relied primarily on the genitive marking of the possessor:
(283) adžar-os kury-a-ki miyye $\bar{u}$ Sašrīn
rent-3SG houseOBL.F-ABL hundred and twenty dinār- $i$
Dinar-PRED.SG
'The house rent is one hundred and twenty dinars.'
(284) $k a \bar{n}-a t$
sūr-os boy-im-ki
was-3.SG.F picture-3SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL
Sali-ka-r-ik
kury-is-ma
hang-VTR-PAST-PRED.SG house-3SG.OBL-LOC
yāsr-as-ki
Yassir-OBL.M-ABL
'My father's picture was hanging in Yassir's house.'
(285) dōm-ē-s $\quad$ ūyar-ki bikūn kam-kar-d-i,

DOM-PL-3SG town-ABL be.3SG.M work-VTR-3PL-PRG
mwazzafin-ēni baladiy-ē-ma
employees-PRED.PL municipality-LOC
'The Dom of this town are all employed, they are municipality employees.'
(286) xāl-os dīr-i payy-im-ki
uncle-3SG daughter-PRED.SG husband-1SG.OBL-ABL
'[She is] the cousin [=uncle's daughter] of my husband.' = 'my husband's cousin'
(287) boy-os till-os-i dōm-an-ki.
father-3SG big-3SG-PRED.SG Dom-OBL.PL-ABL
'His father is the leader of the Dom.'
(288) ayyām 'urctunny-a-ki
day.PL Jordan-OBL.F-ABL
'the days of Jordanian rule'
The genitive case of the possessor has the unique property of attributing the concept represented by the possessor wholesale to the object of possession, and thus being paired with another noun, which in turn may carry its own Layer II case ending. This can be seen in the following, where the object of possession is modified by Locative, while the possessor carries $-k i$ :

| (289) $t$-ird-a | xast-os | xast-is-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| put-PAST-M | hand-3SG | hand-3SG.OBL-LOC |
| boy-im- $k i$ |  |  |

On this basis, the historical genitive-possessive construction can be drawn upon for contemporary expressions of local relations. Here, the local expressions mandža 'inside' and čanč- 'next to' are nominalised and treated as the object of possession, while the noun that provides the point of reference for the local relation assumes the form of a genitive-possessor:

| (290) $t$-am- $i$ | bakr-ē | ihnē, mandž-is-ma |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give-1SG-PRG | stick-OBL.F <br> sayyar- $\bar{e}-k i$ | here | inside-3SG.OBL-LOC |
| car-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |  |
| 'I put the stick inside the car.' |  |  |  |


| $w \bar{e} s-r$-om | čanč-is-ma | $\check{s} i b b a ̄ k-k i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sit-PAST-1SG | next.to.3SG.OBL-LOC | window-ABL |

'I sat near the window.'
The connection between possessor and source appears to be in the interpretation of the possessor as representing a quality that is transferred onto another referent. Thus, pertaining to a 'house' is an inherent property of the concept of 'rent' in the expression 'house rent'; similarly, being of stone is a property of 'houses' in 'stone houses', and in this manner being of a specified origin is a property attributed to movement from a source in the ablative relation. This extension of meaning and distribution - one could speak of the grammaticalisation of the original (historical) genitive case - continues to cover local relations in general, with the original-genitive-now-Ablative serving as a general prepositional case in constructions with both inherited and Arabic expressions of local relations. No doubt, the use of $-k i$ in expressions of local relations that are modelled on the genitive-possessive construction, as above, supports the extension of the marker to other local relations and thus facilitates its generalisation as a prepositional case-marker. Alongside the case of the possessor, the Ablative is probably used most often as the case of the nominal indirect object that is accompanied by a preposition (prepositional object):

| (292)$w \bar{e} s-r-\bar{e} n-i$ | axar | hay-ki, | sadžar-ēk-i |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sit-PAST-1PL-PRG below | PART-ABL | tree-OBL.F-ABL |  |
| 'We sat under this tree.' |  |  |  |


| kšal-d-om $\quad$ ihi | kaly-a | agir <br> pull-PAST-1SG this.F <br> goat-OBL.F <br> in.front | cukān-as-ki <br> shop-OBL.M-ABL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'I pulled this goat in front of the shop.' |  |  |  |

(294) ama xarrif-r-om maS sāḥb-im-ki

I speak-PAST-1SG with friend-1SG.OBL-ABL 'I spoke with my friend' (cf. Sociative saāhbim-san)
(295) ama gar-om la kury-is-ki

I go.PAST-1SG to house-3SG.OBL-ABL
'I went to his house.' (cf. Dative kuryis-ta)
(296) $\bar{u} \quad$ pandži min bētlahm-a-ki
and 3SG from Bethlehem-OBL.F-ABL
'And he is from Bethlehem.'
(297) aha Sīd-osan ahamm 'iši Sind
this.M holiday-3PL important.CMPV thing at
dōm-an-ki in-nabī mūụa.
Dom-OBL.PL-ABL DEF-Nabi Musa
'This is their holiday, the most important thing for the Dom is Nabi-Musa.'
(298) eh-r-a feyiš bēn pōrtkīl-an-ki $\bar{u}$ become-PAST-M confict between Jew-OBL.PL-ABL and bēn musliminn-an-ki.
between Muslim-OBL.PL-ABL
'A conflict started between the Jews and the Muslims.'

### 4.3.5.5. Sociative

The Sociative -san is a marginal case marker in the Domari variety of Jerusalem, having been almost entirely replaced by the Arabic preposition maS 'with' among the majority of speakers. It is used in a comitative function; all examples in the corpus are limited to its occurrence with the verb $\check{s}$ - 'to speak':
(299)
putr-è-m š-ad-i ama-kera ki-k son-PL-1SG speak-3PL-PRG 1SG-BEN what-PRED.SG $\check{s} w-\bar{e} k, \quad k i-k \quad \check{s} w-\bar{e} k \quad$ day-ir-san? speak-2SG what-PRED.SG speak-2SG mother-2SG.OBL-SOC ' My sons say to me how are you talking, how are you talking to your mother?'
(300) š-ird-om
speak-PAST-1SG father-1SG.OBL-SOC
'I spoke with my father.'

### 4.4. Possessive morphology

Deictic and anaphoric possession (pronominal possession) is expressed in Domari through a series of consonantal person markers (see Table 29).

Table 29. Nouns with possessive markers: bar 'brother'

|  | SG.Nom. | SG.Obl. | PL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | barom | barim- | barēm |
| 2SG | baror | barir- | barēr |
| 3SG | baros | baris- | barēs |
| 1PL | baroman | baroman- | barēman |
| 2PL | baroran | baroran- | barēran |
| 3PL | barosan | barosan- | barēsan |

They are in principle identical with the set of markers used as object affixes on verbs and as person affixes on a series of local relations expressions, and they overlap in part - in the singular forms for the first and second persons also with the set of subject concord markers used with past-tense (perfective stems):
(301) day-om, day-or
'my mother', 'your mother'
(302) day-im-ke, day-ir-ke
'for my mother', 'for your mother'
(303) lahedos-im, lahedos-it
'he saw me', 'he saw you'
(304) wāšī-m, wāšī-r 'with me', 'with you'
(305) lahed-om-is, lahed-or-is
'I saw him, 'you saw him'
As shown above, nominal possessive markers occupy the Layer I slot in the nominal case layout. They thus override, or rather incorporate, nominative and oblique case marking. Nominative possessive affixes - possessive affixes that accompany nouns in subject position - show a vowel -o-mediating between the noun stem and the consonantal marker or person that refers to the possessor, while oblique possessive affixes - those in direct and indirect object position, including those accompanied by Layer II markers - show a mediating vowel $-i$-(note that for the sake of simplicity, only oblique possessive markers are glossed OBL, while nominative markers are treated in the glossing as default):
(306) yāsir bar-om-i
Yassir brother-1SG-PRED.SG
$\bar{u}$ dīb bar-om-i min boy-im-ki and Dib brother-1SG-PRED.SG from father-1SG.OBL-ABL 'Yassir is my brother from my mother's side, and Dib is my brother from my father's side.'
ama t-ird-om-i kury-is-ma
I put-PAST-1SG-PRG house-3SG.OBL-LOC bar-om-ki
brother-3SG-ABL
'I live [=have settled in] my brother's house.'
(308) zaman-is-ma nohr-an-ki
time-3SG.OBL-LOC red-OBL.PL-ABL
'In the time of the British (rule)'
(309) štal-ar-a tanak-ē-s wasax-ki kitf-is-ta
lift-3SG-REM barrel-PL-3SG dirt-ABL shoulder-3SG.OBL-DAT 'He carried barrels of rubbish on his shoulder.'

| (310) ama | xarrif- $r$-om | $m a \varsigma$ | $\stackrel{s a ̈ h b-i m-k i}{ }$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | speak-PAST-1SG | with | friend-1SG.OBL-ABL |
|  | 'I spoke with my friend.' |  |  |

Case agreement rules on possessive markers are undergoing erosion and are subject to variation. In the plural, only a single form exists (-oman, -oran, -osan) irrespective of case.
(311) day-om min Sammān-a-ki, mišš min mother-1SG from Amman-OBL.F-ABL NEG from Sēl-oman-ki day-om family-1PL-ABL mother-1SG
'My mother is from Amman, she is not from our family.'
(312) ehe döm-e raw-ard-e min dary-osan-ki these.PL Dom-PL travel-PAST-3PL from place-3PL-ABL 'These Dom travelled from their location.'

In the singular, nominative forms can be found occasionally on nouns in oblique (object) role:

| (313) nig-r-om | kury-os-ta <br> enter-PAST-1SG | lak-ed-om |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| house-3SG-DAT | see-PAST-1SG |  |


| man-as | $\bar{u}$ | $h a ̄ d a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bread-OBL.M and PART |  |  |
| 'I entered the house, I found the bread and so on.' |  |  |

Plural objects of possession assimilate the plural ending ee into a long vowel $-\bar{e}-$ preceding the consonantal possessive ending. Plural possessive forms are not sensitive to case and remain uniform (see Table 29):

| $\bar{u}$ | in-man-ad-m-e, | kil-š-am | $m a s$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | NEG-let-3SP-1SG-NEG | exit-SUBJ-1SG <br> with |  |

šōny-an-ki, maS sāhb-ē-m-ki, girl-OBL.PL-ABL with friend-PL-1SG-ABL 'And they wouldn't let me go out with the girls, with my friends.'

| ašt $i$ | $i k-a k-i$ | $k u r d i y-\bar{e} k$ | $k a ̄ n-a t$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | one-INDEF-PRED.SG | Kurd.F-PRED.SG | was.3SG.F |

hnon, min qarāib-ē-s-ki šōn-as-ki.
here from relative.PL-PL-3SG-ABL boy-OBL.M-ABL
'There is a Kurdish girl who was here, from the boy's relatives.'

| $s a ̄ r-\bar{u}$ | $f \bar{u}-$-and- $i$ | basd | baSḍ-ē-san |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| began-3PL | hit-3PL-PRG | REC | REC-PL-3PL |
| wat-an-ma. |  |  |  |
| stone-OBL.PL-LOC |  |  |  |
| 'They began to throw stones at one another.' |  |  |  |

The origin of the consonantal person affixes that serve as possessive forms (as well as object, subject, and prepositional object marker) is in late Middle Indo-Aryan object pronouns, first person ${ }^{*} m$-, second person ${ }^{*} t$ - (giving $-r$ - in Domari through regular sound shift of dental to $-r$ - in intervocalic position, cf. MIA gata 'went', Domari gara), and third person ${ }^{*} s$. The plural forms are a uniform extension for the respective singular forms, drawing on the form -an, which derives from a plural genitive ending in the MIA nominal case system (*-ānām). The origin of the vowel case inflection marker that mediates between the noun stem and the person-possessive ending is less clear, but it could be in a form of relativiser or determiner which once mediated between the head noun and a postposed possessive pronoun, agreeing with the head in number and case (thus *putur y-o me 'son REL.NOM me' = 'my son', *putur $y$-o te 'thy son', giving putrom 'my son', putror 'your son', etc.). Inalienable possession is manifested in Domari through the obligatory possessive marking of kinship terms and names for body parts: dayom 'my mother', kyor 'your eye', baros 'her brother', kšos 'his beard', štēm 'my lips', xrom 'my heart', payēman 'our feet', putrēsan 'their sons', and so on.

## Chapter 5

## Noun modifiers

### 5.1. Nominal possessives

### 5.1.1. The structure of the genitive-possessive construction

The Domari genitive-possessive construction combines possessive marking on the head (the object of possession) with Layer II Ablative marking on the modifier (the possessor). The 3SG possessive marker is generalised without showing number agreement with the possessor:
(1) kury-os kažž-as-ki
house-3SG man-OBL.M-ABL
'the man's house'
(2) grawar-os dōm-an-ki
chief-3SG dom-OBL.PL-ABL 'the leader of the Dom'

If the modifier (possessor) itself is marked for pronominal possession, then the pronominal possessive affix may, variably however, appear in the oblique form:
(3) boy-os ṣādīq-im-ki
father-3SG friend-1SG.OBL-ABL
'my friend's father'
but also
(4) kury-os bar-om-ki
house-3SG brother-1SG-ABL 'my brother's house'

The morphosyntactic pattern for possessive constructions in present-day Jerusalem Domari is thus this:

Head-PossSG + Modifier-ABL

The construction clearly resembles the genitive-possessive construction that is used for specificity in the Colloquial Arabic variety of Jerusalem:
(5) Domari: kury-os boy-im-ki house-3SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL

| Arabic: | $b \bar{e} t-O \quad l a-$ 'abū-y |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | house-3SG to-father-1SG |
|  | 'my father's house' |

The matching pivotal features of the two constructions are firstly the order of the two noun phrase constituents, head and modifier, and beyond that the nature of the morphological marking on each of them - possession in agreement with the modifier on the head, and a default indirect object marking on the modifier (albeit preposed in Arabic, postposed in Domari). This appears to be a younger construction in the language, created or propagated in recent generations as part of an advancing process of morphosyntactic convergence with Arabic. The genitive-possessive construction mentioned by Macalister (1914) has the layout

Modifier- $\varnothing$ + Head-ø:

| boy-im | Kuri |
| :--- | :--- |
| father-1SG.BL | house |
| 'my father's house' |  |

Note that both the order of elements differs, and there is no agreement with the modifier on the head, nor indirect object marking of the modifierpossessor. This construction appears to be prevalent also in the Domari varieties of Syria and Lebanon. It resembles in the order of constituents the general New Indo-Aryan construction, except that the latter usually shows adjectival agreement between the genitive marker on the modifier, and the head (Modifier-genitive-adj. Head-ø), as in the following example from Romani:
(7) Romani: mir-e dad-es-k-o $\quad$ kher my-OBL father-OBL.M-GEN-M house 'my father's house'

Among the contiguous languages, Turkish, which is the source of only superficial lexical borrowings into Palestinian Domari, shows a similar Modifier-Head order, but with head-agreement with the modifier-possessor,
the traditional Arabic construction resembles the one that marks specificity of the modifier except that it lacks the morphological agreement marker on the head and the indirect object marking on the modifier, while Kurdish, also with an intensive historical impact on Domari, shows Head-Modifier order and an attributive particle attached to the Head:

| Turkish: | baba-m father-1SG | $e v-i$ <br> house-3SG |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Arabic (traditional): | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { bet } \\ \text { house } \\ \text { fat } \end{array}$ |  |  |
| Kurdish (Kurmanji): | mal-a <br> house-ATTR | bav-ê <br> father-ATTR.M | $\begin{aligned} & \min \\ & \text { 1SG.OBL } \end{aligned}$ |
| Kurdish (Sorani): | mał- $\hat{I}$ <br> house-ATTR <br> 'my father's | bawk-im father-1SG <br> ouse' |  |

Clearly, while the earlier history of Domari would allow us to expect Modifier-Head arrangement, as in Romani and other New Indo-Aryan languages, the pressure from the contact languages could be expected to lead to a switch in the order, toward a Head-Modifier structure. On the whole, the Modifier- $\varnothing+$ Head- $\varnothing$ construction as described by Macalister for Domari is rather marginal in our corpus, though some examples are found:
(9) $\bar{u} \quad$ xatra-k $\bar{u} \quad$ ama qasṭtot-tik $k a ̄ n-\bar{u}$ and time-INDEF and I small-PRED.SG was-3PL yāsir $\bar{u} \quad$ boy-im kuri harab-ēni
Yassir and father-1SG.OBL house rival-PRED
'And once when I was small, Yassir and my father's family had a dispute.'
(10) dis-ak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i siry-is-ka
day-INDEF this.F lantern fall-PAST-F head-3SG.OBL-DAT
hay-ki bar-im dir-ki
this-ABL brother-1SG.OBL daughter-ABL
'And one day the lantern fell on the head of what's her name, my brother's daughter.'
(11) aha šōna ssār row-ar-i atnī-san,
this.M boy began.M cry-3SG-PRG about-3PL
man- d-a boy-is kury-a $\bar{u}$
leave-PAST-M father-3SG.OBL house-OBL.F and

| gar-a |
| :--- |
| go.PAST-M |$\quad t$ ras-r-a return-PAST-M $\quad$| dōm-an. |
| :--- |
| Dom-OBL.PL |

'The boy started to cry, he left his father's house and he went/ he
went back to the Dom.'

A variant of the same construction, also very marginal in the corpus, has the structure Modifier-OBL + Head-ø:

(12) | illa | Kuwī-r-i | yāsir-as |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| except | fall-PAST-F | Yassir-.OBL.M |
|  | 'Except that it fell on Yassir's daughter.' |  | daughter

(13) kull ma nik-š-ari, zrit-ēni
every COMP descend-SUBJ-3SG child-PRED.PL
kuš九tot-ēni: $\quad$ yallah, mangiš-ahr-esi, dōm-ahr-esi
small-PRED.PL PART beggar-be-2PL Dom-be-2PL
mangiš-hr-esi, $\bar{u} \quad$ julut-h-od-i dōm-an
beggar-be-2PL and insult-VITR-3PL-PRG Dom-OBL.PL
putr-an-ka
son-OBL.PL-DAT
'Every time he went out, the small children [say]: go, you are beggars, you are Gypsies, beggars, and they insult the Doms' children.'

There are only very few occurrences of this construction in the corpus, yet enough for it to be considered as fully developed and not an ad hoc device used idiosyncratically. The use of the independent oblique as the case of the possessor may indeed reflect the very old historical function of this marker as a genitive case. Note that in Romani, the independent oblique is on the whole assigned similar distribution rules and functions as in Domari. But in Romani, the independent oblique is also the historical case of the possessor, which is continued in a larger number of varieties of the language (cf. Matras 2002: 8587).

A further, analytical possessive construction is attested in the corpus and also mentioned by Macalister (1914). It involves the particle $k a \bar{a} k$-, which in principle might be regarded as a structural match to the Arabic possessive particle tabal. Etymologically, the particle seems to be based on the interrogative element $k$ - along with an historical genitive ending $-k$. The particle is only used for pronominal possession, with possessive suffixes attaching to the particle as well as, alternatively, to the head noun:

| $t$-om-is | $g i s ̌$ | $p l-e-m$ | $k a ̄ k i ̄-m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take.PAST-1SG | all | money-PL-1SG | POSS-1SG |
| 'I took all my money.' |  |  |  |

(15) yōm-i nig-r-om wara-kar-d-om day-INDEF enter-PAST-1SG wear-VTR-PAST-1SG
kiy-ak-ē-m. $\bar{u} \quad$ par-d-om bakr-ī what-INDEF-PL-1SG and take-PAST-1SG stick-OBL.M kāk-os.
POSS-3SG
'One day I went in, I put on my things, and I took his walking stick.'
The possessive particle can itself take on a pronominal function, representing in a plural form marked for the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person possessive 'items belonging to a third person':
(16) kar-ad-i ek-ak kāk-ē-s xēl-as-ki,
make-3PL-PRG one-INDEF POSS-PL-3SG horse-OBL.M-ABL kar-ad-i kāk-ē-s qar-an-ki, pāndžan make-3PL-PRG POSS-PL-3SG donkey-OBL.M-ABL they haddid-k-ad-i šātir-ni
metal-VTR-3PL-PRG industrious-PRED.PL
'They make such things belonging to horses, they make things for donkeys, they are experienced metalworkers.'

### 5.1.2. Functions of the genitive-possessive construction

Among the most frequent usages of the possessive construction is the employment of the modifier to provide information on the material composition or the physical/spatial source or origin of the head:
(17) eme skun-ēn hindar kury-is-ma
we live-3PL here house-3SG.OBL-LOC
wat-an-ki
stone-OBL.PL-ABL
'We live here in stone houses.'
(18) masìy-os dawāy-ki
meat-3SG camel-ABL
'camel meat'
(19)

| pī-r-om | awwal | šafta | min | $q a h w-\bar{e}-k i$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| drink-PAST-1SG | first | sip | from | coffee-OBL.F-ABL |
| lak-ed-om | taSm-os | qahw- $\bar{e}-k i$ |  |  |
| see-PAST-1SG | taste-3SG | coffee-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |

tyayyir-ah-r-i
changed-VITR-PAST-F
${ }^{\text {'I }}$ drink the first sip from the coffee, I found that its taste had changed.'
(20) dōm-ē-s yaf-ē-ki lamma kān

Dom-PL-3SG Jaffa-OBL.F-ABL when was.3SG.M
aw-and-a ūyar-ta hindar, šuš-and-a Sand
come-3PL-REM town-DAT here sleep-3PL-REM at dōm-è-man-ki hindar ūyar-ma.
Dom-PL-1PL-ABL here town-LOC
'When the Dom of Jaffa came here to Jerusalem, the used to stay with our Dom here in Jerusalem. ${ }^{24}$

Often, possessive constructions are used to display family genealogical relations:
$b \bar{a} d-o s, \quad x a \bar{l}-o s-i \quad b o y-i m-k i$,
grandfather-3SG uncle-3SG-PRED.SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL
$\bar{u}$ dady-os/ māmy-os boy-is-ki
and grandmother-3SG aunt-3SG father-3SG.OBL-ABL
dady-om-i
grandmother-1SG-PRED.SG
'His grandfather is my father's maternal uncle, and his grandmother/ his father's paternal aunt is my grandmother.'
(22) day-os, dady-os mām-is
mother-3SG
grandmother-3SG
uncle-3SG.OBL
dīr-i boy-im-ki. ama xāl-os
daughter-PRED.SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL. I uncle-3SG
er-a-ki.
this.F-OBL.F-ABL uncle-3SG-PRED.SG mother-3SG.OBL-ABL
'Her mother, her grandmother is my father's paternal female cousin.
I am her maternal uncle. Her mother's maternal uncle.'
(23) boy-os bikūn xāl-os-i
father-3SG is.3SG.M uncle-3SG-PRED.SG
boy-im-ki, yaSni bitkūn pandži
father-1SG.OBL-ABL PART is.3SG.F 3SG
dïr-os $\quad x a \bar{a}-$-im-ki
daughter-3SG uncle-1SG.OBL-ABL
'Her father is my father's maternal uncle, so she is my maternal female cousin.'
(24) aha qrara boy-os šōn-as-ki,
this.M Bedouin father-3SG boy-OBL.M-ABL
$s a \bar{r} r \quad n \bar{e}-r-i \quad$ mate
begin.PAST.3SG.M send-3SG-PRG people-PL
dawwir-kar-ad putr-os-ta
look.for-VTR-3PL.SUBJ son-3SG-DAT
'The Bedouin, the boy's father boy, began to send people to look for his son.'

Not surprisingly, when discussing possession we find that the construction often shows a head that is described as a property of the modifier, in the sense that the modifier has ownership over it, or exerts a kind of power or control over the head, or is responsible for shaping it:
(25) er-e tmaliy-ē-s inglīziy-an-ki come.PAST-3PL soldier-PL-3SG English-OBL.PL-ABL 'The English soldiers [= soldiers of the English] arrived.'
(26) fēm-and-a inglīziy-an taxtax-k-ad-a
hit-3PL-REM English-OBL.PL shot-VTR-PAST-REM and
aw-ad-a šary-ad-a kury-ē-s-ma
come-3PL-REM hide-3PL-REM house-PL-3SG-LOC
döm-an-ki, aw-ad-a inglīziy-e
Dom-OBLPL-ABL, come-3PL-REM English-PL lak-ad-san-a kury-ē-s-ma dōm-an-ki find-PAST-3PL-REM house-PL-3SG-LOC Dom-OBLPL-ABL
'They used to attack the English, they used to shoot and they used to come and hide in the houses of the Dom, so the English used to come and find them in the houses of the Dom.'
(27) $\varsigma u r \bar{u} s$-os dōm-an-ki $\varsigma \bar{a} d-i k$
wedding-3SG Dom-OBL.PL-ABL regular-PRED.SG
'Dom weddings are normal.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { gar-ēn } & \begin{array}{l}\text { skun-ēn } \\ \text { go.PAST-1PL }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { live-1PL.SUBJ }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}h \bar{s} \text { s-as-ma } \\ \text { yard-OBL.M-LOC }\end{array}\end{array}$
muxtār-as-ki
head.man-OBL.M-ABL
'We went to live in the head man's courtyard.'

The possessive construction sometimes represents a relationship whereby the head exercises a function - either practical or symbolic - in relation to the modifier:

| payy-os mudir-os-i | munk-as-ki <br> husband-3SG <br> diector-3SG-PRED.SG |
| :--- | :--- |
| 'Her husband is a bank director.' | bank-OBL.M-ABL |

(30) $\bar{u}$ par-d-a xitm-os muxtar-è-ki
and take-PAST-M seal-3SG leadership-OBL.F-ABL
minšī-m
from-1SG
'And he took the leadership seal from me.'
In some instances, the possessive construction shows an Arabic head, with no possessive marking. Favourite candidates for this kind of structure are expressions of temporal and local relations that are taken over from Arabic, and which in conjunction with a genitive-possessive modifier provide an adverbial specification of a temporal or local semantic nature:
(31) ’āyyām boy-oman-ki
day.PL father-1PL-ABL
'in our father's days'

| (32) ama | gar-om-i | eh' nawahī | qahw-ē-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | go.PAST-1SG-PRG | surrounding | café-OBL.F-ABL |
| $\bar{u}$ | hada |  |  |
| and PART |  |  |  |
| 'I had gone eh/around the café and so on.' |  |  |  |

A construction emerges in these examples that might be seen as a blend between the Domari genitive-possessive construction, and the Arabic genitive attribution (I $\grave{a} a \mathrm{f} a$ ). The latter shows a similar order of elements, i.e. HeadModifier, usually with no further morphological marking, and is thus used in Arabic in environments that are very similar to those in the above examples. This blend is, however, subject to variation, and one encounters just as frequently full integration of the very same Arabic expressions into the Domari genitive-possessive construction:
(33) gēna qabil ayyām-ē-san nohr-as-ki,
further before dayPL-PL-3PL English-OBL.M-ABL
kān-ū giš dōm-e skun-ahr-end-a knēn?
was.3SG.M all Dom-PL live-VITR-3PL-REM where
'Long before the days of the English, where did all the Dom used to live?'

A final remark on the genitive-possessive construction concerns what Macalister (1914: 14) attempted to identify as a Persian or Persian-type Izafe construction in -i. According to Macalister, this may take on two distinct forms: The plain Izafe consists merely of an insertion of the Izafe marker inbetween the head and the determiner-possessor: siri-i-manus 'the man's head' The second type is a contamination of the Izafe with the inflected genitivepossessive construction outlined above, namely siryos-i-manusask. As far as the first structure is concerned, I have been unable to find any trace of it whatsoever, and it is not clear whether it has since perished, or whether some kind of misinterpretation might be involved. As for the 'contaminated' structure, the data appear to be quite straightforward in suggesting that this has, in fact, little to do with a Persian (or rather, Sorani Kurdish; Persian has $-e$, Sorani has $-\lambda$ ) Izafe structure. Instead we are dealing here in all likelihood with the predication marker that is attached to consonantal stems, namely $-i$. Consider first the following two examples:
ihi kury-om-i
this.F house-1SG-PRED.SG
'This is my house.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { ihi } & \text { kury-os-i } & \text { boy-im-ki } \\ \text { this.F } & \text { house-3SG-PRED.SG } & \text { father-1SG.OBL-ABL } \\ \text { 'This is my father's house.' } & \end{array}$
The singular predication marker $-i$ has the same function and the same position in both examples, except that in the second example the noun to which it is attached is followed by a genitive-possessive modifier. The logic of the positioning of the predication marker between the head and modifier follows the logic of the predication, which binds together the topical entity - in these two cases the deictic reference 'this' - with the predicate noun 'house'. The modifier appears as an external attribute to the predicate noun, it is not in itself part of the object of the predication. In this way, we can equally explain the appearance of $-i$ in the following examples, repeated from the earlier part of this section:

| payy-os | mudir-os-i | bank-as-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| husband-3SG | diector-3SG-PRED.SG | bank-OBL.M-ABL |

'Her husband is a bank director.'

| boy-os bikūn | $x a ̄ l-o s-i$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| father-3SG | is.3SG.M | uncle-3SG-PRED.SG |
| boy-im-ki |  |  |
| father-1SG.OBL-ABL |  |  |
| 'Her father is my father's maternal uncle.' |  |  |

The segment $-i$ following the head in some of the genitive-possessive constructions has therefore nothing to do with a Persian-type attribution, but rather with the role of the head noun in a presentative construction for which Domari employs predication markers, of which $-i$ happens to be not just one of the frequent, but the one normally attached to consonantal stems.

### 5.2. Noun juxtaposition

A marginal strategy in Domari conversation is to make use of the juxtaposition of nouns as a way of attribution or semantic modification, without drawing on a genitive-possessive construction:

'At night $=$ that is, at night $=$ the Bedouin Sheikh said to the Bedouins expel all the Dom from here.'

| tānī | dīs | aha | šōna | qrara, | putr-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| next | day | this.M | boy | Bedouin | son-3SG |

šēx-as-ki, gar-a ta lak-ar
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL go.PAST-M COMP see-3SG.SUBJ
dōm-an
Dom-OBL.PL
ma
NEG
lak-ed-os-san.
see-PAST-3SG-3PL
'The next day the Bedouin boy, the Sheikh's son, went to see the Dom but could not find them.'
(40) šōni portkīliya xul-d-i bāb isbāt lak-ed-ī
girl Jewish.F descend-PAST-F gate Lions see-PAST-F
tmāliy-as aha näm-os abu slëman.
soldier-OBL.M this.M name-3SG Abu Suleiman
'The Jewish girl went down Lions Gate and met this policeman named Abu Suleiman.'

Note that in all examples of this usage, we find an attributive noun that is animate and which also belongs to the declension class that shows gender inflection in the nominative - -a for masculine singular in qrara 'Bedouin', and -iya for feminine singular in portkiliya 'Jewish woman'. These nouns are thus related structurally, but also semantically, to adjectives, which potentially at least carry gender agreement and indicate an attribute that can be associated
with another nominal entity, in these cases ethnicity. Whether these properties of the nouns lend themselves to an employment in such makeshift attributive constructions, or whether the construction is in principle open to other noun combinations, cannot be said with certainty on the basis of just a handful of examples.

### 5.3. Demonstratives in attributive function

Domari demonstratives may appear as stand alone pronouns that refer to known, aforementioned or otherwise identifiable entities; or they may accompany nouns in attributive position. We deal here with the latter usage. Under the formal aspects of the attributive demonstratives we must consider first the obligatory presence of gender and number agreement with the head noun:

Table 30. Attributive forms of the demonstrative

| M.SG | F.SG | PL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aha/uhu | ihi | ehe |

As seen in Table 30 and the following examples, gender and number agreement is present with demonstratives, but there is no agreement for case:
(41) qrara aha šōna, mang-id-a ihi Bedouin this.M boy ask-PAST-M this.F domi-yē min boy-is-ki
Dom-OBL.F from father-3SG.OBL-ABL
'The Bedouin boy asked her father for the Dom girl's hand.'
(42) sār qaft-ar-i min boy-os
began.M steal-3SG-PRG from father-3SG
kury-a-ki aha qrara nan-ar-i ihi
house-OBL.F-ABL this.M Bedouin bring-3SG-PRG this.F
domiy-e-ke $\bar{u}$ dräri-k-ed-os-san ple Dom-OBL.F-BEN and fill-VTR-PAST-3SG-3PL money
'The boy started to steal from his father's household and to bring things to this Dom girl and to bestow her with money.'
(43) rfự-k-ed-a ka aha boy-os aha refuse-VTR-PAST-M this.M father-3SG this.M šōn-as-ki.
boy-OBL.M-ABL
'The boy's father refused.'
(44) ehe dōm-e illi awa-d-i min-l-awwal
these.PL Dom-PL REL come-3PL-PRG originally ehe haddad-ni haddid-k-ad-i
these.PL blacksmith-PRED.PL iron-VTR-3PL-PRG 'These Dom who are arriving are originally blacksmiths, they are metalworkers.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { qal } & \text { itme } & \text { bidd-kum } & \text { rahil-kar-as }\end{array} \quad$ ama-ke
mar-d-a aha bakr-as, c̈in-d-a
kill-PAST-M this.M sheep-OBL.M cut-PAST-M
wirk-as
thigh-OBL.M
'He slaughtered the sheep and cut its thigh.'
(47) aha qrara šēx, aha boy-os
this.M Bedouin Sheikh this.M father-3SG
šōn-as-ki, nan-ar-i dakātr-an
boy-OBL.M-ABL bring-3SG-PRG doctors-OBL.PL
inni tayyib-kar-ad aha šon-as
COMP cure-VTR-3PL.SUBJ this.M boy-OBL.M
'The Bedouin Sheikh, the boy's father, brings in doctors to cure the son.'

| wis-law-id-os | Sa aha | kurs-as-ta, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sit-CAUS-PAST-3SG on | this.M chair-OBL.M-DAT |  |  |
| sallim- -ed-os | aha | ¢ūd-as, | portkiliya |
| surrender-VTR-PAST-3SG | this.M oud-OBL.M Jew.F |  |  |
| 'She made him sit on the chair, she handed him the oud, the Jewish |  |  |  |
| woman.' |  |  |  |

Demonstratives accompany nouns as a way of emphasising the familiarity of the nominal entity and of instructing the listener to retrieve relevant contextual information about this entity. As discussed and exemplified in section 4.2.3.3 above, the use of attributive demonstratives in Domari does not necessarily require a shift of focus and is not necessarily targeted toward the disambiguation of a particular referent from a potential set of referents that answer to the same semantic parameters set by the nominal lexical item. In this respect, the deictic force of Domari demonstratives in attributive position is arguably weaker or 'bleached' compared to some other languages.

Among the functions of the Domari attributive demonstrative is to establish a connection between a referent and the situative domain of the interaction setting, by pointing to the immediate physical presence of this referent in the speech situation:


Such situative reference - deixis ad oculos - might be regarded as the prototypical meaning of the demonstrative, but it is not typical of the majority of instances in which the demonstrative is used. The situative meaning can be exploited in narration by using the demonstrative to refer to an entity that is, in fact, both unknown from the preceding discourse context and unidentifiable in the actual speech situation. Such use of the demonstrative transposes the listener conceptually into the original setting of the event - deixis ad phantasma or 'imagination deixis' (cf. Bühler 1934) - where the demonstrative can be interpreted with reference to an element of the speech situation that is perceivable through sensory means.

Note, however, in the following example, that this kind of use of the attributive demonstrative differs from the prototype: First, the demonstrative is postposed to the head noun (lakedi tmāliyas aha 'she saw this policeman'). Second, in this position it mediates between the head noun and a name identifying the head noun: lakedi tmāliyas aha nāmos abu slēman 'she saw this policeman his name [is] Abu Suleiman', and tmäli aha abu slëman tassilla... 'this policeman Abu Suleiman contacted ...':

a. 'The Jewish girl went down Lions Gate and met this policeman named Abu Suleiman.
b. She told him that somebody came, took her money and pulled a knife at her and raped her and so on.
c. The policeman, Abu Suleiman, called the police in like/ the Qashle, he called the police of the Maskubiyye. ${ }^{25}$

Other narrative uses of the attributive demonstrative include the creation of emotional distance to the referent. In the following example, the referent Yassir is introduced at the beginning of the narrative. Its topical status continues as the referent's actions are described in sequence. When the complicating event sets in - depicting Yassir's attack on the young woman -a sense of irony is created through the use of the proper name Yassir along with the attributive demonstrative aha, as if there is a need to further identify an entity that is already uniquely and exclusively identified by its proper name. Moreover, the adding of mansoman 'our man' as a further nominal attribute strengthens the irony, marking out the familiarity and implying particular presupposed knowledge about the referent, while at the same time serving as an opening to the description of the referent's despicable actions:
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { a. } & \text { qabel } & \text { sab̧a } & \bar{u} & \text { Sšrīn } & \text { wars } & \text { mām-om } \\ & \text { before } & \text { seven } & \text { and } & \text { twenty } & \text { year } & \text { uncle-1SG }\end{array}$ putur yāsir gar-a swēq-ē-ta son Yassir go.PAST-M market-OBL.F-DAT
štri-k-ar mana $\bar{u} \quad s ̣ a h n-a k$ buy-VTR-3SG.SUBJ bread and plate-INDEF hummuṣ
hummus
b. baSd ma štrī-k-ad-a man-as $\bar{u}$ after COMP buy-VTR-PAST-M bread-OBL.M and humms-ī $\quad$ xul- $d-a \quad$ min hummus-OBL.M open-PAST-M from dakākīn-an-ki/ bāb isbāt $\bar{u}$ shops.PL-OBL.PL-ABL gate Lions and kil-d-a daradž-ē-s hay-ki illi Sand descend-PAST-M stair-PL-3SG this-ABL REL at
bāb isbāt $\bar{u}$ lek-id-a ik/ šōn-ik
gate Lions and see-PAST-M one girl-PRED.SG yahūdiy-ēk nām-os elīza
Jewish-PRED.SG name-3SG Eliza
c. kil-d-i sūr-as-ta minšān
climb-PAST-F wall-OBL.M-DAT in.order
ṣawwir-k-ar manāzir-ē-s hay-ki,
picture-VTR-3SG.SUBJ view-PL-3SG PART-ABL
ūyar-ki.
town-ABL
d. mans-oman aha yāsir kil-d-a paši person-1PL this.M Yassir climb-PAST-M behind šōny-a-ki $\bar{u}$ t-ird-a man-as $\bar{u}$ girl-OBL.F-ABL and put-PAST-M bread-OBL.M and ṣahn-os ḥummuṣ-i bit-as-ta $\bar{u}$ plate-3SG hummus-PRED.SG land-OBL.M-DAT and minn-d-a šōny-a $\bar{u} \quad s ̣ a ̄ r / ~$
hold-PAST-M girl-OBL.F and began.3SG.M
Sabud-k-ed-os $\bar{u} \quad s ̣ a ̄ r ~$
hug-VTR-PAST-3SG and began.3SG.M

| bawus-kar-i | mindž̄̄-s |
| :--- | :--- |
| kiss-VTR-3SG-PRG | inside-3SG |

a. 'Twenty seven years ago my cousin Yassir went to the market to buy bread and a plate of hummus.
b. After he bought the bread and the hummus he came out of the shops at/Lions Gate/ and went down the stairs of this place, at Lions Gate, and he saw a/a Jewish girl, her name was Eliza.
c. She was climbing the [city] wall in order to photograph the views of Jerusalem.
d. This man of ours Yassir [=our man Yassir] climbed after the girl and put down the bread and the plate of hummus on the ground and he held the girl and began/ he hugged her and started to kiss her.'

In most instances, however, the use of the attributive demonstrative of the set aha/ihi/ehe simply serves to continue an established reference to an identified topical entity. Thus in the following, the use of ehe in farrudžhondi ehe raqqäsīnanta 'they are watching the dancers' is little more than an indication of referential continuity:

a. 'And they brought dancers from Gaza from Jaffa, Dom women travelled.
b. Many Jews came to the Musharib and also many Muslims came from inside the [old] city.
c. And they began to watch the dancers performing and so on.'

The usual source of information about an identifiable referent marked out as such by the attributive demonstrative is the explicit mentioning of that referent in the previous context of the preceding discourse. Thus in (52) the excerpt begins with nande raqqāṣāt 'they brought in dancers', referring to as yet unknown entities (partly described by their origin). Having been introduced, the 'dancers' then take up the status of an identifiable topical entity, and are later on referred to as ehe raqqāsinnanta 'these dancers'.

In the following the two entities referred to are the two major characters in a story. The attributive demonstrative here similarly signals the mere fact that the referents are familiar to both speaker and listener; they are identifiable and thus definite:

| par-d-a | ihi | dom | aha |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AST-M | this.F | Dom.F-OBL.F | this.M | Bedouin |
| The Bedouin | rried | Dom woman |  |  |

But the attributive demonstrative can also act as a prompt to the listener to scan relevant contextual information that does not name the referent explicitly, but which allows the listener to derive relevant contextual information that can be used in order to identify this referent:


|  | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { kury-a } & s \bar{u} r \text {-as-ki. } \\ \text { house-OBL.F } & \text { wall-OBL.M-ABL }\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| e. | $\begin{array}{lllll}\text { skunn-ēn } & \text { mindžī-s } & \text { aw-ar- } i & \text { talatīn } & \text { sine } \\ \text { live-1PL } & \text { inside-3SG } & \text { come-3SG-PRG } & \text { thirty } & \text { year }\end{array}$ |
| f. | er-a isrā̄ı̄l kil-ad-is-man, <br> come.PAST-M Israel expel-PAST-3SG.OBL-1PL <br> kil-ad-is-man  kury-a-ki <br> expel-PAST-3SG.OBL-1PL house-OBL.F.SG-ABL  <br> er-a-ki.   <br> that-OBL.F-ABL   |
| g. | $\bar{u}$ la-ssȩ̄a ihi haqora wāšī-man-i $\bar{u}$ <br> and still this.F deeds with-1PLn and <br> kuri sakkirn-ik     <br> house closed-PRED.SG     |
| a. | 'We accommodated him here and we went to live in the head man's courtyard. |
| b. | We lived there for one year. |
| c. | We bought a house back on the wall. ${ }^{26}$ |
| d. | We bought it for the price of a house on the wall. |
| e. | We lived in it for thirty years. |
| f. | Israel came and forced us out, forced us out of the house, out of that one. |
| g. | We still have the deeds with us and the house is secured.' |

Note that we find a demonstrative in the Ablative case - erkaki 'from that one'. This is not an attributive demonstrative, but a pronominal form, an apposition to kuryaki 'from the house' which precedes it. Its purpose is to resolve the potential ambiguity between the references that are being made to two separate houses, both along the wall, which the speaker and his family had bought and inhabited at different times.

An example of the attributive demonstrative is found at the very end of the excerpt: la-ssē§a ihi haqora wäšīman 'we still have the deeds to the house'. It is noteworthy that the entity in question - 'deeds' - has not been introduced into the discourse previously in any explicit manner, i.e. by naming or reference or description. Rather, the speaker is relying on general knowledge in assuming that the existence of deeds for every house that has been legally purchased is presupposed. The use of the attributive demonstrative ihi in ihi haqora 'the deeds' means that relevant information about the referent is derivable from the context, namely from the information provided in the preceding discourse about the purchasing of the house. The nominal entity that
is modified by $i h_{i}$ is thus not previously mentioned but nevertheless conceptually accessible.

This nicely illustrates the broad range of usages of the Domari attributive demonstrative aha etc. It assigns to the noun to which it is attached the status of an identifiable and accessible referential entity that can be retrieved from information available to both the speaker and the listener. This information can be established in relation to the speech situation by activating sensory means, or alternatively it can be drawn from explicit verbal reference made as part of the propositional content of the preceding discourse, or else from inferences made on the basis of the discourse content coupled with general, shared knowledge and presuppositions. The structure aha + noun thus indicates that a referent is 'identifiable, retrievable, accessible' The frequent repetition in Domari narration chains of the same noun accompanied by aha indicates that aha is fully compatible with referential continuity in discourse and that no special effort is required from the listener in order to disambiguate the referent.

In this latter respect, the Domari deictic reference system shows an opposition between the 'accessible' demonstrative aha and a more specialised, 'disambiguating' or 'specific' demonstrative uhu This opposition is only attested among the attributive forms in the masculine singular. Among the pronominal forms, the opposition is apparent in the oblique sets er'proximate, accessible' vs. or- 'distant, disambiguating', while the nominative forms show the same levelling as in the attributive set, namely an opposition aha/uhuin the masculine singular, but uniform feminine singular ihi and plural ehe respectively.

The differentiation in the oblique and in the masculine singular nominative seems to be the remainder of a more systematic distinction once made throughout the system, if one is to judge by the comparison with Romani dialects, which generally show a four-term system of demonstratives, both pronominal and attributive, in which 'specificity' is one semantic dimension, and 'source of knowledge' (speech situation vs. discourse) another (see Matras 1998b). The attributive function of Domari uhu is to indicate explicit separation of the referent from other potential referents belonging to the same set as defined by the semantics of the head noun. Thus, it works by directing the listener to search for referential demarcation, disambiguation, and the specificity of the relevant referent to which uhu is attributed:

| baSdēn | pandžan nas-r-e. | na | manī-r-e |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| then | they | leave-PAST-3PL | NEG | stay-PAST-3PL |
| uhu | matrah-ma. |  |  |  |
| that.M | place-LOC |  |  |  |

[^1](56) a. tānī dīs aha šōna qrara, putr-os next day this.M boy Bedouin son-3SG šēx-as-ki, gar-a ta Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL go.PAST-M COMP
lak-ar dōm-an ma lak-ed-os-san, see-3SG.SUBJ Dom-OBL.PL NEG see-PAST-3SG-3PL
b. raw-ird-ēd-i min hundar min uhu travel-PAST-3PL-PRG from there from that.M des-os-ki village-OBL.M-ABL
a. 'The next day the Bedouin boy, the Sheikh's son, went to see the Dom but could not find them.
b. They travelled from there from that village of his.'
(57)
a. džan-d-om inni pandži-k illi know-PAST-1SG COMP 3SG-PRED.SG REL kar-d-a hāds-ī mas portkīliy-ē-ki. do-PAST-M incident-OBL.M with Jewess-OBL.F-ABL
b. amma uhu waxt-as-ma ma hibb-r-om but that time-OBL.M-LOC NEG like-PAST-1SG dža-m xabbir-k-am-i tmāliy-an go-1SG.SUBJ inform-VTR-1SG.PRG soldier-OBL.PL muskubiyy-ē-ki hayy-os uhu zäbt-as. Muskubiyye-OBL.F-ABL PART-3SG that officer-OBL.M
a. 'I knew that he is the one who was responsible for the incident with the Jewish girl.
b. But at that moment I didn't wish to inform the Muskubiyye police, that guy, the officer.'

Many of the instances of $u h u$ in the corpus pertain to the disambiguation of particular moments in time, and occur in more or less fixed constructions along with expressions of time:
(58) min uhu waxt-as-ki, man-d-e fi
from that.M time-OBL.M-ABL stay-PAST-3PL in
šamāl l-hind.
north DEF-India
'From that time onwards they stayed in northern India.'

| (59) uhu waxt-as-ma | kān | sab̧a | wlād | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that time-OBL.M-LOC | was.3SG.M | seven | boy.PL | and |
| banāt ab-us-ke, | yāsir. |  |  |  |
| girl.PL for-3SG-BEN Yassir |  |  |  |  |
| 'At that time Yassir had seven children.' |  |  |  |  |

(60) min uhu ayyām-an-ki šukk-r-a
from that day.PL-OBL.PL-ABL doubt-PAST-M
mindž̌̌-m
from-1SG.OBL
'Since those days on he does not trust me.'
(61) uhu waxt-as-ma kān hibb-or-i
that time-OBL.M-LOC was.3SG.M love-3SG-PRG
$i k$-ak $\bar{u}$ hada $\bar{u} \quad s a k-r$-ēy-e'
one-INDEF and PART and can-PAST-REM-NEG
par-ar-is $\bar{u}$ hada
take-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL and PART
'At that time he was in love with someone and so on and he couldn't marry her and so on.'

### 5.4. Numerals

The numeral system of Jerusalem Domari has undergone a significant change over the past century with the loss of the inherited Indic forms for most numerals above 'five'. Macalister (1914: 18-19) still documents the cardinal citation forms šas 'six' and hōot 'seven', alongside the secondary, complex formations taran-wa-taran 'six' (lit. 'three-and-three'), štar-wa-taran 'seven' (lit. 'four-and-three'), štar-wa-štar 'eight' (lit. 'four-and-four'), štar-wa-pandž (lit. 'four-and-five') 'nine', as well as das-wa-yikak 'eleven' ('ten-and-one'), wīs-ila-yikak 'nineteen' ('twenty-without-one'), wīs-lu-yikak 'twenty one' (lit. 'twenty-and-one'), and so on. He also records composed numerals for taran-das 'thirty' ('three-ten'), štar-das 'forty' ('four-ten'), nïm-sai 'fifty' ('half-hundred'), šaš-das 'sixty' ('six-ten'), ḥōt-das 'seventy' ('seven-ten'), di-sai 'two hundred', das-sai 'one thousand' ('ten-hundred') and so on. The linking elements - wa, $u$ 'and' and ila 'without' - are Arabic-derived, while the word nïm 'half' derives from Persian. Macalister reports that Arabic forms are used for ordinal and other fractional expressions.

I was able to record the same inherited forms listed by Macalister from an elderly speaker originating from the coastal town of Jaffa, now resident in a refugee camp in Gaza. By contrast, none of these composed forms are attested in the present-day speech of the Jerusalem community, nor are the forms šas
'six' and $h \bar{o} t \underline{t}$ 'seven' used or even familiar to any of the speakers, while wis 'twenty' and siyyak 'one hundred' are familiar to some but not attested in any spontaneous usage. Instead we find the Arabic forms sitt- 'six', saba\&- 'seven', tamāni- 'eight', tişa- 'nine', §ašr- 'ten', Sišrīn 'twenty', and so on, as well as miyye 'hundred' and 'alf 'thousand'. Numbers above ' 20 ' may be constructed following the inherited pattern, for citation purposes: Sišrīn-i $\bar{u}$ taranes- $i$ 'twenty three'. Here, the Arabic form išrin 'twenty' is followed by the inherited taran 'three'. Usually, however, the entire Arabic expression is preferred, with the smaller numeral preceding the higher (decimal) one: 'arbaS $\bar{u}$ Sišrīn 'twenty four'.

The fact that Macalister was able to record inherited forms and compositions, and their presence, apparently, in the coastal community of Domari speakers, can be taken as an indicator of the conservative nature of Palestinian Domari, in some respects at least, compared to the northern Domari varieties of Syria and Lebanon, which replace numerals above ' 5 ' with the Kurdish forms $\check{s} e \check{s}$, heft, hešt, and noh. It is possible that speakers of 'southern' Domari - Palestinian and Jordanian varieties - moved away from the Kurdish-speaking areas at an earlier stage. Reportedly, Kurdish serves as an important contact language among some of the Dom communities in Lebanon to this day, ${ }^{27}$ and it is certainly known among the Qurbati of Aleppo and Qamishli in northern Syria.

The present-day system of cardinal numerals can be divided into citation forms, also used in counting, and attributive forms, which accompany nouns (see Table 31). Arabic numerals appear in the citation form with an indefinite marker followed by a predicative marker, rendering a presentative construction akin to something like 'it's a six', 'it's an eight'. It appears that this form complements the citation suffix -es which accompanies inherited numerals in this function.

Table 31. Domari numerals

| Numeral | citation | attribute | attribute definite |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | ikak |  |  |
| 2 | diyyes | $d i$ | dine |
| 3 | taranes | taran | tarane |
| 4 | stares | 'arbas | štarne |
| 5 | pandžes | xamis |  |
| 6 | sitt-ēk-i | sitt |  |
| 7 | sabs-ak-i | saba¢ |  |
| 8 | tamāniy-ak-i | taman |  |
| 9 | $t i s ¢-a k-i$ | tis¢a |  |
| 10 | das 'ten', ¢ašr-ak-i | Sašr |  |
| 20 | Sišrin-i, wis-i | išrin |  |

Table 31 (cont.) Domari numerals

| Numeral | citation | attribute | attribute definite |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 21 | ¢ǐ̌̌rin ū ekak-i | wāhhed u ¢išrin |  |
| 22 | SİŠrin-i $\bar{u}$ diyyes-i | tnēn u ¢išrinn |  |
| 23 | ¢išrin-i $\bar{u}$ taranes-i | talāte u ¢išrin |  |
| 24 | 'arba¢ ū ¢ǐ̌řin | 'arba¢ $\bar{u}$ ¢išrinn |  |
| 100 | miyyēk hi, siyy-ak-i | miyye | mit |
| 1000 | 'alf-ak-i |  |  |

The citation form for 'one' is composed of the inherited numerical form $i k$ ( $<{ }^{*} e k$ ) accompanied by the indefinite marker -ak-ikak (feminine) or ekak (masculine). On its own, the form assumes a referential function:
(62) ašti diyyes minšī-san: ek-ak nām-os there.is two from-3PL one-INDEF name-3SG ahmad $\bar{u}$ ek-ak nām-os talāl. Ahmad and one-INDEF name-3SG Talal 'There are two of them: one is called Ahmad and one is called Talal.'

A further use of ikak/ekak - often in reduced form, ika/eka - is in determined referential constructions:
(63) bisāw-ah-r-a gēna mas diyyes, kull ika marry-VITR-PAST-M again with two every one nan- $d-i \quad a b-u s-k e \quad z a r-a k$. bring-PAST-F for-3SG-BEN boy-INDEF 'He married two once again, each one bore him a boy.'

In attributive function, ikak is postposed to the noun, like Arabic wāhed. The noun it follows is already determined for indefiniteness through the suffix $-a k$.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { gorw-ak } & i k-a k & n a s-r-i \\ \text { cow-INDEF } & \text { one-INDEF } & \text { flee-PAST-F }\end{array}$
'One cow ran away.'
(65) lak-ed-om dōmiy-ak ik-ak
see-PAST-1SG Dom.F-INDEF one-INDEF
'I saw one Dom woman.'
(66) pen-d-om wāl-ak ik-ak
pull-PAST-1SG hair-INDEF one-INDEF
'I removed one hair.'

The citation (referential) forms for ' $1-5$ ' are generally the inherited Indic forms, to which the suffix -es is attached (see Table 31). Citation forms are used either in sequential counting of objects, or in reference to unnamed (indefinite) entities:
(67) ašti diyyes
there.is two
'There are two (of them).'

| a. | $k a ̄ n \quad d z ̌ a w i z-a h-r-e ̄ k$ <br> was.3SG.M marry-VITR-PAS | T-PRED.SG | taranes three |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | boy-om: <br> father-1SG |  |  |
| b. | džawiz-ah-r-ēk marry-VITR-PAST-PRED.SG | kān <br> was.3SG.M | day-os mother-3SG |
|  | $d i ̄ b-a s-k i, \quad \bar{u} \quad g e \bar{n} a$ | ik-ak, | $\bar{u}$ |
|  | day-im <br> mother-1SG.OBL |  |  |

a. 'My father was married to three:
b. He was married to Dib's mother, and to another one, and to my mother.'
(69)

| man-d-i | putr-ē-S | qištot-ēni, | taranes, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| send-PAST-F | child-PL-3SG smali-PRED.PL three |  |  |
| Sabd-as | $\bar{u} \quad$ nadžw-āy | $\bar{u}$ | samīrá |
| Abed-OBL.M | and Nadjwa-OBL.F and | Samira.OBL.F |  |
| 'She left her | little children, three of them, Abed, Nadjwa and |  |  |
| Samira.' |  |  |  |

The citation form is common in the expression 'one or two', where it correlates with the indefinite marker $-a k$, often in expressions of time:
(70) baSdī-s bi džum̧-ak diyyes, er-a aha after-SG in week-INDEF two came-M this.M
šōna illi xaz-r-e atnī-s, illi
boy REL laugh-PAST-3PL about-3SG REL
kam-k-ar-i hotel-ma, ama-ta hindar
work-VTR-3SG.PRG hotel-LOC 1SG-DAT here
kury-a-ta
house-OBL.F-DAT
'After a week or two, this boy whom they laughed at, who works at the hotel, came to my house.'
(71) pandži akbar minšī-m wars-ak diyyes

3SG bigger from-1SG year-INDEF two
'She is a year or two older than me.'
The citation (referential) suffix -es is absent when the numeral is used in attributive function. The numeral then precedes the head noun:
(72) ašti di bar-e
there.is two brother-PL
'There are two brothers.'
(73) pandži nkī-s taran zar-ēk

3SG at-3SG three boy-PRED.SG
'She has three boys.'
(74) row-am-i, man-y-am-i di sȩ̄a taran sȩ̄a cry-1SG-PRG stay-ITR-1SG-PRG two hour three hour wēs-r-om-i row-am-i
sit-PAST-1SG-PRG cry-1SG-PRG
'I cry, I stay there for two three hours sitting and crying.'
Gender agreement is neutralised in the plural and so inherited numerals do not agree with the head noun in gender. However, unlike adjectives, inherited numerals do agree with the noun in definiteness, expressed by the affix $-n$ followed by the plural agreement marker:
(75) din-e kany-ē-m
two-PL ear-PL-1SG
'my two ears'
(76) er-e din-e bar-e
arrived-PL two-PL brother-PL
'The two brothers arrived.'
(77) $\bar{u}$ qayiš-k-ad-e, pī-r-e $\bar{u} \quad q \bar{e} y-r-e$ and food-VTR-PAST-PL drink-PAST-PL and eat-PAST-PL $\bar{u}$ dfis-k-ad-e din-e miyy-an and bury-VTR-PAST-PL two-PL hundred-OBL.PL 'And they prepared food and they drank and ate and spent [= buried] two hundred.'

| ban-d-e din-e $d \bar{m} m-a n$ <br> tie-PAST-PL two-PL $\bar{u}$ <br> Dom-OBL.PL and par- $d-\bar{e}-s a n$ <br> take-PAST-PL-3PL   |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| qädiy-as-ke, | mahkem-ē-ka. |

Definite inherited numerals in referential function take regular Layer I case endings:
(79) bardo aha qrara yaSni baSd m-r-i ihi also this.M Bedouin PART after die-PAST-F this.F
šōnī gēna mišta-h-r-a wi-m-r-a $\bar{u}$
girl further ill-VITR-PAST.M and-die-PAST-M and
dfin-k-ad-e din-an maSbaSd
bury-VTR-PAST-3PL two-OBL.PL together
'And then, after the girl died, the Bedouin also fell ill and died and they buried the two of them together.'
(80) ama džan-am-i ehe štarn-an

I know-1SG-PRG these.PL four-OBL.PL 'I know these four (people).'

In practice, these rules apply mainly to the numerals ' 2 ' and ' 3 ' Although speakers are able to cite inherited forms up to and including ' 5 ', in conversation Arabic forms are usually used in attributive position from ' 4 ' upwards:
(81) qaft-id-e 'arbas qar-e $\bar{u}$ di gorw-e steal-PAST-3PL four donkey-PL and two cow-PL 'They stole two donkeys and two cows.'
(82) mar-d-e $\quad$-'arbaS xurfăn
kill-PAST-3PL DEF-four sheep.PL
'They slaughtered the four sheep.'
As discussed in detail in Chapter 4, inherited numerals tend to be accompanied by number neutralisation on the noun (i.e. by a singular form of the noun). Arabic numerals up to ' 10 ' trigger plural formation on the noun, while those above ' 10 ' appear with singular nouns. With the numerals from ' 2 ' to '5', where speakers have, in principle, a choice between inherited numeral forms and Arabic numerals, the preference is for Arabic nouns to be accompanied by Arabic numerals. Usually, Arabic numerals prevail for ' 4 '
and above, so that the choice between etymological variants is effectively limited to ' 2 ' and ' 3 '

Higher numerals and expressions for measurements and dates are invariably Arabic (see Table 32):
(83) džamid-k-ed-om bhuđūd tamāni $\bar{u}$ Sašrinn
collect-VTR-PAST-1SG around eight and twenty
zard urdunnī
gold Jordanian
'I saved around twenty eight Jordanian pounds.'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { džawiz-r-om-is } & \text { bi-šahr } & \text { Sašara } & \text { sinet } \\ \text { marry-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL } & \text { in-month } & \text { ten } & \text { year }\end{array}$
l-'arbaS $\bar{u} \quad$ xamsinn
DEF-four and fifty
'I married her in October [tenth month] in the year fifty four.'
(85) bass ehe illi awa-d-i, ehe kull yom but these.PL REL come-3PL-PRG these.PL every day lim-k-ad-i xamas miyye sitt mit šekel earn-VTR-3PL-PRG five hundred six hundred Shekel mangiš, minšān nē-d payy-ē-san-kera begging so.that bring-3PL.SUBJ husband-PL-3PL-BEN
'But those who come, they earn every day five hundred six hundred
Shekel from begging, to bring to their husbands.'

Table 32. Higher numerals (Arabic)

| Numeral | Form | Numeral | Form |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 30 | talâtīn | 70 | sab¢in |
| 40 | 'arbalin | 80 | tamānin |
| 50 | xamsin | 90 | tis¢in |
| 60 | sittin |  |  |

When we examine the example utterances given above for the use of nouns with inherited numerals ' $2-3$ ', and for the use of nouns with numerals between ' $4-10$ ', we find quite a few cases of vocabulary doubling, whereby inherited nouns are used with inherited numerals and Arabic nouns are used with Arabic numerals. Distinct number agreement rules accompany the two sub-sets: number neutralisation with the inherited numerals ' $2-3$ ', plural marking with the Arabic numerals ' $4-10$ ' (Table 33).

Table 33. Some inherited and Arabic-derived noun phrases containing numerals

| Inherited numeral, inherited singular noun | Arabic numeral, Arabic plural noun |
| :--- | :--- |
| di dīs taran dīs 'two days three days' | sabaSt ìyyām 'seven days' |
| taran mas 'three months' | xamast ushuur 'five months' |
| taran wars 'three years' | sitte snīn'six years' |
| taran zard 'three pounds' | xamas līr̄̄t' 'five pounds' |

It appears to be the case that Arabic numerals from '4-10' not only trigger plural agreement on the noun, but that they also trigger selection of an Arabic noun rather than its existing inherited counterpart. This impression is confirmed by further examples. ${ }^{28}$
boy-om pand-as-ma šrī-ka-d-a
father-1SG road-OBL.M-LOC buy-VTR-PAST-M

| gorw-ik | $b i$ | xamsa | $q r u ̄ s ̌$ | $\bar{u}$ | gorw-ak. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| horse-PRED.SG | in | five | penny.PL | and | cow-INDEF |

mani-r-e nki-man taran mas $\bar{u} \quad m-r-e$. stay-PAST-3PL at-1PL three month and die-PAST-3PL 'On the road my father bought a mare for five pennies and a cow. They stayed with us for three months and they died.'

The following example shows a switch between the Arabic plural noun wlād 'boys' (for which there is a widely used inherited equivalent, šōne 'boys') and the inherited singular noun lāši 'girl', coinciding with the use of the Arabic numeral 'arbaS'four' and inherited di'two':
(87) xallif-ka-d-i mēšī-s 'arbas wlād ū di lāši bear-VTR-PAST-F from-3SG four boy.PL and two girl 'She bore him four boys and two girls.'

Since speakers do not have a choice in regard to the etymological variant of the numeral, the question arises whether the use of Arabic numerals necessarily triggers the choice of an Arabic noun. It may be that the constraint requires the plural marking of the noun regardless of its etymology; the preference for Arabic nouns (in the plural) with Arabic numerals may simply constitute an urge by speakers to avoid having to form plurals with Domari nouns which, with lower (inherited) numerals, and presumably historically, appeared in the singular when accompanied by numerals and therefore display a residual resistance to plural formation in the environment of numerals. The following example extends the puzzle yet further:

| $t$-es-san | yarama | taman | danānïr, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give.2PL.SUBJ-3PL | fine | eight.ATTR |  |
| dinar.PL, |  |  |  |
| tamiye zard |  |  |  |
| eight.CARD gold |  |  |  |
| 'Give them a fine, eight dinars, eight units [of payment].' |  |  |  |

Here, we find a speaker's repetition of a numeral-bearing noun phrase ('eight dinars'). In the first realisation, an Arabic attributive numeral is used along with the Arabic so-called 'broken' plural formation for the word 'dinar': taman danänir 'eight dinars'. The repetition that follows clearly stems from the speaker's need to replace or refine his original choice of naming the currency unit. Instead of 'dinar' he now uses the inherited Domari word, which literally means 'gold' but is used generically in the language for units of payment. Whether the speaker became uncertain that the original unit of payment referred to was indeed dinar, or whether the choice of an inherited word is a form of linguistic purism and was viewed by the speaker as more 'authentic', is difficult to decide. What is striking is that the inherited noun not only lacks plural marking, thus following the Domari rule on number neutralisation with numerals, but that the Arabic-derived numeral ' 8 ', for which there exists no non-Arabic (inherited) counterpart, is modified. Instead of the attributive taman which normally precedes nouns (in Colloquial Palestinian Arabic), the speaker now opts for the cardinal form tamāniye that is used for counting. It appears as though this modification reduces somewhat the discrepancy between the Arabic (attributive) lower numeral and a noun that lacks plurality marking. The speaker's apparent motivation, upon an instance of reflection, is to repair his utterance by opting for the non-Arabic expression zard instead of dinar. This triggers an adaptation of the Arabic numeral for ' 8 ', which makes it easier (though not grammatical, from the point of view of the rules of Arabic) to reconcile the absence of plurality marking on zard with the use of a lower Arabic numeral (since cardinal numerals do not trigger plurality, as they are not normally followed by nouns to which they act as attributes).

The preceding example shows us perhaps the exception to the rule, that is, a procedure is followed when it is stylistically dispreferred to maintain the full dichotomy between inherited nouns phrases (here: numeral and noun), on the one hand, and Arabic ones on the other. The more commonplace practice in the corpus is represented by the following examples, where the speaker alternates within the very same utterance between two forms of the same word, inherited dīs 'day' and Arabic iyyām 'days':

| (89) | nig-r-a | awwal | dīs | $\bar{u}$ | $t \bar{n} n \bar{\imath}$ | $d i \bar{s}$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pass-PAST-M | first | day | and | second | day | PART |


| yimkin | manī-r-ēn | nkī-san | xamast | iyyām | sitt |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| maybe | stay-PAST-1PL by-3PL five | day.PL | six |  |  |

It is noteworthy that here we do not even have a contrast of etymology among numerals. The ordinal numerals awwal 'first' and tānī 'second' in the first part of the utterance are both Arabic, as are the attributive numerals xamast 'five' and sitt 'six' in the second part. But ordinals, naturally, require singular, not plural marking ('first day', 'second day'). There is thus no clash between the two system components. In those positions where a clash is anticipated, i.e. where the Domari noun would normally lack plural marking but where the Arabic numerals xamast 'five' and sitt 'six' do trigger plural marking, the speaker abandons the inherited lexeme dis' 'day' and uses the Arabic plural iyyām 'days' instead.

The impression gained from natural, connected speech, namely that speakers are somehow guided to opt for the Arabic-derived noun with Arabicderived numerals and in this way to follow the Arabic rule on agreement (plural form of the noun with lower numerals), is further confirmed by a set of translation tasks put to several speakers through targeted elicitation (note that the model phrase for translation was provided in these cases in Hebrew, not in Arabic):
(90) qabil di wars
before two year 'two years ago'
(91) qabil taran wars before three year 'three years ago'
(92) qabil 'arbaS snīn before four year.PL 'four years ago'
(93) qabil Sešrīn sane
before twenty year
'twenty years ago'
(94) kury-ak ikak
house-INDEF one
'one house'
(95) di kuri
two house
'two houses'
(96) taran kuri
three house
'three houses'
(97) 'arbaS byūt
four house.PL
'four houses'
(98) Sešrīn kuri
twenty house
'twenty houses'
(99) zar-ak ikak
boy-INDEF one
'one boy'
(100) di zara
two boy
'two boys'
(101) taran zara
three boy
'three boys'
(102) 'arba؟ wlād
four boy.PL
'four boys'
(103) Sašare wlād
ten boy.PL
'ten boys'
Invariably, this elicitation illustrates speakers' preference for the inherited (pre-Arabic) words wars 'year', kuri 'house' and zara 'boy' in the singular form with the inherited numerals $-a k$ (suffixed indefiniteness marker 'one'), di 'two' and taran 'three'. At the same time we see a preference for the Arabic counterparts snīn 'years' (singular sane), byū̄t 'houses' (singular bēt), and wlād 'boys' (singular walad), in the plural, with the Arabic numerals 'arbas 'four' and Sašare 'ten'. Note that none of the cases of Arabic plural nouns in these examples show morphological integration into Domari plural formation with $-e$. Rather, the entire noun phrase appears to be produced in Arabic, much like a codeswitch. ${ }^{29}$ The results for the Arabic numeral Sešrīn 'twenty', which
in Arabic triggers number neutralisation (i.e. dropping of plurality), are mixed: For 'house' we get a switch back to the inherited word kuri, here once again in the singular, which is consistent with the part of the paradigm that showed lower, inherited numerals. For 'year', by contrast, the speaker continues with Arabic sane, albeit in the singular, in line with the Arabic rules on number neutralisation with higher numerals (above ' 10 ').

We thus find some degree of consistency that follows a pattern, but also variation. Clearly, the selection of nouns by etymology is a matter of speakers' choice and is not constrained in any absolute way by the use of a particular numeral. At the same time speakers appear conscious of the patterns of number neutralisation and number agreement that are triggered by individual sub-sets of numerals, namely the inherited numerals under '4', the Arabic numerals between '4-10', and the Arabic numerals above ' 10 ' The rule seems to be to make optimal use of the flexibility of the lexicon in order to follow this latter pattern consistently. Under 'optimal use' the guiding principle appears to give preference, with Arabic numerals, to combinations with Arabic lexicon in what might be termed 'para-formulaic' constructions, that is, constructions that appear more natural as they are replicated from the use of Arabic in Arabic-speaking settings, and unlike the use of inherited expressions do not require the adjustment of taking on explicit plural marking with numerals.

That flexibility predominates, and adjustments are made, can be seen from the following examples. In the first pair, the speaker has only a single choice for the word 'lamb', namely Arabic-derived xäruf (plural xurfăn). In the first example, number is neutralised as the word follows the inherited numeral taran 'three', though note the hesitation and repetition around the numeral before the actual verbalisation of the noun. In the second part, the same noun appears in the plural, accompanied by the Arabic numeral 'arbaS'four':

(105) ašti mate-ēni mar-and-i 'arbaS xurfăn
there.is people-PRED.PL kill-3PL-PRG four lamb.PL
'There are people who slaughter four lambs.'
The following pair of examples illustrates the same strategy, here with the Arabic word 'alf 'thousand' (plural 'āIaff). Once again, there is no inherited counterpart expression. Here too, the word appears in the singular with the
inherited numeral di 'two', but in the plural with the Arabic numerals xamest 'five' and sitt 'six':


From these examples it would seem yet again that the governing principle that is adhered to consistently is the absence or presence of plural marking with certain sub-sets of the numeral system: absence of morphological plurality with inherited lower numerals ' $2-3$ ', presence of morphological plurality with Arabic lower numerals ' $4-10$ '. The singular morphology of the Arabic nouns di 'alf 'two thousand' and taran xäruf 'three lambs' testifies to the adaptability to this principle of morphological marking on the noun, regardless of the noun's etymology. The following examples appear to confirm this observation from the opposite perspective: Here we have morphological plurality on an inherited noun in combination with an Arabic lower numeral:


In combination with an Arabic numeral, the nouns tmaliye 'soldiers' (singular tmali), qare 'donkeys' (singular qar), and gorwe 'cows' (singular gorwi) appear in the plural form. Here too, morphological marking of plurality is triggered by the sub-set membership of the numeral, not by the etymology of the noun.

One might therefore simply formulate the principle of plurality marking with Domari numerals as mapped on the basis of sub-sets of numerals: Sub-set '2-3' takes singular marking, sub-set '4-10' takes plural marking, sub-set '11' and above takes singular marking. Speakers' strategy of preferring Arabic nouns with Arabic numerals speaks in favour of the existence of some kind of synchronic compartmentalisation that goes beyond the mere imposition of morphological constraints on sub-sets of numerals of different etymology. Our final example in this connection shows that speakers have considerable improvisation flexibility and feel the need to make use of it:
(110) qaft-id-e 'arbas gorw-e/ 'arbas gorw-āt qaft-id-e
steal-PAST-3PL four cow-PL four cow-PL steal-PAST-3PL 'They stole four cows/ they stole four cows.'

Here, the speaker at first accommodates the inherited noun gorwa 'cow' to the requirement of overt plurality marking with the Arabic numeral 'arba $S$ 'four', using the common Domari plural form, gorwe 'cows' But she then repairs her utterance, repeating the same content but highlighting a new plural formation for the same inherited word, one which imports in effect the Arabic feminine plural marker $-\bar{a} t$.

We can summarise our discussion of plurality marking and number neutralisation with numerals as follows: Domari has incorporated the Arabic numeral system for the numerals ' 4 ' and above, though isolated usages of the inherited forms for ' 4 ', ' 10 ' and ' 100 ' are also attested, usually not in attributive function. With the incorporation of these numerals, Domari has also adopted the rules on plurality marking of nouns accompanied by numerals in Arabic. As a result, the Domari number agreement system with numerals now shows three sub-sets: The first, consisting of inherited ' $2-3$ ', neutralises morphological plurality on the noun. The second, consisting of Arabic-derived ' $4-10$ ', requires morphological plurality on the noun. The third, also from Arabic, covers numerals above ' 10 ', and again neutralises plurality marking on the noun. The overwhelming tendency is for nouns to accommodate to these rules on plurality marking, irrespective of the etymology of the noun. This goes in both directions, that is, it applies for both Arabic and inherited nouns. However, having a lexical repertoire at their disposal that includes Arabic counterpart expressions for most of the inherited Domari lexicon ${ }^{30}$, Domari speakers often opt for Arabic nouns in combination with Arabic numerals.

In effect, then, the borrowing of a sub-system from Arabic (including grammatical vocabulary - numerals - and the agreement rules that accompany them) and its integration into Domari morpho-syntax triggers a tendency to make active choices that favour (but do not require) insertional codeswitching into Arabic in the environment of Arabic-derived numerals. This is an
interesting co-occurrence of borrowing and codeswitching ('borrowing' being an historical integration process that has been completed and may allow semantic differentiation, 'codeswitching' being the synchronic availability of alternative means of expression of identical or near-identical meaning which may be juxtaposed for stylistic effect or merely in order to accommodate to situative or contextual constraints). The etymology of a borrowed sub-set of numerals remains apparent to speakers due to their familiarity with and use of Arabic in many domains of interaction. As a result, an association is maintained between what is now a component of the Domari morpho-lexicon, and the availability of Arabic lexicon in the bilingual repertoire. It is this association that speakers activate when making quasi-etymological choices in connection with distinct sub-sets of numerals.

### 5.4.1. Ordinal numbers

Similarly, Domari speakers rely entirely on the Arabic part of their bilingual repertoire for the expression of ordinal numbers (Table 34). Note that definiteness with ordinals is expressed as in Arabic, through addition of the definite article $-l$ - or dental consonant gemination:

```
(111) a. šōnì kahind-ar-i emin-ta,
    girl look-3SG-PRG 1PL-DAT
    b. er-i min awwal eka, wi-t-täni
        came-F from first one and-DEF-second
        wi-t-tălet wi-r-räbi¢ wi-l-xāmis,
        and-DEF-third and-DEF-fourth and-DEF-fifth
    c. lak-ed-i yäsr-as
    see-PAST-F Yassir-OBL.M
    a. 'The girl looks at us.
    b. She passes from the first, to the second, and the third, and the
        fourth, and the fifth.
    c. She saw Yassir.'
```

Table 34. Ordinal numerals (Arabic)

| Ordinal | Masculine Singular | Feminine Singular |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| First | 'awwal | 'ūla |
| Second | tāñ | tāniye |
| Third | tālit | tālite |
| Fourth | rābi¢ | rābife |
| Fifth | xāmis | xāmise |

Table 34 (cont.) Ordinal numerals (Arabic)

| Ordinal | Masculine Singular | Feminine Singular |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sixth | sädis | sädise |
| Seventh | sābi¢ | säbiYe |
| Eighth | tämin | tāmine |
| Ninth | $t \overline{a s i} i ¢$ | tāsi¢e |
| Tenth | ¢āšir | ¢āšire |

### 5.5. Adjectives

The category of 'adjective' is not entirely unproblematic in Domari. The existence of citation forms of adjectives which carry inflectional agreement (gender and number) with their head noun, and are preposed to the head noun when the full noun phrase is cited, points to the existence in principle of adjectives as a separate word class. Such citation forms are usually obtained through elicitation of isolated phrases:

| (112) | er-a <br> came-M | till-a | big-M |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | zara |  |  |
|  | 'The big boy arrived.' |  |  |

(114) er-e till-e zar-e
came-PL big-PL boy-PL
'The big boys arrived.'
A series of word-forms showing both attributive semantics and the inflectional quality (potential) of adjectives can be obtained through elicitation (by requesting one-word descriptions of objects) or via translation tasks. Some examples are listed in Table 35:

Table 35. Some Domari adjectives

| prana | 'white' | drara | 'rich' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| qala | 'black' | bizzota | 'poor' |
| nawa | 'new' | gulda | 'sweet' |
| Satiqq | 'old' | samda | 'dirty', |
| mišta | 'ill' | mfalla | 'crazy' |
| tilla | 'big' | tarna | 'young' |
| Kaškūṭa | 'small' | dirga | 'long' |
| bkara | 'hungry' | parda | 'full' |

Only rarely do we find preposed adjectives in conversation:

| (115) ihi bizzot-i | kury-a-m-ēk | ihnēn ha |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.F poor-F house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG | here PART |  |
| 'in this poor house here' |  |  |

Adjective attribution is usually organised instead in one of several construction types. The adjective is most often a predicate object that follows the head noun in what resembles a presentative construction. It is followed by an enclitic, non-verbal predication marker. With inherited adjectives that end in an inflectional vowel, the form of the predication marker allows determining the underlying vocalic inflection agreement marker, as this marker is incorporated into the predication marker: Masculines in -a take the predication marker $-\bar{e} k$ and feminines in $-i$ take the predication marker $-i k$. In this way, underlying gender agreement with singular nouns is still represented, despite the absence of overt agreement inflection:
(116) aha this.M
'This is a small boy / This boy is small.'

| ihi | šōni | guld-ik |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.F | girl | sweet-PRED.SG |

'This is a pretty girl / This girl is pretty.'
(118) pandz̆ī nkī-s sayyār-ak naw-ik he by-3SG car-INDEF new-PRED.SG
'He has a new car.'
(119) pandži mišt-ēk
3SG ill-PRED.SG
'He is ill.'
(120) pandži mišt-ik
3SG ill-PRED.SG
'She is ill.'

With adjectives that do not take a vowel inflection marker, namely bol 'many', ghày 'beautiful', and guzel 'good', as well as with Arabic adjectival loans (e.g. mašȳ̄̄l 'busy', bsīd 'far'), the predication marker is a uniform -i (present) or $-a$ (past) and does not identify gender:
> (121) lake-d-om-is mašyūl-i
> see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL busy-PRED.SG
> 'I found him/her busy.'
(122) SÏš-os dōm-an-ki guzel-i
life-3SG Dom-OBL.PL good-PRED.SG
'The Doms lead a good life.'

| šał $\quad$ kān | bsīd-a |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| well | was.3SG.M |
| 'The well was far.' |  |

The plural predication marker, of course, equally neutralises gender:
(124) pandžan mfall-ēni
they crazy-PRED.PL
'They are crazy.'

| (125)ašti dōm-ēni | bizzot-ēni |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | Dom-PRED.PL | poor-PRED.PL |
| 'Some Doms are poor.' |  |  |

Such appearance of adjectives as objects of a non-verbal predication is by far the most common use of adjectival modifiers in free speech. ${ }^{31}$ Note that the construction may appear either independently in the phrase, or alongside an existential predication, or alongside a lexical (verbal) predication. In all cases, the head noun may, but does not have to, carry matching non-verbal predication marking:

| (126) | $k a \bar{n} \quad a s ̌ t i$ | abu-s-ke | di |  | ik-ak |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | was.3SG.M there.is | for-3SG-BEN | tw | child-PL | one-INDEF |
|  | till-ēk $\quad \bar{u}$ | ik-ak | qaşto |  |  |
|  | big-PRED.SG and | one-INDEF | sma | PRED.SG |  |
|  | 'He had two children | n older one a | d a | unger one |  |

(127) kahind-ar-a kury-is-ma bizzot-as-ki
look-3SG-REM house-3SG.OBL-LOC poor-OBL.M-ABL lak-ed-a šōn-ik guld-ik.
see-PAST-M girl-PRED.SG pretty-PRED.SG
'He looked into the poor man's house and saw a beautiful girl.'
(128) $\bar{u}$ wṣil-ah-r-e la Sind dèy kaṣtoot-ik and arrive-VITR-PAST-3PL to at village small-PRED.SG 'And they arrived in a small village.'

(129) | xazr-end-i |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| laugh-3PL-PRG | atnī-s |
| on-3SG | $\bar{u}$ |
| and | $d-\bar{e}-s-i$ |
| give-3PL-3SG-PRG |  |

qaninn-ak bard-ik pan-ik $\bar{u} \quad$ hada bottle-INDEF full-PRED.SG water-PRED.SG and PART
'They laugh at him and they give him a bottle full of water and so on.'
(130) dir-os till-ik n-xarrif-h-or-i mal/ daughter-3SG big-PRED.SG NEG-speak-VITR-3SG-PRG with maS ben-is-ki wala maS day-is-ki.
with sister-3SG.OBL-ABL nor with mother-3SG.OBL-ABL 'Her older daughter does not speak with her sister nor with her mother.'
(131) kš-os min biyyiš-ki eh-r-i pran-ik
beard-3SG from fear-ABL become-PAST-F white-PRED.SG 'From fear his beard became white.'

Occasionally, adjectival predications are embedded into restrictive relative clauses in attributive function:

| putr-os | il | qaštōt-ēk | gar-a | qaft-ar. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| son-3SG | REL | small-PRED.SG | go.PAST-M | steal-3SG.SUBJ |
| 'His small son went stealing.' |  |  |  |  |

(133) šōna š-ird-a kažž-as-ke illi bizzoṭ-ēk boy say-PAST-M man-OBL.M-BEN REL poor-PRED.SG ama bidd-ī bisāwa-hōš-am ihi läčy-a. I want-1SG marry-VITR.SUBJ-1SG this.F girl-OBL.F 'The boy said to the poor man I want to marry this girl.'
(134) aha kažža illi kān mišt-ēk qaft-id-a this.M man REL was.3SG.M ill-PRED.SG steal-PAST-M giš xurfăn-an illi Sind šēx-as-ki all sheep.PL-OBL.PL REL at Sheikh-OBL.SG-ABL 'The sick man stole all the Sheikh's sheep.'
$\begin{array}{rlllll}\text { (135) bąd } & \text { ma } & \text { pandži } & \text { gar-a, } & \text { bar-os } & \text { illi } \\ \text { after } & \text { COMP } & \text { 3SG } & \text { go.PAST-M } & \text { brother-3SG } & \text { REL }\end{array}$ mfäll-ēk kil-d-a sadžar-ē-ka crazy-PRED.SG exit-PAST-M tree-OBL.F-DAT 'After he left, his crazy brother climbed up a tree.'


```
zarf-as-ma
envelope-M.OBL-LOC
'He brought a small card and he wrote on it, and he put it in the
envelope.'
```


### 5.5.1. Comparative forms of adjectives

Comparative and superlative forms of adjectives are relatively rare. In isolated cases, superlatives can be formed drawing on non-verbal predications where the superlative adjective (with no particular derivation marking) precedes the head noun:

| (137) | $\bar{u}$ | ama | kaštut-ik | šōn-ik, | yaSni | min |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | and | I | small-PRED.SG | girl-PRED.SG | PART | from |
|  | džil |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | age- | G-A |  |  |  |  |

'And I am the youngest girl, I mean in regard to my age.'
Normally, both comparative and superlative formations draw directly on the Arabic comparative and superlative form. The two forms are morphologically identical, but differ in their syntax, the comparative being followed by a preposition 'from' and the object of comparison:
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { pandži } & \text { akbar } & \text { minšī- } m & \text { wars-ak } & \text { diyyes } \\ \text { 3SG } & \text { bigger } & \text { from-1SG } & \text { year-INDEF } & \text { two }\end{array}$
'He is a year or two older than I am.'
(139) yaSni ama akbar min nadžwa-ki di wars

PART I bigger from Najwa-ABL two year
'So I am two years older than Najwa.'
(140) kīk aha hōš-ar grawara w-ama
how this.M become.SUBJ-3SG head.man and-I
akbar minšī-s Sumur-ma yaSni?
bigger from-3SG age-LOC PART
'So how can he be head man if I am of an older age than he is?'
The superlative takes a preposed attributive position and is followed directly by the head noun that it modifies:

| (141) eme | ahsan | nās | dōm-am-ma | gǐ̌ | hindar- $i$, |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| we | best | people | Dom-OBL.PL-LOC | all | here-PRED.SG |

> illi skun-h-ēn hindar
> REL live-VITR-1PL here
> 'We are the best people among the Dom all of us here, those of us who live here.'
(142) șahafi $\check{s}$-ar-i $\quad a b-u s-k e \quad k a ̄ n / ~ k a ̄ n-i k$ journalist say-3SG-PRG for-3SG-BEN which which-PRED.SG ahsan yanniwa lahan-k-ed-or-is? best song compose-VTR-PAST-2SG-3SG.OBL 'The journalist says to him: Which/ which is the best song you've ever written?'

We can safely assume that the wholesale borrowing of comparative/ superlative forms is motivated in the first instance by the universal tendency toward the borrowing of comparative/superlative derivation morphology in language contact situations, in particular into smaller, vernacular languages of bilingual populations. Romani dialects, for example, consistently borrow comparative and superlative particles, as do many other minority languages (see Matras 2009: 190-191). Domari varieties in Syria and Lebanon appear to have borrowed the Kurdish comparative/superlative suffix -tir. But Jerusalem Domari faces a challenge, as the Arabic comparative/superlative formation is not based on a distinct morpheme that can be isolated from the lexical stem of the adjective. Instead, it is expressed as a template - áCCaC - into which the triconsonantal root is inserted. This makes it difficult to replicate with Domari inherited adjectives. The solution is to employ the complete Arabic wordform, resulting in a system of complete bilingual suppletion, with every inherited positive form of an adjective - such as tilla 'big', kaštota 'small', ghāy 'good' and so on - having an Arabic-derived counterpart comparative/ superlative form - akbar 'bigger', azyar 'smaller', ahsan 'better'. Once again, as in the case of numeral agreement, we find that the borrowing of a grammatical feature from Arabic results in the wholesale integration of an Arabic word-class into Domari speech.

### 5.6. Quantifiers

The class of quantifiers consists of largely uninflected modifiers and shows a mixture of etymologies. The expressions of quantity measure šinak 'a little, some' (šinn 'thing' + indefiniteness marker $-a k$ ) and bol 'much' are inherited (Indo-Aryan), while gičs 'all' is a Kurdish borrowing, and kull 'every, each' and akam 'a few' are Arabic.

Quantifiers tend to appear in preposed position to the head noun. They do not influence the inflection of the head noun, which will appear either with a predication marker, or, in the case of definite objects, inflected for case:
gišt putr-ē-m kaškōt-ēni
all son-PL-1SG small-PRED.PL
'All my children are small.'
(144) $t$-om-is giš plè-m
give.PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL
all money.PL-1SG
'I gave him all my money.'
(145) er-a abu hasan pī̀r-a giš pany-a come.PAST-M Abu Hasan drink-PAST-M all water-OBL.F 'Abu Hasan came and drank all the water.'
(146) nabī mụ̄sa dā'iman kull kuri kar-ad-i

Nabi Musa always every house make-3PL-PRG
qēyiš-i.
food-PRED.SG
'During the Nabi Musa [pilgrimage], every household prepares food.'
(147) kull ikak tir-d-a taran zard every one put-PAST-M three gold
'Each one contributed three pounds.'
(148) gar-a nan-d-a akam kažž-ēk go.PAST-M bring-PAST-M a.few man-PRED.SG 'He went and brought a few men.'
(149) $\bar{u}$ ašti mnēna bol dōm-ēni and there.is here many Dom-PRED.PL 'And there are many Dom here.'

There is, however, some variation in the positioning of quantifiers, and they may also, like adjectives, follow the head noun, often accompanied by predication markers:

| (150) ama bass nkī-m-i | šinak | pl-ēni |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I only at-1SG-PRED.SG | little money-PRED.PL |  |
| 'I only have a little money.' |  |  |

$\begin{array}{lll}\text { (151) } n k i ̄-m & \text { pl-ēni } & \text { šinak-ni } \\ \text { at-1SG money-PRED.PL } & \text { little-PRED.PL } \\ & \text { 'I have a little money.' } & \end{array}$
(152) ama nki-m-i bol ple I by-1SG-PRED.SG much money.PL 'I have a lot of money.'
(153) ama ašti inkī-m ple bol I there.is by-1SG money.PL much 'I have a lot of money.'
(154) baßdēn $n$-h-e' kān ble bol, then NEG-is-NEG was.3SG.M money.PL much xiyam-ēni kān giš tent-PRED.PL was.3SG.M all
'And then there wasn't much money, it was all tents.'

## Chapter 6

## Pronominal categories

### 6.1. Personal pronouns

### 6.1.1. Stand-alone subject pronouns

The independent, nominative pronouns for the $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ persons (ama, atu, plural eme, itme) are straightforward derivations of Indic pronouns. For the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person, Domari has pandži (singular) and pandžan (plural). These appear to be derived from reflexives in an historical oblique form appn-. The identical form is documented as a $3^{\text {rd }}$ person reflexive for Transcaucasian Karači by Patkanoff (1908: 262): Hye duhend bangi khasta 'they wash[ed] their (own) hands'.

Domari tends not to employ overt pronouns in closely connected predication chains with continuous subjects and relies instead on subject agreement markers on the verb for the maintenance of topic continuity. Standalone nominative pronouns tend to serve some kind of contrastive function, indicating an element of discontinuity. In the following examples, pronouns single out demarcated actors or help express explicit juxtaposition of actors:
(1) kān eme $\bar{u}$ pandžan sawa gar-ēn-a was.3SG.M we and they together go-PAST-1PL-REM 'We could have gone together with them.'
(2) a. $\bar{u}$ ū $n$-kam-k-ad-e, and and NEG-work-VTR-3PL-NEG
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { b. } \quad d \check{z}-\mathrm{ad}-i & \text { mangiš- } k \text {-ad-i } & \text { da'iman, } \\ \text { go-3PL-PRG } & \text { begging-VTR-3PL-PRG } & \text { always }\end{array}$ bay-ē-san. wife-PL-3PL
c. $\bar{u}$ pandžan wēs-r-ēd-i kury-a-ma, and they sit-PAST-3PL-PRG house-OBL.F-LOC zlām-e. men.PL-PL
a. 'And/ and they don't work.
b. They always go begging, their wives.
c. And they sit at home, the men.'
a. itme bi isrā’il ţallim-h-os $\wp a \quad h s a ̄ b$ you.PL in Israel learn-VITR-2PL at expense dawl-ē-ki.
government-OBL.F-ABL
b. eme ţallim-h-on-i h hsāb-is-ka
we learn-VITR-1PL-PRG expense-3SG.OBL-DAT
džeb-oman-ki
pocket-1PL-ABL
a. 'You in Israel study at the expense of the state,
b. We study at our own expense [ $=$ at the expense of our pocket].'

An explicitly contrastive use of a distinct pronominal form - amayis 'me, myself' - is attested only once in the corpus:
(4) waddi-k-ed-os madras-an-ka $\bar{l}$ amayis ma bring-VTR-PAST-3SG school-OBL.PL-DAT and me NEG nēr-d-os-im
send-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
'She took her to school but she didn't send me.'
In combination with deictic-situative reference, the anaphoric $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun pandži serves to relate contextual knowledge about an actor to an identifiable entity, thus supporting disambiguation:
(5) t'akkid-h-r-i minšī-s qal pandži-k assure-VITR-PAST-F from-3SG PART 3SG-PRED.SG aha-k
this.M-PRED.SG
'She was certain about him, saying that he is the one.'
In conjunction with impersonal modal constructions, personal pronouns help clarify the identity of the intended subject-topic:

'And as for you, your destiny shall be that you will only sing and dance.'

In narration, personal pronouns often identify a subject switch around direct quotes:
(7) gar-a aha šōna š-ird-a boy-is-ke, go.PAST-M this.M boy speak-PAST-M father-OBL.M-BEN qrara, inni ama mang-am-i ihi Bedouin COMP.1SG I want-1SG-PRG this.F
domiy-ē bidd-ī par-am
Dom-OBL.F want-1SG take-1SG.SUBJ
itžawwiz-h-om-is.
marry-VITR-1SG-3SG.OBL
'The boy went and told his father, the Bedouin, [saying that] I want this Dom girl, I would like to marry her.'
(8) $\check{s}$-ird-om $a b$-us-ke, $\check{s}$-am-i $\quad$ itme
say-PAST-1SG for-3SG-BEN say-1SG-PRG you.PL
mang-as hayy yāsir-as $\bar{u}$ bar-ē-s
want-2PL PART Yassir and brother-PL-3SG
'I said to him, I say, you are looking for this guy Yassir and his brothers'

Also occurring frequently around topic shifts in quotes, but not limited to those, is the use of personal pronouns to indicate surprise:
(9) mudïr š-ar-i ab-us-ke min krēn
director say-3SG-PRG for-3SG-BEN from where
džan-d-or atu ihi šōniy-a?
know-PAST-2SG you.SG this.F girl-OBL.F
'The director says to him, where do you know this girl from?'
Seemingly in contrast with its more widespread function to indicate topic discontinuity, we find a grammaticalised use of the stand-alone nominative personal pronoun expressing topic continuity in what is essentially a calque of the Arabic co-temporal construction (consisting in Arabic of an additive conjunction, a personal pronoun and present-tense gerund):

| (10) | er-e come.PAST-3PL | ahal-os | klèb-as-ki |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | people-3SG | Kleb | -OBL.M | ABL |
|  | lak-ed-e | klēb-as | тumuh |  |  |
|  | see-PAST-3PL | Kleb-OBL.M | spear |  |  |
|  | bišt-is-m-ēk, |  | $\bar{u}$ | pandži |  |
|  | back-3SG.OBL-L | OC-PRED.SG | and | 3SG |  |
|  | 'Kleb's people ar [ $=$ and he is dying | rived and saw | Kleb | th a spe |  |

(11)

| boy-om | gar-a | hākim-as-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| father-1SG | go.PAST-M | governor-OBL.M-BEN |
| pandži | by-ar- $i$ |  |
| 3SG |  |  |
| 3SG fear-3SG-PRG |  |  |

'My father went to the governor, scared [= and he is afraid].'

Finally, a rather distinct function of the stand-alone nominative personal pronoun is to act as a kind of reminder of the identity of a continuous albeit downgraded topic-actor, a usage that we typically find at the end of a chain of predications, and in the final position of an utterance:
a. hākim t-os šahāda-k
governor give.PAST-3SG certificate-INDEF
b. hatta aha turdžmān qaI tilla yaSni

PART this.M translator said.M big PART
I-hākim qal mabsūtu-i bol
DEF-governor said.M happy-PRED.SG much
minšī-r yaSni
from-2SG PART
c. = inna-k inte safad-t =/

COMP-2SG you helped-2SG
sa\{ad-k-ed-or tmaliy-an, $\bar{u}$
help-VTR-PAST-2SG soldier-OBL.PL and
gir-naw-id-or gis ehe mat-an
return-CAUS-PAST-2SG all these.PL people-OBL.PL
min ehe/ min portkil-an-ka
from these.PL from Jew-OBL.PL-DAT
d. mabsuñt-i ktīr minšī-r.
happy-PRED.SG much from-2SG
e. w-hatta qal hatta ihi šahāda-t
and-PART said.3M PART this.F certificate-CONSTR
muxtār, Sayin-k-ad-os-ir muxtār pandží.
head.man appoint-VTR-PAST-3SG-2SG head.man 3G
a. 'The governor gave him a certificate.
b. Well, the interpreter said that the chief, that is the governor was very happy with you.
c. = that you helped $=/$ you helped the soldiers, and you drove back all those people from [attacking] the Jews.
d. He is very happy with you.
e. And so here's a head man certificate, he has appointed you head man.'

### 6.1.2. Pronominal object affixes

Strictly speaking, personal pronouns do not inflect for nominal case. Instead, pronominal endings are attached to local relations expressions. These match, semantically and in their functional distribution, Layer II nominal inflection markers (see Table 36). But further expressions cover additional semantic functions. ${ }^{32}$

Table 36. Case inflection of personal pronouns

| Case | 1SG | 2SG | 3SG | 1PL | 2PL | 3PL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NOM | ama | atu | pandži | eme | itme | pandžan |
| BEN | amake | aburke | abuske | eminke | abranke | absanke |
| LOC | nkïm | $n k i \underline{r}$ | $n k i s$ | nkïman | nkiran | nkīsan |
| DAT | atnïm | atnir | atnis | atnïman | atniran | atnisan |
| SOC | wāšin | wāšir | wāşı̄s | wāŠiman | wāş̌ran | wāŠ̌̌san |
| ABL | minkim | minkir | minkis | minkïman | minkïran | minkisan |

These local relations expressions appear uniquely with pronominal endings, and cannot be used with full nouns. Their distribution is thus complementary to that of Layer II nominal case markers:
(13) $\check{s}$-ird-i $a b-u s-k e \quad d-e \overline{-} m \quad$ xatm-ī
say-PAST-F for-3SG-BEN give-2SG.SUBJ-1SG ring-OBL.M 'She said to her, give me the ring.'
(14) kull ma aw-ar-i Sarīs-ak wila
every COMP come-3SG-PRG bridegroom-INDEF or 'iši $\check{s}$-ad-i $n-h-e$ ' nkī-man lāšy-e. something say-3PL-PRG NEG-is-NEG at-1PL girl-PL 'Every time a bridegroom or something comes by they say, we don't have any girls.'
(15) aSrif-r-a atnī-s, aha čōn-as-ta, wāšī-s know-PAST-M on-3SG this.M boy-OBL.M-DAT with-3SG $i k$-ak wałłah boy-os-i aha-k. one-INDEF PART father-3SG-PRED.SG this.M-PRED.SG 'He knew about him, about this boy, he was with somebody and that was his father.'

## (16) ama yaSni xałfas dall-ēt-nī by-am-i minšī-s. I PART PART stay-1SG-1SG fear-1SG-PRG from-3SG 'Well I was always really scared of her.'

The Benefactive case is the only form in which the same Layer II suffix that is used with nouns $--k e-$ is also employed with pronominal forms. In the first person singular and plural, this suffix actually attaches directly to the nominative stem of the pronominal form: amake 'for me', eminke 'for us' (here the insertion -in- can be regarded as part of the historical nominative form of the pronoun, cf. Romani amen). A variant of the Benefactive suffix in this position is -kera (amakera 'for me', eminkera 'for us'). The other forms in the Benefactive set combine the local expression $a b$-with the pronominal form for the second and third person, and the nominal Benefactive suffix -ke or -kera (aburke 'for you.SG’, etc.).

The other cases show consistent combinations of a local relations expression and a person suffix, mediated by the vowel $-\bar{i}$. The Locative form $n k$ - seems to derive from a form *nek- 'at, by', which might possibly go back to the Iranian (Kurdish/Persian) preposition nezik 'close to'. The Dative form atn- 'to' is evidently cognate with the local adverbial atun 'above, on, upon'.

The origin of Sociative wāš- is less clear. The Syrian Domari form is apparently vā̆š, which reminds us of the Romani multi-purpose preposition vaš 'in front of, towards, against, about'. If we regard the segment $-\check{s}$ - as secondary, however, then the wā-might be related to the conjunction $w, \bar{u}$ 'and', giving the comitative meaning of the Sociative. Such an interpretation is supported by the occasional substitution of wä- by the Arabic preposition maS 'with', giving forms like maŠilm 'with me'. It is further strengthened by the possible origins of the Ablative mink-, which has the variants minš- as well as $m \overline{e s}$-. Here too it appears that $-\check{s}$-goes back to a distinct morphological marker of possession, while the lexical root of the marker is Arabic min 'from'.

On the whole, then, it seems that we are dealing with a set of markers that are rather young in the history of the language, having emerged in their current forms following contact with Arabic, yet in all likelihood drawing on an earlier template. To judge by available data (e.g. Herin 2012), Syrian Domari shares this pattern as well as some of the forms involved ( $a b$ - 'for'). The set continues to be productive, as seen from the fact that it can integrate variants to existing categories based on Arabic forms, as well as new forms, such as Sankim 'about me', ba§dīs 'after it', and so on using the Arabic preposition San and the augment -kī-encountered above in the Ablative (minkīm 'from me').

The actual bound person endings that attach to these local relations expressions are in all likelihood of an older date. We are dealing here with the same set of affixes that serve as possessive markers when attached to nouns, and which supply some of the subject agreement affixes with past-tense verbs.

These are derived from late Middle Indo-Aryan oblique pronouns in ${ }^{*} m$ (1SG), ${ }^{*} t$ - ( 2 SG ) and ${ }^{*} s$ - $(3 S G)$, on the basis of which plural formations in -an are constructed:

| 1SG | $-m-$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2SG | $-r-$ |
| 3SG | $-s-$ |
| 1PL | - man- |
| 2PL | - ran- |
| 3PL | - san- |

When attached to verbs, their primary function is to indicate direct objects:
(17) fê-r-os-im širy-a-mal pišt-im-ma hit-PAST-3SG-1SG knife-OBL.F-LOC back-1SG-LOC 'He stabbed me with a knife in my back.'
(18) eme bidd-na mna\{-k-ar-san ḥukūma we want-1PL prevent-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-3PL government inni aw-ad mangiš- $k$-ad hindar COMP come-3SG.SUBJ begging-VTR-3SG.SUBJ here 'We want the government to prevent them from coming to beg here.'
(19) $a w-a d-i \quad h i n d a r ~ b a h d i l-k-a d-m a n-i \quad h i n d a r$ come-3PL-PRG here embarrass-VTR-3PL-1PL-PRG here 'They come here and they embarrass us here.'

With some predicates, however, person endings (object pronominal affixes) may indicate a whole range of non-subject participants, including external possessor, indirect object, and the experiencer:
(20) knaw-ar-s-i paw-os
hurt-3SG-3SG-PRG leg-3SG
'Her leg hurts.'
(21) kull dīs kān-u d-ēd-man-a xams ū
every day was-3PL give-3PL-1PL-REM five and
Sašrīn qirš falastīn̄
twenty penny Palestinian
'Every day they used to give us twenty five Palestinian pence.'
(22) er-os-im fikir
come.PAST-3SG-1SG idea
'I got an idea.'

Person suffixes in object function are subjected to the phonotactic interplay of the complex syllable structure of verbs, most notably the presence or absence of progressive and remote tense suffixes $-i$ and $-a$ respectively, as well as to some consonant assimilation processes that occur in the proximity of certain consonantal subject agreement markers. Table 37 gives an overview of the variation in the syllable position and shape of object person markers on verbs. Beginning with the 1 SG subject in the first column, the first row gives the forms for the 2SG object in the following tense-aspect-modality categories:
(23) Present Indicative: Iah-am-r-i

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { see-1SG-2SG-PRG } \\
& \text { 'I see you' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(24) Subjunctive: lah-am-ir see-1SG-2SG
'[that] I see you'
(25) Imperfect: lah-am-r-a see-1SG-2SG-REM 'I was seeing you'
(26) Past: lah-ed-om-ir see-PAST-1SG-2SG 'I saw you'
lah-ed-om-r-i see-PAST-1SG-2SG-PRG 'I have seen you'
(28) Pluperfect: lah-ed-om-r-a see-PAST-1SG-2SG-REM 'I had seen you'

Table 37. Transitive verbs with object pronouns: lah-'to see'


Table 37 (cont.) Transitive verbs with object pronouns: lah- 'to see'

| Obj. Pres.Indic. | Subjunct. | Imperf. | Past | Perfect | Pluperfect |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Subject: 2SG |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG lahēmi | lahēm | lahēma | lahedorim | lahedormi | lahedorma |
| 3SG lahēsi | lahēs | lahēsa | lahedoris | lahedorsi | lahedorsa |
| 1PL lahēmani | lahēman | lahèmana | lahedorman | lahedormani | lahedormana |
| 3PL lahēssani | lahēsan | lahēsana | lahedorsan | lahedorsani | lahedorsana |
| Subject: 3SG |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG laharmi | laharim | laharma | lahedosim | lahedosmi | lahedosma |
| 2SG laharri | laharir | laharra | lahedosir | lahedosri | lahedosra |
| 3SG laharsi | laharis | laharsa | lahedosis | lahedossi | lahedossa |
| 1PL laharmani | laharman | laharmana | lahedosman | lahedosmani | lahedosmana |
| 2PL laharrani | laharran | laharrana | lahedosran | lahedosrani | lahedosrana |
| 3PL laharsani | laharsan | laharsana | lahedossan | lahedossani | lahedossana |


| Subject: 1PL |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2SG | lahanri | lahanir | lahanra | lahedēnir | lahedēnri | lahedēnra |
| 3SG | lahansi | lahanis | lahansa | lahedēnis | lahedēnsi | lahedēnsa |
| 2PL | lahanrani | lahanran | lahanrana | lahedēnran | lahedēnrani | lahedēnrana |
| 3PL | lahansani | lahansan | lahansana | lahedēnsan | lahedēnsani | lahedēnsana |
| Subject: 2PL |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG | lahasmi | lahasim | lahasma | lahedēsim | lahedēsmi | lahedèsma |
| 3SG | lahassi | lahasis | lahassa | lahedēsis | lahedēssi | lahedēssa |
| 1PL | lahasmani | lahasman | lahasmana | lahedēsman | lahedessmani | lahedēsmana |
| 3PL | lahassani | lahassan | lahassana | lahedēssan | lahedēssani | lahedēssana |
| Subject: 3PL |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG | lahadmi | lahadim | lahadma | lahededim | lahededmi | lahededma |
| 2SG | lahadri | lahadir | lahadra | lahededir | lahededri | lahededra |
|  | lahadsi | lahadis | lahadsa | lahededis | lahededsi | lahededsa |
| 1PL | lahadmani | lahadman | lahadmana | lahedeman | lahedemani | lahedemana |
| 2PL | lahadrani | lahadran | lahadrana | lahededran | lahededrani | lahededrana |
| 3PL | lahadsani | lahadsan | lahadsana | lahedesan | lahedesani | lahedesana |

### 6.2. Demonstrative pronouns

We define those deictic forms that encode $3^{\text {rd }}$ person entities and are not used in attributive function as 'demonstrative pronouns' or 'stand-alone demonstratives'. Clearly, this definition is applicable in principle both to the 'deictic' or demonstrative forms in $-h$ - - aha and uhu(masculine singular), ihi (feminine singular) ehe(plural) - and to the 'anaphoric' or $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronouns
pandži (singular), pandžan (plural). Indeed, in the northern dialects of Domari (Syria, Iraq, Caucasus) it appears that the series in $-h$-serves both functions, or that in some varieties the forms in $-h$ - are interchangeable with those in pan-. In Jerusalem Domari, the principal functional distinction between the two sets is the specialisation of pandži for previously named or identified, human or animate salient topics. The functions of the series of stand-alone demonstratives in $-h$-may indeed overlap with those of the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun, but they are not limited to them. Most importantly, as we shall see below, the series in -h-makes reference to inanimates as well as humans/animates, to new and discontinuous entities rather than just to salient continuous topics, and its reference is situation-based and not limited to the retrieval of conceptual entities from the verbalised discourse context. In short, the distribution of pandži and of aha etc. may partly overlap, but that of aha is broader.

In the following we will therefore pay special attention to the discourse distribution of the set. To begin with, demonstratives have the structural characteristics of distinguishing gender in the singular forms in addition to the opposition of number, in distinguishing between stand-alone subject and object forms, and in distinguishing an internal semantic opposition related to the intensity of deictic reference. As in many Indo-Aryan languages, this opposition is expressed in the vowel stem of the form, often as an opposition between high and low: /o, $\mathbf{u} / \mathrm{vs}$. /a, $\mathfrak{m} /$. Conventionally, this opposition is associated with the dimension of 'distance' from the speaker or from the shared position of speaker and listener. ${ }^{33}$ Macalister (1914: 23) mentions an opposition of distance only for the masculine singular nominative, though the opposition also exists for both genders and both numbers in the nonnominative forms. Nonetheless, in the nominative gender and number distinctness does indeed override case roles. In the oblique stem, by contrast, nominal case inflection also encodes gender and number (see Table 38).

Table 38. Demonstrative pronouns

| Case | Proximate |  |  | Remote |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | M.SG | F.SG | PL | M.SG | F.SG | PL |
| NOM | aha | ihi | ehe | uhu | ihi | ehe |
| ACC | eras | era | eran | ôras | öra | öran |
| BEN | eraske | erake | eranke | öraske | örake | öranke |
| LOC | erasma | erama | eramma | örasma | ōrama | ōramma |
| DAT | erasta | erata | eranta | örasta | orrata | ōranta |
| SOC | erassan | erassan | erassan | örassan | örasan | örassan |
| ABL | eraski | eraki | eranki | ōraski | öraki | öranki |

Demonstratives can be used in Domari for situative reference to entities and actors that are present in the speech setting and can be identified through
sensory means. In the following example, a man is speaking in the presence of his wife. His use of the demonstratives ihi and eraki refers to her, and the listener is able to identify her from her presence in the situation:


Note that in the first part of the conversation excerpt, back-reference to the 'wife' - introduced in the first segment - is achieved through the use of just pronominal possessive endings -os (boy-os 'her father', day-os 'her mother'). In the fourth segment, however, the reference is reinforced through the possessive construction whose head is the feminine singular demonstrative (here, in the case of the possessor: eraki 'of this one'). This serves as a reminder to the listener to identify the referent in the speech situation. This mode of reference continues in the final two segments, where this time the subject demonstrative ihi is topicalised first through right-dislocation, then through left-dislocation outside the syntactic frame of the phrase. Here,
dislocation of the demonstrative serves as a quasi-autonomous deictic action intended to re-establish a focus for the adjoining predication.

In the following conversation extract, a similar reference is made to a person who is present in the speech situation: zayy aha boyiski' 'like this one's father' Later on there is a further situative reference, albeit indirect: ehe kuštotēni' 'these are young'. It does not target a specific individual or group of individuals, but refers wholesale to the presence in the immediate environment of the household of young persons who are not speakers of Domari, and indeed through them to the presence in the community as a whole of a young generation that is no longer fluent in the community heritage tongue:


In the following example, the speaker is discussing how the image of the Dom as beggars prevails and is used to prejudge even those members of the community who do not engage in such practices. His use of the demonstratives reconstructs a situative deixis ('deixis ad oculus') that accompanies the procedure of, quite possibly, a physical gesture and in any case direct identification of the object of reference through sensory means. However, speaker and listener are not actually in that situation. Rather, it is the narration framework that transposes them into an imaginary situation. The use of the
demonstrative here to point at a third individual who is not present is thus an imaginary-situative deixis (cf. Bühler's (1934) 'deixis ad phantasma'):


In all these instances, reference through the demonstrative is to human beings, but it is in some sense impersonal, in that it does not take into account any established information about these human beings as individual characters. Rather, it merely singles them out as objects of perception - either real or within an imaginary sphere. This captures one of the essential differences between the deictic reference through the demonstrative (aha, ihi, ehe), whose focus is perceptual-sensory, and anaphoric reference through pandži, whose focus is conceptual.

Nonetheless, demonstratives may also refer to entities introduced in the verbal context of the discourse and hence accessible not by sensory means through direct perception, but through conceptualisation of the meaning content of the discourse. Consider the following:



In both cases, the demonstrative leads back to an aforementioned entity. In example (32) it is the mention in the previous context of the story (and the conversation between father and son depicted in it) of the girl whom the son wishes to marry and her family background. The demonstrative ehe refers to the community of people that had been the subject of discussion, but not to any of their individual characteristics. It is thus, in a way, impersonal, despite that fact that it contains a reference to human actors. In example (33), while the reference achieved by aha is of course to a particular individual, it is once again not to that individual as a familiar personality, but rather to his name, for the purposes of clarification concerning someone who is, in fact, hitherto unfamiliar to the listener. In both instances, the demonstrative operates as a clarification device at the discourse level, focusing on identifiable referents not under the assumption that they are in fact familiar to the listener, but as a means of introducing an explanatory account that would shape the listener's image of these referents.

In a similar function we find a regularised, grammaticalised use of the demonstrative first at the head of a restrictive relative clause, announcing the supply of explanatory information about a topical referent, and then at the head of the main clause, recapitulating that information and incorporating it into the image of the actor:

| bass | ehe | illi | aw-ad-i, | ehe | kull yōm |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but these.PL | REL come-3PL-PRG | these.PL | every day |  |  |

'But those who come, they earn every day five hundred six hundred Shekel from begging, to bring to their husbands.'

| qaI $\quad$ aha | illi | Sašir-k-ed-or | atnī-s aha |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| said.M this.M | REL | point-VTR-PAST-2SG on-3SG this.M |  |
| džawiz-r-ek |  | hatta bay-os hatta putr-ē-s |  |

In a similar construction, demonstratives serve as heads of the relative clauses without a co-demonstrative introducing the main clause, relying instead on the continuous presence of the information established about the head referent:

| $\bar{u}$ | xri-k-ad-a | kart-as, | lak-ed-a | ihi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | read-VTR-PAST-M | card-OBL.M | see-PAST-M | this.F |
| illi | ktib-k-ad-i | kart-as-ta | bay-os-i |  |

ihi illi par-d-om-is, kān-at
this.F REL take-PAST-1SG-3SG was-F
yatīm-ēy-a, boy-os m-r-èy-a
orphan-PRED.SG-REM father-3SG die-PAST-PRED.SG-REM 'The one whom I married was an orphan, her father had died.'

Having surveyed the principal functions of the demonstrative set in aha etc. especially in regard to its relation to the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun pandži, I now turn to the semantic opposition within the demonstrative set, namely that which in the nominative masculine singular forms is mapped on to the distinction between aha and uhu. In Chapter 5, when discussing the distinction between the attributive demonstratives aha and uhus I mentioned the features of specificity and intensified disambiguation that are associated with uhu. This essentially characterises the stand-alone demonstrative uhu in its relationship to aha. The specific demonstrative is highly 'marked' in the sense that is has a very specialised function and its appearance in the corpus is therefore rather infrequent.


fëm-ar-s-i $\quad$| rumuh-ma illa |
| :--- |
| hit-3SG-3SG-PRG |
| spear-LOC direct |

pišt-is-m-ēk
back-3SG.OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
'Kleb's horse beat what's his name's Jassas's horse.
Jassas was hiding a spear beneath his gown.
And as he [the other one] was in front of him, Kleb hits him
with the spear directly in his back.'

Here we see the (rather rare) use of uhu for the purpose of referent disambiguation in narration. The story is about the rivalry between Kleb and Jassas, the two tribal leaders. The excerpt documents one of the climatic moments in which Kleb strikes down his rival. The setting is that of a close horseback race between them, and the specific moment that would change the course of history for the tribes involved is one in which the two come into physical proximity of one another, both engaged in a similar activity. The need to distinguish who is the one carrying the weapon and who is the one that is being slain is of course the key to the appreciation of the story. In this context, the demonstrative uhu is there to shift the focus of attention from the most recent topical entity of the previous utterance, Jassas, onto the rival Kleb. For clarification, then speaker then immediately spells out the name of the intended referent, aha klēb 'this Kleb'.

### 6.3. Enclitic subject pronouns

Domari has an additional marginal referent-tracking device, alongside pronouns, bound person endings and demonstratives. We can call them 'enclitic subject pronouns', in order to differentiate them from stand-alone pronouns of the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person as well as from the pronominal affixes used to mark possessors and objects and indeed subjects in past-tense verbs. They are limited to $3^{\text {rd }}$ person entities, and their distribution is limited to interrogative and presentative phrases, where they attach to the interrogative pronoun or to the presentative particle. In narration, the enclitic pronoun therefore appears mainly within direct and indirect quotes:

| š-ird-a | ab-us-ke | kate-ta | balta ya |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| say-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN | where-PRO.M coat | PART |  |
| abu hasan? |  |  |  |
| Abu Hasan |  |  |  |
| 'He said to him: where is the coat, oh Abu Hasan?' |  |  |  |


| aha | $l i$ | šătir- $i$ |  | bar-os |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.M | REL | cunning-PRED.SG | brother-3SG |  |  |
| $\check{s}$-ird-a |  | ab-us-ke: | kate-ta | mana | $\bar{u}$ |
| say-PAST-M | for-3SG-BEN | where-PRO.M | bread | and |  |
| aha | li | nan-d-or-san? |  |  |  |
| this.M | REL | bring-PAST-2SG-3PL |  |  |  |

'The one with the cunning brother said to him: Where is the bread and the things that you brought?'

| s'il-k-ed-om-is | kate-ta | $m u \bar{s} a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ask-VTR-PAST-1SG-3SG | where-PRO.M | Musa |
| 'I asked him: Where is Musa?' |  |  |


| š-ird-i | ab-us-ke: | kate-te | bāqy-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| say-PAST-F | for-3SG-BEN: | where-PRO.PL | rest-3SG |
| xurfăn-an-ki? |  |  |  |
| lambs-OBL.PL-ABL |  |  |  |
| 'She said to him: Where are the other lambs?' |  |  |  |

The enclitic subject pronoun inflects for gender and number: kate-ta? 'where is he?', kate-ti? 'where is she?', kate-te? 'where are they?'. It is attested in questions about location as well as in presentative constructions: hate-ta! 'there he is!', hate-ti! 'there she is!', hate-te! 'there they are!'. At first glance, we seem to be dealing with an historical Middle Indo-Aryan deictic stem in ${ }^{*} t$-, though normal sound development in Domari would have rendered a contemporary ${ }^{*} r$-; indeed Romani dialects have a widespread enclitic subject pronoun $l o$, which is often restricted to similar environments - interrogatives and presentatives (cf. Vlax Romani kaj-lo? 'where is he?', eta-lo! 'there he is!'). It is more likely, however, that Domari ta is cognate with the $t$-deictic stem (augmented through -al- or -an-) that is found in Romani dialects mainly in Macedonia and neighbouring regions; this form, too, has similar distribution patterns: kaj talo/taj tano? 'where is he?' ek talo/tano! 'there he is!

### 6.4. The use of Arabic referential devices

A marginal and yet noteworthy category that belongs to the inventory of Domari reference-tracking devices is the use of Arabic anaphoric forms. The broader definition of 'anaphora' might take into account person marking on borrowed auxiliaries and modal expressions; we leave those out of the present discussion, however, and return to them in the discussion of the inflection of paradigms of modals and auxiliaries. But a further, stand-alone anaphoric
device from Arabic - iyyā- - is used for resumptive reference to entities in object role in some clauses:

| šir-d-a | putr-os-ke | qal | iza atu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| say-PAST-M | son-3SG-BEN | PART | if you.SG |
| bidd-ak | iyyā-hā | qal | xałłas, dža nan-is |
| want-2SG.M | OBJ-3SG.F | PART fine go bring-3SG |  |
| 'He said to his son, if you want her then fine, go get her.' |  |  |  |

I-hākim/ hākim ūratī bidd-o iyyā-k
DEF-governor governor tomorrow want-3SG.M OBJ-2SG.M
hayte dz̆a ab-us-ke maktab-is-ta
PART go.SUBJ.2SG for-3SG-BEN office-3SG.OBL-DAT
'The governor/ the governor wants you tomorrow, go see him at his office.'


In all these preceding examples it seems that the motivation for selecting iyyā- is the use of the Arabic loan bidd- 'to want', which is accompanied by its Arabic nominal inflection (bidd-ak 'you want', literally 'your-wish', bidd-o 'he wants', bidd-hā 'she wants'). The set of Domari bound person affixes is avoided with the Arabic nominal inflection that accompanies bidd- (i.e. a structure such as *bidd-ak-is lit. 'you-want-it' is not permissible). The Arabic object pronoun maintains its person, gender and number agreement with the intended referent; thus we find iyyā-hā 'her (direct object)' with reference to the girl whom the boy wanted to marry (example (43)), iyyā-k 'you.SG.M (direct object)' with reference to the addressee in the quote (example (44)), and $i y y \bar{a}-h$ 'it.SG.M (direct object)', and as an impersonal back-reference correlating with the relativiser illi in the sense of 'whatever she wants' (example (45)).

A related motivation seems to be behind the use of the Arabic resumptive pronoun in the following example:
gar-e nan-d-e Sabāy-os boy-im-ki,
went-3PL bring-PAST-3PL robe-3SG father-OBL.SG-1SG-ABL
labis-k-ad-ed-im iyyā-hā.
wear-VTR-PAST-3PL-1SG OBJ-3SG.F
'They went to bring my father's robe, they dressed me with it/ put it on me.'

Here the speaker uses Arabic iyyā-hā 'it.SG.F (direct object)' with reference to the 'robe' following a long verb that already contains one object person ending - labiskadedim 'they dressed me'. The semi-agglutinative character of the Domari verb layout allows for the addition of just one object entity through personal affixes into a verb complex. Indirect objects may be expressed as affixes, as in erosim 'it came to me'. But the pronominal affix slot gives precedence to direct objects. In the case of example (46), we have a competition between two direct objects of the transitive verb 'to dress' - the one who is being dressed, and the dress that is being used. This competition is resolved by expressing the second object analytically, using the Arabic pronoun. Most likely, however, the procedure involves not in the first instance any application of strict ordering constraints on Domari morphemes, but rather a simple calque on the Arabic pattern labbasū-nī iyyā-hā 'they dressed me [it]' which accompanies the borrowing of the Arabic expression labbis- 'to dress'.

Anaphoric agreement drawing on a further Arabic structural device is found in the employment of Arabic complementisers, which may carry person, gender, and number agreement:
(47) aylabiy-osan $\grave{s}$-ad-i inn-hom min samāl-os-ki majority-3PL say-3PL-PRG COMP-3PL from north-3SG-ABL $h n \bar{u} d$-an-ki, $\quad y \bar{a} \quad$ min $\quad$-bakistān
India-OBL.PL-ABL or from DEF-Pakistan
'Most people say that they are from northern India or from Pakistan.'

| $\bar{u}$ | pandži | in-džan-ar-e' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and $3 S G$ | inn- $h a ̄$ |  |
| džažan- $i$. |  |  |
| pregnant-PRED.SG |  |  |
| 'And she doesn't know that she is pregnant.' |  |  |

### 6.5. Interrogatives

Domari interrogatives are based on the historical set of Middle Indo-Aryan interrogatives in $k$-. This includes the 'thing'-interrogative $k i$ 'what'. In this, Domari differs from Romani, which has so for 'what' and derives further
interrogatives from this base in $s$ - (sar 'how', savo 'which', and so on). The full set of Domari interrogatives is given in Table 39. Note that while the forms $k i$ 'what' and $k \bar{a} n i$ 'who, which' are uniform within the corpus, there is quite a bit of variation in the forms for 'where', 'how', and 'why'. At the same time the system as a whole shows some semantic overlap, with kāni covering both the categories 'person' and 'specific thing', and the series kēkē kehnil $k e \bar{n} \bar{e}$ covering both manner and reason. For 'when', we find two distinct forms. The first, kawax, appears to be a blend between the inherited baseinterrogative ${ }^{*} k a$ and Arabic-derived ${ }^{*}$ wax $(t)<$ waqt. The other, waqtē̌s, is a direct loan from Arabic. It is a widespread form which is, however, not derived from the Jerusalem dialect of Arabic and appears to be an earlier loan. The same can said for qadēš 'how much'. There is no trace of an inherited interrogative for quantity, but the Jerusalem form has a glottal stop in initial position ('adēs). The pattern of interrogative borrowing resembles very much the hierarchy found in Romani dialects - and one that is indeed widespread in other contact situations as well (cf. Matras 2009: 199).

Table 39. Domari interrogatives

| ki (also ka-) | 'what' |
| :---: | :---: |
| $k a ̄ n i$ | 'who', 'which' |
| krēn (also knēn, kate) | 'where' |
| $k e \bar{k} \bar{e}$ (also Kehni, $k$ ēnē) | 'how', 'why' |
| kawax (also waqtēš) | 'when' |
| qadēš | 'how much' |

The interrogatives 'what' and 'who' commonly occur in accompaniment of the non-verbal predication marker $-i k$, as they represent information that is encoded in the form of nominal entities:
(49) kiy-ik aha?
what-PRED.SG this.M
'What is this?'
(50) kiy-ik nām-or?
what-PRED.SG name-2SG
'What is your name?'
(51) kiy-ik bidd-ak?
what-PRED.SG want-2SG.M
'What do you want?'


With $k \bar{a} n-i k$ 'who', the interrogative is often followed by a relative clause:
a. kān-ik illi wāsū̄r-í? who-PRED.SG REL with-2SG-PRED.SG
b. n-he-' wäšī-m wala ik-ak. NEG-is-NEG with-1SG no one-INDEF
a. 'Who is with you?
b. Nobody is with me.'
(56) kān-ik il er-a?
who-PRED.SG REL come.PAST-M
'Who arrived?'
(57) nimer ma džan-d-a kān-ik mindžī-san
lion NEG know-PAST-M who-PRED.SG from-3PL
illi qēy-r-a xurfăn-an.
REL eat-PAST-M lamb.PL-BL.PL
'The tiger didn't know which one of them had eaten the lambs.'
$k i$ 'what' (and its variant $k$ é), on the other hand, can also occur independently, without the predication marker, when the information it encodes entails an activity (predication) rather than a nominal entity:
(58) ki bidd-o kar-ar mat?
what want-3SG.M do-3SG.SUBJ person 'What can one do?'
(59) ažoti džan-d-or-i?/ džan-d-or-i kē
today know-PAST-2SG-PRG?/ know-PAST-2SG-PRG what kar-ad-i dōm-è-man? dōm-ē-man par-ad-i do-3PL-PRG Dom-PL-1PL Dom-PL-1PL take-3PL-PRG tātiy-e
Arab.F-PL
'Do you know?/ do you know what our Dom are doing today? They are marrying Arab women.'

Predication markers are not found with the other interrogatives, which do not represent potential nominal entities:
(60) Kate gōrw-e, kate gēsū $\bar{u}$ illi t-om-is where cow-PL where wheat and REL give.PAST-1SG-3SG ab-ran-ke?
for-2PL-BEN
'Where are the cows, where is the wheat and what I gave you?'
a.

| yaSni | $k a ̄ n$ <br> was.3SG.M | by-ar-i | inn-o |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PART |  | fear-3SG-PRG | COM | P-M |
| aw-ad |  | kury-a-ka | $\bar{u}$ | bay-os |
| come-3 | PL.SUBJ | house-OBL.F-DAT | and | wife-3SG |
| mišš | kury-a-m-êk |  |  |  |

NEG house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
b. kate yasmin, gar-i mangiš-k-ar?
where Yasmin go.PAST-F begging-VTR-3SG.SUBJ
a. 'He used to be afraid that they would come home and his wife would not be at home.
b. Where is Yasmin, has she gone begging?'
(62) a. giš dōm-e waz-r-e min quds-a-ki, all Dom-PL flee-PAST-PL from Jerusalem-OBL.F-ABL
b. krēn gar-e? Samman-a-ta
where go.PAST-PL Amman-OBL.F-DAT
a. 'All the Dom fled from Jerusalem.
b. Where did they go? To Amman.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { (63) } & k e \bar{k} k \bar{e} \quad n '-a w-\bar{e} y-e & \text { Samman-a-ka } \\ \text { why NEG-come-2SG-NEG Amman-OBL.F-DAT } & \text { lah-an-ir? } \\ \text { 'Why don't you come to Amman so we can see you?' }\end{array}$


In conjunction with nominal entities, the interrogatives $k i$ 'what' and $k a \bar{n} i$ 'who' can appear in attributive function, eliciting specification about the noun:


Person interrogatives and location interrogatives may be accompanied by local relation expressions (prepositions):
(67) mudïr š-ar-i ab-us-ke min krēn
director say-3SG-PRG for-3SG-BEN from where
džan-d-or atu ihi šōny-a?
know-PAST-2SG you this.F girl-OBL.F
'The director says to him: where did you know this girl from?'

### 6.6. Indefinites

As discussed in Chapter 4 in connection with indefiniteness marking on nouns, the notion of 'pronominal indefiniteness' conveys a sense of referential openendedness by relating to the place-holder function that the indefinite
expression has as a 'pronoun', and simultaneously to the fact that the placeholder can be replaced by any concrete specification that complies with the semantic characterisation of the ontological set. Other, 'assertive' pronouns personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns - operate within a sphere of a shared referential domain, where there is agreement between speaker and hearer about a single and unique entity that is represented by the pronoun. Interrogative pronouns, by contrast, open an ontological category within which the listener is prompted through the question illocution to supplement information about a referent. Indefinite pronouns do not participate in this question illocution and do not prompt the listener to verbalise a referent within the semantic parameters set by the pronoun. However, they do indicate a gap in the speaker's own verbalisation of the proposition content, thus prompting the listener to supplement the missing information non-verbally. They are in this way related functionally to interrogatives, and indeed many languages derive indefinite pronouns from interrogatives.

In Domari, the device for marking indefiniteness on nouns - the marker $-a k$, derived apparently from the numeral *ek 'one' - is also the most frequent marker of pronominal indefiniteness (see Table 40). The ontological element in indefinite expressions is either an interrogative, or a noun, or a numeral:

Table 40. Indefinite expressions

|  | Specific | Negative | Free-choice | Universal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Determiner | šinak | wala | ayy | kull |
| Person | ekak | wala ekak | ekak, wala ekak, ayy ekak | kull eka |
| Thing | kiyak, ḥādžak, iši | wala kiyak, wala hādžak | wala kiyak, wala hādžak | kullšikullsăay |
| Location | mahallak | wala mahallak | ayy mahall | kull mahall |
| Time | marrēni | wala marra, mimarra | ayy marra | da'iman |

The form šinak is an indefinite determiner of nouns derived from the noun šin (čin) 'piece' (from šin-/ čin- 'to cut'):
(68) ašti nkī-m šinak ple there.is at-1SG some money 'I have some money.'
(69) iq-naw-ē-m eat-CAUS-2SG.SUBJ-1SG
šinak qāyiš
some food
'Give me some food to eat.'

The person indefinite is ekaklikak 'somebody', based on ek 'one' The generic indefinite ('Thing') is $k i y a k$ 'something', based on the interrogative $k i$ 'what'. An alternative is Arabic iši 'something', as well as hādžak 'something', based on Arabic ḥādža. The latter derives from a noun meaning 'object, thing', but is used in some Arabic dialects as an indefinite expression. It is thus likely that it has been borrowed into Domari in its indefinite function, though it does not appear in this function in the Palestinian Arab dialect of Jerusalem and is therefore likely to be an older and more established loan, possibly from Bedouin dialects. The location indefinite is mahallak 'somewhere'. Once again, the expression is originally an Arabic noun - mahall 'place' - but it is already in use in Arabic (including Jerusalem Arabic) in an indefinite function. Domari integrates the two expressions into its general template for indefinite expressions by adding the indefiniteness marker $-a k$. The time indefinite is also Arabic - marrēni 'sometimes' (Arabic marra 'once') - , appearing with the plural predication marker to indicate repetition. A singular time indefinite ('sometime') is not attested. Note however that an effect similar to indefiniteness - ontological specification of the category without specification of the unit or entity - can be achieved for time by means of the expression disak 'one day', in conjunction with a 'genuine' indefinite expression, which may make the expression of singular time indefiniteness somewhat redundant:


The Arabic determiners wala (negative), ayy (free-choice), and kull (universal) accompany nouns productively, whereby the negative determiner triggers the use of the indefinite marker $-a k$ on the noun:
(71) št-ird-i $\quad$ zūla sabahtan ma lak-ed-i wala
stand-PAST-F ghost morning NEG see-PAST-F any
šmary-ak
chicken-INDEF
'The ghost stood up in the morning and couldn't find a single chicken.'

| sir-t | kam- k -am | nkīs | kull | dis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| became-1SG | work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ |  |  |  |
| 'I started working for her every day.' |  |  |  |  |
| at-3SGG |  |  |  |  |
| every | day |  |  |  |

We find the same Arabic determiners accompanying inherited expressions for person (e.g. wala eka 'nobody', ayy eka 'anybody'), forming negative and free-choice expressions for generic ('thing') indefinites (wala kiyak, wala haadžak 'nothing') and negative forms for location indefiniteness (wala mahallak):

| na | lak-ad-e | wala | $i k-a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEG | see-PAST-3PL | any | one-INDEF |
| 'ma. |  |  |  |
| 'They dillage-LOC |  |  |  |

(74) aw-ar-i nkī-s ayy eka nkī-s/ t-ad-i come-3SG-PRG at-3SG any one at-3SG give-3PL-PRG ab-us-kera
for-3SG-BEN
'Whoever comes to him/ they are generous with him.'
(75) lah-ad-a na mani-r-a wala kiy-ak.
see-PAST-M NEG stay-PAST-M no what-INDEF
'He saw that nothing remained.'
(76) na par-d-e na fraje wala

NEG take-PAST-3PL NEG clothes.PL no
hādž-ak na par-d-e wāšī-san
thing-INDEF NEG take-PAST-3PL with-3PL
'They didn't take any clothes or anything with them.'
(77) wala kil-š-am-i wala aw-am-i wala
and.NEG exit-SUBJ-1SG-PRG and.NEG PRED.SG and.NEG waddi-k-ar-m-i mahall-ak
and.NEG-bring-VTR-3SG-1SG-PRG place-INDEF
'I wouldn't go out or come back, nor would she take me anywhere.'
In all other instances, Domari employs the full Arabic expression; this includes the universal expression of thing (kullši/kullšay 'everything') and time (da'iman 'always'), and negative expression of time (note that free-choice expressions for location and time and universal expressions for location are unattested in spontaneous, connected speech, but speakers maintain that Arabic expressions are used for these functions):

| par-ar-m-a | burdkān, par-ar-m-a | moz, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-3SG-1SG-REM | orange take-3SG-1SG-REM banana |  |
| par-ar-m-a | māsī, qayiši ihi-k, | kullšay |
| take-3SG-1SG-REM meat food this.F-PRED.SG everything |  |  |
| 'He used to bring me oranges, he used to bring me bananas, he used |  |  |
| to bring me meat, that is, food, everything.' |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { (79) } & \bar{u} & \text { da'iman } & \text { yaSni } & \text { kun-t } & \text { ama } \\ & \text { and } & \text { always } & \text { PART } & \text { was-1SG } & \text { I }\end{array}$
kury-a-m-ēk
house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
'And I was always at home.'
Indefinite expressions can also be determined, suggesting pragmatically that the missing entity is in fact identifiable:
(80) aha kiy-ak ehr-a
this.M what-INDEF become.PAST-M
hār-ir-ma
neighbourhood-2SG.OBL-LOC
'This something [incident] took place in your neighbourhood.'
As in many languages, positive indefiniteness acquires a negative reading in negative predications:
(81) lamma-n gar-e dfin-k-ad-ed-is
when go.PAST-3PL bury-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL
maqbar-ē-ta, giš dōm-e San
cemetery-OBL.F-DAT
maqbar-ē-ki
cemetery-OBL.F-ABL
all Dom-PL from
mindir-d-a qal eme
stand-PAST-M said we
bidd-nā-š ik-ak hōš-ar grawara
want-1PL-NEG one-INDEF become.SUBJ-3SG head.man
emin-ta layēr putr-os
1PL-DAT except son-3SG
'When they went to bury him in the cemetery, all the Dom on the way from the cemetery said we don't want anybody except his son to be our head man.'

Otherwise, negative indefinite expressions may also occur alongside negative predications ('double negation'):

| (82) | manī-r-ēn $n k i ̄-s a n ~ b a s d ~ s i t t ~$ iyyām  <br> stay-PAST-1PL at-3PL after six <br> day.PL    |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rawwih-ahr-ēn |  | kury-a-ka | $n-h-e$, |
| leave-VITR.PAST-1PL | house-OBL.F-DAT | NEG-is-NEG |  |
| wala $\quad$ ik-ak | kury-a-ma. |  |  |
| no | one-INDEF | house-OBL.F-LOC |  |

'We stayed with them, after six days we went home, there was nobody at home.'

### 6.7. Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns

Domari employs the Arabic reflexive pronoun hāl-, derived from the word 'state', as well as the Arabic reciprocal pronoun baldd, both in combination with person/possessive inflection:

| $\bar{u}$ | naddifl-k-ad-a | hāl-os |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| and | clean-VTR-PAST-M | REFL-3SG | and | go.PAST-M |
| izzā $¢$ | ē-ta kinēn? | illi fi | $1-m u \bar{s}$ | ra. |
| radio | OBL.F-DAT where | REL in | DEF | Musrara |
|  | he cleaned himself up ? [The one] that is in M | and he we Musrara.' |  | oadcastin |

sār-u fēr-and-i baṣ̣ baSc̣-e-san watt-an-ma. began-3PL hit-3PL-PRG REC REC-PL-3PL stone-OBL.PL-LOC 'They started to throw stones at one another.'
$t$ Sarraf-h-r-ēn baSḍ-ē-man-ta meet-VITR.PAST-1PL REC-PL-1PL-DAT 'We met one another.'

## Chapter 7

## Verb inflection, modals and auxiliaries

### 7.1. The layout of Domari verbs

The Domari verb is characterised by its retention of MIA person affixes in the present conjugation and the emergence of a past-tense conjugation through the attachment of person affixes to the historical past participle in -ta. Both phenomena are shared with Romani, although the individual forms differ in part.

The lexical root occupies the first or left-most position in the linear blueprint for the Domari verb (see Figure 2). It is followed by an optional slot, which accommodates derivational markers. There are two types of derivational markers. The first derives verbs from non-verbs as well as from Arabic verb roots. There is a transitive or agentive derivational morpheme $-k(a r)$ - and an intransitive or non-agentive morpheme $-(h)(r) o$ - The first is based on the verb kar- 'to do', the second on $h(r) o$ - 'to become'. The derivational slot may also be occupied by morphemes that derive verbs from verbal roots; here too a valency-based distinction is made between the transitive/causative marker -naw-(-law-) or -aw- and the intransitive/passive marker $-y$ - (past-tense $-\bar{i}$-).

The next slot in the verbal complex is modal-aspectual. It accommodates firstly a distinction between Past and Present. Semantically, this distinction relates to the state of completion of the event, which is captured for the past stem in Indo-Aryan languages by the functional term 'perfective' (cf. Masica 1991). The present encodes the non-perfective perspective on the event. Note that some usages of the non-perfective are compatible with the remote or past tense, such as past-tense habituality or repetition. The present is the default category and it often coincides in form with the plain verb root. The past is usually encoded by a special past-stem or perfective marker, and sometimes also by minor modifications to the lexical root itself. 'Modality' refers to the explicit marking of the subjunctive. This appears with some verbs, which employ a subjunctive extension to the stem in $-\breve{s}^{-}\left(-c_{c}\right)$. With other verbs, the subjunctive is identical to the present indicative except for its lack of tense specification. Some verb classes have generalised the use of the extension in $-\breve{s}$ - to the present indicative forms as well (see below).

The aspect/mood position is followed by a subject concord marker, which in turn may be followed by a pronominal object marker. The right-most
margin of the verb template acommodates external tense markers. These indicate the relationship between the event depicted by the verb, and the speech situation or discourse context. The progressive marker $-i$ contextualises the predication as integrated into, and overlapping with the speech situation or discourse context. The remoteness marker -a de-contextualises the predication and indicates a demarcation between the setting of the event depicted by the verb, and that of the ongoing interaction. Slots for negation are added outside the verb template, on either side of it: mangami' 'I like', in-mangam-é' 'I don't like'; sakre 'they were able to', ma sakr-é' they were unable to'.

| Verb root | Derivation | Aspect/ Modality | Subject | Object | Tense |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| grēef- sing | $\begin{aligned} & k- \\ & \text { VTR } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & a m- \\ & 1 \mathrm{SG} \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & i \\ & \text { PRG } \end{aligned}$ | 'I sing / I am singing' |
| $x i z-$ laugh | nawCAUS | idPAST | $\begin{aligned} & o m- \\ & 1 \mathrm{SG} \end{aligned}$ | san- | $\begin{aligned} & a \\ & \text { REM } \end{aligned}$ | 'I had made them laugh' |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { lah- } \\ & \text { see } \end{aligned}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & a d- \\ & 3 P L \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { man- } \\ & 1 \mathrm{PL} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & i \\ & \text { PRG } \end{aligned}$ | 'They see us' |
| bagbreak | $\begin{aligned} & y- \\ & \text { ITR } \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & a r- \\ & 3 S G \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & a \\ & \text { REM } \end{aligned}$ | 'It used to break' |
| šar- <br> hide | $1 i-$ ITR | šSUBJ | $\begin{aligned} & a m \\ & 1 \mathrm{SG} \end{aligned}$ |  |  | '(that) I hide/ let me hide' (intrans.) |

Figure 2. Layout of the Domari verb

### 7.2. Verb derivation and loan verbs

### 7.2.1. Deriving verbs from non-verbs

The productive procedure for the derivation of new verbs in Domari is by means of specialised word-class changing, derivational morphology that derives verbs from non-verbs: nouns, adjectives, and quasi-nominalised forms of Arabic verb roots (see below). The procedure involves the suffixing of a verbal derivation marker $-k a(r)$ - or $-(h) o-/-(h) r$ - to the lexical root. The two suffixes derive from the independent verbs $k a r$ - 'to do' (OIA kar-) and ho-/hr'to become/ to have become ${ }^{34}$ (OIA bhū-). Variation in their form shows that they are still undergoing structural erosion. Variation in their meaning, ranging from compound readings ('to do $X$ ', 'to become $X$ ') to more integrated
meanings, indicates that they are still undergoing semantic bleaching. Both are signs of their relatively young and still ongoing grammaticalisation process (cf. Heine, Claudi, and Hünnemeyer 1991, Hopper and Traugott 1993).

With pre-Arabic roots, the derivation affix $-k(a r)$ - derives verbs from nouns. In most cases the nouns are themselves derived from verbs via the nominaliser $-i \check{s}$ - and so $-k(a r)$ - adds a secondary derivation procedure.

| mangiš | 'begging' | mangiškami | 'I beg' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| qayis̆ | 'food' | qayiškami | 'I cook' |
| lagiš | 'fight' | lagiškami | 'I fight' |
| Kam | 'work' | kamkami | 'I work' |
| grēf | 'song' | grēfkami | 'I sing' |

The affix $-(h) o-/(h) r$ - derives verbs within the pre-Arabic component from adjectives:

| tilla | 'big' | tillahromi | 'I have grown' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| barda | 'full' | bardahra | 'it filled/ became full' |
| wida | 'old' | widahra | 'he grew old' |
| mišta | 'ill' | mištahri | 'she fell ill' |

This distribution also assigns the two derivation markers distinct semantic specialisations within the word derivation procedures that apply to the preArabic lexical component: The marker $-k(a r)$ - derived form 'to do' adds an agentive reading to the subject of the verb that is based on the nominal lexical stem ('I initiate and carry out X '). By contrast, the morph -hr-from 'to have become' assigns the role of an experiencer or undergoer to the subject of the verb that is derived from the adjective ('I undergo the process of $X$ ').

### 7.2.2. Arabic loan verbs

From this division of semantic roles the two markers also derive their most productive function in the language, which is to integrate loan verbs from Arabic. Like many other languages, Domari does not allow direct integration of verbal stems into its inflection paradigms, but requires instead a verbalising element that treats the borrowed verbal root as a non-verb, and adapts it into the receiving language by assigning to it the properties of a predication. ${ }^{35}$ An added complication is the fact that Arabic lacks an obvious default verbal root form that is not inflected, due to the nature of Arabic-Semitic inflectional and derivational procedures, which involve the insertion of a consonantal root with
abstract semantic meaning into a meaningful morpho-phonological template. Most languages that borrow verbs from Arabic select the so-called masdar or verbal noun form, which is a secondary nominalisation, akin perhaps to some extent to the Domari nominal derivations in -iš- and best translated into English by means of a gerundial form such as fath l-huctüd 'the opening of the borders'. This is then incorporated by means of an inflected 'light verb', e.g. Persian ta'lïm dādan'to teach' (lit. 'to give teaching'), Turkish teşekkür etmek 'to thank' ('to do thanking'), Urdu tabādla karnā 'to transfer' ('to make exchange'). A distinction is generally made between light verbs for transitive or agentive loans (usually 'to do', 'to make', 'to give'; cf. Turkish etmek, Kurdish kirin, Persian kardan, Urdu karnä) and those used to integrate intransitive or non-agentive loans (usually 'to become', sometimes 'to fall'; Turkish olmak, Kurdish bîn, Persian šodan, Urdu honä). Romani, too, appears to have used two distinct procedures to incorporate transitive and intransitive loan verbs. Transitive verbs were adapted using the marker -ker- (from ker- 'to do') or the transitive derivation marker -ar-, while the verb -ov- or -av- 'to become' was attached to intransitive verbs. Continuation of this distinction is maintained in most Romani dialects (cf. Matras 2002: 128-135).

In Domari, the form of the Arabic verb that is carried over is one that is in fact non-existent in the Arabic source. It is, rather, a constructed form that contains the relevant root consonants in sequence, gemination of the middle consonant wherever this is meaningful in the original Arabic derivation template, and a selection of vowels within the root that is representative of the vowel pattern of the relevant Arabic inflection class. The form is, however, stripped of any person agreement or tense, aspect or modality markers. It is thus different from the Arabic imperative form, which Littmann (1920: 131) believed was the underlying form borrowed into Domari. It also differs from the Arabic 3SG subjunctive, which is also a rather 'minimalist' form in Arabic but still has person, gender, and number agreement and a vowel pattern that is much more systematic than the reduced pattern found in the Arabic root element that is carried over into Domari. Thus, the Arabic root $s$. ' $I$ 'to ask' derives in Palestinian Arabic the subjunctive 3SG yís'al and the imperative 'ís'al!, yet the root form that is imported into Domari is s'il- (s'ilkedom 'I asked').

The meaning of the verb root determines which Domari derivation morpheme acts as its adaptation marker. The semantic specialisation of the two Domari verb derivation morphemes can be nicely illustrated through these rare examples of alternation of the same Arabic roots with different loan verb markers, in accordance with the semantic structure of the respective predicates:

| par-d-a | tfang-ī, | -ad-a |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -PAST-M | gun-OBL.M | shoot-VTR-PAST-M | -OB |
| xx-ah-r-a, |  | -a kažža |  |
| sho | ST-M die | R-PAST-M man |  |
| He took the g | he shot the | . The man was sho | died.' |


| $\bar{u}$ | $d a y-o s$ | $d z ̌ a w w i z-h r-i$ | $e k a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | mother-3SG | marry-VITR.PAST-F | one |

'And her mother married someone.'

| ama wafaq- $k$-ad-om- $i$ | inn- $i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I agree-VTR-PAST-1SG-PRG COMP-1SG |  |
| džawwiz- $k$-am-is | ab-ur-ke |
| marry-VTR-1SG-3SG.OBL to-2SG-BEN |  |
| 'I have agreed to marry her to you.' |  |

rawwah-kar-d-ēn-is kury-is-ta go-VTR-PAST-1PL-3SG.OBL house-3SG.OBL-DAT 'We sent him home (to his house).'

| rawwah-ah-r-a | masr-a-ta |
| :--- | :--- |
| go-VITR-PAST-M | Egypt-OBL.F-DAT |
| 'He went to Egypt.' |  |

The two Arabic verbs tuxx- 'to shoot' and intaxx- 'to be shot' are integrated as ready-made lexical derivations from Arabic, and are each accompanied by a distinct integration marker in Domari. In the other two cases, agentivity and valency are indicated strictly thorugh the choice of Domari loanverb integration marker. The contrast between džawwizhri 'she married' and džawwizkamis 'I shall marry her off', both transitive verbs, might be interpreted as one of transitive and causative structure, as can be the opposition between intransitive rawwahahra 'he went away' and transitive rawwahkardēnis 'we sent him away'.

A look at a larger sample of Arabic verbs and their mode of integration reveals that the choice of loan verb adaptation marker is dependent not primarily on the syntactic argument structure of the verb, but on the semantic properties of the subject in respect of the action. Table 41 offers a comparison of a number of verbs found in the corpus. The verbs are arranged on a tentative continuum between 'clear transitivity/intransitivity' at the top, and 'fuzzy transitivity/intransitivity' at the bottom part of the table. Fuzzy transitives are activities that do not require an overt and explicit direct object, while fuzzy intransitives allow a direct object.

Table 41. Selection of Arabic loan verbs

| Arabic roots | th $-k$ (ar)- | Arabic roots with -(h)o/(h)r- |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| clear transitivity |  | clear intransitivity |  |
| rabbikar- | 'to raise' | indžannihr- | 'to go crazy' |
| wazink- | 'to weigh (tr)' | skurro- | 'to reside' |
| qatalkar- | 'to slice' | Sishhr- | 'to live' |
| dabbirkar- | 'to arrange' | skuto- | 'to be quiet' |
| lahank- | 'to compose' | qarribho- | 'to approach' |
| thimk- | 'to accuse' | rawihhr- | 'to walk' |
| $s_{s}(t) r i k-$ | 'to buy' | zhurahr- | 'to appear' |
| naddifk- | 'to clean' | xarrafo- | 'to speak' |
| sakkirk- | 'to shut' | intaqimho- | 'to take revenge' |
| waddik- | 'to send' | nqulahr- | 'to move' |
| tayyibk- | 'to heal' | inhisso- | 'to feel' |
| ¢allimk- | 'to teach' | Sallimhr- | 'to learn' |
| rfudk- | 'to refuse' | rdahr- | 'to accept' |
| s 'ilk- | 'to ask' | şbuqho- | 'to precede' |
| nadik- | 'to call', | battilahr- | 'to stop, quit' |
| jannik- | 'to sing' | radžiho- | 'to make a request' |
| ¢azifk- | 'to play music' | fhimo- | 'to understand' |
| qrikar- | 'to read', | uhfuzhr- | 'to memorise' |
| Ktibk- | 'to write' | hibbo- | 'to like' |
| fuzzy transitivity |  | uzzy intransitivity |  |

The common denominator for each group of verbs is the status of the subject. Arabic roots are integrated with $-k(a r)$ - if their subject is the initiator and intentional agent of an action, in which case the action is likely to have triggered a result that is in some way detectable on, or can at least be attributed to an object. In this way, $-k(a r)$ - continues its function of deriving initiated activities from the nouns that describe them. Arabic verbs are integrated with -(h)o/(h)r-if their subject is an undergoer or experiencer of the action or event, in which case the outcome of the action will show its signs on the emotional or physical state of the subject. This continues the marker's earlier function of deriving inchoatives from adjectives, a function that is now extended to a wider class of verbs of the kind that has been termed 'unaccusative' (Perlmutter 1978). The following example offers a nice illustration:
xałłas-ah-r-om
finish-VITR-PAST-1SG
'I finished my work'
kam-as
work-OBL.M

The verb 'to finish' is obviously transitive, and its direct object kam-as is identified as such through the unmodified oblique case marking. The subject is
acting intentionally and is not simply the recipient of an action initiated or controlled by outsiders or by external sources. But the Arabic verb root xałłas 'finish' is incorporated into Domari by means of the intransitive derivational morpheme ahr-('to become'). This captures a subtle but crucial semantic feature of the predicate, namely the fact that completion of the activity leaves the subject free of work obligations and thus in a state resulting from the activity that is different to the state in which he was before the completion of the activity. It is this resultative state affecting the subject that is captured by the choice of derivation/loan-verb adaptation marker.

### 7.2.3. Valency-changing derivational morphology

Domari has two further verb-derivational strategies, both of which involve alternating the valency of existing verb roots. The language continues the OIA passive derivation $-y$ - (MIA $-j j$-) in the form of a derivational affix $-y$ - (past $-\bar{I}-r$ ) whose function is to change transitive verb roots into intransitives. In the following examples the change in valency amounts to a transposition from an active to a passive construction, whereby the direct object-patient of the active construction becomes the subject-patient of the passive construction (cf. Siewierska 1984): ${ }^{36}$

| a. | ama | ban-ami | kapiy-a |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
|  | I | shut-1SG | door-OBL.F |
|  | 'I shut the door' |  |  |

b. kapi ban-y-ari door shut-ITR-3SG
'The door is closing'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { a. } & \text { ama } & \text { qol- } d \text {-om } \\ & \text { I } & \text { open-PAST-1S } \\ & \text { 'I opened the window' }\end{array}$
b. $\check{s} u b b a \bar{k} k$ qol-īr- $-a$
window open-ITR-PAST-M 'The window was opened'
(9) a. pandži kšal-d-a širy-a 3SG pull-PAST-M knife-OBL.F 'He pulled a knife'

```
            b. širi kšal-i-r-i
            knife pull-ITR-PAST-F
            'The knife was pulled'
(10) a. dir-d-a fray-ē-s šōny-a-ki
            tear-PAST-M clothes-PL-3SG girl-OBL.F.ABL
            'He tore the girl's clothes'
            b. qamis-os dir-ī-r-a
            shirt-3SG tear-ITR-PAST-M
            'Her shirt was torn'
(11) a. kar-d-e mahkame
            do-PAST-3PL trial
            'They carried out a trial'
            b. kar-i-r-a ab-us-ke maḥkame
            do-ITR-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN trial
            'He was put on trial'
(12) a. mar-d-ed-is
            kill-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL
            'They killed him'
b. pandži mar-i-r-a
    3SG kill-ITR-PAST-M
    'He was killed'
```

There are, however, other kinds of contrastive pairs that arise through intransitive derivations. The intransitive derivation may allow either a passive reading or one that portrays an unintentional event that affects the intransitive subject:
(13) a. bag-ird-om lamb-ē break-PAST-1SG lantern-OBL.F 'I broke the lantern'
b. bag-ī-r-i lamba
break-ITR-PAST-F lantern
'The lantern broke'
The intransitive can have an active reading, where the subject is an active and intentional undergoer or experiencer of the activity:
a. džassās šar-d-ēy-a Jassas hide-PAST-PRED.SG-REM romh-i 'Jassas was hiding a lance'
b. qaftinna šar-y-ar-a this hide-ITR-3SG-REM 'The thief was hiding'

In some cases, the intransitive derivation has a medio-passive reading, with the subject carrying out the action on him/herself:
a. dow-ami fray-ē-m wash-1SG clothes-PL-1SG
'I am washing my clothes'
b. dow-y-ami
wash-ITR-1SG
'I am washing (myself)'
Some intransitive derivations merely neutralise the transitive argument structure of the transitive base verb, resulting in a semantically related activity that lacks a direct object:
a. man-ami ūyar- $\overline{1}$
leave-1SG town-OBL.M
'I am leaving the town'
b. man-y-ami ūyar-ma
stay-ITR-1SG town-LOC
'I am staying in the town'
A further pair of affixes, -aw- and -naw- (-law-), attach to both transitive and intransitive roots to add an argument or increase the valency of the lexical verb. In the case of some roots, the acquired meaning is causative, indicating that a potential actor is being prompted to initiate or carry out an action (cf. Shibatani 2001):
(17)
a. $\quad q-a m i$
eat-1SG
'I eat'
b. q-naw-ami xudwar-an
eat-CAUS-1SG child-OBL.PL
'I feed the children'

```
(18)
a. xaz-r-ed-i atn-īs
laugh-PAST-3PL-PRG on-3SG 'They laughed at him'
b. xiz-naw-id-ed-is
laugh-CAUS-PAST-3PL-3SG
'They made him laugh'
(19) a. pandži \(w e \bar{s}-r-a\)
3SG sit-PAST-M
'He sat'
b. ama wis-law-id-om-san
I sit-CAUS-PAST-1SG-3PL
'I made them sit'
```

Alternatively, increasing valency may simply mean that a transitive verb is derived from an intransitive one:
(20) a. kil-d-om
descend-PAST-1SG
'I descended'
b. Kl-aw-id-om
descend-CAUS-PAST-1SG
'I lowered'
In some cases the causative affix functions simply as a word derivation marker, deriving a transitive verb from a non-verb. An example is tik-naw-ari 'it hurts', from the noun *dukh (cf. Romani dukh-al 'it hurts', Hindi/Urdu cukh dēnā 'to hurt').

Available resources are drawn upon to derive both transitive and intransitive verbs from base roots. Sometimes each member of a pair of counterpart verbs owes its form and meaning to a process of secondary derivation; we thus get 'passives' contrasting with 'causatives', which in effect amounts to a valency opposition between intransitive and transitive:
(21) a. lamba waš-ī-r-i
lantern burn-ITR-PAST-F
'The lantern burnt.'
b. ama wiš-naw-id-om lamb-ē

I burn-CAUS-PAST-1SG lantern-OBL.F 'I burnt the lantern.'
a. $\quad b-y-a n-a$ minšī-S fear-ITR-1PL-REM from-3SG 'We used to fear him.'
b. b-naw-id-ēn-is
fear-CAUS-PAST-1PL-3SG.OBL
'We frightened him.'

| a. | gar-ī-r-om <br> returned-ITR-PAST-1SG <br> 'I returned home' | kury-a-ta <br> house-OBL.F-DAT |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| b. | gir-naw-id-a <br> return.CAUS-PAST-M all <br>  <br> 'He made all the Dom return.' | giš |
|  | dōm-an |  |

### 7.3. Verb stems and person concord

As in other Indo-Iranian languages, the Domari verb consists of two stems, the present and past. As explained above, the meaning of the so-called present stem is essentially non-perfective, while the past stem has an inherently perfective meaning, conveying actions and events in their completed state. The stem distinction is thus aspectual in nature. The formal distinction between the present and perfect stems is usually made by means of a perfective marker which extends the present stem to form the past: ban- 'to shut' > ban- $d$ - 'to have shut, to be shut'. The perfective marker derives from the OIA/MIA participle marker -(i)ta. In general, then, the present stem serves as a kind of default verb stem while the past-perfective stem is morphologically more complex, showing an extension. Some verbs, however, show phonological differences between the present and past stems. Most are minor differences such as syllable reduction in the present stem: sn-ami 'I hear' < sin-dom 'I heard'. In a few rare cases stems show morphological suppletion: dža- 'to go', gar- 'to have gone/ to be gone'.

The two verb stems, present and past, command two distinct sets of subject concord markers. The present set of subject concord marker in Domari is a direct continuation of the MIA set of person markers. This makes Domari, along with Romani, one of the morphologically most archaic languages within the New Indo-Aryan language family, most of whose members have lost the present-stem set of concord markers and preserve traces of them only with auxiliaries. Table 42 shows the MIA present-tense person markers and their continuation in Domari. ${ }^{37}$

Table 42. MIA and Domari present-tense subject concord markers

|  | MIA (Pali) | Domari |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | $-a m i$ | $-a m i$ |
| 2SG | $-a s i$ | $-\bar{e} k$ |
| 3SG | $-a t i$ | $-a r i$ |
| 1PL | $-\overline{a r m a}$ | $-\bar{e} n$ |
| 2PL | $-a t h a$ | $-a s i$ |
| 3PL | $-a n t i$ | $-a(n) d i$ |

The direct historical continuation of the forms for the 1 SG and 3 PL is most easily recognisable; the erosion of the 3 PL is ongoing and one finds among Jerusalem speakers variation between the form that retains the nasal, and the simplified form. The marker for the 3SG is equally a direct descendant of the MIA form, adhering to the general shift of medial $-t$ - in MIA to $-r$ - in Domari (MIA gata 'gone' > Domari gara). The emergence of the other forms is, in the absence of historical records for the language, subject to interpretation. It would appear that the 2PL shows the outcome of an intra-person analogy to the historical 2SG in *-si.

The 2SG form is the most volatile in the entire Domari person inflection paradigm (see below) and it appears that the current form - $\bar{e} k$ is the product of a rather late renewal process. There are two possible origins for the contemporary 2SG: It may be cognate with the Dardic 2 SG ending $-k h$ (e.g. Kashmiri), or it may have been copied from the non-verbal predication marker $-\bar{e} k$ and so it is perhaps traceable to a participial or gerundial marker. There are two further possibilities of indicating the 2SG person concord. The first is zero marking, which appears with most verbs in the subjunctive and imperative. This is easy to explain through the general default status of the 2 SG command form, which is entirely situative-contextual and thus stripped of any marking beyond the bare lexical stem of the verb. This command form then serves as a model for the syntactically embedded subjunctive, which is in a similar fashion dependent, albeit upon its immediate syntactic and propositonal environment rather than on the pragmatics of the speech situation. A further marker for the 2 SG in Domari is $-\bar{i}$. This too is the less regular form and is largely restricted to the subjunctive paradigm that is used with some verbs and is constructed on the basis of the augment $-\breve{s}$ - (see discussion below). The link between the appearance of the subjunctive stem augment in $-\check{s}$ - and the 2 SG marker -i suggests that the latter may have originated in the person conjugation of what had once been a distinct auxiliary verb ${ }^{*} \check{c}$ - (this consonantal form is preferred for the reconstruction since it remains the pronunciation of the form in the more 'conservative' speech; see Chapters 1 and 2). Now, $-\bar{i}$ is a wellestablished marker for the 2 SG in Iranian and in some of the Indo-Iranian frontier languages. The form $\check{c}$-, in turn, is common in the northern Indo-Aryan
languages as an auxiliary. We should therefore entertain the possibility that the augment $-\check{s}$ - $<-\check{c}$ - is a borrowing from one of the Dardic languages into Domari, and that the person ending -ijof the 2SG has been borrowed with it. ${ }^{38}$

As for the 1PL in -ēn, it appears to be an analogy to the identical 1PL form $-\bar{n} n$ which we find in the past-tense set of person endings, and which derives from the MIA 1PL oblique pronoun *ne (see below). The vowel in both the 2SG and 1PL marker is overridden by the root vowel of vocalic roots, thus dža-k'you go', dža-n'we go', ho-k 'you become', ho-n 'we become'.

Table 43. MIA oblique pronouns and Domari past-tense subject concord markers

|  | MIA pronoun | Domari subject | Domari agent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | $-m e$ | $-o m$ | $-o m$ |
| 2SG | $-t e$ | $-o r$ | $-o r$ |
| 3SG.M | $-s e$ | $-a$ | $-o s$ |
| 3SG.F | $-s e$ | $-i$ | $-o s$ |
| 1PL | $-n e$ | $-\bar{e} n$ | $-\bar{n}$ |
| 2PL | $-b e$ | $-\bar{e} s$ | $-\bar{s}$ |
| 3PL | $-s e$ | $-e$ | $-e-d-$ |

The disappearance of the old past-tense inflection is common to all New Indo-Aryan languages. The finite past-tense forms were succeeded by a generalisation of the past participle, giving rise to a new, ergative alignment system in which the transitive participle agreed with the patient or direct object and the intransitive participle agreed with the subject/agent (cf. Bubenik 1989). This state of affairs is continued in many of the NIA languages to this today (e.g. Hindi/Urdu). Domari, like Romani, follows the development pattern of the Dardic or 'frontier languages' such as Kashmiri and Shina. Here, oblique personal pronouns representing the agent were attached to the participle, accompanying initially in all likelihood just transitive predicates, following the format [done+by-me] (the thematic role of the pronoun was expressed in all likelihood by the case of the pronoun rather than by an adposition). Subsequently, these oblique pronouns became integrated into the participle, forming a new past-tense conjugation. Alignment shifted away from ergative and back to nominative-accusative. By analogy to transitive verbs, the new conjugation was then adopted also for intransitive verbs. MIA oblique pronouns and Domari past-tense subject concord markers are shown in Table 43.

Crucial to our reconstruction scenario is the distinction made in Domari between subject and agent markers in the 3SG past tense set. The subject markers are essentially adjectival endings which continue to represent the older state of affairs of a past participle agreeing with the subject in intransitive verb: gar-a 'he went', gar-i 'she went' (cf. Hindi/Urdu giy-ā 'he
went', giy-ī 'she went'). The Domari verb system has undergone a levelling process at the end of which transitive verbs have adopted the same adjectival endings, now expressing subject rather than object agreement: qēr-a 'he ate', $q \bar{r}-i$ 'she ate' (but note object agreement with transitives in Hindi/Urdu: dekh-ā 'X saw him', dekh-i' X saw her'). The agent markers in Domari can be traced back to the oblique pronouns, like (most of) the other person endings. They appear in Domari past-tense verbs whenever a pronominal object is specified: Thus laked-os-man 'he/she saw us', nērd-os-im 'he/she sent me', and so on. The connection between the 3SG agentive marking in -os and the specification of an object allows us to establish a direct link between the emergence of -OS as a person marker in the new past-tense person inflection paradigm and the position of its predecessor, $3 \mathrm{SG}-\mathrm{se}$, in the set of oblique person markers representing the agentive role in earlier stages of the language.

This link can be verified for the remainder of the singular paradigm. The form for the 1 SG -om bears the same relation to the MIA 1SG oblique pronoun -me, as does the 2 SG form -or to the MIA 2 SG oblique pronoun -te (consider once again the shift of medial dental stop to / $\mathbf{r} /$ in Domari). The vowel - 0 -, which connects the consonantal pronominal form to the verb stem, is inflectional in nature. It alternates with $-i$-, which appears when the pronominal affix represents an object: nērd-os-im 'he/she sent me', nērd-os-is 'he/she sent him/her'. The alternation is thus case-sensitive and points to a nominal or pronominal element, possibly an inflected relativiser, which once mediated between the verb and the subject and object pronoun.

It remains necessary to account for the plural forms in the past-tense person set. The 1PL does not pose any particular problems if one accepts the scenario suggested here for the singular forms. We can draw the same link between the 1PL ending -ēn and the MIA oblique pronoun -ne. The difference in the mediating vowel can be explained by the plural meaning of the suffix. If the mediating vowel does indeed go back to a nominal or pronominal element that was inflected for case, then its inflection is likely to have been sensitive also to number, in which case the ending -e (lengthened and raised to $/ \overline{\mathrm{e}} / \mathrm{in}$ closed syllables) nicely complements the nominative masculine singular $-o$. It is then this 1PL ending of the past tense that serves as a model for the counterpart 1PL present-tense form and is copied into that set.

In the 2PL we have the opposite process, namely the copying of the form from the present-tense person set (which in turn is copied from the original 2SG of that same set). The consonantal form is then integrated into the same vowel mediation pattern as the 1PL. Finally, the 3PL behaves in a somewhat similar way to the 3 SG in retaining the adjectival-participial plural ending ee. A partial analogy to the present tense set surfaces when a vowel is added to the 3PL past-tense form: parde 'they took', parde- $d$-a 'they would have taken', parde- $d-i s$ 'they took it'.

Pronominal objects are expressed in Domari through a set of object concord markers that are identical in principle to the set of pronominal possessive markers discussed in Chapter 6. They too derive from the set of MIA singular oblique pronouns: 1 SG -im, 2SG -ir, 3SG -is. The plural forms are created on the basis of the singular forms, adding the nominal oblique plural ending -ant: 1PL -man, 2PL -ran, 3PL -san. Object markers always follow subject markers within the morphological template of the verb:
par-d-om-is
take-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL
'I took it'
(25) nēr-d-or-im
send-PAST-2SG-1SG.OBL
'You sent me'
Typically, object pronouns appear with transitive verbs, as in the preceding examples. There are, however, instances where an object pronoun may appear with an intransitive verb to express the beneficiary, experiencer, or goal of an action or event. In such cases, the 3SG subject is encoded as an agent, with -os-:
(26) $m$-r-os-ir
die-PAST-3SG-2SG.OBL
'He died on you'
(27) er-as-im
come.PAST-3G-1SG.OBL
'He came to me'
(28) pandži ras-r-os-im

3SG run-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
'He ran after me'

### 7.4. Verb inflection classes

Domari verb inflection classes are shaped by a number of different factors including the phonological shape of the verb root, the reliance on intensifying morphemes, syllable reduction and epenthesis, variation and restructuring in the existential verb, shifts between the historical optative and indicative paradigms, root suppletion, and quasi-suppletion. The individual verb inflection classes are usually distinguished by one or more of the following features:
(a) The identity of the perfective or past tense marker that follows the verb root in past tense (perfective) formations. The perfective marker continues the OIA/MIA participle marker -(i)ta. Its contemporary formants in Domari are $-d$ - in positions following roots that end in the consonants $/ \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$ and partly $/ \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{s} /$, $-r$-following vowel roots as well as the consonants $/ \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$, and in one exceptional case $-t$.
(b) The presence of a past-tense intensifier -ir- or -er-mediating between the verb root and the perfective ending, deriving in all likelihood from the transitive and intensifier marker *-ar- in MIA; and the presence of an augment -in- in a similar position, derived apparently from the participial ending -in-;
(c) The presence of an intrusive vowel $-i$ - or $-e$ - between the verb root and the perfective marker;
(d) Syllable reduction of the verb root in the present tense;
(e) The subjunctive paradigm and its reliance on secondary stem modification in the form of the augment $-s-s$-;
(f) Quasi-suppletive lexical roots in which the shape of the past-tense (perfective) root undergoes significant changes compared with its present-tense (non-perfective) counterpart, and genuinely suppletive roots, where past and present stems derive from distinct lexemes.

The tables below provide overviews of the inflection patterns of individual groups using in each case a single verb example, followed by a selective list of other verbs belonging to the same group and a brief description.

Table 44. Group 1: Transitives, dental sonorant root: šar- 'to hide (sth)'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | šarami | săam | sarama | sáardom | šardomi | šardoma |  |
| 2SG | sarack | šar | sărḕy | sardor | šardori | šardora | šar |
| 3SG.M | ssarari | sărar | sarara | sarda | saraèk | săardēya |  |
| 3SG.F | ssarari | sarar | sarara | sarardi | šardik | săardìya |  |
| 1PL | sarani | săaran | sarana | săardēn | šardēni | šardēna |  |
| 2PL | şarasi | săas | šarasa | šardēs | şardēsi | šardēsa | saras |
| 3PL | šara(n)di | sarad | sarara(n)da | sarde | săardēdi | šardēda |  |

kšal- 'to pull', qol- 'to open', štal- 'to carry', ban- 'to shut', džan- 'to know', man- 'to leave', min- 'to hold', nan- 'to bring', pēn- 'to take out', sin- 'to cut', kar- 'to do', mar- 'to kill', par- 'to take'

Group 1 might be regarded as the 'plain' inflection class. Its verbal roots end in the dental sonorants $/ 1, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r} /$. The perfective marker is $-d$, which immediately follows the verb root. The present subjunctive stem is identical to the present indicative, for all persons. The 2SG subjunctive/imperative form is zero-marked. Verbs belonging to this group tend to be transitive.

Table 45. Group 2: Transitives, other roots: bag-'to break'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | bagami | bagam | bagama | bagidom | bagidomi | bagidoma |  |
| 2SG | bagēk | bag | bagēya | bagidor | bagidori | bagidora | bag |
| 3SG.M | bagari | bagar | bagara | bagida | bagidēk | bagidēya |  |
| 3SG.F | bagari | bagar | bagara | bagidi | bagidik | bagidīya |  |
| 1PL | bagani | bagan | bagana | bagidēñ | bagidēni | bagidēna |  |
| 2PL | bagasi | bagas | bagasa | bagidēs | bagidēsi | bagidēsa | bagas |
| 3PL | baga(n)di | bagad | baga(n)da | bagide | bagidēdi | bagidēda |  |
| mang-'to ask', lah-(lak-) 'to see', qaft-'to steal', radž-'‘throw out', kos-'to curse', |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| sow-'to sew', daw-'to wash' (tr) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Verbs belonging to Group 2 behave in a way that is very similar to Group 1 , except that the perfective marker $-d$ - is introduced by an intrusive vowel $-i$ (or -a- or -e-). This group contains verb roots ending in a variety of consonants. It illustrates the historical intolerance toward medial clusters of the form $/ \mathrm{Cd} /{ }^{39}$

Table 46. Group 3: $-k$ - agentive derivations from non-verbs and loan verbs: štrīk-'to buy'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | štrikami | strikam | strikama | strikedom | strikedomi | štrikedoma |  |
| 2SG | strikēk | strika | strikēya | strikedor | strikedori | strikedora | strika |
| 3SG.M | strikari | strikar | strikara | strikeda | strikedēk | štrikedēya |  |
| 3SG.F | strikari | strikar | strikara | strikedi | strikedik | štrikedīya |  |
| 1PL | strikani | strikan | strikana | strikedēn | strikedēni | štrikedēna |  |
| 2PL | strikasi | strikas | strikasa | strikedēs | strikedēsi | štrikedēsa | strikas |
| 3PL | strika(n)di | strikad | strika(n)da | strikede | strikedēdi | štrikedēda |  |

dfaSk- 'to pay', džawizk- 'to marry (tr)', gāk- 'to speak', grēfk- 'to sing', habisk- 'to arrest', haddidk- 'to work metal', hadirk- 'to prepare', hafiżk- 'to preserve', hsudk- 'to harvest', kafik- 'to suffice', kamk- 'to work', ktibk- 'to write', ladžik- 'to be shy', lagišk- 'to quarrel', lahink- 'to sing', mangišk- 'to beg', muwāīfaqk- 'to agree', nadifk- 'to clean', qayisk- 'to cook', rahilk-, rfudk- 'to refuse', s'ilk- 'to ask', saffirk'to deport', sakirk- 'to shut', sakirk- 'to shut', war(a)k- 'to wear', waržik- 'to show', xalaṣk- 'to finish', zirāisk- 'to sew', ̧awidk- 'to protect', ̧ayidk- 'to celebrate',〔azifk- 'to play music', 〔azimk- 'to invite'

Group 3 essentially belongs to Group 2 and adheres to exactly the same principles as Group 2, but contains the specific case of verb stems formed by the derivation marker $-k$-. This group contains by far the largest number of verbs and alongside the derivation in -hr-it is the only genuinely open and productive class of verbs in Domari, incorporating all Arabic stems with agentive meaning.

Table 47. Group 4: Causatives: bnaw- 'to frighten'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | bnawami | bnawam bnawama | bnawidom bnawidomı bnawidoma |  |  |  |  |
| 2SG | bnawēk | bnaw | bnawēya | bnawidor | bnawidori | bnawidora bnaw |  |
| 3SG.M | bnawari | bnawar | bnawara | bnawida | bnawidēk | bnawidēya |  |
| 3SG.F | bnawari | bnawar bnawara | bnawidi bnawidik | bnawidī̀aa |  |  |  |
| 1PL | bnawani | bnawan bnawana | bnawidēn | bnawidēni bnawidēna |  |  |  |
| 2PL | bnawasi | bnawas bnawasa | bnawidēss bnawidēsi bnawidēsa bnawas |  |  |  |  |
| 3PL | bnawa(n)di bnawad bnawa(n)da bnawide | bnawidēdi bnawidēda |  |  |  |  |  |

girnaw- 'to bring back', klaw- 'to raise', mindraw- 'to stop', ningaw- 'to take in', qnaw- to feed', tiknaw- 'to hurt', wislaw- 'to have somebody sit', wišnaw- 'to burn', xiznaw- 'to make somebody laugh'

Group 4 is similarly a sub-group of Group 2 , with which it shares all features. It contains verbs that are derived by means of the causative derivation marker -naw- or -aw-

Table 48. Group 5: Syllable reduction: sin- 'to hear'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | snami | snam | snama | sindom | sindomi | sindoma |  |
| 2SG | snēk | sin | snēya | sindor | sindori | sindora | $\sin$ |
| 3SG.M | snari | snar | snara | sinda | sindēk | sindēya |  |
| 3SG.F | snari | snar | snara | sindi | sindik | sindīya |  |
| 1PL | snani | snan | snana | sindēn | sindēni | sindēna |  |
| 2 PL | snasi | snas | snasa | sindēs | sindēsi | sindèsa | snas |
| 3PL | sna(n)di | snad | sna(n)da | sinde | sindèdi | sindēda |  |

kin- 'to sell', kil- 'to exit' (but see below), dir- 'to tear'
Verbs in Group 5 match the same principal features of those of Group 1, but show syllable reduction in the present (non-perfective) of a root containing CiC.

Table 49. Group 6: Intensifier-perfective: $\check{s}$ - 'to speak'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | šami | sam | šama | sistom | širdomi | širdoma |  |
| 2SG | $\stackrel{s}{s}(w) \bar{e} k$ | $\stackrel{s}{s} \bar{u}$ | šěya | širdor | širdori | sirdora | $\stackrel{s}{\text { sul }}$ |
| 3SG.M | Šari | şar | sara | sirda | şirdēk | sirirdèya |  |
| 3SG.F | šari | săar | săara | sirdi | ssirdik | sirdiya |  |
| 1 PL | săani | şan | săana | širdèn | širdēni | širdēna |  |
| 2PL | sasasi | sas | sasa | şirdēs | širdessi | şirdēsa | šas |
| 3PL | sáa(n)di | šad | sáa(n)da | sirirde | širdēdi | širdēda |  |

$n \bar{e}-$ 'to send' (1SG nēmi, 2SG nēk, 2SG subjunctive/imperative nê), mišt-‘I kiss' (2SG subjunctive mišt), stt- 'to stand up' (2SG subjunctive/imperative $\check{s t} t)$, $t$-'to put' (1SG twami, 2SG tēk, 2SG subjunctive/imperative tu)

Group 6 is somewhat diverse in its composition, showing roots that tend to be phonologically volatile and therefore showing some variation in the paradigmatic relationship especially of the 2SG indicative and subjunctive/imperative to the other forms. It is perhaps this instability of the root component and the fact that roots belonging to the group do not follow the more usual CVC syllable structure for verb roots, that has triggered the addition of an intensifier morpheme -ir- between the root and the past (perfective) marker. ${ }^{40}$

Table 50. Group 7: Contracted present: $k w$ - 'to throw'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | kwami | kwam | kwama | kurdom | kurdomi | kurdoma |  |
| 2SG | kwēk | kur | kwēya | kurdor | kurdori | kurdora | kur |
| 3SG.M | kwari | kwar | kwara | kurda | kurdēk | kurdēya |  |
| 3SG.F | kwari | $k w a r$ | kwara | kurdi | kurdik | kurdīya |  |
| 1PL | kwani | kwan | kwana | kurdēn | kurdēni | kurdēna |  |
| 2PL | $k w a s i$ | $k w a s$ | $k w a s a$ | kurdēs | kurdēsi | kurdēsa | kwas |
| 3PL | $k w a(n) d i$ | $k w a d ~$ | $k w a(n) d a$ | kurde | kurdēdi | kurdēda |  |

Class 7 contains one single verb, $k w$ - 'to throw', the original root of which is *kur-. It appears that the final /r/ segment of the root was re-interpreted as the intensifier -ir- in the position immediately preceding the perfective marker $-d$, as a result of which this segment was omitted from the present stem. The original form is preserved in the 2 SG subjunctive/imperative kur.

Table 51. Group 8: 'Hybrid' causative: kišnaw- 'to lie’

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | kišnawami | kišnawam | kišnawama | kašindom kašindomı kašindoma |  |  |  |
| 2SG | kišnawēk | kišnaw | kišnawèya | kašindor | kašindori | kašindora | kišnaw |
| 3SG.M | kišnawari | kišnawar | kišnawara | kašinda | kašindēk | kašindēya |  |
| 3SG.F | kišnawari | kiŠnawar | kišnawara | kašindi | kašindik | kašindīya |  |
| 1PL | kišnawani | kišnawan | kišnawana | kašindēn | kašindēni | kašindēna |  |
| 2PL | kiš̌nawasi | kišnawas | kišnawasa | kašindēs | kašindēsi | kašindēsa | kišnawas |
| 3PL | kišnawa(n) | kišnawad | kišnawa(n) | kašinde | kašindēdi | kašindèda |  |

Here too we have just one single representative of a distinct inflection pattern. The verb kišnaw- 'to lie' appears to be a causative derivation in its present stem, but the causative marker is missing in the past. One might have expected a form like *kišnawida. It is possible that the insertion in -in-derives from the MIA adjectival and participle ending -ina; this ending is productive in the past-tense formation of some verbs in Romani, but so far it has not been observed in Domari. It is noteworthy that the past-tense form kaširdom, with the intensifier -ir-, also occurs; here too the root vowel appears as /a/rather than $\mathrm{i} /$.

Table 52. Group 9: Present indicative with -š-: kil- 'to go out'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | kilšami | kilsám | kilšama | kildom | kildomi | kildoma |  |
| 2SG | Kilsêk | kilsí | kilsěya | kildor | kildori | kildora | kilsí |
| 3SG.M | kilšari | kilšar | kilsara | kilda | kildēk | kildè̀a |  |
| 3SG.F | kilsarai | kilsar | kilšara | kildi | kildik | kildìa |  |
| 1PL | kilšani | kilšan | kilsana | kildēn | kildēni | kildèna |  |
| 2 PL | kilsassi | kilsăas | kilsasa | kildēs | kildēsi | kildèsa | kilšas |
| 3PL | kilsáa(n)di | kilsad | kilsáa(n)da | kilde | kildèdi | kildèda |  |
| Kel-' 'to play', mindir- 'to stand', xol- 'to descend' |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

There is variation surrounding this group within the speech community, with the more 'conservative' dialect showing the forms klami and xolami rather than kilšami and xolšami. It is therefore clear that the introduction of the stem augment in $-\check{s}$ - is a recent innovation. The model is obviously the subjunctive construction of some verbs, where the use of the augment $-\breve{s}$ - is widespread (see below). Since these verbs also rely on $-\breve{s}$ - in the subjunctive, even among the 'conservative' speakers, it appears that the subjunctive formation has been generalised throughout the present stem and copied into the indicative as well, among some speakers. The question arises as to the motivation behind this extension. What the verbs in this class have in common is the semantic meaning of movement. It seems therefore that an association
exists between the augment $-\breve{s}^{-}$- and verbs of movement; we shall return to this issue in the discussion of the subjunctive below. Note that the 2SG person marker that accompanies the augment in $-s_{s}$ - is invariably $-\bar{i}$, as discussed in section 7.3 above.

Table 53. Group 10: Intensifier perfective and $2{ }^{\text {nd }}$ person -š-: raw- 'to travel'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | rawami | rawam | rawama | rawirdom | rawirdomi | rawirdoma |  |
| 2SG | rawēk | rawŠi | rawēya | rawirdor | rawirdori | rawirdora | rawši |
| 3SG.M | rawari | rawar | rawara | rawirda | rawirdēk | rawirdēya |  |
| 3SG.F | rawari | rawar | rawara | rawirdi | rawirdik | rawirdīya |  |
| 1PL | rawani | rawan | rawana | rawirdēn | rawirdēni | rawìrdēna |  |
| 2PL | rawasi | rawšas | rawasa | rawirdēs | rawirdēsi | rawìrdēsa | rawšas |
| 3PL | rawa(n)di | rawad | rawa(n)da | rawirde | rawirdēdi | rawirdēda |  |

This unique verb has two distinctive features. The first is the insertion of the intensifier morpheme -ir- in the past, which we already saw in Group 6. The second feature is exceptional and consists of the selective use of the subjunctive augment $-\breve{s}$ - for the second person (singular and plural) only. It is noteworthy that the person ending is $-\bar{i}$. It appears then that the spread of distinct subjunctive marking is asymmetrical, favouring the second person as 'marked' (in the sense discussed by Elšik and Matras 2006), and within that person, the singular form.

Table 54. Group 11: Semi-vocalic root, subjunctive in -š-: row- 'to cry'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | rowami | rowssam | rowama | rowrom | rowromi | rowroma |  |
| 2SG | rowêk | rowši | rowèya | rowror | rowrori | rowrora | rowšī |
| 3SG.M | rowari | rowšar | rowara | rowra | rowrēk | rowrēya |  |
| 3SG.F | rowari | rowšar | rowara | rowri | rowrik | rowriya |  |
| 1PL | rowani | rowšan | rowana | rowrēn | rowrēni | rowrēna |  |
| 2PL | rowasi | rowšas | rowasa | rowrēs | rowrēsi | rowrēsa | rowšas |
| 3PL | rowa(n)di | rowšad | rowa(n)da | rowre | rowrēdi | rowrēda |  |
| naw- 'to search' (2SG subjunctive/imperative nawiši, with intrusive vowel) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Group 11, one of the more marginal inflection groups, is characterised by the presence of a semi-vowel as the final root segment, as a result of which the verb patterns with the vocalic roots and selects $-r$ - as a perfective marker. Both verbs attested as part of this group are associated with movement or state, which may be behind their consistent adoption of the augment $-\check{s}$-for the entire subjunctive paradigm.

Table 55. Group 12: Quasi-vocalic: qumn- qeym- 'to eat'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | qumnami | qumnam | qumnama | $q$ ērom | qēromi | $q \overline{\text { ēroma }}$ |  |
| 2SG | qumnēk | qumna | qumnēya | qēror | qērori | qērora | qumna |
| 3SG.M | qumnari | qumnar | qumnara | $q \overline{e r a}$ | $q \overline{e r}{ }^{\text {èk }}$ | $q \overline{e ̄ r e ̄ y a ~}$ |  |
| 3SG.F | qumnari | qumnar | qumnara | $q \overline{e r i}$ | $q \overline{e r i k}$ | qērēya |  |
| 1PL | qumnani | qumnan | qumnana | $q \bar{e} r e \bar{n}$ | $q \overline{e r} \bar{n}{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $q \overline{e r} \bar{n} \mathrm{n} a$ |  |
| 2 PL | qumnasi | qumnas | qumnasa | $q \bar{e} r e \bar{s}$ | $q \bar{e} r e \bar{s} i$ | $q \overline{e ̄ r e ̄ s a ~}$ | qumnas |
| 3PL | qumna(n)di | qumnad | qumna(n)da | $q \overline{e r r e}$ | $q \overline{e r r e ̄ d i ~}$ | $q$ qērēda |  |

fumn-/ -feym- 'to hit'; xeym- 'to defecate'
Group 12 verbs behave like vocalic roots in their selection of the perfective marker $-r$ - and presence of a vowel in the final segment of the perfective stem. In the present stem however they adopt a nasal segment that mediates between the historical root and the person concord. The verb 'to eat' also has an alternative conjugation in qa-(1SG qami, 2SG qak, etc.).

Table 56. Group 13: Vocalic: pī- 'to drink'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | pyami | pyam | pyama | pirom | piromi | piroma |  |
| 2SG | pyēk | $p \bar{i}$ | pyaya | piror | pirori | pirora | $p^{\bar{i}}$ |
| 3SG.M | pyari | pyar | pyara | pira | pirek | pirḕya |  |
| 3SG.F | pyari | pyar | pyara | piri | pirik | pirìya |  |
| 1PL | pyani | pyan | pyana | pirēn | pirrēni | pirrēna |  |
| 2PL | pyasi | pyas | pyasa | pirēs | pireessi | pirrēsa | pyas |
| 3PL | pya(n)di | pyad | pya(n)da | pire | pirēedi | pir̀ēda |  |

The 'genuine' vocalic roots take the perfective marker $-r$ - and convert the vowel segment into a semi-vowel in positions preceding vocalic person affixes.

Table 57. Group 14: Vocalic (reduction in perfective): saka- 'to be able to'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | sakami | sakam | sakama | sakarom | sakaromi | sakaroma |
| 2SG | sakēk | saka | sakaya | sakaror | sakarori | sakarora |
| 3SG.M | sakari | sakar | sakara | sakra | sakrēk | sakrēya |
| 3SG.F | sakari | sakar | sakara | sakri | sakrik | sakrīya |
| 1PL | sakani | sakan | sakana | sakrēn | sakrēni | sakrēna |
| 2PL | sakasi | sakas | sakasa | sakrēs | sakrēsi | sakrēsa |
| 3PL | saka(n)di | sakad | saka(n)da | sakre | sakrēdi | sakrēda |

This unique modal verb of Indo-Aryan etymology in Domari is a vocalic root and behaves like one, though there is a tendency toward syllable reduction
in some of the perfective forms, rendering an inconsistent paradigm, but one which continues to rely on $-r$ - as the perfective marker throughout.

Table 58. Group 16: Vocalic/ inransitive derivation: šary- 'to hide (oneself)'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | Šaryami | sarišam | saryama | šarĩom | sariiromi | saririoma |  |
| 2 SG | saryek | sariši | saryèya | sariiror | sari̇ori | sarirora | sariši |
| 3SG.M | saryari | sariżšar | Šaryara | saríra | saririek | sariieya |  |
| 3SG.F | saryari | sarišar | saryara | sariri | sarïrik | sariniza |  |
| 1 PL | saryani | sarišan | saryana | sariirēn | sari̇ėni | sarǐiena |  |
| 2 PL | şaryasi | şarǐ̌as | şaryasa | šarirēs | sari̇resi | sarī̇ēsa | šarīas |
| 3PL | šarya(n)di | šarišad | šarya(n)da | sarire | sariiredi | sarirèda |  |

bagy 'to break', bany- 'to be shut', by- 'to fear', dowy- 'to wash', many- 'to stay', mary- 'to be killed', qafty- 'to be stolen', qoly- 'to open', wašy- 'to be burned'

The number of verbs that behave as vocalic and select a perfective marker $-r$ - preceded by a stem vowel is greatly increased through the productiveness of the intransitive or passive derivation in $-\bar{i}$. In positions preceding vocalic person endings, the stem vowel is reduced to a semi-vowel $/ \mathrm{y} /$. The full vowel remains in positions preceding the perfective marker $-r$ - as well as in positions preceding the subjunctive augment $-\check{s}$-. As a rule, intransitive derivations always take the subjunctive augment $-\check{s}$-, which reinforces the impression of a connection between this marker and the semantics of states, movement, and change of state. A special case belonging to this group is the impersonal verb wars- 'to rain'. It differs from the usual present forms of the group in that it lacks an intransitive marker $-y$ - and appears very much like a default, plain verb: warsari 'it is raining' The subjunctive, however, takes the stem augment in -š-: biddhā waršišar 'lit. it wants to rain' ('it is likely to rain'). The perfective stem is formed in a way that is similar to the derived intransitives: warsīri 'it has rained'.

Table 59. Group 17: Intransitives, vowel reduction: nišy- 'to dance'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | nišyami | našišam | nišyama | naširom | nasiriomi | nasiroma |  |
| 2SG | nišyēk | našisici | nišyēya | našǐror | naširrori | nasisirora | našišic |
| 3SG.M | nišyari | našišar | nišyara | našira | naširēk | našīēya |  |
| 3SG.F | nišyari | našišar | nišyara | našǐri | naširik | nasǐiǹ |  |
| 1PL | niš̌yani | našǐăan | nišyana | našǐrēn | naširiēni | našǐèna |  |
| 2PL | niš̌yasi | našišas | nišyasa | naširēs | naširrēsi | našǐēsa | našišas |
| 3PL | nišya(n)di | našišăd | nišya(n)da | našire | naširēdi | naširēda |  |
| giryami 'I return' |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Characteristic of this sub-group of intransitive derivations is their tendency to reduce their root vowel $/ \mathrm{a} /$ to $/ \mathrm{i} /$ in the non-perfective indicative (present and imperfect), though the variant našyari 'she is dancing' can also be heard.

Table 60. Group 18: Vocalic/ intransitive derivation: mary- 'to die / to be killed'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | maryami | marïšam | maryama | mrom | mromi | mroma |  |
| 2SG | maryēk | marisici | maryēya | mror | mrori | mrora | marišic |
| 3SG.M | maryari | marišar | maryara | mra | mrêk | mrēya |  |
| 3SG.F | maryari | marī̌ar | maryara | mri | mrik | mriya |  |
| 1PL | maryani | marissan | maryana | mrēn | mrēni | mrēna |  |
| 2 PL | maryasi | marī̆as | maryasa | mrēs | mrēsi | mrēsa | marišas |
| 3PL | marya(n)di | marissad | marya(n)da | mre | $m r e \overline{d i}$ | mrēda |  |

This particular verb capitalises on the existence of the ancient stem *mr- 'to die' (MIA past participle muda $>{ }^{*}$ mura $>\mathrm{mra}$ ) and at the same time on the availability of an intransitive derivation based on the related verb mar- 'to strike, to hit, to kill' to compose a hybrid paradigm carrying the features of an intransitive derivation in the present and that of a vocalic root in the past. As an intransitive derivation, the subjunctive takes the augment in $-\breve{s}$ - with the accompanying particularity of the 2 SG person marker.

Table 61. Group 19: Indicative with $-\check{s}$ - augment: nig- 'to enter'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | nikšami | nikšam | nikšama | nigrom | nigromi | nigroma |  |
| 2SG | nikšēk | niksí | niksěya | nigror | nigrori | nigrora | nikši |
| 3SG.M | nikšari | nikšar | nikšara | nigra | nigrēk | nigrēya |  |
| 3SG.F | nikšari | nikšar | nikšara | nigri | nigrik | nigrēya |  |
| 1PL | nikšani | nikšan | nikšana | nigrēn | nigrēni | nigrēna |  |
| 2PL | nikšasi | nikšas | niksasa | nigrēs | nigrēsi | nigrēsa | nikšas |
| 3PL | nikša(n)di | nikšad | nikša(n)da | nigre | nigrēdi | nigrèda |  |

The original root of this verb appears to be nig- (cf. Romani ing-er- 'to bring along, to enter'), which survives in the perfective stem but seems to have undergone partial phonological assimilation to the $-\breve{s}$ - augment and hence devoicing of the root consonant in the present stem. Like Group 9, we have an extension of the subjunctive stem to the present indicative stem. Here too, the verb describes movement or change of state.

Table 62. Group 20: Present stem with $-t$ - augment: nas- 'to flee'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | nastami | nastam | nastama | nasrom | nasromi | nasroma |  |
| 2SG | nastēk | nastī | nastēya | nasror | nasrori | nasrora | nastī |
| 3SG.M | nastari | nastar | nastara | nasra | nasrēk | nasrēya |  |
| 3SG.F | nastari | nastar | nastara | nasri | nasrik | nasrḕya |  |
| 1PL | nastani | nastan | nastana | nasrēn | nasrēni | nasrēna |  |
| 2PL | nastasi | nastas | nastasa | nasrēs | nasrēsi | nasrēsa | nastas |
| 3PL | nasta(n)di | nastad | nasta(n)da | nasre | nasrēdi | nasrēda |  |

ras- 'to run' (rastami), weštami ‘I sit' (past wesrom), xaštami'I laugh' (past xazrom)

These verb roots in a final dental sibilant $-s /-z$ are consistent in their choice of the perfective marker $-r$-, and it is interesting that they attract a stem augment $-t$ - in the present and that this augment in some of the cases triggers a palatalisation of the sibilant to $-\check{s}$-. That the $-t$ - augment is somehow historically connected to an auxiliary is suggested by the fact that, like the subjunctive augment $-\check{s}$-, it too carries the 2SG person ending in $-\bar{i}$. Macalister (1914: 31) offers a reasonable explanation, and that is that the subjunctive augment, originally $-\check{c}$ - or /tš/ (in the pronunciation of Macalister's consultant and of today's conservative speakers), has undergone metathesis in the environment of the dental sibilant, giving rise to either /st/ or /št/. Thus the augment $-t$ - is originally the subjunctive augment $-\check{s}$ - $\left(-\breve{c}_{-}\right)$, carrying with it the 2SG person marker $-\bar{j}$, which, as in Groups 9 and 19, is extended to the present indicative.

Table 63. Group 21: Suppletive: aw- 'to come'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | awami | awam | awama | erom | eromi | eroma |  |
| 2SG | awēk | aru | awēya | eror | erori | erora | aru |
| 3SG.M | awari | awar | awara | era | erēk | erēya |  |
| 3SG.F | awari | awar | awara | eri | erik | erīya |  |
| 1PL | awani | awan | awana | erēn | erē̄̀i | erēna |  |
| 2PL | awasi | awas | awasa | erēs | erēsi | erēsa | awas |
| 3PL | awa $(n) d i$ | awad | awa(n)da | ere | erēdi | erēda |  |

The verbs aw- 'to come' (Table 63) and dža- 'to go' (Table 64) are the only two genuine suppletive verbs in Domari, following the general pattern in NIA. Their inflection is otherwise regular, but both derive past stems from separate lexical roots ending in a vowel: $e$ - 'to have come', and ga- 'to have gone'

Table 64. Group 22: Suppletive: dža- 'to go'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | džami | džam | džama | garom | garomi | garoma |  |
| 2SG | dZ̆ak | dz̆a | džaya | garor | garori | garora | $d z ̌ a ~$ |
| 3SG.M | džari | džar | džara | gara | garêk | garēya |  |
| 3SG.F | džari | džar | džara | gari | garik | garìya |  |
| 1 PL | džani | džan | džana | garēn | garēni | garēna |  |
| 2PL | džasi | džas | džasa | garess | garēsi | garēsa | džas |
| 3PL | $d \check{z ̌ a(n) d i}$ | džad | džă(n)da | gare | garēdi | garēda |  |

Table 65. Group 23: Present stem with $-\check{s}$-augment, past in $-t$ : $\check{s c l u}$ - 'to sleep'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | šüšami | šūs̄ăm | šǔšama | sitom | sitomi | sitoma |  |
| 2SG | sulusēk | shŭS̆İ | šūšěya | sitor | sitori | sitora | šŭŠŠ |
| 3SG.M | ssūšari | šūšar | šūšara | sita | sitēk | sitēya |  |
| 3SG.F | suıūăari | šūšar | šāšara | siti | sitik | sitēya |  |
| 1PL | šüšani | šūšan | šūšana | sitēn | sitēni | sitēna |  |
| 2PL | šūūasasi | šūšas | šūšasa | sitēs | sitēsi | sitēsa | šū̆šas |
| 3PL | šūs̄ă(n)di | šūšad | šās̆a(n)da | site | sitēdi | sitēda |  |

The verb $\check{l l} \bar{l}$ - 'to sleep' (OIA svapa-, MIA soppa-) (Table 65) preserves a perfective stem that goes back directly to the simplified MIA participle (OIA supta, MIA sutta) and hence retains the $-t$-perfective formant in the perfective stem sit-(also sut-). The entire present stem, indicative as well as subjunctive, is augmented by the subjunctive extension $-s$ - The change of the present stem consonant from $s$ - to $\check{s}$ - appears to be recent and triggered by assimilation to the subjunctive augment. Macalister (1914: 192) still documents the present stem as $s \bar{u} \bar{c}$-, with a corresponding causative form $s$-law- 'to put to sleep'.

Table 66. Group 24: Suppletive: de- 'to give'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | demi | dem | dema | tom | tomi | toma |  |
| 2SG | dèk | $d e$ | deya | tor | tori | tora | $d e$ |
| 3SG.M | deri | der | dera | $t a$ | tēk | têya |  |
| 3SG.F | deri | der | dera | $t i$ | tik | tîya |  |
| 1PL | deni | $d e n$ | dena | tēn | tēni | têna |  |
| 2PL | desi | des | desa | tēs | $t e \overline{s i}$ | têsa | des |
| 3PL | $d e(n) d i$ | ded | $d e(n) d a$ | tede | $t e ̄ d i$ | tēda |  |

The verb $d e$ - is suppletive although its two lexical stems are historically related. The vocalic present stem de- is supplemented by a consonantal stem * $d$ - in the past, which converges with the participle form, giving the past form $t$ -

Table 67. Group 24: Root vowel -o: ho- 'to become'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | (h)omi | hös̃am | (h)oma | hrom | hromi | hroma |  |
| 2SG | (h) ok | $h \overline{o s s ̌ i}$ | (h) oya | hror | hrori | hrora | $h \bar{O} \mathrm{SY}$ İ |
| 3SG.M | (h)ori | hōšar | (h) ora | hra | $h r e ̄ k$ | hrēya |  |
| 3SG.F | (h)ori | hōšar | (h)ora | hri | hrik | hriya |  |
| 1PL | (h)oni | hōs̆an | (h)ona | hron | $h r e ̄ n i$ | hrēna |  |
| 2PL | (h)osi | hōšas | (h)osa | $h r e \bar{s}$ | $h r e \overline{s i}$ | hreesa | höšas |
| 3PL | (h)o(n)di | hōšad | (h)o(n)da | hre | hre(n)di | $h r e ̄ n d a$ |  |

hibb- 'to love', šikk- 'to contemplate', skun- 'to reside', şum- 'to fast', tSallim- 'to learn', xarif- 'to converse', zSil- 'they get angry', etc.

The verb ho- 'to become' (from OIA $b h \bar{u}-$-) has a special position within the verb inflection system. It is the only verb with a root vowel -o. As a vocalic root, the perfective stem takes the perfective marker $-r$ - giving *ho- $r$-, which is reduced to $h r$-. The initial $/ h /$ consonant of the root is volatile and is often omitted, giving rise to a quasi-suppletive verb with -0 - in the present stem and $h r$ - (or even just $-r$-) in the perfective stem. As a verb describing change of state, ho- takes the augmented subjunctive in -š. It also serves as the 'light verb'-based adaptation morpheme used to integrate Arabic verbal roots into the language. The roots listed here as part of the same Group are selected examples of such borrowings. In effect, the integration of a vocalic stem -owith a borrowed lexical root creates a separate vocalic inflection class in $-O$-: hibbomi 'I love', skumomi 'I reside', and so on. ${ }^{41}$

Table 68. Group 25: Root vowel -o, perfective in -ir-: kahínd- 'to look'

|  | Pres.Ind. Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. Pluperf. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | kahíndomi kahíndōšam | kahíndoma | kahíndirom | kahíndiromi kahíndiroma |
| 2SG | kahíndok kahíndōší | kahíndoya | kahíndiror | kahíndirori kahíndirora |
| 3SG.M | kahíndori kahíndōšar | kahíndora | kahíndira | kahíndirèk kahíndirēya |
| 3SG.F | kahíndori kahíndōšar | kahíndora | kahíndiri | kahíndirik kahíndirēya |
| 1PL | kahíndoni kahíndōšan | kahíndona | kahíndirēn | kahíndirèni kahíndirēna |
| 2PL | kahíndosi kahíndōšas | kahíndosa | kahíndirēs | kahíndirēsi kahíndirēsa |
| 3PL | kahíndodi kahíndōšad | kahíndoda | kahíndire | kahíndiredi kahíndireda |

This is an exceptional verb already in its syllable structure. It appears to be one of the earlier loan verbs integrated by means of attaching the existential verb ho- to the borrowed root, which appears to have been kahind-. The unusual accent position suggests the possibility that the original root may have itself been composed, perhaps with the $-d$-element serving originally as a light verb based on the verb 'to give' in Indo-Iranian (de-, $d$-, dān, etc.). The original lexical component might therefore have been kahin-; a metathesis of

Persian negah'to look' is a remote possibility. The choice of subjunctive in $-\check{s}$ will have been triggered as a matter of routine through the inflection basis in ho- and does not necessarily reflect the verb's particular semantics. In fact it is possible that kahind-dates back to a period in which ho- was the only option for integrating loan verbs, i.e. before the verb $-k(a r)$ - became available for this purpose. It is noteworthy that some speakers construct the subjunctive with $-k$-: kahindokam etc. This illustrates the verb's volatility in between the two integration classes. Unusual is also the formation of the past. One would have expected a straightforward perfective marking in $h r$-. It seems that this is obstructed by the impermissible sound cluster $/ \mathrm{dh} /$ at the end of the stem, hence the intruding vowel in -i- (*kahíndhrom $>{ }^{*}$ kahíndihrom $>$ kahíndirom).

### 7.5. Existential predications

### 7.5.1. ho-: Change of state

The verb ho- 'to become' is used in Domari to indicate a change of state. The predication object usually follows the verb:
boy-om eh-r-a grawara
father-1SG become-PAST-M head.man
'My father became head man.'
(30) kēkē $h-r-o m-i$
why become-PAST-1SG-PRG bone-PL
'Why have I become bones ( $=$ lost considerable amount of weight)?'
(31) eh-r-a fayiš bēn portkīl-an-ki ū
become-PAST-M conflict between Jew-OBL.PL-ABL and
musilmīn-an-ki
Muslims-OBL.PL-ABL
'A conflict broke out between the Jews and Muslims.'
(32) atu gara ho-k gard-a
you gone become-2SG healthy-M
'You are going to get well.'

### 7.5.2. aštt: Existence and possession

The existential particle ašti is the only representative in Jerusalem of Domari of the verb paradigm in $\check{s} t$-, which is attested in other varieties of the language (see Chapter 1) and which appears to derive from OIA sthā- 'to stand'. Domari
ašti is a particle that appears only in impersonal and uninflected form, though it can be accompanied by the Arabic auxiliary kān 'was' to express past tense:

| Susmaliy-ēni, | yimkin kān | ašti | wāšī-s |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gold.coin-PRED.PL maybe | was.3SG.M | there.is | with-3SG |

The existential particle serves three major functions. The first is to describe situations and states of affairs by singling out the existence of a relevant entity, or by identifying a topical entity in relation to its location or other attributes:
(34) $\bar{u}$ ašti dōm-ēni quds-a-ma, ašti and there.is Dom-PRED.PL Jerusalem-OBL.F-LOC there.is dōm-ēni bi ïrān-a-ma. bērūtt-a-ma.
Dom-PRED.PL in Iran-OBL.F-LOC Beirut-OBL.F-LOC 'And there are Dom in Jerusalem, there are Dom in Iran, in Beirut.'
(35) ba§dēn ya§ni ba§d sitt iyyām ašti marn-ēni then PART after six days there.is dead-PRED.PL bol pand-am-ma yaini gān-osan kil-d-i. much road-OBL.PL-LOC PART smell-3PL come.out-PAST-F 'Then, after six days, there were many dead people on the streets, you could smell them.'

The second function of ašti is to introduce new topical entities into the discourse. This can serve the purpose of identifying topics that are about to assume a major role in the content of an unfolding narration, or else to define the role of topics by singling them out and clarifying relevant attributes:

| ašti | $e k-a k$ | min | dōm-ē-man-ki | nām-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | one-INDEF | from | Dom-PL-1PL-ABL | name-3SG |

ašti ik-ak portkīliy-ēk wēs-r-ik
there.is one-INDEF Jew.woman-PRED.SG sit-PAST-PRED.SG
ihi balakon-ē-ma $\bar{u}$ min-d-ik
this.F balcony-OBL.F.-LOC and hold-PAST-PRED.SG aha $\varsigma \bar{u} d-a s \quad \bar{u}$ dandín-k-ar-i atnī-s
this.M oud-OBL.M and play-VTR-3SG-PRG on-3SG
'There is a Jewish woman sitting on the balcony and holding an oud and playing it.'
(38) qal ašti diyyes-i xaz-r-e ama-ta
said there.is two-PRED.SG laugh-PAST-3PL me-DAT par-d-e ple minšī-m take-PAST-3PL money from-1SG
'He said there are two people who laughed at me and took money from me.'
ašti hibb-o-d-i dža-n madras-an-ka there.is like-VITR-3PL-PRG go-3PL.SUBJ school-OBL.PL-DAT $\bar{l}$ ašti $\quad n$-hibb-o-d-e, and there.is NEG-like-VITR-3PL-NEG
'There are those who like going to school and there are those who don't.'
(40) zaman-is-ma nohr-an-ki, ašti dōm-ēni time-3SG.OBL-LOC red-OBL.PL-ABL there.is Dom-PRED.PL $k a ̄ n-\bar{u} \quad a w-a n d-a \quad m i n \quad d z ̌ u ̄ d z ̌-a-k i$ was-3PL come-3PL-REM from Egypt-OBL.F-ABL 'During the time of the British there were Dom who used to come from Egypt.'

Finally, ašti can be used to indicate possession:
(41) baßdēn Sarīs, iza ašti wāšī-s bol ple, then groome if there.is with-3SG much money mar-ar-i taran/ taran xāruf kill-3SG-PrG three three lamb 'Then the groom, if he has a lot of money, will slaughter three/ three lambs.'
(42) ama-ke ašti ben-i, Samman-a-ma

1SG-BEN there.is sister-PRED.SG Amman-OBL.F-LOC
žawiz-r-ik
marry-PAST-PRED.SG
'I have a sister, she is married in Amman.'
(43)
ašti nkī-san telefizyon-ēni, tallāž-ēni,
there.is by-3PL television-PRED.PL fridge-PRED.PL
kam-k-ad-i.
work-VTR-3PL-PRG
'They have televisions, fridges, they work.'
7.5.3. The enclitic copula and non-verbal predication markers

We saw above that the existential verb ho- expresses a change of state and typically occupies a position preceding the predicate object, which encodes the outcome of the change. By contrast, the Domari copula or predicate of substantive existential predications is enclitic. The forms and respective positions of the two verbs are nicely illustrated by the following example:

| (44) | $e h-r-i$ | džažan | $\bar{u}$ | pandži | in-džan-ar-e, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | become-PAST-F | pregnant | and | 3SG | NEG-know-3SG-NEG |
|  | inn-hā | džažan-i |  |  |  |
|  | COMP-3SG.F | pregnant-PR | D.S |  |  |
|  | 'She became pregnant and she did |  |  |  |  |

The Domari copula paradigm consists of two separate sets of forms that combine into a single functional frame. The first set is best described as markers of a non-verbal predication: Their role is to induce a predication relationship without relying on the finiteness of a lexical predicate (= a verb). Effectively, they de-couple the initiation of the predication from the presence of a lexical verb. The effect is bi-directional: Predication markers can initiate a predication in relation to an element that is not a verb, such as a noun or pronoun (nominal or pronominal predication), an adjective (adjectival predication), or an adverbial expression of local relations (adverbial predication). They can also 'de-commission' the initiation of a predication by a verbal element by attaching to the lexical part of the verb and turning it into a gerundial form, thereby cancelling its finiteness. Non-verbal predication markers take on the form $-i$ following consonantal stems, $-\bar{e} k$ following stems in $-a$, and $-i k$ following stems in $-i$ :
bar-om grawar-ēk
brother-1SG head.man-PRED.SG
'My brother is the head man.'

dady-om $\quad$| wud-ik |
| :--- |
| grandmother-1SG |
| old-PRED.SG |

'My grandmother is old.'
(47) ihi džuwri dōmiy-ēk
this.F woman Dom.woman-PRED.SG
'This woman is a Dom woman.'

| pandž-ik | illi | kar- $d-a$ | $h \bar{a} d s-\overline{1}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he-PRED.SG | REL | do-PAST-M |  |
| 'It is he who carried out the incident.' |  |  |  |

(49) ben-om kury-a-m-ēk
sister-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
'My sister is in the house.'
(50) šōni minēn-i
girl here-PRED.SG
'The girl is here.'
(51) ben-om ihi-k
sister-1SG this.F-PRED.SG
'My sister is this one. (= It is this one who is my sister.)'
The plural formant in this set is $-\bar{e} n i i^{42}$
(52) $e k-a k-i \quad$ malik-i, ab-us-ke
one-INDEF-PRED.SG king-PRED.SG for-3SG-BEN
xaddā̀m-ēni
servant-PRED.PL
'There is a king, he has servants.'
(53) ša-d-i dom-ēni mangišna-hr-esi $\bar{u}$ hada
say-3PL-PRG Dom-PRED.PL beggar-be-2PL and PART
'They say (these are) Dom, you are beggars, and so on.'
(54) $\check{\text { šird-a tmaliy-an-ke illi }}$
say-PAST-M soldier-OBL.PL-BEN REL
Sīraq-a-m-ēni
Iraq-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.PL
'He spoke to the soldiers who were in Iraq.'
When predication markers are used with lexical verbs, they usually express completed states, represented by attaching the predication marker to the perfective stem of the verb:
(55) wud-a mindir-d-ēk
old-M stand-PAST-PRED.SG
'The old man is standing.'
(56)

[^2](57) ašti ik-ak portkilly-ēk wēs-r-ik there.is one-INDEF Jew.woman-PRED.SG sit-PAST-PRED.SG
ihi balakon-ē-ma $\bar{u}$ min-d-ik
this.F balcony-OBL.F.-LOC and hold-PAST-PRED.SG aha $\operatorname{u} \bar{u} d-a s \quad \bar{u}$ dandinn-k-ar-i atnī-s this.M oud-OBL.M and play-VTR-3SG-PRG on-3SG 'There is a Jewish woman sitting on the balcony and holding an oud and playing it.'

| payy-om | imr-ēk | zamān | ab-us-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| husband-1SG | die.PAST-PRED.SG | time | for-3SG-BEN |
| 'My husband has been dead for a long time.' |  |  |  |

Marginally, however, we also find predication markers accompanying present-stem verbs:
(59) kšal-ēk kursìy-as
pull-PRED.SG chair-OBL.M
'He is pulling the chair.'
As discussed already in Chapters 4 and 5, predication markers often accompany indefinite nouns as well as adjectival modifiers:
(60) a. nan-d-e farriq-k-ad-e gis bring-PAST-3PL distribute-VTR-PAST-3PL all
döm-an-ka ehe hram-an
Dom-OBL.PL-DAT these.PL blankets-OBL.PL
b. nan-d-e hram-ēni emin-kera
bring-PAST-3PL blankets-OBL.PRED.PL 1PL-BEN
c. ihi š-ird-i wāšī-san bizzot-ēni dōm-e
this.F say-PAST-F with-3PL poor-PRED.PL Dom-PL hindar
here
a. 'They brought and distributed these blankets to all the Dom.
b. They brought us blankets.
c. She spoke to them, to the poor Dom here.'
(61) amman ehe kuštot-ēni xarrif-h-od-e, dōm. but these.PL small-PRED.PL speak-VITR-3PPL-NEG Dom 'But the young people don't speak Domari.' ('But these are young people, they don't speak Domari.')
(62) xaz-r-ed-i atnī-s $\bar{u} \quad d e \overline{-} d-s-i$
laugh-PAST-3PL-PRG about-3SG and give-3PL-3SG-PRG
qanin-ak bard-ik pan-ik
bottle-INDEF full-PRED.SG water-PRED.SG
'They've laughed at him and they've given him a bottle full of water.'

| bar-om | par-d-a | Kurdiy-èk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| brother-1SG | take-PAST-M | Kurd.woman-PRED.SG |
| 'My brother married a Kurdish woman.' |  |  |

Predication endings belonging to this set mainly accompany third person entities, but they are occasionally used with other persons as well:
(64) ama kury-a-m-ēk

I house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
'I am at home'
(65) ama minēn-i

I here-PRED.SG
'I am here'
(66) atu mišt-ēk
you ill-PRED.SG
'You are ill'
In such cases, they often alternate with the person-inflected copula forms:
(67) atu dōm-i?
you Dom-PRED.SG
'Are you a Dom?'
(68) att dōm-ahr-or-i?
you Dom-be-2SG-PRG
'Are you a Dom?'
Predication markers have several different etymological sources. The singular ending $-i$ that attaches to consonantal stems derives in all likelihood from a 3SG copula *hi (but see also alternative scenario described in Chapter 2.3 above). The forms that attach to vowels appear to derive from an earlier (though unattested) from *-ek, which, assimilated to the preceding vowel gives $-\bar{e} k$ (after $-a$ ) and $-i k$ (after $-i)$. The plural form -ēni may be a combination of the plural ${ }^{*}$-an (used in Domari as the oblique plural ending of nominals, but also in the nominative in the plural formation of possessive endings such as
-oman 'ours', -oran 'yours'; cf. also the plural of nouns in -in attested in some northern Domari varieties) with the copula form ${ }^{*} h i>i$, triggering umlaut *-an- $i>-\bar{e} n i$. The past tense form combines $-i$ and $-\bar{n} n$ respectively with the remoteness tense marker -a to form -ēya and -ēna:
(69) illi mfäla kān mindir-d-ēy-a hnon

REL crazy was.3SG.M stand-PAST-PRED.SG-REM here 'The crazy one was standing here'
(70) pandži kury-a-m-êy-a

3SG house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG-REM
'He was at home'
In word stems in $-i$ the stem vowel overrides the vowel component of the predication suffix:
(71) tmali
'soldier'
(72) panď̌i tmal-ik

3SG soldier-PRED.SG
' He is a soldier'
(73) pandži tmali-ya

3SG soldier-PRED.SG.REM
'He was a soldier'

The predication markers share some of their key functions as substantiveexistential (copula) verbs with a set of forms derived from the perfective stem of the verb $h r$ - 'to have become'. These are the copula forms that are used for the first and second persons (see Table 69). The perfect tense of the verb ho'to become' has been re-interpreted in the relevant environments to mean 'to be', replacing the older *što- which is attested in this function in other Domari dialects but not in Jerusalem. The present subjunctive remains identical with that of the verb ho- 'to become' but with adjectives it takes an enclitic position, like the indicative copula. The past is formed through attachment of the remoteness marker $-a$, with the optional but frequent addition of the Arabic past-tense copula in its original Arabic inflection, as an accompanying auxiliary. The formal difference between the enclitic copula and the perfect tense of the verb 'to become' is thus their position in the sentence:
(74) ama mudī-hr-om-i

I director-be-1SG-PRG
'I am the director' (enclitic copula)
(75) ama h-r-om-i mudir

I become-PAST-1SG.PRG director
'I have become the director' ('to become' perfect)

Table 69. The enclitic copula

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. Aux | Imperf. | Imperat. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | -hromi | -hōšam | Kunt | -hroma |  |
| 2SG.M | -hrori | -hōs̃í | Kunt | -hrora | -hōšī |
| 2SG.F | -hrori | -hōší | Kunti | -hrora | -hōší |
| 3SG.M | -èk/-i | -hōšar | $k a \bar{n}$ | -ēya |  |
| 3SG.F | -ik/-i | -hōšar | kānat | -èya |  |
| 1PL | -hrēni | -hōšan | kunna | -hrēna |  |
| 2PL | -hrēsi | -hōšas | Kuntū | -hreesa | -hōšas |
| 3PL | -hrendi; -ēni/-ni | -hōšad | $k a ̄ n u$ | -hrenda |  |

The examples below illustrate the distribution of some verbal and nonverbal forms belonging to the enclitic copula paradigm:
(76) a. miša-hr-om-i, n-saka-m-e, kam-k-am. ill-be-1SG-PRG NEG-can-1SG-NEG work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ
b. ama $\bar{u}$ bay-om n-saka-n-e'

I and wife-1SG NEG-can-1PL-NEG
kam-k-an.
work-VTR-1PL.SUBJ
c. mišta-hr-ēn-i, $\bar{u} \quad$ baSdēn tilla-hr-ēn-i
ill-be-1PL-PRG and then big-be-PL-PRG
a. 'I am ill, I cannot work.
b. I and my wife, we cannot work.
c. We are ill and then, we are old.'
(77) da'iman ihni kān-ū š-ad-a emin-ke
always thus was.3PL say-3PL.REM 1PL-Ben
mangišna-hr-es-i itme.
beggar-be-2PL-PRG you.PL
'They always used to say this to us, you are beggars.'
(78) itme qam-è-man hr-es-i
youPL. relatives-PL-1PL be-2PL-PRG
'You are our relatives.'
(79) $w$-eme kaškūtta-hr-ēn-a ma kān-iš ašte and-we small-be-1PL-REM NEG was.3SG.M-NEG there.is

> Kahraba
> electricity
> 'When we were small there was no electricity.'

The position and structure of the enclitic copula can be further illustrated by these contrastive examples (constructed):

Adjectival predication:
(80) ama mišta-hr-om-i

I ill-be-1SG-PRG
'I am ill.'
(81) xužoti kun-t mišta-hr-om-a
yesterday was-1SG ill-be-1SG-REM
'Yesterday I was ill.'
(82) ma bidd-ī mišta-hōš-am

NEG want-1SG ill-be.SUBJ-1SG
'I don't want to be ill.'

Nominal predication:

```
ama grawara-hr-om-i
I head.man-be-1SG-PRG
    'I am the head man.'
```

(84) waxt-is-ma kun-t grawara-hr-om-a time-3SG.OBL-LOC was-1SG head.man-be-1SG-REM 'At the time I was the head man.'
(85) ma bidd-ī hōš-am grawara NEG want-1SG be/become.SUBJ-1SG head.man 'I don't want to become the head man.'

Adverbial predication:
(86) ama kury-a-ma-hr-om-i

I house-OBL.F-LOC-be-1SG-PRG
'I am in the house.'
(87) xužoti kun-t kury-a-ma-hr-om-a
yesterday was-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC-be-1SG-REM
'Yesterday I was in the house.'
(88) ma bidd-ī hōš-am kury-a-ma

NEG want-1SG be/become.SUBJ-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC
'I don't want to be in the house.'

The copula is the only predicative element in Jerusalem Domari that has retained its enclitic or phrase-final position. Domari lexical verbs otherwise follow the same principles of linear distribution in the sentence as their Arabic counterparts. The reason for this might be found in the typological mismatch between Domari and Arabic in the structure of the copula verb. Arabic has nominal, adjectival, and adverbial predications that do not require either a finite or an alternative predication element:

| (89) | 'ana | Sayyān |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | I | ill |
|  | 'I am |  |
| (90) | 'ana | I-muxtār |
|  | I | DEF-head.man |
|  | 'I am | he head man.' |
| (91) | 'ana |  |
|  | I | in DEF-house |
|  | 'I am | in the house.' |

However, this structure in only possible in the present tense. In the past tense , Arabic draws on the inflected existential verb K.w.n.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { (92) mbāreh } & \text { kun-t } & \text { Sayyān } \\ \text { yesterday was-1SG } & \text { ill } \\ & \text { 'Yesterday I was ill.' }\end{array}$
Domari thus aligns itself with the typology of Arabic while maintaining its own historical legacy: The enclitic position of the Domari copula does not seem to contradict the overall rules on the distribution of stand-alone finite lexical verbs, which match those of Arabic. The linear layout of past-tense existential predications converges with that of Arabic by adopting the Arabic past-tense copula on a wholesale basis, with its person inflection, as a pasttense auxiliary to the enclitic copula. This auxiliary also accompanies the impersonal existential ašti to form its past tense:
(93) $\bar{u}$ kān ašti ama-ke ben-ak-i and was.3SG.M there.is I-BEN sister-INDEF-PRED.SG 'And I used to have a sister.'

### 7.6. Tense, aspect and modality

7.6.1. The structure, function and distribution of tense and aspect categories

Disregarding the subjunctive augment $-\breve{s}$ - and variation in the person marker for the 2 SG as well as phonologically-conditioned fluctuation and marginal suppletion, issues that were dealt with in section 7.4 above, the Domari system of tense-aspect modality consists formally of two structural dimensions: The first is the (aspectual) opposition between present or non-perfective stem and past or perfective stem, conveying the semantic opposition of non-completion versus completion of the action. This dimension is represented by the presence or absence of a perfective marker and partly by the phonological (or, in the case of suppletive verbs, lexical) shape of the verb stem. It is shared in principle by all languages of the Indo-Iranian macro-family and thus it represents an ancient and stable structural legacy. The second dimension is the temporal dimension. It is represented by vowel markers which are positioned at the extreme end of the verb layout, external even to the relatively young person concord markers (see sections 7.1 and 7.3 ), and which are unstressed, suggesting that they are the product of a rather late development in the language's history.

These external tense markers appear symmetrically with both aspectual stems, present and past. There are two such markers. The first is $-i$, which represents a proximate, ongoing event or activity whose progress (hence 'progressive') can be observed or experienced in the immediate interaction context. The second, $-a$, represents a remote event or activity that is inaccessible from within the ongoing interaction context. The absence of an external tense marker is equally meaningful: With the present stem it represents the absence of a progressive unfolding of the event or action and so the dependency of the event or action on the fulfillment of external conditions - hence subjunctive (karam 'that I do, I should do'). With the past stem it represents the inability to relate the completion of the event directly to any situational circumstances, and so the dependency of the truth value of the statement made about it on the reliability and subjective authority of the speaker. In this respect the simple, unmodified past is a declarative mode (kardom 'I did'), while the modified, contextualised perfect is an evidencebased mode of presentation (kardom-i' 'I have done'). The remoteness marker -a does not interfere with the internal structure of the event, but transposes it away from the perspective of the ongoing interaction context and into the realm of the unreachable and inaccessible. Thus a present-stem remote event is one that is portrayed as not yet completed, but in spite of that is removed and so not within reach of the present speech situation. This characterises the imperfect or habitual past (karam-a 'I was doing, I used to do'). The perfective
(past) stem, when modified by the remoteness marker, conveys an event that is both completed and, in its resulting form or product, inaccessible in the present speech setting. This characterises the pluperfect, anterior past or counterfactual $\operatorname{mood}$ (kardom-a 'I had done, I would have done').

Table 70 repeats the overview of inflectional tense-aspect-modality categories in Domari that was already provided for individual verb groups in section 7.4.

Table 70. Overview of inflectional tense-aspect-modality categories: ban-'to shut'

|  | Pres.Ind. | Subj. | Imperf. | Past | Perf. | Pluperf. | Imperat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | banami | banam | banama | bandom | bandomi | bandoma |  |
| 2SG | banēk | ban | banēya | bandor | bandori | bandora | ban |
| 3SG.M | banari | banar | banara | banda | bandēk | bandēya |  |
| 3SG.F | banari | banar | banara | bandi | bandik | bandēya |  |
| 1PL | banani | banan | banana | bandēn | bandēni | bandēna |  |
| 2PL | banasi | banas | banasa | bandēs | bandēsi | bandēsa | banas |
| 3PL | bana(n)di | banad | bana(n)da | bande | bandēdi | bandēda |  |

Although it is attractive to trace the affix -i that follows person concord markers in the present (1SG -ami, 3SG -ari etc.) directly to the ancestor forms in MIA (1SG -ami, 3SG -ati etc.), it seems that its appearance in both the present and past paradigms is at the very least reinforced by the independent copula *hi and that its present function is inspired by an external model. That model is likely to have been Kurdish or perhaps another Iranian language where the 3SG copula forms an agglutinating uniform affix across all persons in the paradigm and serves to contextualise the past-tense predication: cf. Kurdish ketim 'I fell', çûm 'I went', but ketime 'I have fallen, çûme 'I have gone'. The reading of 'perfect' is applicable to some varieties of Kurdish, while others make use of the extended form as a kind of evidential or sometimes as a specific narrative tense. Domari has developed both the contextualising-progressive $-i$ and a counterpart de-contextualising, remoteness marker - a. Romani has developed a similar, uniform external tense marker ${ }^{*}$-asi (in the individual dialects usually $-a s,-a,-s$, or $-a h i$ ) which also has a remoteness meaning.

The perfective or past that lacks contextual-progressive modification is the default past, which focuses on the event or action without implying any statement about the relevance of that event or action to the ongoing communicative interaction setting:
(94) qal ama lak-ed-om ihi soōn-ik
said I see-PAST-1SG this.F girl-PRED.SG
wēs-r-ik balkon-ē-ma
sit-PAST-PRED.SG balcony-OBL.F.-LOC
'He said, I saw this girl sitting on the balcony.'
(95) qal ya 'ustāz ama gar-om Sal-urctumn $\bar{u}$
said PART sir I go.PAST-1SG to.DEF-Jordan and
lake-d-om aha dzamil l-¢āşy-as.
see-PAST-1SG this.M Jamil 1-Aas
'He said Sir, I went to Jordan and I met this Jamil 1-Aas.'
(96) mudīr š-ar-i ab-us-ke min krēn
director say-3SG-PRG for-3SG-BEN from where
dz̈an-d-or atu ihi šōniy-a?
know-PAST-2SG you this.F girl-OBL.F
'The director says to him, where did you know this girl from?'
As in Arabic, Domari uses the simple past as a conditional:
(97) qal iza garīr-or marra tānī Sal-ıurdumn said if return-PAST-2SG time second to.DEF-Jordan $\bar{u}$ lak-ed-or dz̈amil-as s'il-kar-is: and see-PAST-2SG Jamil-OBL.M ask-VTR.SUBJ-3SG.OBL 'He said if you returned a second time to Jordan and saw Jamil ask him:'

| (98) | lak-ird-om-ir | kil-d-or | bara |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| see-PAST-1SG-2SG.OBL | exit-PAST-2SG | outside |  |
| mar-am-r-i |  |  |  |
| kill-1SG-2SG-PRG |  |  |  |
| 'If I see you going out I will kill you.' |  |  |  |

The perfect, by contrast, emphasises the immediate contextual relevance of an accomplished event, state, or action. Note first of all the incompatibility of the perfect when a remote time specification is made:


The perfect is selected when the result of the action can be derived or proven based on situational evidence, or when it has direct relevance to shaping the immediate situation:


With verbs expressing state and condition, the perfect usually represents the actuality of the accomplished state and is often used in the sense of a present tense: consider weštami 'I sit (habitually)' but wēsromi 'I am seated'; bagami 'I break', but bagiromi! 'I am exhausted' (lit. 'I have been broken'); šlušami 'I sleep', but sitomi 'I am sleeping/ I have fallen asleep'; byami 'I fear', but biromi 'I am scared'. The Domari perfect is also generally the tense chosen by speakers to translate Arabic present participles expressing state: Arabic inte nāyem 'you are asleep' > Domari atu sitori 'You have fallen asleep', while the present $\check{l l} \bar{s} \check{s} e \bar{k}$ 'you sleep' has habitual meaning ('You generally sleep', e.g. 'at home' or 'early in the morning'), and the unspecified past sitor may refer to a state that is not contextually relevant, that is, does not extend into the present speech situation (e.g. 'You slept well last night'). For verbs indicating a change of state, there is a strong tendency for the perfect to take over all instances of immediate contextual relevance, reducing the present to habitual
readings; thus da'iman byami 'I am always frightened', but hesṣa§ biromi 'I am now frightened'. Against this background it is easy to understand the transposition of the perfect of the existential verb, hromi 'I have become', to its present-tense copula meaning 'I am'.

The imperfect, composed of the present stem with a remoteness marker -a, is used to express events that are portrayed as non-completed and so either habitual or repetitive or still unfolding, but which are situated remotely in time and space from the present speech situation and so do not overlap with the interaction context:
(106) boy-os kam-k-ar-a baladiy-ē-ma
father-3SG work-VTR-3SG-REM municipality-OBL.F.-LOC
'His father used to work for the municipality.'

| (107) a. | ašti <br> there.is | pl-e | law ašti | bass |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | jal-ak <br> expensive-INDEF | d-dinya | DEF-life |  |

b. aha bantalon par-an-s-a nim zard
this.M trousers take-1PL-3SG-REM half gold zard-ak, gold-INDEF
c. l-yōm par-an-s-i bi talātīn līra today take-1PL-3SG-PRG in thirty lira.PL aha bantalon-i.
this.NOM trousers-PRED.SG
a. 'There may be money, but life is expensive.
b. We used to buy these trousers for half a pound or one pound.
c. Nowadays we buy them for thirty pounds, [that's what] these trousers are.'

The Arabic past-tense copula $k \bar{a} n / k u n-$ is often used to reinforce the imperfect, modelled on the Arabic imperfect, which consists of the auxiliary $k a ̈ n / k u n-a c c o m p a n y i n g ~ t h e ~ p r e s e n t-s u b j u n c t i v e ~ o r ~ t h e ~ p r e s e n t ~ p a r t i c i p l e: ~$

| (108)kull <br> every day <br> day <br> 'I used to go to town every day.' | dža-m-a | ūyar-ta |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |


| $\bar{u}$ | da'iman | lamma | bidd-hā | $d z ̌ a-r$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | always | when | want-3SG.F | go-3SG.SUBJ |


a. 'And when she wanted to go out she always used to take her with her and so on,
b. and she left me at home to wipe and to scrub.'

The pluperfect, which also relies on the remoteness or de-contextualising suffix $-a$, is most frequently encountered in counterfactual constructions. Here, an uninflected form of Arabic $k a \bar{n}$ is used, copying the use of uninflected $k a ̈ n$ in such constructions in Arabic:
$\begin{array}{cllll}\text { (110) law } & \text { wāšī-m } & \text { ple } & k a ̄ n & t \text {-om- } r \text {-a } \\ \text { if } & \text { with-1SG } & \text { money } & \text { was.3SG.M } & \text { give.PAST-1SG-2SG-REM }\end{array}$ 'If I had had money I would have given it to you.'
(111) law er-om xužoti kān
if come.PAST-1SG yesterday was.3SG.M
lah-erd-om-s-a
see-PAST-1SG-3SG-REM
'If I had come yesterday I would have seen him.'
(112) kān
ihi par-d-iy-a
was.3SG.M this.F take-PAST-PRED.SG-REM
bakalor-is
baccalaureate-3SG.OBL
'She would have received her baccalaureate.'

### 7.6.2. The subjunctive

Domari aligns itself with various languages of the region - Persian, Kurdish, Neo-Aramaic, Arabic, Azeri - in showing no (or merely a reduced) modal infinitive. The usual way to express an embedded non-factual predication in most languages of the Anatolian-Mesopotamian linguistic area is through a distinct subjunctive mood. The loss or reduction of the infinitive extends also to Romani and its principal Anatolian contact language, Modern Greek, and of course to the languages of the Balkans. Although we have no direct attestation
of earlier forms of Domari, it is safe to assume that the language's forerunner, like all other early New Indo-Aryan languages, did make use of non-finite verb forms, especially in embeddings and modal constructions. Domari will have lost its infinitive through contact.

Although older stages of the language may have had a distinct optative mood, there is no evidence of any direct continuation of such a structure into present-day Domari. Instead there are two principles guiding the structural composition of the Domari subjunctive. The first is the use of the present stem in the absence of a temporal specification (through either progressivecontextual $-i$ or remote $-a$ ). This is an iconic representation of a verb-form that is tense-less and which can only be contextualised by being dependent on another, matrix predication. Whether the subjunctive became marked historically through the omission of tense markers, or whether the subjunctive in fact represents the direct continuation of the MIA present-indicative conjugation, is open to speculation. By comparison, Romani too uses the 'short' forms of the present stems as a subjunctive, whereas 'long' forms (with addition of $-a$ ) are reserved for the indicative, future, declarative or conditional. In any event it is clear that the plain present stem that now serves as a subjunctive has a long history within the language.

The second structural formation of the Domari subjunctive appears to be of younger age. It involves, as mentioned already in section 7.4 above, the addition of an augment morpheme to the present stem. This augment is pronounced $/ \check{s} /$ by most speakers today, but some of the most elderly speakers still use the affricate pronunciation $/ \mathrm{c} /$, which is also the one recorded by Macalister (1914). We can therefore assume that in historical context it is correct to speak of a subjunctive augment $-c \bar{c}$-that entered the language at some point in its earlier history. The form is not particular to Palestinian Domari, and can also be found in the Domari of Aleppo with verbs such as 'to enter' and 'to come' (Herin 2012). The composition of the augment and its position between stem and person ending suggest that its origin may have been in a grammaticalised auxiliary verb, which at some earlier point may have carried its own person inflection. Its present position in the word also suggests that it was incorporated into the language at a point when auxiliaries were still postposed to lexical verbs, which more or less rules out contact with Iranian (or Arabic) as a likely trigger (for replication of the pattern) or source (of the morpheme itself). Barr's (1943) suggestion that the subjunctive augment represents the Kurdish verb çûn 'to go' must therefore be rejected. On the other hand, postposed auxiliaries in $\check{c}$ - and $\check{c h}$ - are widespread in Indo-Aryan (the latter going back to the MIA copula acchai), especially in the languages of the northern parts of the sub-continent (Kashmiri, Assamese, Nepali, Bengali, but also Gujarati, where it derives from the OIA verb kṣi- 'to dwell, exist'; cf.

Masica 1991: 285). Modern Kashmiri in fact has as its main present-tense auxiliary the verb chu, which however is preposed to the lexical verb.

Apart from the form of the augment, there are two further clues as to its possible origin and emergence. As we saw in section 7.4, the subjunctive augment appears only with some verbs. These are the verbs 'to be', all intransitive derivations (passives), the verbs 'to go out', 'to enter', 'to descend', 'to return', 'to stand', 'to play', 'to dance', 'to cry', and 'to sleep', as well as, restricted to the second person, 'to travel' Once we disentangle the effects of metathesis, we can also add 'to flee', 'to run', 'to sit', and 'to laugh' to the list. It is thus clear that the subjunctive $-\check{c}$ - augment favours verbs of motion, emotion, state, and change of state. It also appears that its path into the language involves the manipulative-imperative form. This is evident from the occasional asymmterical distribution of the augument, which favours the second person (singular and plural) over other persons, and it is also evident from the fact that the subjunctive augment accommodates the same person endings as the indicative paradigm with the exception of one, and that is the second person singular, for which the augment carries its own particular form, $-\bar{i}$. This person ending in turn adds a further possible clue to the origin of the augment. The form $-\bar{i}$ for the second person singular is rare in Indo-Aryan, but common in Iranian, where the historical ending *-asi went through a process of aspiration to ${ }^{*}$-ahi leading to $-\bar{i}$ (e.g. in both Kurdish and Persian). While we know that person concord affixes are very rarely borrowed from one language to another in isolation (cf. Matras 2009), the possibility of a wholesale incorporation of a postposed, emphatic imperative auxiliary to encourage motion, based on the root $\check{c}$ - from a medieval form of an Indo-Iranian contact variety must be considered a realistic possibility. The marker will have then made its way from the command form to modal dependent uses for other persons as well, and from verbs denoting physical motion to related, somewhat more abstract meanings involving transformation and states, and finally, in some cases, also from the subjunctive into the indicative paradigm.

The present-day uses of the Domari subjunctive are very similar to those of its counterparts in Arabic, Kurdish, Neo-Aramaic and other languages of the area. It encodes non-factual events that are dependent either implicitly on the realisation of an intention, or explicitly on the realisation of a condition expressed by the matrix predicate. The subjunctive appears independently of a matrix predicate in expressions of intention, which come close to expressing a future tense. Note that in two of the cases, the intentionality is supported by a subjunctive particle, $t a$ and la, both adopted from Arabic:


Further uses of the subjunctive independently of embeddings and a matrix predicate can be found when the intentionality is derived either from the speech situation and the illocutionary structure of the utterance (a question targeting intentions and wishes, or a command), or through the description of circumstances that serve in effect as equivalent to a matrix verb:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
t \text {-ar } & \text { ab-ur-ke } & \text { kōla? }  \tag{116}\\
\text { put-3SG.SUBJ for-2SG-BEN } & \text { cola? } \\
\text { 'Should she pour you some cola?' }
\end{array}
$$

(117) nan
fray-ē-m war-k-am-san
bring.2SG.SUBJ clothes-PL-1SG wear-VTR-1SG.SUBJ-3PL
'Bring my clothes so that I can put them on.'
(118) bass n-h-e' ple tSallim-hōš-ar aktar
but NEG-is-NEG money study-VITR-3SG.SUBJ more
'But there is no money for her to carry on studying.'
Purpose clauses also provide a structure through which the conditions on the possible or prospective realisation of the action captured in the subjunctive mood are outlined:

| (119) | $g a r-a$ | $t a$ | lak-ar | dōm-an | ma |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | go.PAST-M | PART | see-3SG.SUBJ | Dom-OBL.PL | NEG |
|  | lak-ed-osan |  |  |  |  |
|  | 'He went to | dhe | [but] he cou | tind them.' |  |
| (120) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kil-d-i } \\ & \text { exit-PAST-F } \end{aligned}$ | kury-a <br> house | OBL.F-ABL | $\begin{aligned} & \text { r-r-om } \\ & \text { er-PAST-1SG } \end{aligned}$ | mandža inside |
|  | la qaft | m | di mana |  |  |
|  | PART stea | SG.SU | J two bread |  |  |
|  | 'She left the | se, | inside to | wo loaves |  |

The subjunctive mood is otherwise a consistent feature of embedded verbs that are the complements of matrix verbs denoting emotions, intentions, or power relations. As in other languages, it is possible for the subject of the matrix verb to differ from that of the embedded predicate, in which case a socalled 'manipulation' reading (the influence of one actor on another) is provided. The interpretation of 'manipulation' in this context is broad and can engulf anything from fear to direct permission:
(121) $b$-y-am-i fumn-ar-is
fear-ITR-1SG-PRG hit-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL
'I am afraid that he will hit her.'

| payy-om | man-ar-m-e' | kil-š-am |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| husband-1SG | let-3SG-1SG-NEG | exit-SUBJ-1SG |
| 'My husband doesn't allow me to go out.' |  |  |

The modal particle xallī from Arabic (Arabic yxallī 'to allow'), carrying Arabic object agreement, is used productively for prompting actions:
(123) xallī-nā skum-hōš-an yalni hnēna
let-1PL live-VITR.SUBJ-1PL PART here
'Let us live here.'

| (124)xallī-hā $d z ̌ a-r$ | Sand | payy-is-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| let-3SG.F | go-3SG.SUBJ |  |
| 'Let her go to her husband.' |  |  |

Verbs expressing preferences may be employed as matrix verbs with subjunctive complements:

| (125) ama | in-mang-am-é' | piy-am | gulda |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | NEG-like-1SG-NEG | drink-1SG.SUBJ | tea |
| 'I don't like to drink tea.' |  |  |  |



Use of the subjunctive is otherwise conventionalised in same-subject constructions with the modal verbs saka- 'to be able to', and bidd- 'to want', as well as with the impersonal modality marker lāzim 'must':
(127) ama in-saka-m-e, bag-am yamin-i

I NEG-can-1SG-NEG break-1SG.SUBJ oath-PRED.SG 'I can't break an oath.'
(128) mišta-hr-om-i, saka-m-e, kam-k-am. ama
ill-be-1SG-PRG can-1SG-NEG work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ I
$\bar{u}$ boy-os saka-n-e, kam-k-an
and father-3SG can-1PL-NEG work-VTR-1PL.SUBJ 'I am ill, I cannot work. I and her father cannot work.'
uhu waxt-as-ma kān hibb-or-i
that time-OBL.M-LOC was.3SG.M love-3SG-PRG
$i k-a k \quad \bar{u} \quad h a d a \quad \bar{u} \quad s a k-r-\bar{e} y-e$,
one-INDEF and PART and can-PAST-PRED.SG-REM
par-ar-is $\bar{u}$ hada
take-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL and PART
'At that time he was in love with somebody and so on and he could not marry her and so on.'
(130) ama mang-am-i ihi domiy-ē bidd-ī

I like-1SG-PRG this.F Dom.woman-OBL.F want-1SG
par-am itžawwiz-om-is
take-1SG.SUBJ marry-1SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL
'I like this Dom woman, I want to take her and marry her.'
(131) ehe dōm-e qal lak, bidd-ak Sīš-hōš-ī
these.PL Dom-PL said look want-2SG live-SUBJ-2SG
wāšī-man?
with-1PL
'These Dom said look, do you want to live with us?'


Note that bidd- can also express, as in Arabic, likelihood and so anticipated or future tense events:


Finally, the Arabic impersonal particle lāzem is the primary modal expression of necessity and of course also triggers the subjunctive in its complement verb:
(134) lāzem atu saSid-kar-ē-man
must you help-VTR-2SG-1PL
'You must help us.'
(135) $\bar{u}$ itme lāzem mașīr-oran hōš-as inni
and you.PL must destinity-2PL be.SUBJ-2PL COMP
bass janni-kar-as $\bar{u}$ naší-š-as
only sing-VTR-2PL.SUBJ and dance-SUBJ-2PL
'And your destiny must be that you should only sing and dance.'

### 7.6.3. Modals and auxiliaries

Domari employs a series of modal and aspectual auxiliaries that modify the structure of predications. In order to clarify the borderline between auxiliaries and sentence or modal particles, I define auxiliaries as word forms that are directly linked specifically to the main lexical predicate rather than to the overall propositional content of the utterance. Formally, auxiliaries also tend to exhibit the structure of person-inflected verbs and in some cases they even
show independent tense and aspect inflection too, while particles are by definition uninflected (see chapter 3 on Parts of Speech). There are a number of exceptions in which auxiliaries are represented by 'frozen' inflected forms, i.e. they derive from an inflected form but their inflection is not productive, or else they show restricted inflection.

Perhaps the most extraordinary feature of Domari auxiliaries is that they are all, with the sole exception of saka- 'to be able to', replicated from Arabic. We might call this a 'wholesale' replication as it involves both a full class of functionally related items, that is, the Arabic system of modal and aspectual auxiliaries is replicated as a whole; and since the material that is replicated covers not just the lexical word forms but also their entire grammatical inflection, which in turn is diverse (i.e. not all auxiliaries inflect in the same way). This is theoretically intriguing, for several reasons. Firstly, although languages in contact are known to borrow verbs including auxiliary verbs, it is very rare for languages to borrow finite inflection markers on the verb, be they person markers or tense-aspect markers, and it is even more seldom that we encounter the borrowing of an entire finite inflection paradigm that is borrowed alongside a verb. A notable exception are some of the Romani dialects of the Balkans, which borrow Turkish verbs along with their Turkish inflection. This phenomenon is also incipient in Romani dialects in Russia and Greece, where inflected verbs are borrowed together with their inflection. Nonetheless even in these cases the compartmentalisation is not functional; verbs are borrowed as verbs, not as grammatical operators. Other Romani dialects borrow individual modal verbs with parts of their original conjugation, e.g. Serbian moram 'I must', mora 'he must' in the Gurbet Romani dialects of southeastern Europe (cf. Matras 2002: 134, 207).

Still, the state of affairs in Jerusalem Domari is rare. Even Macalister (1914) describes the use of Arabic auxiliaries in the dialect as frozen forms, without a productive inflection. This appears to have changed over the past few generations. One might now regard the entire system of auxiliaries as somewhat metaphorically - 'delegated' out of the language and into Arabic. In reality, what Domari language users are doing is simply generalising their system of auxiliary verbs across their repertoire of linguistic structures to enable it to be drawn upon in any communicative interaction setting, regardless of its participant constellation, contextual content, degree of formality, and so on (cf. Chapter 1). We have here a further example of a functional sub-system of the grammatical apparatus that cannot simply be assigned to one 'language' or another in the bilingual's repertoire, but which serves all settings in which the bilingual communicates, or, in traditional terms, it transcends language boundaries.

Table 71. Major Arabic-derived auxiliaries (with šar- 'to hide')

|  | $k$ ān 'used to do' | șār ' ${ }^{\text {began }}$ to do' | bidd- 'want to do' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | kunt sarama | șirt šarami | biddí šaram |
| 2SG.M | kunt saraèya | șirt saràēk | biddak sarar |
| 2SG.F | kuntī šarēya | șiitiȯ saràek | biddek săar |
| 3SG.M | kān šarara | șār šarari | biddo šarar |
| 3SG.F | kānat sarara | șārat šarari | biddhā šarar |
| 1PL | kunnā šarana | șimā šarani | biddnā šaran |
| 2 PL | kuntū šarasa | șirtū šarasi | biddkom šaras |
| 3PL |  | șârū Šara(n)di | biddhom šarad |
|  | baqa 'went on to do' | xalli' ${ }^{\text {co }}$ let do' | dall- 'to keep doing' |
| 1SG | baqēt šarama | xalli-ni saram | dallètní săarami |
| 2SG.M | baqēt šarēya |  | dallēt sarèk |
| 2SG.F | baqēti sarǎèya |  | dallêttí šarêk |
| 3SG.M | baqa šarara | xalli-h sarar | dallo šarari |
| 3SG.F | baqat šarara | xalli-hā šarar | dallhā sarari |
| 1 PL | baqēnā šarana |  | dallètnā šarani |
| 2PL | baqêtū sarasa |  | dallètkū šarasi |
| 3PL | baqū sara(n)da | xalli-hom šarad | dallhom sara(n)di |

Table 71 provides a patial overview of some of the principal auxiliaries, their inflectional behaviour and the agreement and inflection patterns that they govern in respect of their complement lexical verb.

We can divide the inventory of auxiliaries into modal and aspectual. The first, modal auxiliaries, establish the conditions under which a foreseen or intended action might take place in reality. Modality is thus inherently linked to non-factuality. These modals tend to trigger the use of the subjunctive in the complement or main lexical verb that they modify. In the previous section we already discussed examples of the following modal auxiliaries that govern the subjunctive mood on the complement verb: The pre-Arabic inflected verb saka- 'to be able to' carries inherited Indic subject concord that agrees with the subject of the complement verb. The Arabic inflected nominal auxiliary bidd'to want' carries Arabic person (possessive) inflection, which equally agrees with the subject of the embedded lexical verb of the complement. The Arabic lexical verb hibb- 'to wish, like' in conjunction with a complement lexical verb is used as an auxiliary, adapting to Domari loan-verb inflection patterns for intransitives (-ho-, past -ro- etc.). The Arabic impersonal auxiliary xalli'to allow' takes Arabic pronominal object-agreement with the targeted or intended subject of the main, complement predicate. Finally, the Arabic noninflected (impersonal) modal auxiliary lāzim 'must' also governs the subjunctive in the complement.

Aspectual auxiliaries are those that characterise the unfolding of the factual event captured by the complement verb in relation to its initiation and termination, its duration, frequency and repetition, continuation, and present perspective. The Arabic past-tense existential verb $k \bar{a} n$ - is used along with its Arabic inflection to reinforce the remoteness aspect of the imperfect tense that conveys habituality, repetition or continuity:

| (136) a. | $\begin{array}{lllll}k a ̄ n-\bar{u} & \text { gǐ̌s } & \text { dōm-e } & \text { skum-ahr-end-a } & h n e \bar{n} \\ \text { was-3PL all } & \text { Dom-PL } & \text { live-VITR-3PL-REM } & \text { here }\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| b. | $\bar{u}$ $k a ̄ n-\bar{u}$ skunn-ond-a $k u r y-\bar{e}-s-m a$ <br> and was-3PL live-VITR.3PL-REM house-PL-3SG-LOC |
|  | hay-ki/ fall-as-ki |
|  | PART-ABL canvas-OBL.M-ABL |
| c. | musilmīn-e kān-ū fēm-and-a inglīziy-an, <br> Muslims-PL was-3PL hit-3PL-REM English-OBL.PL |
|  | nohr-an, |
|  | English-OBL.PL |
| d. | $\bar{u}$ aw-ad-a ehe musilmin-e |
|  | and come-3PL-REM these.PL Muslims-PL |
|  | šar-y-ad-a xašabiyy-ē-s-ma dōm-an-ki |
|  | hide-ITR-3PL-REM hut-PL-3SG-LOC Dom-OBL.PL-ABL |
| a. | 'All the Dom used to live here. |
| b. | And they used to live in tents from canvas. |
| c. | The Muslims were fighting the English, |
| d. | And the Muslims used to come and hide in the wooden huts of the Dom.' |

The Arabic verb șār- 'to become' is used, as in Arabic, in conjunction with another complement verb to indicate the initiation of an action ('to begin'). Here too the Arabic inflection is replicated in Domari. Note that the mood of the complement verb may fluctuate between subjunctive and indicative:

| (137)$\bar{l}$ baSdēn sirt | kam-k-am <br> and <br> then | began.1SG | work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ | $n$ at-3SG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kull dīs |  |  |  |  |
| every day |  |  |  |  |
| 'And after that I started to work for her every day.' |  |  |  |  |


| $s \bar{a} r-a t$ | $\check{s}$-ari | $a b-u s-k e$ | ama | bidd- $\overline{/} /$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| began-3SG.F | say-3SG | for-3SG-BEN | I | want-1SG |

bidd-ī džawuz-hōš-am
want-1SG marry-VITR.SUBJ-1SG
'She started to tel him I want to/ I want to get married.'
A further fully inflected Arabic auxiliary is baqa-, whose original independent meaning is 'to stay'. In its function as an auxiliary it carries the meaning 'to continue' in a repetitive manner. When relating to repetitive past events, the complement verb appears in the imperfect:
(139) $\bar{u}$ baq- $\bar{e} t \quad$ radžo-h-om-s-a yaSni
and stayed-1SGask-VITR-1SG-3SG-REM PART
waddi-kar-im madras-è-ka
send-VTR-1SG.SUBJ school-OBL.F-DAT
'And I kept asking her to send me to school.'
(140) baq-ēt dža-m-a Kam-k-am-a
stayed-1SGgo-1SG-REM work-VTR-1SG-REM
'I kept going to work.'
The Arabic verb root battil- 'to cease' is integrated into the Domari templates for non-agentive loan verbs. The complement appears in the subjunctive:

| (141) min waqt-iyis-ki | battil-ah-r-a |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| from time-3SG.OBL-ABL | stop-VITR-PAST-M |
| fumn-ar-im |  |
| beat-3SG.SUBJ-1SG |  |
| 'From that moment he stopped beating me.' |  |

The Arabic auxiliary dallo (from the verb dall- 'to remain') is used to indicate persistence of an action ('to keep doing'). Its unusually hybrid subject-possessive inflection paradigm is replicated from Arabic:
(142) par-ar-i hašis-a py-ar-i ū
take-3SG-PRG hashish-OBL.F smoke-3SG-PRG and
absar 'iší, dall-o xašt-ar-i: lāš-ik
PART remain-3SG.M laugh-3SG-PRG girl-PRED.SG
nan ama-ke ple nan
bring.SUBJ.2SG 1SG-BEN money bring.SUBJ.2SG
ama-ke ple
1SG-BEN money
'He takes the hashish and smokes it and I don't know what, he keeps on laughing: girl give me money, give me money.' $\begin{array}{llll}\text { gar-i } & \check{s}-i r d-i & \text { day-is-ke } & \text { qal } \\ \text { go.PAST-F } & \text { say-PAST-F } & \text { mother-3SG.OBL-BEN } & \text { said }\end{array}$ putr-or dall-o fumn-ar-i ben-im son-2SG remain-3SG.M hit-3SG-PRG sister-1SG.OBL 'She went and said to his mother, she said your son keeps beating my sister.'

The impersonal auxiliary Sawid (from the Arabic participle Sāwid 'returning') is used to indicate an action that repeats a similar action that preceded it involving the same actors and/or restoring a similar state of affairs:
(144) Sawid par-d-ēn kury-a sūr-as-k-ēk
again take-PAST-1PL house-OBL.F wall-OBL.M-DAT-PRED.SG 'Once again we bought a house adjoining the wall.'
(145) Sawid garī-r-ēn
again return-PAST-1PL kury-ē-man-ta hindar quds-a-ma house-PL-1PL-DAT here Jerusalem-OBL.F-LOC 'Once again we returned to our houses here in Jerusalem.'

Finally, the Domari form gara, literally 'he went', is used as a calque on the Arabic uninflected particle räh which indicates a proximate future:
(146) pandžan gara bisāwa-h-od-i
they went marry-VITR-3PL-PRG
'They are going to get married.'
(147) atu gara ho-k garda
you went become-2SG well
'You are going to get well.'

## Chapter 8

## Local and temporal relations

### 8.1. The encoding of case relations

Domari makes use of several distinct categories of structural resources for the expression of spatial relations and those pertaining to thematic (semantic) roles, some of which are also extended to temporal relations. Layer II inflectional case markers figure prominently in encoding thematic roles and spatial relations. They have been dealt with in detail in Chapter 4.3.5 and the discussion will not be repeated here. A small set of inherited spatial expressions is presented in Table 72. These expressions show various syntactic behaviour patterns. Some are adverbial in nature and follow the noun in the locative case:
(1) Kurya-ma bara
house-LOC outside
'outside the house'
Others behave like inflected nominals that modify another noun in a possessive-genitive construction:
(2) čanč-is-ma kurya-ki
next-3SG.OBL-LOC house-ABL
'next to the house'
Other expressions are genuine prepositions that precede a noun in the ablative case:
(3) paši kurya-ki
behind house-ABL
'behind the house'

Table 72. Inherited spatial expressions

| mandža | 'inside' | axar | 'below' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bara | 'outside' | paší | 'behind' |
| atun | 'above' | canč- | 'next to' |
| agir | 'in front of' |  |  |

A further closed set of expressions is reserved for pronominal objects (see Table 73). We can refer to them as person-inflected spatial relations markers, or alternatively as case-inflected pronominal expressions (see Chapter 6.1.2). Each one of these markers corresponds to a counterpart expression that is used to modify full nouns. Etymologically the set is of a hybrid or mixed character. The forms $a t n-$ and $a b$-appear to derive from Indic adverbial and pronominal expressions, respectively (cf. Domari atmn 'above'). The origin of $n k$ - is less clear, while 〔ank-seems to represent a contamination between $n k$ - and the Arabic preposition San 'about, of' The comitative forms wăš- and măš- seem to derive from the Arabic conjunction $w$ - 'and, along with' and the Arabic preposition mas 'with', respectively. The origin of the augment -5 - is not sufficiently clear, but its position and function might support an origin in the Kurdish postposed focus marker $j \hat{1}$ [ $3 i:]$ 'too', thus *wa-zī-m 'and-also-I', *maf-ži-m 'with-also-I' > wāšīm, māšĭm 'with-me'. The ablative forms minš̌, mēš, mindž- might be interpreted along similar lines: Arabic min 'from'
 contracted in $m \bar{e} \breve{s}$, and showing assimilation in mindžz- This set is in principle open to new Arabic prepositions as they adopt Domari person inflection to represent case-infected pronouns (see below).

Table 73. Hybrid, person-inflected case markers

| atni- | 'on, for' | ¢anki- | 'on, about' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $a b u-$ | 'to, for' | wāšíl māsíl | 'with' |
| $n k i-$ | 'at' | minšil , mešil , mindži- | 'from' |

The great majority of expressions for local and temporal relations are borrowed directly from Arabic (see Table 74 for a non-exhaustive overview). They precede the noun, which usually appears in a case-inflected (Layer II Ablative) form.

Table 74. Arabic prepositions used in Domari

| ¢an | 'on, about' | ¢ašăn | 'because' | nawāhi | 'toward' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mas | 'with' | minssān | 'for' | qabil | 'before' |
| min | 'from' | min yēr | 'without' | baid | 'after' |
| la, ¢ala | 'to' | bidū̆n, min dūn | 'without' | layāyet | 'until' |
| $f i$ | 'in' | $b e ̄ n$ | 'between' |  | 'in, for' |
| zayy | 'like' | hawāli | 'around' |  | 'against' |
| Sind (Yand) | 'at' | badà | 'instead of' | min damn | 'among' |
| Žamb | 'next to' | illa yèr | 'except for' |  |  |

As noted, some of these Arabic prepositions show inflectional potential in Domari, as they combine with Domari pronominal endings: minšān-i-m 'for
my sake', badāl-is 'in its place', baSd-os 'thereafter', bēnat-ī-san 'between them', and so on, following the pattern of the so-called hybrid case expressions.

### 8.2. The expression of thematic roles

### 8.2.1. Possessor and object of possession

The Domari possessive construction has already been discussed in detail in Chapter 5.1. Here we recapitulate the key features of the marking of key participant roles, that of the possessor and object of possession. In the full genitive-possessive construction involving two nouns, the object of possession (head) occupies the first position in the phrase and takes $3^{\text {rd }}$ person possessive (pronominal) inflection in agreement with the possessor. The possessor (modifier) takes the second position in the pair of expressions and is inflected for the Ablative case. In example (4) the distribution of roles is illustrated by the words boy-os 'his-father' (object of possession or head) and šōn-as-ki 'of-the-son' (possessor or modifier); a similar setup is followed for talab-os putr-os-ki 'his son's request' in example (5).
(4) aha qrara boy-os šōn-as-ki, ṣār
this.M Bedouin father-3SG boy-OBL.M-ABL started.3SG.M
nē-r-i mat-e dawwir-kar-ad
send-3SG-PRG people-PL search-VTR-3PL.SUBJ
putr-os-ta.
son-3SG-DAT
'The Bedouin, the boy's father, began sending out people to search for his son.'

| yaSni ma | nafiz- $k$-ad-a | talab-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART NEG | carry.out-VTR-PAST-M | request- 3 SG |
| putr-os-ki |  |  |
| son-3SG-ABL |  |  |
| 'In other words, he did not carry out his son's request.' |  |  |

Exceptions to this scheme of identifying participant roles in the possessive construction are found in particular in the specification of fixed kinship relations. Here the roles appear typically in reverse order, with the possessormodifier appearing first and the object of possession or head appearing second. Moreover, morphological marking of any interdependency between the two participants is dropped, leaving linear juxtaposition as the only formal morphosyntactic feature of the construction - thus in example (6) boy-im kuri
'my father's household', in (7) bar-im dir-ki'of my brother's daughter' (= 'my niece') etc.:
(6) $\bar{u} \quad$ xatr-ak $\bar{u} \quad$ ama qašṭott-ik $k a ̄ n-\bar{u}$ and time-INDEF and I small-PRED.SG was-3PL yāsir $\bar{u}$ boy-im kuri harab-ēni.
Yassir and father-1SG.OBL house fall.out-PRED.PL
'And once when I was small Yassir and my father's household fell out.'
(7) dis-ak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i siry-is-ka
day-INDEF this.F lantern fall-PAST-F head-3SG.OBL-DAT hay-ki bar-im dir-ki, nažw-a-ki. PART-ABL brother-1SG.OBL daughter-ABL Najwa-OBL.F-ABL 'One day the lantern fell on what's her name's head, my niece, Najwa.'

Existential possession is based around an existential predication with the impersonal predicate ašti 'there is'. The object of possession is the subject of the construction. The possessor is expressed through a choice of several case markers, among them the Layer II Benefactive in -ke (or the relevant pronominal forms), and the case expressions $n k i \bar{z}$ ' 'at' or wāšī- 'with':
(8) ašti ama-ke mām-om putr-ēni
there.is 1SG-BEN uncle-1SG son-PRED.PL
'I have cousins.'
(9) ašti ab-us-ke di zar-e.
there.is for-3SG-BEN two child-PL
'He has two children.'
(10) ašti nkī-s 'arbas wlād
there.is by-3SG four children
'He has four children.'
(11) amma li wāšī-san ple ašti nkī-san hanafiyye

PART REL with-3PL money there.is by-3PL tap
ū kull 'iši
and every thing
'Those who have money have running water and everything.'
(12) $\check{s}$-ird-e ab-us-ke ašti nkī-rl wäšī-r
say-PAST-3PL for-3SG-BEN there.is by-2SG with-2SG
yaSni șaratān-i
PART cancer-PRED.SG
'They told him: you have cancer.'

Domari usually expresses the external possessor (the undergoer or target of an external process) as a direct or indirect object, though examples are primarily pronominal:

| tiknaw-ar-s-i | baidēn | pow-os |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hurt-3SG-3SG-PRG | after | foot-3SG |
| 'And then her foot hurts.' |  |  |


| er-os-is | aha | Kurdi <br> come.PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'This Kurd came to see him.' |  |  |

### 8.2.2. Subject roles

Domari is a subject-prominent language. Subject roles are generally expressed by a syntactic subject in the nominative case. This subject governs subjectagreement with the predicate. The pattern also extends to both personal and impersonal predications in which the subject is not an active, reflective agent but an experiencer of an emotional state such as 'need', 'must', or 'like':
(15) lāzem atu saSid-kar-ē-man must you.SG help-VTR-2SG-1PL
'You must help us.'

| $k a ̄ n$ | $h i b b-h o-r-m-a$ | $b o l$ | -ad-il |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| was.3SG.M | like-VITR-3SG-1SG-REM | much | say-3PL-PRG |
| šird-e | ama-ke, boy-om |  |  |
| say-PAST-3PL | 1SG-BEN father-1SG |  |  |
| 'He loved me very much, they say/they told me, my father.' |  |  |  |

Changes of state, and the subject of promotion to a state, usually maintain the same typical morphosyntactic subject features:
(17) lamma hōš-ar lāši Sumr-os xamistaŠ̌r
when become.SUBJ-3SG girl age-3SG fifteen
sane sitta̧šr sane, stann-ho-r-i
year sixteen year wait-VITR-3SG-PRG
aw-ar-is Sarīs-ak
come-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL bridegroom-INDEF
džawiz-hōš-ar džar kury-is-ka
marry-VITR.SUBJ-3SG go-3SG.SUBJ house-3SG.OBL-DAT

```
wēšt-ar kury-is-ma
sit.SUBJ-3SG house-3SG.OBL-LOC
'When a girl reaches the age of fifteen or sixteen, she waits for a
bridegroom to marry her, so she can go to his house to live in his
house.'
```

Predications expressing change of state or promotion to a state frequently rely on the non-verbal predication to represent the outcome of the process:
(18) ehr-a lagiš-i
become.PAST-M fight-PRED.SG
'A fight broke out.'
(19) baSdēn ehr-i
then become.PAST-F ill-PRED.SG
'Then she became ill.'
(20) yaSni atu boy-or šeex-i till-èk

PART you.SG father-2SG Sheikh-PRED.SG big-PRED.SG
'So your father is an important Sheikh.'
Promotion to state may also show the subject that is the outcome or target of the process in an object-recipient role, marked by the case element wäši'with'; this construction tends to be limited to the accidental experiencer:
(21) zakkir-ho-k hāds-ī illi ehr-a remember-VITR-2SG incident-OBL.M REL become.PAST-M wāšĭ-r atun slūr-as-ki?
with-2SG above wall-OBL.M-ABL
'Do you remember the incident that happened to you on top of the wall?'

### 8.2.3. Object roles

In addition to the canonical direct object, Domari uses the direct object case (accusative or unmodified oblique) to express a series of object roles such as the benefactive of the verbs 'to help' and 'to wait for':
(22) $\bar{l}$ kull lèle ama wala̧-k-am-i ihi and every night I switch.on-VTR-1SG-PRG this.F lamb-ē. lamp-OBL.F
'And every night I switch on this lantern.'
(23) lāzem atu saSid-kar-ē-man
must you.SG help-VTR-2SG-1PL
'You must help us.'


The object of resemblance (likeness) is generally presented through a nonverbal predication carrying the nominative form of the noun:
baq-ēt kury-a-ma zayy xaddām-ēk
stay-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC like servant-PRED.SG
'I stayed at home like a servant.'

| dis-ak | ehr-a | zayy | sahr-ēk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| day-INDEF | become.PAST-M like | party-PRED.SG |  |
| ¢urs-i | dōm-an-ka |  |  |
| wedding-PRED.SG Dom-OBL.PL-DAT |  |  |  |
| 'One day there was like a party, a wedding among the Dom.' |  |  |  |

A series of object roles take on either the dative case or a dative preposition atn- 'on, upon'. This structure is often used to imitate the configuration of corresponding constructions in Arabic where the relevant object is introduced by the preposition Sala- 'on, upon'. They include the objects of verbs like 'to understand', 'to greet', and 'to search for':
(27) pandži $\quad$ š-ar-i $\quad$ dōm, ama $\check{s}$-am- $i \quad d o$

3SG speak-3SG-PRG Dom I speak-1SG-PRG Dom pandži fhim-ar-i ama-ka, ama
3SG understand-3SG-PRG 1SG-DAT I
fh-am-i atni-s.
understand-1SG-PRG on-3SG
'He speaks Dom, I speak Dom, he understands me, I understand him.'

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\bar{u} & \text { sallim- } k \text {-ad-a } & \text { atnī-s. }  \tag{28}\\
\text { and greet-VTR-PAST-M } & \text { on-3SG } \\
\text { 'And he greeted him.' }
\end{array}
$$

$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { (29) } & \text { aha } & \text { qrara } & \text { boy-os } & \text { šōn-as-ki, }\end{array} \stackrel{s \bar{r} r}{ } \begin{array}{ll}\text { this.M } & \text { Bedouin father-3SG } \\ \text { né-r-i } & \text { boy-OBL.M-ABL } \\ \text { started.3SG.M } \\ \text { send-3SG-PRG people-PL } & \text { dawwir-kar-ad }\end{array}$
A separate group of semantically related verbs, similarly expressing attitudes to a target object, directly follow the Arabic model by adapting and using the Arabic preposition 〔an-(as 〔ankī-) to mark the object:

| layāyet | hessaS | xašt-ad-i | Sankī-s. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| till | now | laugh-3PL-PRG | about-3SG |
| 'Until now they still laugh at him.' |  |  |  |

(31) wa thim-k-ad-ed-is mindži-m inn-i and accuse-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL from-1SG COMP-1SG ama kur-d-om-is xuṣūṣī Sankī-s I throw-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL especially at-3SG
'And they accused me of throwing it at her on purpose.'

### 8.2.4. Combining two object roles

A series of Domari verbs show two object participants - a direct object and a recipient or benefactor. Pronominal inflection will often cover one of the participants, usually the recipient/benefactor. The direct object of the construction appears in the unmodified oblique or a presentation mode that overrides inflectional case, such as an indefinite or non-verbal predication:

> | $\bar{u}$ | $t$-os-im |
| :--- | :--- |
| and give.PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL | $d-a s$ |
| 'And she gave me the oud.' |  |

(33) hākim t-os šahād-ak
governor give.PAST-3SG certificate-INDEF
'The governor gave him a certificate.'
In the case of two full nominal objects, various splits in case marking can be found. With the verb 'to give' we can find the recipient encoded in the Benefactive case while the direct object retains direct object case marking (unmodified oblique):
(34)

| $d$-es | pl-an | putr-ē-m-ke | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give-2PL.SUBJ | money-OBL.PL | son-PL-1SG-BEN | and |
| bay-im-ke |  |  |  |
| wife-1SG.OBL-BEN |  |  |  |
| 'Give the money to my sons and to my wife.' |  |  |  |

With the verb 'to show', two subsequent direct objects can be found:

| $\begin{array}{ll} \text { xatr-ēni } & \text { kān-at }  \tag{35}\\ \text { time-PRED.PL } & \text { was-3SG.F } \end{array}$ | šar-ar-a, hide-3SG-REM |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n$-wardZ̆i-k-ar-e, | payy-is | yaSni |
| NEG-show-VTR-3SG-NEG | husband-3SG.OBL | PART |
| pl-an. |  |  |

'Sometimes she used to hide (it), she didn't show her husband all the money.'

Roles can otherwise be split between the Benefactive case and another object preposition/case marker, such as the Dative:

| pandži | š-ird-a | ama-ke | atnī- $r$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | say-PAST-M |  |  |
| 'He told me about you.' |  |  |  |

Only seldom do we find the benefactive role expressed by an Arabic benefactive preposition:
(37) atu bidd-ak šrī-k-a minšānī-m mana you.SG want-2SG buy-VTR-2SG.SUBJ for-1SG bread 'You want to buy some bread for me.'

### 8.2.5. Expression of source

Most expressions of source rely on the Arabic preposition min 'from'. It covers the source of verbal permission, information and material donation, as well as the trigger of emotional states such as fear:

| er-os-is | aha | kurdī, mang-id-os |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL | this.M | Kurd | ask-PAST-3SG |

min boy-is-ki
from father-3SG.OBL-ABL
'This Kurdish man came to her, he asked her father for her (= to marry her).'
(39) gar-om nkīs Sašān mang-am mēš-is ple go.PAST-1SG by-3SG for ask-1SG.SUBJ from-3SG money 'I went to him to ask him for money.'
(40) kān-at by-ar-i min yāst-as-ki day-om was-3SG.F fear-3SG-PRG from Yassir-OBL.M-ABL mother-1SG 'My mother used to be scared of Yassir.'

Reason or cause, by contrast, are marked out by a specialised Arabic preposition, Sašān 'because of':
(41) waqt-os lagiš-k-ad-e musilminn-e $\bar{u}$ portkīl-e time-3SG fight-VTR-PAST-3PL Muslims-PL and Jew-PL ma§ balḍ ̧ašān raqqāsan-an-ki with REC for dancer-OBL.PL-ABL
'At the time the Muslims and the Jews were fighting over the dancers.'
(42) $\bar{u}$ ̧as̆ān ihni, hāda nažwa, dīr-os
and because thus this Najwa daughter-3SG
till-ik $\quad n$-xarrif-ho-r-i mal/ mas
big-PRED.SG NEG-speak-VITR-3SG-PRG with with ben-is-ki wala mas day-is-ki sister-3SG.OBL-ABL nor with mother-3SG.OBL-ABL 'And because of that, Najwa, her older daughter, does not speak with her sister nor with her mother.'

In the case of material origin, Domari follows the configuration features of the corresponding Arabic construction and refrains from assigning any relational case to the material source, relying instead on mere linear juxtaposition and the non-verbal predication marker:

| šri-k-ad-e | xātm-ak | urp- $i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| buy-VTR-PAST-3PL ring-INDEF | rilver-PRED.SG |  |
| 'They bought a silver ring.' |  |  |

The Arabic source preposition min re-appears in partitive constructions, either accompanied by the Ablative case (min dōmanki 'of Dom'), or in conjunction with a non-verbal predication (min mam/uhi 'of pickles'). Here it alternates with zero marking of the source substance (tanakak zēt 'a pot of oil'):
(44) hāakm-os šamāl l-hind nēr-d-a ḥawālī grovernor-3SG north DEF-India send-PAST-M around 'arbaS mït Sēle min dōm-an-ki four hundred family from Dom-OBL.PL-ABL 'The governor of northern India sent approximately four hundred families of Doms.'
(45) fì dēy-ak min dēy-ē-s-ki I-firāq in village-INDEF from village-PL-3SG-ABL DEF-Iraq 'in one of the villages of Iraq'
(46) Sabi-k-ad-a ama-ke tanak-ak zēt $\bar{u}$ tanak-ak fill-VTR-PAST-M I-BEN pot-INDEF oil and pot-INDEF min mamluh-i
from salted-PRED.SG
'He filled for me a pot of oil and a pot of pickles.'
Historical origin and descent are expressed, like the prototype source, with min in conjunction with the prepositional-ablative case marker on plain nouns:
(47) yāsir bar-om-i min day-im-ki

Yassir brother-1SG-PRED.SG from mother-1SG.OBL-ABL
$\bar{u}$ dib bar-om-i min bay-im-ki
and Dib brother-1SG-PRED.SG from father-1SG.OBL-ABL 'Yassir is my brother from my mother's side and Dib is my brother from my father's side.'
asl-os dōm-an-ki $\quad$ min eh/ qabilet
origin-3SG Dom-OBL.PL-ABL from tribe
${ }_{\text {İZZŽassās }} \quad \bar{u} \quad k l \bar{e} b$
DEF-Jassas and Kleb
'The origin of the Dom is uh/ in the tribe of Jassas and Kleb.'

### 8.2.6. Expressions of association and dissociation

As discussed in Chapter 4.3.5.5, the Domari Layer II Sociative -san can be used to express comitative roles. Its use is limited, however, to some speakers, and even among those speakers, to a relatively small number of nouns. Generally, the favoured expression for comitative roles is the Arabic preposition maf'with':

| (49) | aha džamīl this.M Jamil muslimin-an-ki |  | harb-k-ar-i <br> gan.3SG.M fight-VTR-3SG-PRG |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { maS } \\ & \text { with } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Muslims-OBL.PL-ABL |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 'Jamil took up arms together with the Muslims.' |  |  |  |  |  |
| (50) | ama | gar-om | $m a ¢ \quad x a ̄$ | xāl-om | kury-a-ki |  |
|  |  | go.PAST- | SG with un | uncle-1SG | house-OBL | ABL |
|  | Sammān-a-ta |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Amman-OBL.F-DAT |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 'I went | t with my | le's family | Amm |  |  |

Negative association or dissociation is expressed consistently through Arabic prepositions. These include the Arabic privative forms min jēr and mindiü 'without':
(51) sabaḥtan f-ar-m-i qatl-ak, $\bar{u} \quad$ c̣uhr morning hit-3SG-1SG-PRG beating-INDEF and noon qatl-ak, $\quad \bar{u}-1$-mıryrub $\quad$ qatl-ak, min jēr beating-INDEF and-DEF-evening beating-INDEF without ayye hāaž-ak
any reason-INDEF
'In the morning she gives me a beating, and at noon a beating, and in the evening a beating, without any reason.'
žmi $\wp$ - $k$-ird-os-man mindīn mi $\wp \bar{\eta} d$
gather-VTR-PAST-3SG-1PL without appointment
'He summoned us without an appointment.'
The Arabic preposition badāl is used to express the object of substitution and exchange:
č-ird-om boy-is-ke de-m-s-i speak-PAST-1SG father-3SG.OBL-BEN give-1SG-3SG-PRG ̧ašrīn lïra badāl bar-im-ki.
twenty lira instead brother-1SG.OBL-ABL
${ }^{\text {'I }}$ told his father I would give him twenty lira [standing in] for my brother.'
(54) dfa̧-k-ad-e hākrm-as-ke badā̀ aha
pay-VTR-PAST-3PL governor-OBL.M-BEN instead this.M
ṣnōt-as-ke Sasar lïrāt
dog-OBL.M-BEN ten lira.PL
'He paid the governor ten lira in exchange for the dog.'
(55) ama de-m-r-i badāl-is Sašrīn na̧dža I give-1SG-2SG-PRG instead-3SG.OBL twenty sheep 'I will give you twenty sheep for that one.'

Exemption is expressed through the Arabic complex particle-cumpreposition illa jēr 'except':
(56) illa yēr xuya la ma gardi-kar-is
except God PART NEG recuperate-VTR-3SG.OBL ab-ur-ke for-2SG-BEN
'Except for God nobody will bring her back to life for you.'

### 8.3. Spatial relations

8.3.1. Containment and demarcation

Stative containment within a space as well as movement into a contained space are captured by the adverbial marker mandža 'inside', often in conjunction with the Locative Layer II case marker:
(57) ama wēs-r-om-i kurya-ma mandža I sit-PAST-1SG-PRG house-OBL.F-LOC inside 'I am sitting inside the house.'
(58) nig-r-om kury-a-ma mandža enter-PAST-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC inside
'I entered the house.'
As mentioned above, mandža can also be used as a nominal modifier in a genitive-possessive construction expressing the contained sphere of an object:
(59) $t$-am-i bakr-ē ihnē, mandž-is-ma
put-1SG-PRG stick-OBL.F thus inside-3SG.OBL-LOC sayyar-è-ki
car-OBL.F-ABL
'I put the stick inside the car like this.'
A parallel expression for non-containment, bara 'outside', can similarly capture both stative relations and movement:


Objects of movement - both point of departure and destination - are commonly expressed by Layer II case markers such as the Ablative and Dative respectively (Chapter 4.3.5.1, Chapter 4.3.5.4). Some of the functions of Arabic prepositions overlap with those of Layer II markers, which continue to accompany the preposition:
(62) ama kul-d-om-i min kury-a-ki

I exit-PAST-1SG-PRG from house-OBL.F-ABL
'I went out of the house.'
Arabic prepositions such as min 'from' and la 'to' are also used for more specialised functions such as precise demarcation of the point of departure and point of destination:
(63) raw-ird-ed-i min hundar min uhu des-os-ki leave-PAST-3PL-PRG from here from that place-3SG-ABL 'They have left here, they have left that particular place.'
(64) ama kil-d-om min kury-im-ki la

I exit-PAST-1SG from house-1SG.OBL-ABL to
kury-ir-ki
house-2SG.OBL-ABL
'I went out from my house to your house.'
Other specialised prepositions from Arabic are used to express the intermittent target of movement, and the hosting object:
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { (65) min-as } & \text { hal-ē-ran } & d z ̆ a-s & \text { nawāhī } \\ \text { hold-2PL.SUBJ } & \text { state-PL-2PL } & \text { go-2PL.SUBJ } & \text { toward }\end{array}$
sittnā maryam
Our.Lady Mary
'Get a move on and go toward Our Lady Mary.'
(66) gar-om baladiy-ē-ta Sand Teddy Kollek go.PAST-1SG municipality-OBL.F-DAT at Teddy Kollek 'I went to the municipality to [see] Teddy Kollek.'
(67) $\bar{u}$ ama kam-k-am-i Sind yahūdiy-an-ki. and I work-VTR-1SG-PRG at Jewish-OBL.PL-ABL 'And I work in Jewish people's homes.'

'They brought them into the room, the boys and Yassir and so on and I was also among them'

### 8.3.2. Dimensional relations

While the great majority of semantically specified spatial and local expressions in Domari are taken over directly from Arabic, the domain of dimensional spatial relations - both horizontal and vertical - is dominated by inherited, pre-Arabic expressions. Proximity may be an exception to the rule. It is often expressed by the word čanč- 'next to', which is used in a nominal genitive-possessive construction:

| (69) | $w \bar{s} s-r$-om | čanč-is-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | sit-PAST-1SG | next.to-3SG.OBL-LOC |
|  | šibbāk-ki |  |
|  | window-ABL |  |
|  | I sat next to the window.' |  |

The etymology of čanč- is not entirely clear. It possibly represents Kurdish cem $/ \mathrm{d}_{3} æ \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{S}} /$, a preposition meaning 'at', which in turn derives from the Arabic root /dž.m. $\mathrm{C} /$ meaning 'to assemble, to group' Less likely is an early derivation from Arabic džānib 'side' The latter gives rise in Arabic itself to the preposition žamb 'next to', which is often used in Domari as an alternative to čanč-, though also embedded in a similar kind of nominal construction:
(70) žamb-is-ma next.to-3SG.OBL-LOC house-1PL-ABL 'next to our house'

Horizontal relations are represented by the inherited agir 'in front' and paši 'behind', both accompanying the noun in the Ablative-prepositional case:

| quš- $k$-ad-a | bara <br> sweep-VTR-3PL-REM <br> outside | yaSni <br> PART |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kury-a- $k i$ |  |  |
| house-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |
| 'They were sweeping outside, that is, in front of the house.' |  |  |

wēšt-an-a agir tābun-ki šinnak $\bar{u}$ sow-an-a sit-1PL-REM in.front stove-ABL a.little and sew-1PL-REM 'We were sitting in front of the stove and doing some sewing.'
(73) aha yāsir kil-d-a paši šōny-a-ki
this.M Yassir exit-PAST-M behind girl-OBL.F-ABL
'Yassir sneaked up behind the girl.'
Vertical relations are expressed by inherited axar 'below' and atun 'above', in a similar construction:
(74) wēs-r-ēn-i axar sadžar-ē-ki.
sit-PAST-1PL-PRG below tree-OBL.F-ABL 'We sat beneath the tree.'
(75) džassās šar-d-ēy-a romh-ī axar

Jassas hide-PAST-PRED.SG-REM spear-OBL.M below
Sabāy-is-ki
gown-3SG.OBL-ABL
'Jassas had hidden the spear beneath his gown'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { nig-r-om } & \begin{array}{l}\text { kury-a-ma } \\ \text { enter-PAST-1SG }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { mandža } \\ \text { house-OBL.F-LOC }\end{array} & \text { lakside } \\ \text { ins-om } \\ \text { see-PAST-1SG }\end{array}$
saḥn-os hummuṣ-ki $\bar{u}$ man-as atm
plate-3SG hummus-ABL and bread-OBL.M above
frāy-an-ki tir-end-i
clothes-OBL.PL-ABL put-3PL-PRG
'I entered the house and I saw the plate of hummus and the bread standing on top of the clothes.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { (77) } \begin{array}{ll}\text { zakkir-ho-k } & h \bar{a} d s-\bar{i} \\ \text { remember-VITR-2SG } & \text { incident-OBL.M }\end{array} & \text { REL } & \text { ehr-a } \\ \text { income.PAST-M }\end{array}$
wāšī-r atum slūr-as-ki?
with-2SG above wall-OBL.M-ABL
'Do you remember the incident that happened to you on top of the wall?'

Further specifications of horizontal and vertical relations may be derived through combinations with Arabic-derived expressions such as min'from':
išt-ard-e $\quad$ xašab-ē min axar pull-PAST-3PL wood-OBL.F from below 'They raised the wood from below.'

### 8.3.3. Other spatial relations

Further spatial relations are constructed entirely with the help of Arabic expressions, especially when they involve a complex, two-point indexical orientation. This pertains for instance to bēn 'between':
(79) kān waqtos harb-os/ harb-i bēn was.3G.M time-3SG war-3SG war-PRED.SG between yahū̄diy-an-ki $\bar{u} \quad$ bēn musilminn-an-ki Jew-OBL.PL and between Muslims-OBL.PL-ABL 'It was the time of the war/ it was war between the Jews and the Muslims.'
(80) sab؟a snīn, harb bēnatī-san-i. seven years war between-3PL-PRED.SG 'Seven years the war between them lasted.'

We also find Arabic expressions indicating the point of orientation or approximation - hawāl̄̄̄ 'approximately' - and the target of opposition - did 'against':
(81) ḥākm-os šamāl l-hind nēr-d-a ḥawālī governor-3SG north DEF-India send-PAST-M around 'arbaS mīt Sēle min döm-an-ki
four hundred family from DOM-OBL.PL-ABL
'The governor of northern India sent around four hundred families of Doms.'
(82) yaSni n-kar-ad-e, mašākl-ē mas PART NEG-do-3PL-NEG problems-OBL.F with ḥukum-è-ki wala diḍ ḥukum-è-ki government-OBL.F-ABL nor against government-OBL.F-ABL 'Well, they don't cause any trouble [either] with the government nor against the government.'

The demarcation of routes of movement, finally, aligns itself with the expression of source and movement away from a source location:

| pandži kil-d-a $\quad$ min | kafiy-a-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG exit-PAST-M from | door-OBL.F-ABL |
| 'He left through the door.' |  |

### 8.4. Temporal relations

Temporal relations are expressed through lexicalised elements that name time intervals, on the one hand, and by a series of prepositions that help establish relational grids of a quantitative nature among specified points in time. The first group is etymologically mixed but shows heavy reliance nonetheless on Arabic. While expressions like dis 'day', aratin 'night', mas 'month', wars 'year', adžoti 'today', xudz̈oti 'yesterday' and urati 'tomorrow' are all Indic, for the times of day we find Turkish sabahtan 'in the morning' alongside Arabic çuhr 'noon' and muyrub 'evening':

| sabahtan | $f$-ar-m-i | $q a t l-a k$, | $\bar{u}$ | duhr |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| morning | hit-3SG-1SG-PRG | beating-INDEF | and | noon |
| qatl-ak, | $\bar{u}-I-m u g r u b$ | $q a t l-a k$, | min $\bar{e} \bar{r}$ |  |
| beating-INDEF | and-DEF-evening | beating-INDEF | without |  |
| ayye hādž-ak |  |  |  |  |
| any reason-INDEF |  |  |  |  |
| 'In the morning she gives me a beating, and at noon a beating, and in |  |  |  |  |
| the evening a beating, without any reason.' |  |  |  |  |

Other calendar expressions such as 'week', the days of the week, and months, are also Arabic:
(85) džum
week-INDEF
'one week'
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { dis-os } & k a ̄ n & y o ̄ m & x a m i ̄ s-i \\ \text { day-3SG } & \text { was.3SG.M } & \text { day } & \text { five-PRED.SG }\end{array}$
'That day was Thursday.'
(87) dis sabt-as-ki
day Saturday-OBL.M-ABL
'Saturday'
Arabic sēf 'summer', xarīf 'autumn', and šita 'winter' are used for the seasons. The expression mōsamma (Arabic mawsim 'season') was recorded for 'in the spring'.

Basic sequential temporal relations are expressed by the Arabic prepositions qabil (qabel) 'before' and baSd'after':
(88) qabil ayyām-ē-san nohr-as-ki
before days-PL-3PL British-OBL.M-ABL 'before the days of the British'
(89) baßd sitt iyyām rawwih-ahr-ēn kury-a-ka after six days travel-VITR.PAST-1PL house-OBL.F-DAT 'Six days later/ After six days we travelled home.'
(90) ba̧dī-s bi džum̧-ak er-a boy-om gēna after-3SG.OBL in week-INDEF come.PAST-M father-1SG again min quds-a-ki er-a Sammān-a-ta
from Jerusalem-OBL.F-ABL come.PAST-M Amman-OBL.F-DAT
'A week later my father cam back from Jerusalem to Amman.'
Time distance and extent are served by the Arabic forms qabel 'before' ('ago'), min 'from' ('since'), and layāyet 'until':
(91) qabel sabla $\bar{u}$ Sčrin̄ wars
before seven and twenty year
'twenty seven years ago'
(92) min ayyām șalāh id-dīn dōm-e twādžid-r-e from days Salah Ed-Din Dom-PL present-PAST-3PL dēy-am-ma hindar
village-OBL.PL-LOC here
'The Dom have been present in the villages here since the days of Saladin.'
(93) layāyet hassē§a, dža-r-i Sand yasmīn-a-ki
until now go-3SG-PRG at Yasmin-OBL.F-ABL qumn-ar-i
eat-3SG-PRG
'To this day she goes to Yasmin to eat.'

## Chapter 9

## Clause structure

### 9.1. Nominal clauses

Non-verbal predication markers in Domari support the formation of clauses that lack a lexical or existential predicate. The canonical nominal clause consists of two nominal components: the first takes on the subject-topic role and usually benefits from exposure in the first position in the clause, while the second element carries the non-verbal predication marker and serves as a nominal predicate:
(1) aha ama-k-èk
this.M 1SG-BEN-PRED.SG
'This is for me.'
(2) bar-om grawar-ēk
brother-1SG head.man-PRED.SG
'My brother is the head man.'
There are further elaborations on this structure. Both the nominal 'subject' and the nominal 'predicate' can be complex, accompanied by modifying elements:

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { yalni } & \text { atu } & \text { boy-or } & \text { šēx-i }  \tag{3}\\
\text { PART you.SG } & \text { father-2SG } & \text { Sheikh-PRED.SG } & \text { till-ēk } \\
\text { 'So your father is an important Sheikh.' } &
\end{array}
$$

Nominal clauses often follow lexical-verbal clauses in order to clarify the status of a particular nominal element that is co-referential with a constituent of the verbal clause:
(4) boy-om džawiz-k-ed-os bar-os
father-1SG marry-VTR-PAST-3SG brother-3SG
dīr-i, nām-os hamziyy-ēk
daughter-PRED.SG name-3SG Hamziyya-PRED.SG
'My father married his niece, her name is Hamziyya.'

The following example illustrates a typical chain of nominal clauses that serves to establish information about a topical discourse participant:
a. ašti $i k-a k$ there.is one-INDEF
b. nam-os-ēy-a jazzāl-ēk name-3SG-PRED.SG-REM Ghazzale-PRED.SG
c. ihi guld-ik bol.
this.F beautiful-PRED.SG much
d. boy-os till-os-i döm-an-ki.
father-3SG big-3SG-PRED.SG Dom-OBL.PL-ABL
a. 'There is a girl.
b. Her name was Ghazzale.
c. She is very pretty.
d. Her father is the leader of the Dom.'

### 9.2. Information structure in verbal clauses

Aside from nominal clauses, utterances in Domari typically consist of verbal clauses that contain lexical predications. The core of the lexical predication in verbal clauses is the finite verb. It serves as an anchor for the core propositional information that is carried by the predication by relating it to the event participants (via subject and object concord and the verb's argument structure) and, through the specification of tense-aspect-modality, to realworld events and presuppositions and to the speech situation. Just as the finite lexical verb constitutes the core of the verbal predication, so the chaining of verbal predicates in discourse constitutes the backbone of narration in Domari:
(6) a. qabel sabৎa ū Š̌rīn wars mām-om before seven and twenty year uncle-1SG putur yāsir gar-a swēq-ē-ta son Yassir go.PAST-M market-OBL.F-DAT

| štrī-k-ar | mana | $\bar{u}$ | $s a h n-a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| buy-VTR-3SG.SUBJ | bread | and | plate-INDEF | hummuṣ

hummus
b. baSd ma štrī-k-ad-a man-as $\bar{u}$
after COMP buy-VTR-PAST-M bread-OBL.M and


1. lak-id-a talātīn zard isra'il-ik. see-PAST-M thirty gold Israeli-PRED.SG
m. par-d-a pl-an min dozdan-ki
take-PAST-M money-OBL.PL from wallet-ABL
n. $\bar{u}$ tir-d-osan džēb-is-ma
and put-PAST-3PL pocket-3SG.OBL-LOC
o. $\bar{u} \quad k s ̌ a l-d-a$
and leave-PAST-M
a. 'Twenty seven years ago my cousin Yassir went to the market to buy bread and a plate of hummus.
b. After he bought the bread and the hummus he came out of the shops at/Lions Gate/
c. And he went down the stairs of this place, at Lions Gate.
d. And he met a/a Jewish girl by the name of Eliza.
e. She climbed the wall in order to take pictures of the city views.
f. Our man Yassir sneaked up behind the girl.
g. And he put the bread and the plate of hummus on the ground.
h. And he grabbed the girl.
i. And he started to hug her.
j. And he started to kiss her.
k. He opened the girl's wallet.
2. He found thirty Israeli pounds.
m. He took the money from the wallet.
n. And he put it in his pocket.
o. And he left.'

The example shows that the finite verb, the anchor of the predication and propositional core of the utterance, tends to appear at the very beginning of the utterance or verbal clause, sometimes accompanied by an auxiliary. The preverbal field is only narrowly occupied, and is often left unoccupied. The bulk of the material that is not part of the finite verb and its auxiliaries is accommodated in the post-verbal field. The positions farther away from the finite verb tend to be reserved for new information, while those more closely adjoining the finite verb accommodate arguments whose identity is given or presupposed (see Figure 3).

| pre-verbal field | finite verb | post-verbal field <br> proximate/given | remote/new |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{u}$ | tir- $d$-a | man-as $\bar{u}$ sahn-os hummus-i | bit-as-ta |
| And | he put | the bread and the plate of hummus | on the ground |

Figure 3. Information structuring in the post-verbal field

In the absence of an information hierarchy within the post-verbal field, an argument hierarchy appears whereby direct objects tend to have precedence for proximity to the verb over indirect objects:

| pre-verbal field | finite verb | post-verbal field <br> direct object | indirect object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | par- $d-a$ <br> He took | pl-an <br> the money | min dozdan- $k i$ <br> from the wallet |

Figure 4. Argument roles in the post-verbal field
In the extract depicting the 'Lions Gate' incident (example (6)) we see clearly how the chaining of finite verbs serves as a device for the presentation of event sequences in discourse. The appearance of the verb in the initial position of the utterance ensures continuous involvement of the listener in the unfolding story. The pre-verbal field appears to have an interruptive function, postponing the presentation of the next lexical predication in the chain and so delaying the progression of the narrative. In the above story - the encounter at Lions Gate - the pre-verbal field accommodates almost exclusively the connector $\bar{u}$ 'and'. This and other connectors take on an explicitly supporting role in constructing the chain of events. They signal continuity by returning to the previous position in the discourse and supplementing it with new information that is relevant for the completion of the story. Their 'interruptive' behaviour in delaying the initiation of the predicate is thus offset by their direct contribution to the continuation of the chain ('speaker's continuity' and 'speaker's addition', in Schiffrin's 1987 terms) and to reinforcing the links between individual propositional units.

We find further use of the pre-verbal field for the specification of temporal, location and other aspects of the setting, as well as for the presentation of a new actor-topic perspective on the chain of events (Figure 5).

In the opening utterance of the Lions Gate episode, the scene for the story is set for the reconstruction of the background for the narrative, in typical narrative-strategic fashion (Labov and Waletzky 1967, Labov 2006). The
narrator makes use of a time adverbial to set the temporal perspective. He then names the principal actor, whose actions constitute the core of the event sequence reconstruction that is to follow. For this purpose the speaker makes use of a balanced clause structure in this particular utterance: The pre-verbal field contains both the temporal specification and the identification of the subject-topic. The post-verbal field contains both the argument of the verb (a verb of motion that takes an indirect object), as well as a purpose clause that offers a glimpse into the continuing unfolding of the story.

| pre-verbal field <br> adverbial specification <br> of setting | topic/actor | verb | post-verbal field <br> second <br> argument |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Figure 5. Setting the perspective through the pre-verbal field
Taken from this functional angle, the positioning of the subject in preverbal position is not simply a case of default or 'basic' subject-verb word order, but rather a strategic use of the field structure of the clause on either side of the finite verb. The pre-verbal subject serves the purpose of offering a perspective on the event, one that justifies the postponement of the predication. Further on in the excerpt we encounter use of the pre-verbal field for the establishment of the subject perspective in the case of a subject-switch:
a. $\quad \begin{array}{ll}\text { kil-d-i } & \begin{array}{l}\text { sūr-as-ta } \\ \text { wall-OBL }\end{array}\end{array} \quad$ minšāān
exit-PAST-F wall-OBL.M-DAT for

| șawwir-k-ar | manāzir-ē-s | $h a y-k i$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| photograph-VTR-3SG.SUBJ | views-PL-3SG | PART-ABL |

ūyar-ki.
city-ABL
b. mans-oman aha yāsir kil-d-a paši
person-1PL this.M Yassir exit-PAST-M behind
šōny-a-ki
girl-OBL.F-ABL
a. 'She climbed the wall in order to take pictures of the city views.
b. Our man Yassir sneaked behind the girl.'

The changed perspective with the switch from a depiction of the girl's action to that of Yassir's actions is signalled by introducing the subject-topic mansoman aha yäsir 'our man Yassir' in the pre-verbal field, delaying the initiation of the predication and so interrupting the run-up in the chain of events. This sentence perspective is often termed 'categorical', as it relies on the depiction of a particular referential category (cf. Sasse 1987).

By contrast, the post-verbal subject often indicates that the perspective taken on the utterance is 'thetic', that is, based on the continuation of the thematic parameters set in the immediately preceding utterance context, and characterised through immediate initiation of the predicate without further modification to those parameters. Consider the following sequence:

c. par-d-e ehe tmaliy-e aha take-PAST-3PL these.PL soldier-PL this.M
kart-as $\bar{u} \quad$ ning-awa-d-ed-is
card-OBL.M and enter-CAUS-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL
mūdīr-as-ke.
director-OBL.M-BEN
d. mūdīr par-d-a aha zarf-as $\bar{u}$
director take-PAST-M this.M envelope-OBL.M and
qol-d-os
open-PAST-3SG.OBL
a. 'Jamil said to the soldiers: I have with me a letter,
b. Take it and give it to this man, the director.
c. The soldiers took the letter and brought it in to the director.
d. The director took the envelope and opened it.'

The perspective taken at the beginning of the excerpt is categorical, centering on the topical entity Jamil and his plans and intentions. The next named subject, however, 'the soldiers', occupies a position immediately following the verb. It is part of the post-verbal field; it follows the initiation of the predicate and so it relies on the content of the predication to establish the
perspective, rather than on the profile of the subject. At the same time the subject 'the soldiers' does not appear in the right-most position in the postverbal field, which remains reserved for new rather than given information. The reliance on the verb rather than the subject for a 'thetic' perspective is a tool used to achieve connectivity between the utterance and its preceding context. In this instance, the immediate initiation of the predicate indicates that the action carried out by the soldiers is a direct consequence of the instructions provided to them by Jamil (as depicted in the preceding utterance). The subject 'the soldiers' is specified for the purposes of information completeness, but the fact that it is explicitly named is not allowed to interfere with the initiation of the predication and so with the flavour of an immediate, consequential succession of events.

By contrast, the final utterance in the sequence shows a shift in perspective, with the director's intentional actions playing the foregrounded role. The emphasis here is on the switch in subject roles between the soldiers and the director. Once again the categorical perspective takes over, triggering a delay in the initiation of the predication, which alerts the listener to a turn in the organisation of events.

More variant types in the structuring of information in the verbal clauses are documented through the following excerpt depicting the 'Lantern incident':

b. sabaḥtan f-ar-m-i qatl-ak, $\bar{u}$ c̣uhr morning hit-3SG-1SG-PRG beating-INDEF and noon qatl-ak, $\bar{u}$-l-muyrub qatl-ak. beating-INDEF and-DEF-evening beating-INDEF
c. min $\begin{aligned} \\ e \\ r\end{aligned}$ ayye hādž-ak.
without any reason-INDEF
d. $\bar{u}$ in-man-ad-mee' kil-š-am maS
and NEG-let-3PL-1SG-NEG exit-SUBJ-1SG with
šōny-an-ki, maS sāḥb-ē-m-ki, maS iš̌i.
girl-OBL.PL-ABL with friend-PL-1SG-ABL with anything
e. $\bar{u}$ dīs-ak min arat-an-ki kun-t/ hada and day-INDEF from night-OBL.PL-ABL was-1SG this
f. kān nkī-man $n-h-e, \quad k a h r a b a$, was.3SG.M at-1PL NEG-is-NEG electricity
g. kun-n̄ walas-k-ēn-a lamb-ēk. was-1PL light-VTR-1PL-REM lantern-PRED.SG
h. $\bar{u}$ kull lēle ama walas- $k$-am-i $\quad$ ihi and every night I light-VTR-1SG-PRG this.F lamb-e. lantern-OBL.F
i. dis-ak ihi lamba kuwī-r-i day-INDEF this.F lantern fall-PAST-F
siry-is-ka hay-ki bar-im
head-3SG.OBL-DAT PART-ABL brother-1SG.OBL dïr-ki, nažwā-ki.
daughter-ABL Najwa-ABL
j. wa thim-k-ad-ed-is mindz̈z-m
and accuse-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL from-1SG
inn-i ama kur-d-om-is
COMP-1SG I throw-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL
xuscussi $\quad$ Sankī-s.
deliberately on-3SG
k. $\bar{u} \quad$ mīn-d-os-im ihi hayyāt
and grab-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL this.F Hayat
fêt-os-im, mar-d-os-im
hit.PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL kill-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
fêyiš-ki.
beating-ABL

1. $\bar{u}$ da'iman lamma bidd-hā dz̈a-r
and always when want-3SG.F go-3SG.SUBJ
kān-at par-ar-s-a wāšī-s $\bar{u} \quad$ 'iši
was-3SG.F take-3SG-3SG-REM with-3SG and anything
m. $\bar{u}$ ama man-ar-m-a Kury-a-ma
and I leave-3SG-1SG-REM house-OBL.F-LOC
$m s i h i h-\mathrm{k}$ am $\bar{u} \quad q u s \check{s}-k-\mathrm{am} \quad \bar{u}$
scrub-VTR-1SG.SUBJ and sweep-VTR-1SG.SUBJ and
žli-k-am.
wash-VTR-1SG.SUBJ
a. 'And I had a sister, her name is Hayat.
b. She used to hit me - a beating in the morning, a beating at noon, a beating in the evening,
c. Without a reason.
d. And they wouldn't let me go out with the girls, with my friends, with anyone.
e. And one day I was/ this
f. We didn't have electricity.
g. We used to light a lantern.
h. And every evening I would light this lantern.
i. One day the lamp fell down on the head of what's her name, my niece Najwa.
j. And they accused me of throwing it at her deliberately.
k. And Hayat grabbed me, she hit me, she beat me to death.
2. And every time she went out she would take her with her and so on.
m. And she left me at home to scrub and to sweep and to wash.'

We are by now familiar with the routine of using the pre-verbal field to establish a new perspective on the predication that is to follow, thus justifying the delayed presentation of the finite verb and an interruption in the chaining of lexical predicates in the narration. Let us review two typical cases of a routine occupation of both the pre-verbal and post-verbal fields. Figure 6 from the Lantern episode shows the pre-verbal field accommodating a considerable amount of information necessary in order to place the predication in context: An opening through a connector, a time adverb, and the identification of the subject. Post-verbally we only find the second argument of the predicate, which in context constitutes given information.

Figure 7, also from the Lantern episode, similarly shows use of the preverbal field for the establishment of a temporal setting for the specific event, followed by the promotion of a secondary topic 'the lantern' to subject in this utterance and so the opening of a new categorical perspective. The post-verbal field remains elaborately occupied, too, with a specification of the indirect object, the secondary argument of the intransitive verb.

| pre-verbal field <br> connector | time adverb | subject | verb |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| verb | post-verbal field <br> direct object |  |  |  |
| $\bar{u}$ | kull lēle | ama | walaSKami | ihi lambē <br> And |
|  | every night | I | Iight | this lantern |

Figure 6. Routine occupation of pre- and post-verbal fields (a)

| pre-verbal field <br> time adverb | subject | verb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| verb |  |  |$\quad$| post-verbal field |
| :--- |
| indirect object |

Figure 7. Routine occupation of pre- and post-verbal fields (b)
Once again we can rely on the functional configuration of the verbal clause structure to explain speakers' choices in mapping key constituents on the linear plan of the utterance, without having to resort to impressionistic terms such as 'basic', 'default' or 'unmarked' word order. Figure 8 depicts a further utterance from the Lantern episode, here one in which the content of the direct object entity ' I ' is fronted into the pre-verbal field. It is thus the direct object that delays initiation of the predication, creating the effect of contrast between the narrator and her rival Najwa, who was taken by Hayat on expeditions outside the house while the narrator was kept imprisoned in the home.

| pre-verbal field <br> connector | direct object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$ verb | post-verbal field |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| local adverb | complement |
| $\bar{u}$ | ama |
| And | me |

Figure 8. Topicalisation: object fronting into the pre-verbal field
If the placement of a topical entity in the pre-verbal field is a case of topicalisation - taking the topic's point of view as the perspective on the utterance - then both subject and object seem eligible to undergo such topicalisation, i.e. to take advantage of the categorical perspective of the preverbal field. Note similarly the use of a full nominal direct object in such function in the following example:
(10) aha qrar-as putr-os aha
this.M Bedouin-OBL.M son-3SG this.M
šēex-as-ki t-ird-ed-is sidžin-ma
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL put-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL prison-LOC
'They put this Bedouin, the Sheikh's son, in prison.'
Many Domari clauses show the positioning of subjects fairly late in the sentence, in a manner that gives the impression that they are being deaccentuated. Figure 9 shows a case from the Lantern episode:

| pre-verbal field <br> connector | verb <br> verb | post-verbal field <br> subject |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{u}$ | min-d-os-im | ihi hayyāt |
| And | grabbed me | this Hayat |

Figure 9. Subject de-accentuation
In fact, the post-verbal field is especially productive in order to introduce new subjects - either indefinite, new topics that are yet unknown, or else wellknown and well-established subject-topics which, however, are yet to play their role in the unfolding of the current story line:

| (11) | eh-r-a | wāšī- $m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | qusṣs-ak |  |
|  | 'Something happened to me.' |  |

(12) dis-ak $\quad \begin{array}{llll}e r-a & h n e ̄ n a ~ & \text { džamīl } & \text { l-؟ās } \\ \text { day-INDEF } & \text { come.PAST-M } & \text { here } & \text { Jamil }\end{array}$ l-Aas
'One day Jamil 1-Aas arrived here.'
There is value in explicitly identifying the subject, but not at the price of delaying the initiation of the predication and possibly breaking the depiction of a close chain of successive events. At the same time, the placement of the subject immediately after the verb in order to express a consequential relation between this subject's action and the content of the preceding utterance may not be appropriate, either. De-accentuation of the subject within the postverbal field provides a solution for such cases:


Note that the extreme position of the subject at the edge of the post-verbal field creates the impression that we are dealing with new information. This is, however, obviously not the case, for the entity 'the Dom' in example (13) is
identifiable from the story context (as is the reference to 'this Bedouin' in example (14)). It is precisely this manipulation of the extreme post-verbal position for an entity that does not require introduction that creates the special effect, that of an 'afterthought', which is associated with this kind of deaccentuation of subjects.

### 9.3. Interrogative clauses

Interrogative clauses are prototypically embedded into question or interrogative illocutionary acts through which the speaker solicits a reaction on the part of the addressee. A particular form of interrogative is the offer:
(15) t-ar ab-ur-ke kōla? put-3SG.SUBJ for-2SG-BEN cola?
'Should she pour you some cola?'
Offers are typologically similar to imperatives (see below) in that they tend to show the verb in the subjunctive/imperative mood, in initial position, without a pre-verbal field. The offer is, however, a question directed at an addressee, rather than a command, since it is intended to elicit a response from the addressee as to whether to instigate the action of a second or third party. In offers, the principal structural feature indicating the question illocution is the rising intonation, coupled with the use of subjunctive/imperative mood of the verb which indicates the suspended realisation of the action.

Other questions typically constitute a request for information, and are marked, in addition to intonation, by an interrogative pronoun, which contains an ontological framing of the semantic domain within which the intended reply falls. The preferred position for the interrogative pronoun is in the pre-verbal field:

| (16) | ki š-ird-a | yāsir? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | what say-PAST-M |  |
|  | 'What did Yassir say?' |  |

Of course not all questions are contextually interpretable as direct requests for information. Interrogative structures may have the appearance of requests for information but may function pragmatically as prompts or invitations, or as a means of directing attention and soliciting emotional solidarity with a destitute state of affairs:
$k e ̄ k e ̄ ~ n-a w-e \bar{y}-e, \quad$ Sammān-a-ka
why NEG-come-2SG-NEG Amman-OBL.F-DAT
lah-an-ir?
see-1PL.SUBJ-2SG.OBL
'Why don't you come to Amman so we can see you?'

| ki | bidd-o | kar-ar | mat? |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| what | want-3SG | do-3SG.SUBJ | person |
| 'What |  |  |  |

(19) ažoti džan-d-or-i kē kar-ad-i dōm-ē-man?
today know-PAST-2SG-PRG what do-3PL-PRG Dom-PL-1PL 'Do you know what our Dom are doing nowadays?'

Structurally, these questions, too, can rely either on highlighting 'missing' information by means of an interrogative pronoun, or else on soliciting the listener's agreement or disagreement to (or affirmative confirmation or denial of) the state of affairs depicted in the predication. The latter - yes/no questions - can be marked by intonation alone, or by an explicit elicitation of the listener's opinion through phrases such as wila la 'or not' (see below).

Like imperatives, interrogative clauses commonly appear in narration as quotations:

| $a s ̌ t i$ | mat-ēni | zSil-ho-d-i, | kēka |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| there.is | person-PRED.PL | angry-VITR-3PL-PRG | why |
| wēst-or-i | mas | ek-ak dōm-i? |  |
| sit.PAST | -2SG-PRG with | one-INDEF Dom-PR | D.SG |
| aha | dōm-i, | kēkē š-ēk mãšǐ-s |  |
| this.M | Dom-PRED.SG | why talk-2SG with-3 |  |
| 'Some | ople get angry: | hy are you sitting with | Dom |
| This pe | n is a Dom, why | re you talking to him?' |  |


| $s ' i l l-k-a d-a$ | $m f a ̆ l l-a s$ | $k a ̄ n-i k$ | $k a r-d-a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ask-VTR-PAST-M | crazy-OBL.M | who-PRED.SG | do-PAST-M |
| er-as? |  |  |  |
| this-OBL.M |  |  |  |

'He asked the crazy one: who did this?'
(22) šōna illi iStid-ah-r-a atnī-r wāšī-san-i
boy REL attack-VITR-PAST-M on-2SG with-3PL-PRED.SG wila la?
or not
'Is the boy who attacked you among them or not?'

A very common device in Domari narrations is the so-called 'rhetorical' question. In discourse-analytical terms, its function is to involve the listener in the action of narrating by prompting the listener into searching for a reply to a fictitious question, thus engaging the listener in problem-solving tasks such as identifying possible scenarios for the further exposition of the story-line (cf. Reershemius 1997: 94 ff.):

| er-a, | $k r e ̄ n$ | skun-ah-r-a? | $n k i ̄-m a n$ | hindar, <br> come.PAST-M |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| where | live-VITR-PAST-M | at-1PL | here |  | xāl-os-i.

uncle-3SG-PRED.SG
'Her uncle arrived, where did he stay? Here with us.'
ba̧d sitt iyyām rawwiḥ-ah-r-ēn kury-a-ka
after six days go-VITR-PAST-1PL house-OBL.F-DAT
n-h-e' wala ek-ak kury-a-ma. krēn
NEG-is-NEG any one-INDEF house-OBL.F-LOC where $k a ̄ n-u \bar{u} ? ~ g i \check{s} \quad y a S n i \quad$ šar- $\overline{-}-r-e d-i$
was-3PL all PART hide-ITR-PAST-3PL-PRG
'Six days later we came back home, there was nobody at home.
Where were they? They were all hiding.'
baSdēn eh-r-a harb t-tamānī $\bar{u}$ 'arbaSīn, then become-PAST-M war DEF-eight and forty giš dōm-e waz-r-e min quds-a-ki.
all Dom-PL flee-PAST-3PL from Jerusalem-OBL.F-ABL krēn gar-e? Sammān-a-ta
where go.PAST-3PL Amman-OBL.F-DAT
'Then the war of forty-eight started, all the Dom fled from Jerusalem. Where did they go? To Amman.'

### 9.4. Imperative clauses

Imperative clauses in Domari make use of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ person subjunctive/ imperative form in order to formulate an instruction, command, or request. Typical of imperative clauses is the absence, in the overwhelming number of cases, of a pre-verbal field and the immediate initiation of the predication, which encodes the command or instruction directed at the listener. In a corpus consisting largely of narration, imperative clauses mainly appear in quotations:
zābit aha Collinge qal: anu grawara, office this.M Collinge PART come.2SG.SUBJ head.man bidd-nā kar-an tašxīs. want-1PL do-1PL.SUBJ identification
'The officer Collinge said: Come here, chief, we want to carry out an identification parade.'
a. žamil tmaliy-an-ke qxal: ašti wāšī-m Jamil soldier-OBL.PL-BEN said there.is with-1SG kart-i card-PRED.SG
b. par-as-is $\bar{u}$ dè-s-is take-2PL.SUBJ-3SG.OBL and give-2PL.SUBJ-3SG.OBL hay-ke mudïr-as-ke this-BEN director-OBL.SG-BEN
a. 'Jamil said to the soldiers: I have with me a letter,
b. Take it and give it to this man, the director.

'She used to say to me: No, you sit at home, don't go to school!'

### 9.5. Complex clauses

### 9.5.1. An overview of conjunctions

Like Palestinian Arabic, Domari relies mainly on conjunctions, in addition to a limited number of participial forms of the verb, in order to express connections between clauses. The entire inventory of Domari conjunctions is adopted from Palestinian Arabic and remains identical to contemporary use in Arabic. We may speak of a 'fusion' of the systems of connectivity in the two languages (cf. Matras 1998a, 2005), with Domari adopting not just single forms and structures from Arabic but the entire category of connectivity marking on a wholesale basis. Table 75 offers an overview of Domari conjunctions and connectors.

Table 75. Domari conjunctions and connectors.

| $\bar{u}$ | 'and' | gabel mā | 'before' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wala | 'and not', 'neither', 'either' | ba§d mā | 'after' |
| yā | 'or' | minn-yōm-ma | 'since' |
| wila | 'or', 'or else', 'neither' | iza | 'if' |
| bass | 'but', 'only', 'however' | law | 'if' |
| illi | relative pronoun | bi-rrayem | 'despite', 'although' |
| inn- | 'that' | Yašān | 'for', 'in order to' |
| li'ann | 'because' | mins̄ān | 'for', 'in order to' |
| lamma | 'when' | ta | 'in order to' |
| Kull māa | 'whenever' |  |  |

### 9.5.2. Coordination

The conjunction $\bar{u}(W)$ is the primary means of connecting propositions in discourse and achieving a chaining effect of events in narration:
(29) a. par-d-a pl-an min dozdan-ki take-PAST-M money-OBL.PL from wallet-ABL
b. $\bar{u}$ tir-d-osan džēb-is-ma and put-PAST-3PL pocket-3SG.OBL-LOC
c. $\bar{u} \quad k s \check{a} a l-d-a$ and leave-PAST-M
a. 'He took the money from the wallet.
b. And he put it in his pocket.
c. And he left.'

It is also used to combine two propositional entities into a shared, overall conceptual category:
(30) ašti $i k$-ak nam-os, fac̣ā' $\bar{u}$ ik-ak there.is one-INDEF name-3SG Fada and one-INDEF nam-os rāya
name-3SG Raya
'There is one named Fada and one named Raya.'

The conjunction wala 'and not' connects negative propositions to display a succession of unfulfilled events:
(31) min uhu waxt-as-ki in-š-ar-e,
from that time-OBL.M-ABL NEG-speak-3SG-NEG wāšī-m wala ama š-am-i wāšī-s with-1SG nor I speak-1SG-PRG with-3SG 'Since that time he doesn't speak with me nor do I speak with him.'
(32) yaSni n-kar-ad-e' mašākl-ē mas

PART NEG-do-3PL-NEG problems-OBL.F with ḥukum-è-ki wala did h hukum-è-ki government-OBL.F-ABL nor against government-OBL.F-ABL 'Well, they don't cause any trouble [either] with the government nor against the government.'

Like its positive counterpart, wala can equally conjoin single entities that are absent, non-existent or unfulfilled:
(33) ihni kān-ū žli-k-ad-a, n-h-e, wila thus was-3PL wash-VTR-3PL-REM, NEG-is-NEG neither ḥanafiyye wala 'iši
tap nor anything
'That's how they used to wash, there was neither a tap nor anything.'
Alternatives are demarcated in two different fashions: The conjunction yā conjoins two propositions or entities whose respective existence or truth value is not necessarily mutually exclusive:
(34) da'iman hhšur-ahr-om-i kury-a-ma yā
always kept-VITR-1SG-PRG
par-ar-m-i wāšī-s
take-3SG-1SG-PRG with-3SG
house-OBL.F-LOC or
par-ar-i pl-ē-m
take-3SG-PRG money-PL-1SG
'I am always locked up at home, or else she takes me with her to work, and she takes my money.'
$\check{s}$-ad-i inn-hom min šamāl-os-ki
say-3PL-PRG COMP-3PL from north-3SG-ABL
hnūd-an-ki, $\quad y a ̄ \quad \min \quad$ l-bakistān
India-OBL.PL-ABL or from Pakistan
'They say that they are from northern India, or from Pakistan.'
The conjunction wila by contrast introduces an alternative that is not compatible with the preceding entity or propositional content to which it is conjoined:

| šōna | illi $\quad$ iStid-ah-r-a | atnī- $r$ | wāšī-san- $i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| boy | REL | attack-VITR-PAST-M | on-2SG |
| with-3PL-PRED.SG |  |  |  |
| wila | la? |  |  |
| or | not |  |  |

'Is the boy who attacked you among them or not?'
A common use of wila is in the filler wila 'iši 'or something', which broadly speaking leaves imaginary scope for an alternative depiction of the relevant state of affairs:
(37) kull ma aw-ar-i Sarīs-ak wila
every COMP come-3SG-PRG bridegroom-INDEF or
'iši š-ad-i n-h-e' nkī-man läšy-e.
anything say-3PL-PRG NEG-is-NEG at-1PL girl-PL
${ }^{\text {'Every time a prospective bridegroom or something arrives they say }}$ we don't have girls.'

The contrastive conjunction is bass (which also serves as a focus particle meaning 'only'), which blocks certain possible inferences from a preceding statement:
(38) adžoti ašti pl-e, bass yāl-ik
today there.is money-PL but expensive-PRED.SG
'Today people have money, but things are expensive.'
(39) $\bar{u}$ našy-ad-a, $\bar{u} \quad$ janni-k-ad-a, bass and dance-3PL-REM and sing-VTR-3PL-REM but Sïša ghāy-a
life good-REM
'And they used to dance, and they used to sing, but life was good.'
(40) akbar min yasmīn-a-ki pandži yimkin talātīn
bigger from Yasmin-OBL.F-ABL 3SG perhaps thirty sane bass kān ghāy bol aha abu saৎ̄̄d year but was.3SG.M good very this.M Abu Said ${ }^{\text {'He was maybe thirty years older than Yasmin, but he was very }}$ good, this man Abu Said.'

### 9.5.3. Embedded questions

Embedded questions are indirect questions that are integrated as complements into complex clauses, accompanying verbs of knowledge and perception. Their use in spontaneous, connected speech is extremely limited. Their syntactic
organisation pattern is no different than that of counterpart structures in Arabic or most European languages: The complement tends to follow the matrix verb, it is introduced by a semantically specialised interrogative serving as a complementiser, and the complement verb tends to show independent choice of tense-aspect:
(41) ama džan-am-e’ krēn skun-ahr-ēk

I know-1SG-NEG where live-VITR.PAST-PRED.SG 'I don't know where he lives.'

| $d z ̌ a n-d-o m-i$ | $k i ̄$ | $-i r d-a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| know-PAST-1SG-PRG | what |  |
| 'I have understood what he said.' |  |  |

(43) ažoti džan-d-or-i kē kar-ad-i dōm-ē-man? today know-PAST-2SG-PRG what do-3PL-PRG Dom-PL-1PL 'Do you know what our Dom are doing nowadays?'

### 9.5.4. Relative clauses

Relative clauses are introduced by the Arabic relativiser illi. As in Arabic, they follow the head noun and introduce a predication that provides supplementary, clarifying or identifying information about the head noun. The position of relative clauses tends to precede the main clause predication; it thus suspends the main predication until clarification concerning the identity of the head noun is delivered:
(44) lak-ed-a ihi illi ktib-k-ad-i
see-PAST-M this.F REL write-VTR-PAST-F
kart-as-ta bay-os-i mudir-as-ki
letter-OBL.M-DAT wife-3SG-PRED.SG director-OBL.M-ABL 'He realised that the one who had written the letter was the director's wife.'

Relative clauses are often pre-planned and their head noun is exposed by a demonstrative in order to draw attention to the clarifying information that is being delivered:
(45) ehe dōm-e illi aw-ad-i min-l-awwal, these Dom-PL REL come-3PL-PRG from-DEF-beginning ehe ḥaddad-ni, haddid-k-ad-i
these smith-PRED.PL metal-VTR-3PL-PRG
'Those Doms who came at the beginning, they were smiths, they worked with metal.'

Like Arabic, Domari too has an obligatory resumptive pronoun co-referent for all thematic roles of the head noun within the relative clause except the subject. Resumption of the head noun is indicated through object pronominal affixes on the verb or a location expression:


In isolated cases we find a tendency to employ an Arabic resumptive pronoun for a head noun that is the direct object of the relative clause, while the indirect object is expressed as a pronominal clitic on the verb. Arabic inflection is then used to mark agreement in gender and number between the Arabic resumptive pronoun and its Domari head noun:
(49) mana illi t-or-im iyyā-h
bread REL give.PAST-2SG-1SG.OBL OBJ-3SG.M 'the bread that you gave me [it]'
(50) pl-e illi t-or-im iyyā-hum
money-PL REL give.PAST-2SG-1SG.OBL OBJ-PL 'the money that you gave me [them]'

A significant proportion of relative clauses rely on a nominal clause structure:

| gar-a, | pen-d-a | fray-an | illi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| go.PAST-M | remove-PAST-M | clothes-OBL.PL | REL |
| usix-ni | ${ }^{\text {illi }}$ a atni-s-ni | $\bar{u}$ | gar-a |
| dirty-PRE | REL on-3S | RED.PL and | go.PAST-M |

$d o w-a d-a \quad \bar{u} \quad$ hada $\bar{u}$ šattif- $k$-ad-a
wash-PAST-M and PART and dry-VTR-PAST-M
'He went, he removed the dirty clothes that he was wearing and he
went and washed and all that and dried them.'
(52) $\bar{u}$ naḍ̣if-k-ad-a hāl-os $\bar{u} \quad$ gar-a and clean-VTR-PAST-M REFL-3SG and go.PAST-M īzā̧-ē-ta kinēn? illi fi l-mūsrara. radio-OBL.F-DAT where REL in DEF-Musrara 'And he cleaned himself up and he went to the broadcasting station where? [The one] that is in Musrara.'

| er-a | izāS-ē-ta | ehe | tmaliy-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-M radio-OBL.F-DAT | these.PL soldier-PL |  |  |
| illi $\quad$ kapiy-ak-ēni | qal | krēn gar-or-i? |  |

REL door-INDEF-PRED.PL PART where go.PAST-2SG-PRG 'He arrived at the radio station, the soldiers who are at one of the doors said where did you go?'
9.5.5. Complement clauses

### 9.5.5.1. Indicative complements

Indicative complements follow epistemic verbs (verba dicendi or verbs of perception, such as 'to say', 'to know', 'to see', 'to hear', 'to understand', and so on). The subordinated verb appears in the indicative, and the complement is generally introduced by the Arabic complementiser inn-, which normally carries Arabic person inflection in agreement with the subject of the complement clause:

Table 76. (Arabic) person-inflection of the complementiser inn-

| 1SG | inn-i |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2SG.M | inn-ak |
| 2SG.F | inn-ek |
| 3SG.M | inn-o |
| 3SG.F | inn-hā |
| 1PL | in-nā |
| 2PL | inn-kum |
| 3PL | inn-hom |


| lak-ed-os-i | inn-o | aha- $k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| see-PAST-3SG-PRG | COMP-3SG.M | this.M-PRED.SG |

illi f-ēr-a mawāl-i
REL hit-PAST-M mawal-PRED.SG
'She realised that it was he who sang the Mawal.'

| $\bar{u}$ | pandži | in-džan-ar-e, | inn-hā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | 3SG | NEG-know-3SG-NEG | COMP-3SG.F |

džažan-i.
pregnant-PRED.SG
'And she didn't know that she was pregnant.'
(56) aylabiy-osan š-ad-i inn-hom min
majority-3PL say-3PL-PRG COMP-3PL from
šamāl-os-ki hnūd-an-ki
north-3SG-ABL India-OBL.PL-ABL
'Most of them say that they are from northern India.'
(57) n-ḥibb-od-e' dōm-as, Sašān džan-ad-i

NEG-like-3PL-NEG Dom-OBL.M because know-3PL-PRG
in-nā dōm
COMP-1PL Dom
'They don't like the Dom, because they know that we are Dom.'
(58) wa thim-k-ad-ed-is mindz̆ı̄-m inn-i
and accuse-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL from-1SG COMP-1SG
ama kur-d-om-is xuṣlusīi Sankī-s
I throw-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL deliberately at-3SG
'And they accused me of throwing it at her deliberately.'
The order of constituents within the indicative complement clause is flexible. The complementiser may be followed by the subject of the complement clause, the predicate, or indeed a nominal predicate in a nominal complement clause. An alternative to the inflected complementiser is a generalised form of the complementiser - inni or sometimes inno- which does not show agreement with the subject of the complement clause. It tends to appear immediately before that subject:

| (59) | kān pay | p | $\grave{s}$-ar-a | $a b-u s-k e$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | was.3SG.M hus | husband-3SG | say-3SG-REM | -3SG-BEN |
|  | džan-ad-i | Selat-om | inni atu | džā-k |
|  | know-3PL-PRG | G family-1SG | COMP you.S | SG go-2SG |
|  | mangiš-k-ēk | yabayēy | fdah-k-ad-m-i. |  |
|  | begging-VTR-2S | 2SG PART | frown-VTR-3PL | -1SG-PRG |


| payy-os | li'inn-o | tāt-i |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | kān

Note that the complementiser can also be used in this way to introduce direct speech:
(60) $\bar{u}$ ktib-k-ad-ēk balat-ē-ta inni and write-VTR-PAST-PRED.SG stone-OBL.F-DAT COMP džassās mar-d-os-im.
Jassas kill-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
'And he wrote on the stone [that]: Jassas killed me.'
(61) gar-a aha šōna š-ird-a boy-is-ke, go.PAST-M this.M boy say-PAST-M father-3SG.OBL-BEN qrara, inni ama mang-am-i ihi domiy-ē
Bedouin COMP I love-1SG-PRG this.F Dom.woman-OBL.F
bidd-ī par-am itžawwiz-om-is.
want-1SG take-1SG.SUBJ marry-1SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL
'The boy went and said to his father, the Bedouin [that]: I love this Dom woman, I want to marry her.'

### 9.5.5.2. Modal complements

Domari aligns itself with various languages of the Anatolian-Mesopotamian region in showing a structural distinction between modal and indicative complements. This is connected with the prevalence in Domari, as in some other languages of the region (including Arabic, Kurdish, Neo-Aramaic, Azeri, and to some extent Persian), of finiteness in all or most clause-combining strategies. The absence of a modal infinitive requires a distinct marking of the dependency relationship between the finite verb in the modal complement clause and the matrix verb (the modal verb). In Domari, the transition between the matrix and modal complement clause is usually smooth and unmediated; the dependency of the modal complement is expressed in the first instance through the choice of the subjunctive mood on the complement verb:

| (62) | $i h i$ | $s a k-a r-e '$ | $k a m-k-a r$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.F | can-3SG-NEG | work-VTR-3SG.SUBJ |  |
|  | 'She cannot work.' |  |  |


| bidd-ī | dža- $m$ | haram-ka | salli-k-am |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| want-1SG go-1SG.SUBJ | mosque-DAT | pray-VTR-1SG.SUBJ |  |
| 'I want to go to the mosque to pray.' |  |  |  |

Same-subject modal complements show subject-concord agreement between the modal expression of the matrix clause, and the modal complement verb. In different-subject constructions, also called 'manipulation' clauses (complex clauses in which an actor is depicted as instigating an action by another actor), the procedure followed is essentially similar: Both verbs are finite. The matrix clause contains an indicative modal (manipulation) predicate, while the embedded complement appears in the subjunctive mood. Subject-concord obviously follows the referential topics of the respective clauses, leading to an interruption in agreement patterns in the two clauses. Like same-subject modal complements, no conjunction is required in order to introduce the complement, nor is an overt specification of the subject of the embedded verb necessary:
(64) bidd-hom ek-ak saSid-k-ar-san
want-3PL one-INDEF help-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-3PL
'They want somebody to help them.'

(66) $\bar{u}$ baq-èt radžo-h-om-s-a yaSni and stayed-1SG plead-VITR-1SG-3SG-REM PART waddi-k-ar-im madras-è-ka send-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-1SG.OBL school-OBL.F-DAT 'And I kept pleading with her to send me to school.'

In both same- and different-subject modality complements, use of a general (uninflected) complementiser inni introducing the complement is an option:
(67) aha boy-os šōn-as-ki, nan-ar-i
this.M father-3SG boy-OBL.M-ABL bring-3SG-PRG
dakātr-an inni tayyib-kar-ad aha
doctors-OBL.PL COMP cure-VTR-3PPL.SUBJ this.M
šōn-as
boy-OBL.M
'The boy's father sends doctors to cure the boy.'
(68) $\bar{u}$ itme lāzem masīr-oran hōš-as inni
and you.PL must destiny-2PL be.SUBJ-2PL COMP bass janni-kar-as $\bar{u}$ našī-š-as
only sing-VTR-2PL.SUBJ and dance-SUBJ-2PL
'And your destiny will be that you will only sing and dance.'
(69) $\bar{u}$ ama wafaq- $k$-ad-om- $i \quad$ inn- $i$
and I agree-VTR-PAST-1SG-PRG COMP-1SG
džawiz-k-am-is ab-ur-ke
marry-VTR-1SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL for-2SG-BEN
'And I agree to marry her to you.'

### 9.5.6. Purpose clauses

Purpose clauses are related to modality complements in that they too are depictions of target events and actions whose realisation is dependent on that of the conditions set out implicitly through the matrix clauses. Consequently, purpose predicates equally appear in the subjunctive mood, indicating nonrealisation or conditional realisation. The particular feature of purpose clauses is the fact that the group of matrix verbs constitutes an open class rather than a specialised category of modal auxiliaries or verba dicendi (predicates of command, instruction and so on); any activity can in principle be carried out in order to lead to any other. This implies a rather loose information connection, by comparison with modality constructions, between the matrix verb and the embedded target verb (purpose verb). This in turn is reflected by the tendency to mark out the purpose clause through an Arabic conjunction minšān 'in order to' (also 'for'), in all but the most tightly integrated combination of predicates:
(70) nan fray-ē-m wark-am-san! bring.2SG.SUBJ clothes-PL-1SG wear-1SG.SUBJ-3PL
'Bring my clothes for me to wear!'
(71) dža-nd-i kury-an-ta, našy-and-i $\bar{u}$ go-3PL-PRG house-OBL.PL-DAT dance-3PL-PRG and hāda minšān lim-kar-ad PART for earn-VTR-3PL.SUBJ
'They go to the houses, they dance and so on in order to earn money.'
(72) kil-d-i
exit-PAST-F
sū̄r-as-ta minšān
-OBL.M-DAT
ṣawwir-k-ar manāzir-ē-s hay-ki,
photograph-VTR-3SG.SUBJ views-PL-3SG PART-ABL

## ūyar-ki <br> city-ABL

'She climbed the wall in order to take pictures of the city views.'

| giš qol-d-ed-i | pet-ē-san | ehe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| all open-PAST-3PL-PRG belly-PL-3PL these.PL |  |  |

A second final conjunction, $t a$, is considered somewhat old-fashioned; as is the case in Arabic, it is used by some elderly speakers but is being replaced by minšān. Nevertheless, we encounter occasional utterances in which ta introduces purpose clauses:
(74) tāni dis aha šōna qrara, putr-os
second day this.M boy Bedouin son-3SG
šex-as-kj, gar-a ta lak-ar

Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL go.PAST-M PART see-3SG.SUBJ
dōm-an ma lak-ed-osan
Dom-OBL.PL NEG see-PAST-3PL
'The next day this Bedouin boy, the Sheikh's son, went to find the Dom, but he didn't find them.'

### 9.5.7. Adverbial subordination

As in the case of clause combining strategies in general, adverbial subordination in Domari replicates almost entirely and on a wholesale basis the structural strategies of adverbial subordination in colloquial Palestinian Arabic. The present section offers an overview of selected semantic types of adverbial clause that are prominent in the corpus.

### 9.5.7.1. Temporal clauses

While adverbial clauses, like other clause combining strategies in Domari, rely principally on constructing connections between finite clauses, simultaneous temporality or co-temporality is a notable exception, owing to the presence also in Arabic of non-finite and semi-finite strategies of adverbial subordination in this particular semantic domain.

Firstly, Domari shows a co-temporal construction that relies on a nominalised form of the verb. This form is used exclusively in this construction and does not have any further function or distribution in the language. It is based on the verb root, to which the person suffix of the oblique possessor is attached. The word is introduced by the Arabic preposition maS 'with' and is inflected for the ablative-prepositional Layer II case. The construction replicates the Arabic co-temporal construction, which is based on a genuine nominal form corresponding to the verbal root, which is inflected for the possessor indicating the actor ( $m a \S n o \overline{m t-1}$ 'as I sleep' = 'with my sleep'):


A second non-finite strategy is the use of pseudo-converbs consisting of past-tense stems marked by non-verbal predication markers, a kind of participle that replicates the Arabic present participle (qā̧ed 'sitting', wä'ef 'standing', etc.):
lak-ed-om-is mind-ird-ēk see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL stand-PAST-PRED.SG 'I saw him standing.'
(78) lak-ed-om qapiy-a ban-ī-r-ik see-PAST-1SG door-OBL.F open-ITR-PAST-PRED.SG 'I saw the door opening.'

A functionally related co-temporal construction has the subordinated predicate in a finite, present tense form, once again a structure that matches one of the options in Arabic:
(79) sin-d-om-is hear-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL 'I heard him singing.'

Finally, again as in Arabic, co-temporality can also be expressed by an additive conjunction $\bar{u}$ introducing a finite adverbial clause. There are no constraints on the identity of the subject in either part of the construction:

| Sazif-k-and-i | rabbāb-ē-ta | $\bar{u}$ | pandži |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| play-VTR-3PL-PRG | rabbaba-OBL.F-DAT | and | 3SG |
| našy-ar- $i$ |  |  |  |
| dance-3SG-PRG |  |  |  |
| 'They play the rabbaba while she's dancing.' |  |  |  |

(81) lak-ed-om-is w-ama kil-d-om min
see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL and-I exit-PAST-1SG from qapiy-a-ki
door-OBL.F-ABL
'I saw her as I was going out the door.'
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { (82) dand- } \overline{-}-m & \text { tiknaw-ad-m-i } & \bar{u} & \text { ama } \\ \text { tooth-PL-1SG } & \text { hurt-3PL-1SG-PRG } & \text { and } & \text { I }\end{array}$
sit-om- $i$
sleep.PAST-1SG-PRG
'My teeth hurt as I sleep.'

Another way of expressing co-temporality relies on introducing the adverbial clause with the Arabic conjunction lamma 'when':

| lamma | kunn-t | ama | qaštōt-ik, | na |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| when | was-1SG | I | small-PRED.SG | NEG |
| nēr-d-ed-im |  | madāris-an-ka |  |  |
| send-PAST-3PL-1SG.OBL | schools-OBL.PL-DAT |  |  |  |
| 'When I was small, they didn't send me to school.' |  |  |  |  |

(84) dōm-è-s yaf-ē-ki lamma kān

Dom-PL-3SG Jaffa-OBL.F-ABL when was.3SG.M
aw-and-a Lùyar-ta hindar, šluš-and-a Sand
come-3PL-REM city-DAT here sleep-3PL-REM at
dōm-ē-man-ki hindar ūyar-ma
Dom-PL-1PL-ABL here city-LOC
'The Dom of Jaffa, when they used to come here to Jerusalem, they used to stay with our Dom here in Jerusalem.'
(85) lamma lak-ed-a xāl-os indžann-ahr-a
when see-PAST-M uncle-3SG crazy-VITR.PAST-M
boy-om
father-1SG
'When he saw his uncle, my father went crazy.'

| lamma | hōš-ar | läši | 乌umr-os | xamista§̌̌r | sane |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| when | be.SUBJ-3SG | girl | age-3SG | fifteern | year | sitta乡̌̌ sane, stanno-ho-r-i aw-ar-is sixteen year wait-VITR-3SG-PRG come-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL Saris-ak bridegroom-INDEF džawiz-hōš-ar dža-r kury-is-ka marry-VITR.SUBJ-3SG go-3SG.SUBJ house-3SG.OBL-DAT sit-3SG.SUBJ house-3SG.OBL-LOC 'When a girl reaches the age of fifteen or sixteen years, she waits for a bridegroom to approach her so that she can marry and go to his house to live in his house.'

Repetitive relations are expressed by the Arabic conjunction kull ma 'every time':
(87) kull ma aw-ar-i Sarīs-ak wila
every COMP come-3SG-PRG bridegroom-INDEF or 'iši $\quad$ sa-d-i $\quad n-h-e$ ' nkī-man lăšy-e something say-3PL-PRG NEG-is-NEG at-1PL girl-PL 'Every time a bridegroom or something arrived they would say we don't have girls.'


Duration of a subordinated event ('since') is expressed by the Arabic expression min-yōm-ma, literally 'from the day that':
 we-DAT NEG enter-PAST-1SG at.all Jordan-OBL.F ' $I /$ since the Jews arrived here I haven't visited Jordan at all.'

Anterior and posterior adverbial clauses are introduced by the conjunctions qabel ma 'before' and bald ma 'after' respectively. Note that in line with tense-aspect-modality mapping in the corresponding Arabic constructions, clauses introduced with qabel ma 'before' show the predicate in the subjunctive (cf. Arabic qabel ma aSmal 'before I do'), while posterior clauses generally appear in the indicative mood:
(90) qabel ma dža-m xałłas-k-ed-om
before COMP go-1SG.SUBJ finish-VTR-PAST-1SG
kam-as
work-OBL.M
'Before I left I finished my work.'
(91) qabel ma skun-hōš-am hnēn-i kun-t
before COMP live-VITR.SUBJ-1SG here-PRED.SG was-1SG ūyar-m-ēk
city-LOC-PRED.SG
'Before I came to live here I lived in the city.'
(92) ba§d ma štrī-k-ad-a man-as $\bar{u}$
after COMP buy-VTR-PAST-M bread-OBL.M and
humms-ī xul-d-a min dakākinn-an-ki/
hummus-OBL.M open-PAST-M from shops.PL-OBL.PL-ABL
$b a ̄ b$ isbāt $\bar{u}$ kil-d-a daradž-ē-s hay-ki
gate Lions and descend-PAST-M stair-PL-3SG this-ABL
illi Sand bāb isbāt
REL at gate Lions
'After he bought the bread and the hummus he came out of the shops at/Lions Gate/ and went down the stairs of this place, at Lions Gate.'
(93) bafd ma xałłas-k-ed-a kam-os gar-a
after COMP finish-VTR-PAST-M work-3SG go.PAST-M
kury-is-ta
house-3SG.OBL-DAT
'After he finished his work he went home.'

### 9.5.7.2. Causal clauses

The principal feature of causal constructions is the introductory Arabic conjunction li'ann- (also la'inn), which often carries Arabic pronominal agreement with the subject of the causal clause, drawing on the same set of markers as the complementiser inn- to which it is structurally related (see Table 76 above).
(94) bardo baq-ēt dža-m-a kam-k-am-a, also stayed-1SG go-1SG-REM work-VTR-1SG-REM li'ann-o boy-om n-kam-k-ar-e'
because-3SG.M father-1SG NEG-work-VTR-3SG-NEG 'I also continued to work, because my father did not work.'

| $k a ̄ n$ | payy-os | $\grave{s}$-ar-a $\quad a b$ | ab-us-ke | iza |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| was.3SG.M | husband-3SG | say-3SG-REM to | to-3SG-BEN | if |
| džan-ad-i | Selat-om | inni atu | džā-k |  |
| know-3PL-PR | RG family-1SG | COMP you.SG | G go-2SG |  |
| mangiš-k-èk | yabayēy | fdah $-k$-ad-m-i |  |  |
| begging-VTR | -2SG PART | frown-VTR-3PL- | L-1SG-PRG |  |
| payy-os | li'inn-o | $t \overline{t a t}-\dot{i}$ | kān |  |
| husband-3SG | because-3SG.M | M Arab-PRED.SG | G was.3S |  | 'Her husband used to say to her, if my family knew that you are going out begging, oh my dear, they would disown me. Because her husband was an Arab.'

Agreement with the conjunction often follows Arabic rules of agreement; thus weather conditions, for example, appear in the feminine singular (the Arabic construction revolving around the subject expression ad-dumya 'the world'):
(96) na kil-d-om bara li'ann-hā wars-ar-i NEG exit-PAST-1SG out because-3SG.F rain-3SG-PRES 'I did not go out because it was raining.'

Agreement is often dropped, however, and the 3SG.M form li'anno is generalised:

| $s \bar{a} r-\bar{u}$ | -ad-i | bidd-o | $h \bar{s} s ̌-a r$ | $h a r b$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| started-3PL | say-3PL-PRG | want-3SG.M be.SUBJ-3SG | war |  |
| li'anno aw-ad-i | yahūdiy-e, protkīl-e |  |  |  |
| because come-3PL-PRG | Jew-PL | Jew-PL |  |  |
| 'They began to say that there is going to be a war, because the Jews |  |  |  |  |
| are coming.' |  |  |  |  |

Causal clauses may follow the main clause, as in the above examples; alternatively, they may also precede the main clause, building up an argumentation chain to account for the state of affairs depicted in the main propositional unit. The causal clause will often appear in seeming isolation, disconnected syntactically from a fully-formed complex sentence yet well embedded at the discourse level into the content structure of the narrative account:
(98) Ii'inno $n$-h-e' pani, lamma kān-ū because NEG-is-NEG water when was-3PL žli-k-ad-a hanafiyye kān, wash-VTR-3PL-REM NEG-is-NEG tap was.3SG.M

'Because there was no water, when they used to wash, there was no water tap, they used to put a bowl, like a dish with soap, and a large dish with water.'

A justification can also be provided, as in Arabic, by the conjunction Sašān 'because, for':
(99) min uhu ayyām-an-ki šukk-r-a mindžī-m from that days-OBL.PL-ABL suspect-PAST-M from-1SG Sašān nig-r-om kury-os-ta lak-ed-om because enter-PAST-1SG house-3SG-DAT see-PAST-1SG man-as $\bar{u}$ hada bread-OBL.M and PART
'From that day on he suspected me because I had entered his house and I saw the bread and all that.'

### 9.5.7.3. Conditional and concessive clauses

Domari has four types of conditional clauses, all of which closely follow the Arabic format of conditional constructions. The first - present-realis conditional - is introduced by the conjunction iza 'if', followed by the conditional clause verb in the present indicative. The main clause (apodosis) can appear in the subjunctive/imperative or in the present indicative, often taking a future-oriented reading. The reading of the present-realis conditional is that of a condition that has a high chance of fulfillment or indeed is known to be realistic, and thus implies a realistic apodosis:

| (100) $\check{\text { š-ird-a }}$ | putr-os-ke | qal | iza | atu | bidd-ak |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| say-PAST-M | son-3SG-BEN | PART | if | you.SG | want-2SG |
| iyyā-hā, | qal | xałłas, | dz̈a |  | nan-is |
| OBJ-3SG.F | PART | PART | go.SUBJ.2SG | bring-3SG.OBL |  |
| 'He said to his son, if you want her, then fine, go and get her.' |  |  |  |  |  |


| (101) iza | wars-ar-i, | $n$-aw-am-e' |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| if | rain-3SG-PRG | NEG-come-1SG-NEG | 'If it rains, I shall not come.'

The conjunction iza is sometimes left out, leaving the conditional construction to rely on the mere juxtaposition of condition and apodosis:

| (102) | ek-ak | mišta- $h$-or-i, | aw-ar-i |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| one-INDEF | ill-VITR-3SG-PRG | come-3SG-PRG | ambulans |
| ambulance |  |  |  |

The potential-conditional describes a rather specific and particular condition, which may be realised if particular circumstances are met, and consequently an apodosis that stands a realistic chance of materialising subject to those particular circumstances. Here, iza 'if' is accompanied by the verb in the past tense while the apodosis appears in the subjunctive/imperative or present indicative:

'He said to the journalists, if you ever go back to Jordan and see Jamil, ask him.'
(104) boy-os qal ehe dom-ēni $\bar{u}$ iza
father-3SG PART these.PL Dom-PRED.PL and if
par-d-or-is mar-am/ mar-am-san-i gištāne,
take-PAST-2SG-3SG.OBL kill-1SG kill-1SG-3PL-PRG all
giš dōm-an mar-am-i
all Dom-OBL.PL kill-1SG-PRG
'His father said, these are Dom, and if you marry her, I will kill/ I will kill them all, I will kill all the Dom.'

The present-irrealis sets a condition that is less likely to materialise. It is characterised by the use of the irrealis conjunction law 'if', accompanied by the verb in the past or remote tense, in the conditional clause, while the apodosis appears in the present indicative:

```
(105) qal tab̧an džan-am-s-i, wa-law qēb-r-a
PART of.course know-1SG-3SG-PRG and-if miss-PAST-M
ama-ta Sašara snin džan-am-s-i
1SG-DAT ten years know-1SG-3SG-PRG
'He said of course I know him, and if I didn't see him for ten years I
would still know him.'
(106) law mar-ē-m-a, \(\quad n\)-warak-am-san-e,
if kill-2SG-1SG-REM NEG-wear-1SG-3PL-NEG
'If you killed me, I wouldn't wear them.'
(107) law d-ē-m-a Sašr līrāt in-q-am-e,
if give-2SG-1SG-REM ten pounds NEG-eat-1SG-NEG
agir mat-an-ki
in.front person-OBL.PL-ABL
'If you gave me ten pounds I wouldn't eat in front of people.'
```

Finally, in the past-irrealis or counterfactual, the condition can no longer materialise. The positing of a condition and apodosis therefore relates to a hypothetical state of affairs. Here, the conjunction law 'if' is accompanied by the past or remote tense in the conditional clause, and by the counterfactual auxiliary $k \bar{n} n$ accompanied by the pluperfect in the main clause:
(108) law er-om xužoti kān lah-erd-om-s-a
if come.PAST-1SG yesterday was see-PAST-1SG-3SG-REM
'If I had come yesterday, I would have seen him.'
(109) kān ihi par-d-iy-a bakaloris awwal, law
was this.F take-PAST-F-REM baccalaureat first if
ašti ple
there.is money
'She would have taken her baccalaureat first, had there been money.'
(110) wałłah law many-an-a kān eme $\bar{u}$ pandžan

PART if stay-1PL-REM was we and they
sawa gar-ēn-a
together go.PAST-1PL-REM
'Well, if we had stayed, we and they would have gone together.'
Concessive clauses are introduced by the Arabic conjunctions bi-rrayem min or bi-rrayem inn- 'despite, although':


### 9.6. Negative clauses

The negation particle used as a negating speech act in a negative response to a question is na, though Arabic la' is also frequently used. The negation of lexical predicates takes on two distinct forms, one for the present and one for past tense. The format for the present tenses involves typically a double pattern, with the prefix in- (often reduced to $n$-) introducing the verbal stem, and the accented suffix -é' (ending in a glottal stop), following at the end of the lexical predicate. There is often a tendency to omit the prefix, allowing the negation procedure to rely entirely on the glottalised suffix:
$\begin{array}{clll}\text { (113) baSdēn } & \text { in-kar-ad-é' } & \text { mašakl-ē } & \text { maS } \\ \text { then } & \text { NEG-do-3PL-NEG } & \text { problems-OBL.F } & \text { with }\end{array}$ ḥukum-ē-ki
government-OBL.F-ABL
'And then they don't cause the government any problems.'
(114) yaSni in-kafi-k-ar-s-é’

PART NEG-suffice-VTR-3SG-3SG-NEG whatever
par-ar-i ple, xamest 'ālāf, sitt 'ālāf take-3SG-PRG money five thousands six thousands

# par-ar, kafi-k-ar-s-é’ ple <br> take-3SG.SUBJ suffice-VTR-3SG-3SG-NEG money <br> 'Well, however much money she earns is not enough for her. <br> Whether she earns five thousand, six thousand, the money isn't enough for her.' 

(115)
$\begin{array}{lrl}\text { džawwiz- } k \text {-an-e' } & \begin{array}{l}\text { minšī-san } \\ \text { marry-VTR-1PL-NEG } \\ \text { from-3PL }\end{array} & \text { yaini } \\ \text { 'We don't marry them.' }\end{array}$
The negative counterpart to the existential expression astit 'there is' is based on the same configuration, drawing on the verb stem in $h$ - 'to be':
$n-h-e$, ab-san-ke asdāS-e
NEG-is-NEG for-3PL-BEN enemies-PL
'They have no enemies.'
(117) $n$-h-e' ple saSid-k-ar-san

NEG-is-NEG money help-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-3PL
'There is no money to help them.'
Double negative focus or negative addition ('neither nor') is expressed through negation of the first verb followed by the Arabic conjunction wala 'nor', or else with the Arabic conjunction pair la ... wala:
min uhu waxt-as-ki in-š-ar-e,
from that time-OBL.M-ABL NEG-speak-3SG-NEG
wāšī-m wala ama š-am-i wāšī-s
with-1SG nor I speak-1SG-PRG with-3SG
'Since that time he doesn't speak with me nor do I speak with him.'
(119) ama hēssaS wēs-r-om-i hnēn, la

I now sit-PAST-1SG-PRG here NEG
kam-k-am-i wala hayk-am-i
work-VTR-1SG-PRG nor PART-1SG-PRG
'I am now relaxing here, I don't work nor anything.'
(120) bass ehe krād-ēni, la par-d-e
but these Kurds-PRED.PL NEG take-PAST-3PL
minší-man yaSni wala eme d-ēn-san-i
from-1PL PART nor we give-1PL-3PL-PRG 'But these Kurds, they didn't take from us nor do we give to them.'

Negation in the imperative/subjunctive and past tenses relies on the inherited particle na, which is often interchangeable with the Arabic past-tense and subjunctive negation particle ma:
(121)

| pandži | š-ar-a | ama-ke: | na, | wēšt- $\bar{i}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | say-3SG-REM | I-BEN | no | sit-2SG.SUBJ |
| kury-a-ma | atu, na | na |  |  |
| house-OBL.F-LOC | you.SG NEG go.2SG.SUBJ |  |  |  |
| madras-ē-ka! |  |  |  |  |
| school-OBL.F-DAT |  |  |  |  |
| 'She used to say to me: No, you sit at home, don't go to school!' |  |  |  |  |

(122) $u$ $\begin{array}{llll}\bar{u} & s \bar{a} r & m n a\{-k-a r-i & d a y-i m \\ \text { and } & \text { began.3SG.M } & \text { prevent-VTR-3SG-PRG } & \text { mother-1SG.OBL }\end{array}$ yaSni na xarrif-hōš-ar wāšī-m, $\bar{u}$ ma PART NEG speak-VITR.SUBJ-3SG with-1SG and NEG lah-ar-im
see-3SG.SUBJ-1SG.OBL
'And he began to prevent my mother from speaking to me and from seeing me.'
(123) la, na gar-om jazz-ē-ka minmarra no NEG go.PAST-1SG Gaza-OBL.F-DAT ever ' No , I have never been to Gaza.'
(124) ma nig-r-om 'urdumny-a-ka ama, na

NEG enter-PAST-1SG Jordan-OBL.F-DAT I NEG
gar-om, I-hēssaS na gar-om
go.PAST-1SG to-now NEG go.PAST-1SG
'I haven't visited Jordan, I didn't go, so far I didn't go.'
(125) aktar min talātin xamsa-ū-talātin sana ma
more from thirty five-and-thirty year NEG
lak-ed-om-is
see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL
'I haven't seen him for more than thirty or thirty-five years.'

Arabic negation particles take over completely in two contexts. The first is in the negation of Arabic-inflected modal auxiliaries. Here, the preferred negation is the Arabic negation suffix $-\check{s}$.

| kull | ma | aw-ar-a | ab-us-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| every | COMP | come-3SG-REM | for-3SG-BEN |

bridegroom-INDEF was.3SG.M say-3SG-REM no
ben-om bidd-hā-š ट̌awwiz-hōš-ar
sister-1SG want-3SG.F-NEG marry-VITR.SUBJ-3SG
'Whenever a bridegroom came for her she would say no, my sister
doesn't want to marry.'
(127) da'iman hēk kar-ar-i mašākle.
always thus make-3SG-PRG problems-PL
bidd-o-š dža-r madāris-an-ka.
want-3SG.M-NEG go-3SG.SUBJ school-OBL.PL-DAT
'He is always making problems. He doesn't want to go to school.'

The second wholesale replication from Arabic in the negation domain is the negation of nominal clauses, where the Arabic nominal negation particle mišs is employed:
(128) day-os kān-at ihi li
mother-3SG was-3SG.F this.F REL
rabbi-k-ed-os-im mišš day-om-i.
raise-VTR-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL NEG mother-1SG
'His mother was the one who raised me, not my mother.'
(129) yaSni kān by-ar-i inn-o

PART was.3SG.M fear-3SG-PRG COMP-3SG.M
aw-ar kury-a-ka $\bar{u}$ bay-os mišš
come-3SG.SUBJ huse-OBL.F-DAT and wife-3SG NEG
kury-a-m-ēk
house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
'Well, he used to be afraid that he would come home and his wife would not be at home.'

| day-om | min $\quad$ Sammān-a-ki, | mišš min |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mother-1SG from Amman-OBL.F-ABL | NEG | from |  |
| Sēl-oman-ki | day-om |  |  |
| family-1PL-ABL mother-1SG |  |  |  |
| 'My mother is from Amman, she's not from our family, my mother.' |  |  |  |

The same particle is also used to negate adjectives and adverbs, nominal adjectives in non-verbal predications, and independent aspectual auxiliaries:
(131) $\bar{u}$ gištane-san kān- $\bar{u}$ yaßni Samil-k-ad-m-a and all-3SG was-3PL PART do-VTR-3PL-1SG-REM mišš ghāy kury-a-ma NEG good house-OBL.F-LOC 'And they were all treating me not well at home.'
(132) lamma kun-t Sašrīn sine Sumr-om ihni, when was-1SG twenty year age-1SG thus er-a šōn-ak mišš dōm-i come.PAST-M boy-INDEF NEG Dom-PRED.SG 'When I was around twenty years old, a non-Dom boy came.'
(133) $\bar{u}$ š-ird-a $a b$-us-ke dakātr-e, xałfas and say-PAST-M for-3SG-BEN doctors-PL enough atu mišš raḥ nan gēna xudwar-e you.SG NEG go bring again children 'And the doctor said to her, that's it, you are not going to bear any more children.'

## Chapter 10

## Adverbs and particles

### 10.1. Lexical adverbs

'Adverbs' constitute a fuzzy and ill-defined category in most languages. It is often a kind of leftover category, a wholesale classification of parts of speech with various functional values that do not comfortably correspond to the structural definitions of other types of sentence constituents. Domari is no exception, and this chapter therefore deals with an array of functional elements. Their primary common feature is their lack of inflectional morphology and their tendency to have modifying scope over an entire propositional content at the sentence or utterance level, or at the very least over the predication.

Within this group of words we can distinguish various sub-groups. Firstly, Domari can be said to possess a syntactic-semantic category of 'lexical adverbs': these are modifiers with lexical content (rather than indexical function; see below) that are employed as attributes to a verbal or non-verbal predication:
(1) $\bar{u}$ gištan-ē-san kān-ū yaSni Samil-k-ad-m-a and all-PL-3PL was-3PL PART treat-VTR-3PL-1SG-REM mišs ghāy kury-a-ma NEG well house-OBL.F-LOC
'And they all used to not treat me well at home'
(2)

| sār- $\bar{l}$ | kar-and-i | hafl-ē, | ašti | $i k-a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| started-3PL | do-3PL-PRG | party-OBL.F | there.is one-INDEF |  |

The forms ghāy 'well' and bol 'very' are probably the prototypical and most widely used inherited lexical adverbs in Domari. Note their position and function as a modifier to the verb Samilkadma 'they used to treat me' in (1),
and to the predicate adjective in the non-verbal predication guldik' (she) is pretty' in (2). Other lexical adverbs typically derive from Arabic and are used to describe the predication in respect of, for instance, the composition of its actors (examples (3)-(4)), its intentionality (example (5)), or its directionality or duration (examples (6)-(7)).
(3) wałfah law many-an-a kān eme $\bar{u}$ pandžan PART if stay-1PL-REM was.3SG.M we and they sawa gar-ēn-a
together go.PAST-1PL-REM
'Indeed, had we stayed, we would have gone together with them.'
(4) $\bar{u}$ ama dža-m-a mangiš- $k$-am-a min and I go-1SG-REM begging-VTR-1SG-REM from
wēn ma kān laḥāl-ī
where COMP was.3SG.M alone-1SG
'And I used to go begging anywhere on my own.'
(5) wa thim- $k$-ad-ed-is mindži-m inn-i
and accuse-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL from-1SG COMP-1SG ama kur-d-om-is xuṣūṣī Sankī-s
I throw-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL deliberately at-3SG
'And they accused me of throwing it at her deliberately.'
(6) ya eme kul-d-ēn-i duyri rīh-a-ka
or we descend-PAST-1PL-PRG directly Jericho-OBL.F-DAT 'Or we went straight to Jericho.'
(7) eme skun-h-ēn hindar zamān
we live-VITR-1PL here long
'We have been living here for a long time.'
Expressions of quantity can be regarded equally as adverbial following the above definition:

| waqt-os | ama | till-ah-r-om | šin $-a k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| time-3SG I | big-VITR-PAST-1SG | little-INDEF |  |
| 'Then I grew up a little.' |  |  |  |

### 10.2. Deictic adverbs and adverbs of place and time

Deictic adverbs are a closed class of deictic or indexical expressions whose referential function is not pronominal, i.e. it does not extend to topical entities, but to dimensions of manner or space. The most obvious are place deixis or
place adverbs, which in Domari are all pre-Arabic - hnēn and hindar 'here', hnon and hundar 'there'. The parallel expressions for time - hessal'now' and waqtos 'then' - are both derived from Arabic (though waqtos is a Domari composition, consisting of Arabic waqt 'time' and the Domari anaphoric 3SG possessive marker -OS):
(9) dža-nd-a dēy-an-ta mandža, nawāh̄i zayy go-3PL-REM village-OBL.PL-DAT inside around like yaf-ē-ki zayy bir sabs zayy hada, dz̆a-n-a Jaffa-OBL.F-ABL like Bir Saba like PART go-1PL-REM mangiš-kar-and-a giš dōm-ē-man hundar begging-VTR-3PL-REM all Dom-PL-1PL there 'They used to go into the villages, around [places] like Jaffa, like Bir Saba, like that, we used to go and all our people used to go begging there.'
(10) ama hessaf wēsr-om-i hnēn, la

I now sit.PAST-1SG-PRG here NEG
kam- $k$-am- $i \quad$ wala hayk-am-i
work-VTR-1SG-PRG nor PART-1SG-PRG
'I am now sitting here, I don't work or anything.'
(11) waqt-os lagišs-k-ad-e musilm-īn-e $\bar{u}$ portkìl-e time-3SG fight-VTR-PAST-3PL Muslims-PL and Jew-PL mas basd
together
'At the time, the Muslims and the Jews were fighting with one another.'

Two deictic expressions of manner are found in adverbial use: inherited ihni and Arabic hēk, both 'thus':
(12) ihni kān-ū žli-k-ad-a n-h-e, wila thus was-3PL wash-VTR-3PL-REM NEG-is-NEG neither hanafiyye wala 'iši
tap nor something
'They used to do the washing up like this, there was no water tap or anything.'
(13) min-d-i siry-im ihni f-ēr-os-is
hold-PAST-F head-1SG.OBL thus hit-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL
hēt-as-ma
wall-OBL.M-LOC
'She held my head like this, and she hit it against the wall.'

| da'iman | hēk | kar-ar-i | mašākl-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| always | thus | do-3SG-PRG problems-PL |  |
| 'He is always causing problems like this.' |  |  |  |

(15) Ii'ann-o aha dīb siry-os zayy hēèt hēk-i. because-3SG.M this.M Dib head-3SG like wall thus-PRED.SG 'Because this [fellow] Dib, his head is [thick] like a wall.'

Local and temporal adverbs have been discussed already in Chapter 8.38.4. They include a series of inherited spatial adverbs such as atum 'above', axar 'below', bara 'outside' and mandža 'inside', and the deictic-indexical temporal terms xudžoti 'yesterday', adžoti 'today', urati 'tomorrow'. Interestingly, times of the day are the only semantic domain that demonstrates any specific adverbial derivational morphology: disan 'during the day', from dis 'day' The form is replicated in the expression sabahtan 'in the morning', from Turkish sabah (Arabic subḥ), possibly by analogy to the Turkish inflected form sabahta 'in the morning', and in all likelihood also in aratanki 'at night', where the derivational segment $-a n$ is followed by an Ablative case marker. A further clue to an adverbial derivation marker $-a$, which might once have been productive in earlier stages of the language, is found in the hybrid construction min dira 'from afar' (Arabic min 'from', local expression dir 'far', possibly a Kurdish loan). In the temporal domain, too, there is some overlap between adverbs and indefinite expressions, mainly from Arabic, such as da'iman 'always', minmarra 'never'. Consider:

| (16) | na, $\quad$ bi-hayāt-i | na | nig-er-om | yazz-ē |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| no in-life-1SG | NEG | enter-PAST-1SG | Gaza-OBL.F |  |
|  | 'No, I have never visited Gaza.' |  |  |  |

### 10.3. Phasal adverbs

The term 'phasal adverbs' is assigned in the context of European languages to word forms that process expectations about the duration, continuation and termination of events (see Van der Auwera 1998). In European languages, the class of phasal adverbs is a small closed set typically containing equivalents of the expressions 'still', 'already', 'no longer', 'not yet', 'anymore', and so on. In contact situations, phasal adverbs prove to be highly susceptible to borrowing especially into oral, minority languages (see Matras 1998a, 2009: 197ff). The fact that the set of phasal adverbs is under-represented in Arabic, with concepts such as 'already' missing altogether, results, unsurprisingly, in just a very shallow representation of phasal adverbs in Domari, which employs

Arabic lissa and lēyzāl, both 'still', to express unexpected continuity, or, in the negated form, discontinuity:
(17) 'āyyām boy-oman-kil lissa eme/ kištūt-ahr-ēn-i days father-1PL-ABL still we small-be-1PL-PRG lissa eme...
still we
'In the days of our fathers/ we were still/ we were still small...'
(18) ama t-ird-om-ir xēr-as-ma $\bar{u}$

I put-PAST-1SG-2SG.OBL goodness-OBL.M-LOC and atu lēyzāl bidd-ek mangiš-k-a?
you.SG still want-2SG.F begging-VTR-2SG.SUBJ
'I placed you in this richness and you still want to go begging?'
(19) yaSni n-džan-ēn-e, lissa eme bi-zabt min

PART NEG-know-1PL-NEG still we exactly from
ayy/ min ayy qabīl-ē-ki.
which from which tribe-OBL.F-ABL
'Well, we did not yet know exactly from which/ from which tribe.'

### 10.4. Focus particles

Closely related to phasal adverbs is the set of focus particles. Here too we are dealing with presupposition-based operators that process expectations in relation to key propositional content of the utterance. The Turkish-derived form gēna 'too, also' acts as a kind of generic focus particle. It appears both on its own and as a reinforcer in conjunction with other, Arabic focus particles. Its general meaning is one that indicates supplementation of content to a presupposition inventory:
(20) ašt $\quad$ gēna ama-ke dīr-ak-i
there.is also 1SG-BEN daughter-INDEF-PRED.SG
$t$ Sallim-ho-r-i
learn-VITR-3SG-PRG
'And I also have a daughter who is studying.'

The Arabic focus particles bardo 'also, too' and hatta 'even' both express related meanings, as they too highlight the extension of the propositional content to include an element that is not part of the established presuppositional domain; both can be accompanied by gēna:
(21) džawiz-ahr-e ihi rāya $\bar{u} \quad e k$-ak, $\bar{u}$ marry-VITR.PAST-3PL this.F Raya and one-INDEF and bardo gēna, pandži wēšt-ar-i kury-a-ma $\bar{u}$ too also 3SG sit-3SG-PRG house-OBL.F-LOC and pandži dža-r-i mangiš-k-ar-i
3SG go-3SG-PRG begging-VTR-3SG-PRG
Samman-a-ma
Amman-OBL.F-LOC
'This Raya married somebody, and once again, he sits at home and she goes begging in Amman.'
(22) $\bar{u}$ bardo dīb gēna kān mišš ghāy, kān-at and also Dib too was.3SG.M NEG good was-3SG.F bay-os da'iman yaSni Samil-k-ar-m-i mišs wife-3SG always PART treat-VTR-3SG-1SG-PRG NEG ghāy $\bar{u} \quad$ 'ísí
good and thing
'And Dib was also mean, his wife would always treat me badly and stuff.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { hatta } & \text { min } & \text { tēr-as-ki } \\ \text { even } & \text { from } & \text { bird-OBL.M-ABL }\end{array} \begin{aligned} & \text { gēna/ } \\ & \text { tiyor-an-ki } \\ & \text { tiso }\end{aligned}$ mangiš-k-èk?
begging-VTR-2SG
'Do you beg even from the bird/ from the birds?'
Negative focus seems to exclude gēna, which carries the reading of a positive supplement to expectations:
(24) na par-d-e wās̄ī-san fray-ē-san, hatta NEG take-PAST-3PL with-3PL clothing-PL-3PL even šmariy-ēni nkī-san, man-d-ē-san $\bar{u}$ chicken-PRED.PL at-3PL leave-PAST-PL-3PL and gar-e waz-r-e go.PAST-3PL flee-PAST-3PL
'They didn't take their clothes with them, [nor] even their chickens that they had, they left them and they fled.'

Exemption, also a negative focus, is expressed by the Arabic particle bass 'only', without further modification:
(25) bass dīb $\bar{u}$ yāsir in-džawiz-k-ad-e' lā̆̌̌y-an only Dib and Yassir NEG-marry-VTR-3PL-NEG girl-OBL.PL 'Only Dib and Yassir won't let their daughters marry.'

### 10.5. Interjections

Not surprisingly, interjections are yet another functional domain that shows wholesale fusion with Arabic. We are dealing here with particles whose function is to mark out emotional attitudes and to solicit the listener's adoption of the speaker's emotional stand. With yabayēy we find an expression of concern:
(26) iza džan-ad-i Sēlat-om inni atu džā- $k$ if know-3PL-PRG family-1SG COMP you.SG go-2SG mangiš-k-ēk yabayēy fḍah-k-ad-m-i. begging-VTR-2SG PART frown-VTR-3PL-1SG-PRG 'If my family knew that you are going out begging, oh my dear, they would disown me.'

The interjection yałah expresses encouragement:
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { (27) tayyib } & \text { qal } & \text { yałłah, } & \text { dow } & \text { xast } \bar{e}-r & \bar{u} \\ \text { good } & \text { PART } & \text { PART } & \text { wash.2SG.SUBJ } & \text { hand-PL-2SG } & \text { and }\end{array}$ fray-ē-r $\bar{u}$ aru kil-šī clothing-PL-2SG and come.2SG.SUBJ enter-2SG.SUBJ 'All right, he said, come on, wash your hands and your clothes and come on in.'

The particle xałłas (derived in Arabic from the verb 'to complete') indicates the termination of a process of reflection that precedes an action, and thus the point of initiation or prompting of the intended action:
(28) $\quad$ dža nan-is $\bar{u}$
go.2SG.SUBJ bring.2SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL and
par-is $\bar{u}$ amal xałfaṣ/ $\bar{u}$ ama
take.2SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL and I PART and I
wāfaq-k-ad-om-i inni džawiz-k-am-is
agree-VTR-PAST-1SG-PRG COMP marry-VTR-1SG-3SG.OBL
ab-ur-ke
for-2SG-BEN
'Go bring her and take her and I/ enough/ and I agree to let her marry you.'

Finally, Arabic wałfah (lit. 'by God') replicates the structure of an oath in announcing the speaker's commitment to a declaration of intent that is not easy for the listener to accept:


### 10.6. Quotation particle

Among the less obvious structures of Arabic origin in Domari is the use of a particle qal (also gal, qxal) to indicate quoted speech. The particle goes back to the Arabic past-tense 3SG verb $q \bar{a} l$ 'he said' (in Bedouin and Gulf dialects $g \bar{l})$. Its grammaticalisation path to an uninflected, generalised particle appears, however, to have emerged as an innovation within Domari. Note that qal is placed at the beginning of the direct quote, and further that as a particle it does not show agreement with the subject as the original producer of the quoted utterance, whether named or not:

| ehe dōm-e | qaI $\quad$ lak, | bidd-ak |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| these | Dom-PL | PART | look.2SG.SUBJ |
| want-2SG.M |  |  |  |


'One day my sister Hayat went and spoke to his mother, she said:
Your son keeps hitting my sister every day every day, what is this?'

| (32) | $e h r-i$ | sē¢a | Sašara | $h d a l \check{s}$, | qal | xałfas |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | become.PAST-F | clock | ten | eleven | PART | PART |
|  | dža | sslih-k-a |  |  | frāy-è-r |  |
|  | go.2SG.SUBJ | take.off- | TR-2SG | SUBJ | clothing | PL-2SG |
|  | 'It had become ten or eleven o'clock, he said: Enough, go and take |  |  |  |  |  |

### 10.7. Modal particles

Modal particles modify the speaker's mode of presenting states of affairs. They convey cues in relation to the relevance of the presentation and play a role in structuring the conversational turn and in positioning the utterance or segment in a chain or sequence of segments. Once again we are dealing with a functional domain for which Domari shows wholesale fusion with the corresponding category set in Arabic. That is to say that the entire system or apparatus of modal particle marking is identical in the two languages, or, from a speaker's perspective, that identical procedures for modal particles are applied regardless of whether the interaction setting is defined as Arabic or Domari.

The Arabic particle atāri indicates the opening of a new segment within a complex chain of events. Its original lexical meaning is one of approximation - 'just like' - and it is this residual meaning that is attributed to the following propositional content, qualifying it as a true and accurate depiction of realworld events:


| rawwah-hr-ēn | kury-a-ka. | wa | atāri |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| travel-VITR.PAST-1PL | house-OBL.F-DAT | and | PART |
| $s \bar{a} r-\bar{l}$ | $s ̌$-ad-i |  | emin-ke: |
| began-3PL | say-3PL-PRG | we-BEN | look-VITR.PAST-2PL |


| $\bar{u}$ | $k r e \bar{n}$ | gar-ēs | $\bar{l}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | where | go.PAST-2PL | sar- $\bar{i}-r-\bar{e} s ?$ |
| 'We went home. And so they began to say to us: Look here, where |  |  |  |
| did you go, and where have you been hiding?' |  |  |  |

A more explicit explanatory-descriptive function is carried by masalan 'for example', which makes a very specific contribution to structuring an argument by introducing a specific case in support of a general statement:
(35) nkī-man eme hadal yaSni masalan dow-an-i at-1PL we this PART for.example wash-1PL-PRG māsy-a min hālī-s
meat-OBL.F from self-3SG
'It is our custom that/ like for example we rinse the meat on its own (separately).'

| hafiz-k-ad-ide | deef-as-ka, |  | masalan |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| guard-VTR-PAST-3PL | hospitality-OBL.M-DAT | for.example |  |

ihtiram-O-s-s-i dayyif-k-as-s-i
respect-VITR-3PL-3OBL-PRG host-VTR-3PL-3OBL-PR
'They maintain hospitality, for example if a Christian comes to them, if a Jew comes to them, if anybody comes, they respect him and they offer him hospitality.'

Particles such as 1 -muhimm 'the important [thing is]' = 'anyway' can be used to indicate the transition between speech events within the narration itself, signalling the upgrading of the speech action from a description of background to foregrounding content:
(37) min waqt-is-ki in-f-ar-m-e,
from time-3SG.OBL-ABL NEG-hit-3SG-1SG-NEG by-ar-i $\bar{\nu}$ l-muhimm tilla-hr-om-i yaSni fear-3SG-PRG and DEF-important big-VITR.PAST-1SG PART lamma ehr-a Sumr-om tnaŠ̌r sane talataŠ̌r when become.PAST-M age-1SG twelve year thirteen sane, kam-k-ed-om Sind hay-ki ihi year work-VTR-PAST-1SG at PART-ABL this.F

## ester-ē-ki

Esther-OBL.F-ABL
'Since then, he no longer beats me, he is afraid. And/ anyway, I grew up and when I was twelve or thirteen years old, I worked at what's her name's, Esther's.'

The particle $l$-hāsil 'at the end, finally' highlights the key outcome of a chain of events, a piece of information that deserves special attention as a climax or turning point in the narration:
(38) I-hāṣil, džawiz-r-om-is bi-šahr Sašara

DEF-end marry-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL in-month ten sinet 1 -'arbas $\bar{u}$ xamsīn, džawiz-r-om-is year DEF-four and fifty, marry-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL 'Finally, I married her in October in the year fifty four, I married her.'
(39) I-hāṣil, er-os-im xabar inni xal DEF-end come.PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL news COMP PART hatta mawdžud-ni fi džabal n-nadīif
PART found-PRED.PL in mount DEF-Nadif Samman-a-ma
Amman-OBL.F-LOC
'Finally, I received information that they are located in Mount Nadif in Amman.'

The particle baidēn 'then, afterwards' is used to organise events in temporal sequence:
(40) baSdēn yaSni baSd sitt iyyām ašti marn-ēni then PART after six days there.is dead-PRED.PL bol panda-m-ma yaßni gān-osan kil-d-i much road-OBL.PL-LOC PART smell-3PL exit-PAST-F 'And then, after six days there were many dead bodies in the streets, you could smell them.'

The same particle can also operate at the interactional level: rather than adjoining events in temporal succession within the story, it signals an addition to what the speaker wishes to convey and so a continuation of the sequence of speech actions:

Somewhat of a functional hybrid is the Arabic particle yimkin 'perhaps' On the one hand, it acts like a lexical adverb in qualifying the state of affairs depicted by the predication. On the other hand, it conveys the speaker's attitude to the proposition as an attempt to deliver reliable information, which, however, requires a degree of hedging:
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { (42) hāda kān } & \text { Sumr-om yimkin sitte snīn } & \text { sabৎa } & \text { snīn } \\ \text { that was. } 3 \mathrm{SG} & \text { age-1SM maybe six } & \text { years } & \text { seven } & \text { years } \\ \text { 'I was then maybe six or seven years old.' }\end{array}$
(43) nig-r-a awwal dis $\bar{u}$ tāni dis, yaSni
pass-PAST-M first day and second day PART
yimkin man-ī-r-ēn nkī-san xamast iyyām sitt
maybe stay-ITR-PAST-1PL at-3PL five days six
iyyām, lamma rawwih-r-ēn
days when leave-PAST-1PL
'The first day went by and the second day, and so we stayed with them maybe five or six days by the time we left.'

### 10.8. Fillers and tags

The set of fillers and tags, often neglected in dictionaries and other forms of language documentation, constitutes an integral component of the inventory of communicative structures. Once again, as a class of expressions that specialise in regulating and organising interaction at the discourse level, it is not surprising to find the wholesale adoption of the set of Arabic operators in Domari. It is yet a further indication of the fusion of the so-called monitoring-and-directing apparatus of the two languages and the generalisation of the Arabic set across the entire linguistic repertoire of Domari-Arabic bilinguals. Fillers and tags serve primarily as tokens of the speaker's control over the turn and monitoring of the hearer's processing of the turn. The most common fillers/tags in the Domari corpus are adopted from Arabic and used exactly in the same fashion in which they are used in Arabic. We find $\bar{u}$ ' $\bar{s} i \bar{i}$ lit. 'and
something' (freely translatable as 'and stuff' or 'and the like'), yaSni 'that is' (which has also been borrowed into numerous other contact languages of Arabic, including Turkish, Kurdish, Hebrew, and Neo-Aramaic), $\bar{u} h a \bar{d} d a$ 'and that' ('and so on'), abṣar 'what do I know' (also 'like', 'just like'), and hay 'that'.

The filler $\bar{u}$ 'ìši, literally 'and something', serves as a placeholder for a nonverbalised information unit in a chain of similar information units. Like fillers in general, its principal function is to protect the speaker's turn in view of the speaker's inability or apparent inability to complete the verbalisation of a full chain or set of information units:
(44) $\bar{u} \quad$ ḍabbir-k-ad-i halī-san minēn $\bar{u}$ and sort.out-VTR-3PL-PRG self-3PL here and kam-k-ad-i $\bar{u} \quad$ 'iši yalni work-VTR-3PL-PRG and thing PART
'And they sort themselves out here and they work and so on.'
wardži-k-ed-os-man dahab-i illi
show-VTR-PAST-3SG-1PL gold-PRED.SG REL qaft-id-os-i $\quad w$ - $\mathfrak{i s ̌ i}$
steal-PAST-3SG-PRG and-thing
'She showed us the gold that she had stolen and all that.'
(46) şār xarrif-ho-r-i wāšī-m: krēn began.3SG.M speak-VITR-3SG-PRG with-1SG where skun-ahr-or-i $\bar{u}$ qadēš Sumr-or $\bar{u}$ 'iši live-VITR-2SG-PRG and how.much age-2SG and thing 'He started to talk to me: where do you live and how old are you and so on.'

A very similar function is filled by $\bar{u} h \bar{a} d a$, literally 'and that', the main difference being the higher degree of specificity that this filler implies in respect of the missing or non-verbalised entity. Note that while the set of potential information units covered by $\bar{u}$ 'iši is extremely broad and unlimited, that covered by $\bar{l} h \bar{a} d a$ is expected to fit into a more restricted, more strictly defined set of country names, person names, or other contained and wellestablished paradigm:



'They brought them into the room, the boys and Yassir and so on and I was also among them.'

The particle absar derives from an Arabic present-tense verb 'I regard, I contemplate'. It is used as a particle as an indication of the speaker's hesitation to provide accurate relevant information and the speaker's choice instead to leave an information gap. In this way the particle indicates that there is still additional, non-verbalised relevant content that should be supplemented in the listener's imagination. The particle is usually accompanied by an indefinite or interrogative expression, which delimits the semantic domain to which this supplementary information belongs:
(49) dis-ak er-a nki-man qaft-id-ik day-INDEF come.PAST-M at-1PL steal-PAST-PRED.SG bol zard-e absar min krēn much gold-PL PART from where
'One day, a lot of stolen gold arrived at our place, who knows from where.'
(50) par-ar-i hašiš-a py-ar-i $\bar{u} \quad a b s a r ~$ take-3SG-PRG hashish-OBL.F drink-3SG-PRG and PART 'isí
thing
'He takes drugs, he smokes and what do I know.'
(51) qā̄-at lawlāt-o putr-or abṣar ki kar-d-a
said-3SG.F if-3SG.M son-2SG PART what do-PAST-M
ab-us-ke?
for-3SG-BEN
'She said: what if your son has done who knows what to her?'
In all likelihood the most frequent filler/tag in the corpus is yaini, a placeholder and tag which signals the speaker's commitment to clarification
and thus reassures the listener of the speaker's authority, competence, and credibility as narrator. In this respect, yaini, like other particles, especially other fillers/tags, serves to maintain harmony and a sense of cooperation in discourse interaction:
(52) baßdēn giš dōm-ē-man illi mn-ēni ašraf then all Dom-PL-1PL REL here-PRED.PL respectable dōm-ēni. yaSni ašraf dōm-ēni, Dom-PRED.PL PART respectable Dom-PRED.PL yaSni hafiz-k-ad-i šaraf-ka $\bar{u}$
PART guard-VTR-3PL-PRG honour-DAT and karam-is-ka, hafiz-k-ad-i respect-3SG.OBL-DAT guard-VTR-3PL-PRG dèf-as-ka
hospitality-OBL.M-DAT
'And then, all our Dom who are based here are the most respectable Dom, I mean the most respectable Dom, I mean they maintain their honour and respect, they maintain their hospitality.'

| yaini | $n-k a r-a d-e '$ | mašākl-ē-ma | la | maS |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART NEG-do-3PL-NEG problem-OBL.F-LOC | NEG | with |  |  |
| hukum-ē-ki | wala did |  |  |  |
| government-OBL.F-ABL nor against |  |  |  |  |
| hukum-ē-ki |  |  |  |  |
| government-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |  |  |
| 'Like, they don't engage in any problems either with the government |  |  |  |  |
| or against the government.' |  |  |  |  |

(54) boy-os ma rd-ahr-a
father-3SG NEG agree-VITR.PAST-M
$\begin{array}{lcll}\text { de-r-is } & \text { yaSni } & \text { atu } & \text { boy-or } \\ \text { give-3SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL } & \text { PART } & \text { you.SG } \\ \text { father-2SG }\end{array}$
ik-ak dömiya yaSni aha yaSni
one-INDEF Dom.woman PART this.M PART
na-qbul-o-nd-é’ yaSni ahl-or
NEG-accept-VITR-3PL-NEG PART family-2SG
'Her father did not agree to give her away. I mean, your father is an important Sheikh, and you [want to] take a Dom girl, I mean, this, like, your family will not, like, accept.'

Finally, the Arabic particle of deictic origin hay 'this, that' ('thingy') serves either as a substitute for a very specific word, delaying the articulation of that word as though verbalising the search procedure through which the word is retrieved, or else reduplicating an articulated expression and thus amplifying its meaning by allowing the listener to supplement an imaginary content into the same constituent slot. Note that unlike all other particles, hay carries inflection, though it would be more accurate to describe its inflection as a mere replication of the inflection of the lexical target expression that it replaces or augments, and so as belonging to the semantic-syntactic slot that is being occupied by the placeholder hay, rather than a genuine accommodation of any content expression hay to the argument structure of the predication of the clause:
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { lamma } & \text { min-d-e } & y a ̄ s r-a s ~ \\ \text { when } & \text { hold-PAST-3PL } & \text { Yassir-OBL.M }\end{array}$
kšal-d-ed-is hay-ta qašl-ē-ta
pull-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL PART-DAT Qishle-OBL.F-DAT
'When they arrested Yassir, they took him to this, to the Qishle.'
(56) $\bar{u} \quad k a ̄ n-\bar{u} \quad$ skun-o-nd-a kury-ē-s-ma and was-3PL live-VITR-3PL-REM house-PL-3SG-LOC hay-ki/ fall-as-ki
PART-ABL sack-OBL.M-ABL
'And they used to live in tents made of this/ of sacks.'
(57) $\bar{u}$ gar-a maktab-is hay-ki till-as-ki and go.PAST-M office-3SG.OBL PART-ABL big-OBL.M-ABL 'And he went to the office of this one, of the boss.'
(58) $\bar{u} \quad s a \bar{r}-\bar{u} \quad$ farrudž-ho-nd-i ehe
and began-3PL look-VITR-3PL-PRG these
raqqāṣīn-an-ta $\bar{u} \quad n a s ̌ y-a n d-i ~ u \bar{u}$
dancers-OBL.PL-DAT and dance-3PL-PRG and hay-ond-i
this-3PL-PRG
'And they are watching the dancers dance and that.'

| ama | hessaS | wēsr-om-i | hnēn, la |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | now | sit.PAST-1SG-PRG | here | NEG |
| kam- $k$-am- $i$ |  | wala hayk-am-i |  |  |
| work-VTR-1SG-PRG nor | PART-1SG-PRG |  |  |  |
| 'I am now sitting here, I don't work or anything.' |  |  |  |  |

## Chapter 11

## The Arabic component

### 11.1. The relevance of contact phenomena

All speakers of Domari in Jerusalem (and probably in most other communities too) are bilingual. For the Jerusalem community of speakers, Domari has retreated to become merely the language of intimate conversation among elderly family members of the household, and on rare occasions with other elderly neighbours or with visiting relations from Jordan. Even such conversations in Domari are often interrupted by exchanges in Arabic with other, younger members of the extended household. Domari talk itself is of course chequered not only with Arabic expressions, but also with switches into Arabic for stylistic and discourse-strategic purposes such as emphasis, direct quotes, side remarks, and so on. The structural intertwining of Domari and Arabic and the degree to which active bilingual speakers maintain a license to integrate Arabic in Domari conversation pose a potential problem to the descriptive agenda when the need arises to distinguish which structures are, and which are not, part of the stable structural inventory of Domari.

The following remarks are devoted to a brief survey of those structures, primarily grammatical, that derive from Arabic and are shared with Arabic in the sense that they are employed by speakers both in the context of Domari conversation and in interactions in Arabic. Nonetheless, they constitute a stable and integral part of the structural inventory of Domari without which Domari talk cannot be formed, and so without which the structures of Domari cannot be exhaustively described. With reference to the individual chapters in which the respective structures are described in more detail, I approach the adoption of Arabic features in this chapter from a contact-typological perspective, following the cline of borrowing that has by now been described for a number of different cross-linguistic samples (see discussion in Matras 2007 b and 2009). I examine first those parts of the structural inventory that are generally more susceptible to borrowing and show more frequent borrowing in contact situations, and then proceed to those that are more rarely affected by contact-induced change. Finally, I examine the borderline between structural borrowing from Arabic into Domari and speakers' ad hoc, situational and conversational motivation to choose Arabic structures in an interaction context that is defined as 'Domari', even when non-Arabic alternatives and equivalents are available.

### 11.2. Common borrowings: Lexicon, phonology and discourse markers

It is well accepted that, save in exceptional cases where the replication of word forms from a neighbouring language may be considered taboo, lexical vocabulary is the most likely category to be affected by contact. This is a product of both the frequency and extreme differentiation of lexical vocabulary compared to function words or grammatical paradigms, and a reflection of the role of the lexicon in representing new concepts, objects, products, and routines. This holds true especially for nouns, which are usually the most borrowable word class. As outlined in Chapter 13, around two thirds of the vocabulary items attested in the corpus of connected speech in Domari derive from Arabic. There are twice as many Arabic nouns in the corpus as non-Arabic nouns, and as many Arabic verbs as non-Arabic verbs. Even basic vocabulary is affected by borrowing, Arabic words appearing in semantic domains such as body-parts, animals, daily routines and elements of nature. As discussed in Chapter 5.4, the use of Arabic numerals as modifiers tends to trigger the selection of an Arabic noun even if for the relevant concept an inherited Domari word is available and in common use. Thus speakers will opt for
(1) taran zara
three child
'three children'
but for
(2) 'arba̧ wlād
four children
'four children'
Similarly, comparative forms of adjectives are inherently Arabic, even if a corresponding positive form exists in Domari. Thus we find

```
atu qaštot-ik
you.SG small-PRED.SG
'You are small.'
```

but
(4) atu azyar mēšī-m-i
you.SG smaller from-1SG-PRED.SG
'You are smaller than I.'

This means that Domari speakers do not only rely heavily on Arabic vocabulary to express particular concepts, but they also avail themselves, in certain morphosyntactic and lexical environments, of Arabic vocabulary as an option even for concepts that are covered by the inherited lexicon. Large parts of the Arabic lexicon are thus directly integrated as optional forms in Domari, doubling inherited lexemes.

Along with borrowed vocabulary, Domari imports the original phonological forms from Arabic. Being a community that is fluently bilingual and has presumably been so for many generations, Domari speakers do not integrate Arabic loans phonologically but maintain all original phonological features of Arabic vocabulary when it is used in Domari conversations. With two-thirds of the lexicon deriving from Arabic, this means that the entire inventory of Arabic phonemes is also available in Domari without any constraints. Phonemes that are limited by and large to Arabic vocabulary and can be assumed to have entered the language from Arabic are the pharyngeals $[\mathrm{h}]$ and $[\mathrm{Y}]$. The sounds [ q$],[\mathrm{y}]$ and $[\mathrm{f}]$ as well as $[\mathrm{z}]$ and [ f$]$ appear mostly in Arabic loans, but there is evidence that they entered the language already through contact with Iranian languages (see Chapters 1 and 2). Not entirely clear is the status of the pharyngealised dental consonants $\left[\mathrm{d}^{8}, \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{i}}\right]$. They too are largely confined to Arabic-derived vocabulary, but they can also be found in inherited words of Indo-Aryan stock, where they even tend to represent original retroflex sounds rather consistently (cf. dōm 'Dom', pēt 'belly'). It is somewhat hard to imagine that retroflex sounds were preserved outside of India until contact with Arabic occurred, and were only then replaced directly by corresponding pharyngealised dentals, but in the absence of an alternative explanation this scenario cannot be ruled out (note that some Romani dialects of the Balkans continue to preserve etymological retroflex sounds in the same environments and in cognate word forms). An ongoing phonological innovation that is shared with Arabic is the simplification of the affricate [d3] to the fricative [3] in inherited lexemes, inspired by a matching development in colloquial Arabic and triggering in turn a corresponding simplification of [t 5 ] to [ $\left.\int\right]$ in the inherited lexicon (for details see Chapter 2).

We now move on to grammatical function words. It is safe to say that the once commonplace assumption that grammatical function words, and connectors in particular, are somehow protected from contact-induced change (borrowing) has not only been proven wrong, but that we now have crosslinguistic evidence that connectors belong to the most contact-susceptible categories, especially in constellations where the oral language of a bilingual minority, used primarily in the domestic domain, is in contact with the language of a monolingual majority that dominates interaction in the public domain. In Matras (1998a) I explained the frequently encountered wholesale replacement - or 'fusion' - of the class of 'utterance modifiers' (connectors,
discourse particles, interjections, fillers and tags) as motivated by the communicative need to reduce the burden of appropriate selection within the bilingual repertoire especially around routine verbal gestures that reach out to monitor and direct the listener's processing of discourse content and participation in the interaction. Regulating interaction is a burden, and the need to choose among distinct sets of forms from a bilingual repertoire in order to do so adds to the burden. As long as bilingualism is widespread and accepted, the minority community will often compromise the need to continuously control the selection of language-specific forms in favour of a generalisation of just one set of interaction-regulating structures across the repertoire, regardless of the language of interaction.

This approach to grammatical borrowing puts the bilingual speaker, rather than the structures and categories as language system components, in the middle of the process (see Matras 2009). The generalisation of just one set of interaction-regulating elements has communicative advantages for the bilingual speaker, as long as the community of speakers applies a lax attitude toward innovative change that does not penalise speakers for allowing parallel components of their bilingual repertoire to undergo such fusion. The outcome of the process in Domari is, from the speakers' viewpoint, the absence of any major distinction, apart from few minor differences, between Domari and Arabic when it comes to regulating interaction, combining utterances and clauses, and processing presuppositions through uninflected operators or via the juxtaposition of information units in discourse and at the utterance level. What this means is that Domari shares with Arabic its entire inventory of connectors and conjunctions (both coordinating and subordinating), discourse markers, fillers, tags, interjections, and most focus particles, as well as the use of word order variants to convey information structuring (for examples see Chapters 9 and 10). From a diachronic perspective, Domari has adopted Arabic structures in this domain on a wholesale or near wholesale basis. Synchronically, this means that speakers' distinction between interacting in Arabic and interacting in Domari does not extend to such discourse-regulating procedures, which rely on the same structures regardless of the chosen language of conversation.

### 11.3. Morphological and syntactic borrowing

A frequently observed tendency is for derivational morphology to be more easily borrowed than inflectional morphology. This leads in many cases to an implicational hierarchy, which foresees that if inflectional morphology has been borrowed, then derivational morphology will also have been borrowed from the same source (see already Moravcsik 1975, Field 2002, Matras 2009).

Domari, however, does not appear to show any borrowing of derivational morphology from Arabic. It might be hypothesised that one reason for this is the free license that Domari speakers assume to incorporate any Arabic nominal and verbal stem into the language. From a functional viewpoint, this makes the adoption of productive derivational morphology from Arabic redundant. Rather than creating new lexemes based on inherited lexical roots and Arabic derivational procedures, Domari simply resorts to ready-made Arabic lexemes. A further factor may be structural-typological. Most Arabic derivational procedures do not involve separate, transparent affixes, but changes in a complex template of function-carrying consonants and vowels, into which an abstract, usually tri-consonantal semantic-lexical root is inserted. Since the mere concept of abstract consonantal roots is absent from Domari, each Domari lexical root would have to be potentially reanalysed in order to break it down into consonantal components that could then be inserted into an Arabic-Semitic derivational template. Such a procedure is not theoretically impossible; in fact it is found in the integration of European lexemes into Modern Hebrew (e.g. simsum 'the sending of SMS text messages', lefakses 'to send a fax', and so on). However, here we find the reverse direction of borrowing, as it is not the derivation template that is being isolated and replicated in another language, but the lexical root that is being incorporated into a productive system of template-based derivation. The example of comparative forms of adjectives in Domari shows us that there is a preference against the import of Semitic derivational and inflectional templates from Arabic even in tightly defined paradigms, and that speakers opt instead for a kind of bilingual suppletion, where different members of the same paradigm are expressed by different lexemes, some inherited and some borrowed (thus tilla 'big', Arabic akbar 'bigger'; see Chapter 5.5).

The marking of plurality on nouns is often considered a borderline case between derivational and inflectional morphology. It is encountered frequently in situations of historical language contact accompanying borrowed nouns (cf. English phenomenon - phenomena, fungus - fungi), and sometimes diffusing into the inherited vocabulary as well (cf. the Romanian plural ending on a Greek loanword in Vlax Romani for-uri 'towns'). In Domari we find three distinct strategies that are often applied side by side, that is, by the same speakers and to the same lexemes. Frequently encountered, especially with Arabic sound plurals, and in particular with reference to human beings, is the retention of the Arabic plural form, to which the Domari plural ending $-e$ is then added: muslim 'Muslim', plural musilm-inn-e (see Chapter 4.3.2). The Domari plural ending sometimes acts alone, however, especially when it is followed by a further suffix: ṣāhbe 'girlfriend', ṣăhb-ē-m 'my girlfriends' (rather than ${ }^{*} s \bar{a} h ̣ b-\bar{a} t-o m$ or ${ }^{*} s \bar{a} h ̣ b-\bar{a} t-\bar{e}-m$ ). A common occurrence is the use of Arabic plural nouns, especially but not exclusively in 'broken' inflections:
'iyyām 'days', from Arabic yōm 'day', kyās-is gēsu'sacks of wheat'; Arabic $k i \bar{s}$ 'sack', plural kyās). Nonetheless, we do not encounter any instances of the use of Arabic plural inflection with inherited (pre-Arabic) Domari nouns. The borrowing of Arabic plural markers can thus be interpreted as a by-product of the borrowing of Arabic lexemes, not as the borrowing of an independent, productive derivational-inflectional procedure. Indeed, in some cases, speakers show a consistent preference for the use of Arabic plural forms in singular meaning: gara madāris-an-ka 'he went to school' (Arabic madrase 'school', plural madāris, note that Layer I inflection also shows the Domari oblique plural affix -an-).

Arguably, then, because of the template-based system of derivational and much of the inflectional system of Arabic morphology, it is impossible to identify discrete grammatical morphemes in Arabic and so futile to search for the borrowing of such morphemes into Domari. We do, however, find extensive borrowing of free standing Arabic grammatical morphemes. In addition to connectors, subordinators, particles, and interjections, mentioned above, Domari employs the Arabic impersonal modality marker lāzim 'must', the impersonal and uninflected conditional particle kān (derived from the Arabic past-tense auxiliary), the relativiser illi and the complementiser inni. Connectivity devices replicate the structure of Arabic not just in the form of connectors but also in the overall configuration of clauses. Word order in complex and simple clauses is largely compatible in the two languages, and we find similar use of pre- and post-verbal fields for information structuring (see Chapter 9.2).

In nominal clauses, the two languages agree in the position of numeral and demonstrative modifiers. Historically, they differ in the configuration of the genitive-possession construction and in the position of adjectives. Here we find ongoing adjustments in Domari that show a tendency toward convergence with Arabic. Canonical Domari has two formats for the possessive construction:
(5) boy-im kuri
father-1SG house
'My father's house'
(6) kury-os boy-im-ki
house-3SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL
'My father's house'
The second, in the order head-determiner, is by far the more widespread, and contrasts with the normal Indo-Aryan determiner-head construction. It matches however the Iranian type, as well as the Arabic type (example (7)) and a construction that is frequently found in colloquial Arabic (example (8)):
bēt $\quad$ abū-y
house father-1SG
'My father's house'

```
bēt-ō la-`abü-y
house-3SG to-father-1SG
'My father's house'
```

The canonical position of adjectives in Domari is, as in other Indo-Aryan languages, in front of the noun, while in Arabic, adjectives follow the noun. However, as discussed in Chapter 5.4, speakers show an overwhelming preference to avoid pre-posed adjectives (as in example (9)) and instead make use of the non-verbal predication marker in order to allow the adjective to follow the noun (example (10)):

| $e r-i$ | qištot- $i$ | šōni |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-F | little-F | girl |

'A little girl arrived.'

```
er-i šōni qištot-ik
come.PAST-F girl little-PRED.SG
'A little girl arrived.' [= 'A girl arrived, being little.']
```

Compare the latter construction with Arabic:

| adža- $t$ | bint | zyī̀-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-F.SG |  |  |
| (Airl | little-F |  |

Convergence in form-function mapping or 'pattern replication' (see Matras 2009) is common in many other aspects of the nominal clause, too. As in Arabic, citation forms of many inalienable nouns must include possessive marking: thus boy-om 'my father' for 'father', siry-om 'my head' for 'head', cf. Arabic $a b \bar{u}-y$ ' my father', $r \bar{a} \bar{s}-\bar{i}$ ' $m \mathrm{~m}$ head'. The erosion of the deictic focusing quality of the attributive demonstratives aha/ihi/ehe and their very frequent occurrence even with well identifiable and continuous nouns (see Chapter 5.3) resembles the tendency in Arabic discourse toward generalisation of the reduced demonstrative $h \bar{a}-$ ( $<~ h a \bar{a} d a / h a ̄ d i / h a d \overline{0})$, which tends to accompany the Arabic definite article in similar contexts. Domari copies Arabic also in the configuration of the representation of thematic roles. The possessive, for example, is expressed in both languages by an impersonal existential marker accompanied by a person-inflected preposition meaning 'at' or 'with' (see Chapter 8.2):


The pronominal experiencer-recipient is encoded by attaching a person affix, which usually (with transitive verbs) represents the direct object, to an intransitive verb:

| Domari: | er-os-im <br> come.PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL | xabar <br> notice |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Arabic: | 'adž-̄̄- $n-\overline{1}$ | xabar |
|  | come.PAST-3SG.M-1SG.OBL | notice |

The preposition atn- 'above, on, about' accompanies the same object roles in Domari as the Arabic preposition Sala-, including the objects of verbs like 'to understand', 'to greet', and 'to search for' (see Chapter 8.2.3).

The emergence of nominal clauses, facilitated by the availability of nonverbal predication markers, is an innovation for an Indo-Iranian language and reinforces sentence-level convergence between Domari and Arabic:

| (14)Domari: | wuda <br> old.M | bizzot-ēk <br> poor-PRED.SG |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Arabic: | l-xityār | miskīn |

In verbal clauses, Domari shows the same order of major constituents as Arabic, with a tendency toward placing verbs in middle position, with optional pre-verbal and post-verbal fields. The exception is the Domari present-tense copula, which takes on an enclitic position. Arguably, its nature as enclitic, rather than free-standing post-posed, testifies to a step towards convergence with Arabic nominal clauses, which lack a present-tense copula:

| Domari: | ama | mišta-hr-om-i |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | I | ill-be-1SG-PRG |

In the past tense, however, where Arabic does use a copula auxiliary, Domari aligns itself with Arabic by replicating the Arabic auxiliary:


The Domari tense system continues the Indo-Iranian system, showing a split in present and past (perfective) stems accompanied by external markers of present-progressive vs. past-remote tense. However, we find considerable overlap with Arabic in the configuration of aspectual and mood distinctions as well as in the structuring of co-temporal constructions. Domari replicates the Arabic proximate future auxiliary räh, which derives from the past-tense form of the verb 'to go', through its own past-tense form of the verb 'to go', gara (see Chapter 7.6.3). Like Palestinian Arabic, Domari distinguishes between a present-indicative and a present-subjunctive mood, the latter appearing in dependent modality clauses as well as in imperative and optative constructions.

Like Arabic, Domari shows three distinct co-temporal adverbial constructions (see Chapter 9.5.7). In the first, the subordinate clause is introduced by the conjunction 'and' and the verb is finite and indicative:


In the second, the subordinated predicate appears in the present participle:

| Domari: | lah-erd-om-is <br>  <br> see-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL | mindir- $d$-ēk <br> stand-PAST-PRED.SG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Arabic: | šuf-t-o | wā'ef |
|  | see.PAST-1SG-3SG | standing |

'I saw him standing.'
The final option shows a nominalised verb, whose possessive inflection indicates the subject/agent, introduced by the preposition 'with' in the subordinate position alongside a finite main clause:
(19) Domari: maS šlš-im-ki tiknaw-ar-m-i with sleep.SUBJ-1SG.OBL-ABL hurt-3SG-1SG-PRG gurg-om neck-1SG

Arabic: maS nōmt- $\overline{\overline{1}} \quad b-t-u w d z ̌ i \varrho-n \bar{i} \quad$ raqbat- $\bar{i}$
with sleep-1SG PRG-3SG.F-hurt-1SG neck-1SG
'As I sleep, my neck hurts.'

## 11.4. 'Heavy' grammatical borrowing

The term 'heavy' borrowing is seemingly a quantitative expression, suggesting a certain mass of either forms or categories that are carried over from one language into another. Effectively, though, the notion of 'heavy' borrowing implies a qualitative state that sees the infiltration of contact influences not just into a broader set of categories and functions, but into particular functions that are not usually susceptible to contact influences in other settings. This suggests that there is a proven, universal hierarchy of contact-susceptibility, one that allows us to make tentative predictions about the likelihood of individual functions to be affected by contact developments, relative to others (on borrowing hierarchies see Matras 1998a, Field 2002, Matras 2007b, 2009, and see already Thomason and Kaufman 1988).

In the domain of grammatical lexicon or function words, Domari stands out in particular in its nearly wholesale adoption of Arabic local and temporal expressions. While the system of Layer II inflectional case marking is still largely intact and productive, we see considerable reliance on Arabic prepositions for both spatial and temporal as well as for more abstract relations (see details in Chapter 8). Arabic prepositions such as maS 'with' and min
'from' appear to be much more productive than the synthetic comitative and ablative case markers, respectively. With other relations, there is often an asymmetrical configuration: On the one hand, in the absence of an Arabic benefactive preposition, the benefactive case remains productive. On the other, complex and highly specialised spatial relations such as 'between' and 'toward' rely completely on Arabic expressions. Two further classes of function words are carried over on an almost wholesale basis. These are indefinite expressions (see Chapter 6.6), which typically combine Arabic ontological markers with a generic Domari marker of indefiniteness $-a k$, and attributive numerals above 'three' (cardinals above 'six', excluding 'one hundred') (see Chapter 5.4). Negation markers for past-tense verbs and nominal clauses are also replicated from Arabic (see Chapter 9.6).

From this it is obvious that the great majority of stand-alone, uninflected function words or grammatical vocabulary items derive from, or rather are shared with Arabic. Domari thus meets the vague criteria for 'heavy borrowing' in both quantity and quality, relying both frequently and for key functions on structures replicated from Arabic. A further functional category in which we find wholesale paradigm replication from Arabic is the group of aspectual and modal auxiliaries. Domari utilises two distinct groups of Arabic auxiliary verbs, each with its complete Arabic person inflection paradigm. The
 'went on' The second are nominal or verbal forms that take Arabic possessor agreement: bidd- 'want', dall- 'continue', xalli- 'allow' (see Chapter 7.6 .3 for paradigms and usage examples). The adoption of Arabic person inflection along with these auxiliaries means that bound, morphological person inflection from Arabic is in principle productive in Domari, and can be co-referential with Domari expressions. In fact, the replication of Arabic person inflection in Domari introduces new typological distinctions into the language:
(20) pandži kān sāhhb-om-a

3SG was.3SG.M friend-1SG-REM
'He was my friend' (Arabic ṣāheb 'friend.M')
(21) pandži kān-at ṣāḥb-om-a

3SG was.3SG-F friend-1SG-REM
'She was my friend' (Arabic ṣăḥbe 'friend.F')
Here, Domari phonotactics resulting from the addition of the possessive and remoteness suffixes to the noun, reduce the gender difference between Arabic șāheb 'male friend' and scāhbe 'female friend' in the inflected form; however, each of the two forms triggers different agreement markers on the Arabic auxiliary. Such markers are not available to differentiate gender within the Domari component.

Cross-linguistic investigations of grammatical borrowing have shown that deictic and anaphoric elements are relatively resistant to matter replication (direct replication of phonological word forms) in contact situations (see discussion in Matras 2009: 203). On the whole this generalisation holds true for Domari, too. Nonetheless, deictic and anaphoric agreement markers from Arabic may accompany not only aspectual and modal auxiliaries, but also Arabic connectors such as the complementiser inn-(see Chapter 9.5.5) and the negative conditional lawlät- 'if not, unless', the object preposition and resumptive pronoun iyyā, the reflexive pronoun hāal- and the related adverb lahāl- 'alone', and the reciprocal pronoun basd-. Some of these items have anaphoric qualities themselves. Nonetheless, it is important to note that Arabic person inflection is never sufficiently productive in Domari to be assigned to pre-Arabic grammatical or lexical material. Rather, it is the operational procedure of certain inflected Arabic grammatical operators that is replicated in its entirety, hence the license to activate Arabic inflectional elements to accompany them. Still, this means that Arabic inflectional paradigms are available as productive resources to Domari speakers while speaking Domari and are not blocked by language choice.

### 11.5. Fusion, bilingual suppletion, and free recourse to Arabic grammar and lexicon

This latter point brings us to a definition of the reciprocal relations between Domari and Arabic as distinct structural components of the linguistic repertoires of bilingual Dom speakers. From a diachronic and system-oriented viewpoint, we can distinguish two different uses of Arabic-derived material in Domari. The first are structures that can easily be characterised as 'borrowings' or integrated loans. They appear regularly and usually without any native, inherited alternative that can be assigned historically to the preArabic component. At first glance, cases such as the preposition ba\&d 'after' appear straightforward: it is used by all speakers and consistently in its particular meaning, and it does not compete with any inherited, pre-Arabic alternative, and so it is not stylistically marked. But already a closely related expression such as the Arabic preposition maS' 'with' confronts us with a more challenging case. As discussed in Chapter 1.3, this preposition is preferred by some speakers, while others employ the Layer II comitative (sociative) marker -san. Nonetheless, we can at least claim that those speakers who show a preference for $m a\{$ have 'borrowed' or integrated it into their form of Domari.

More intriguing are cases of wholesale incorporation of category sets from Arabic. If contemporary Jerusalem Domari were spoken in isolation, by a remote population of monolinguals, then there is no doubt that one would
characterise the nearly full sets of Arabic prepositions, conjunctions, particles, indefinites, and numerals as borrowings. From the synchronic perspective of the active bilingual speaker, however, it is questionable whether one can draw a strict demarcation line between two separate linguistic systems without acknowledging that certain language-processing functions are triggered and guided by the very same inventory of structural forms that belong to the speaker's repertoire of communicative structures as a whole, rather than to a particular 'language'.

Consider by analogy the British habit of holding the door in public passages or corridors in public buildings open for the next person to pass through, regardless of whether this person is an acquaintance or a stranger. Generally viewed as a gesture of politeness, this custom is of course not a linguistic structure, but it is nonetheless an act of communicative value. Now, imagine a Welsh-English bilingual crossing from one wing of a public building to another in Caernarfon, North Wales, followed by a fellow visitor to the institution. Holding the door open to allow the stranger to pass with less effort, will the Welsh-English bilingual consider his/her communicative gesture to be Welsh or English? The answer is likely to be, that the gesture is physical and therefore linguistically neutral, and the question is therefore irrelevant. The point I wish to make, however, is that our inventory of communicative activities is arranged on a continuum, ranging from physical gestures, through to pitch, intensity and rhythm of voice, on to intonation and tone and patterns of emphasising information chunks, through exposition and juxtaposition, through to lexically-peripheral expressions such as tags and fillers, on to connectors and operators with a more strictly defined semantic meaning, and finally onto words and grammatical markers that are easiest to identify as belonging to a particular 'language' Somewhere on this continuum, forms of communication that may be viewed by users as universal rather than language-specific (but are of course equally confined to a particular cultural environment) give way to words and inflections that define interaction in one rather than another 'language'. For speakers of Domari, entire sets of language-processing functions assume identical forms regardless of whether interaction is taking place in Domari, the intimate language of elderly family relations and Dom friends and neighbours, or in Arabic, the language of the wider environment. I have referred to this process in earlier work as 'fusion' (Matras 1998a, 2005).

There is another indication that the relevant entity to which we must relate grammatical (not just communicative) competence in multilingual environments is the bilingual speaker's repertoire, rather than the speaker's two (or more) language 'systems' It comes from what we might term 'bilingual suppletion'. This has been addressed in the previous chapters in connection with the construction of comparative and superlative forms of
adjectives (Chapter 5.5), and in connection with the choice of nouns with inherited numerals and with numerals deriving from Arabic (Chapter 5.4). It was argued above that a formal rule accounting for the use of Arabic lexemes to match inherited lexemes in comparative adjectives and with numerals above 'four' would have to either accommodate a suppletive paradigm that encompasses all adjectives and all nouns in the language, in which (at least) half the paradigm would be identical with the Arabic translations of the relevant lexemes; or else it would have to state that in order to express certain positions in the paradigm, speakers must switch into their second language -a contradiction in terms for a language-specific formal rule of grammar. While the practical problem seems contained for adjectives, given that the entire corpus only shows less than seventy distinct adjectival lexemes, for countable nouns we are clearly dealing with an open class. A consistently suppletive paradigm would therefore seem highly unusual. The inevitable conclusion is that speaking Domari entails by definition speaking Arabic, hence the grammatical and communicative rules of Domari permit and at times instruct speakers to avail themselves of those parts of the repertoire that are used in interaction in Arabic even as part of Domari conversation.

What, then, is the difference between speaking Domari and speaking Arabic? This brings us to the second type of Arabic influence, which cannot be easily defined as 'borrowing' or even 'fusion', but rather as codemixing or codeswitching, following most conventional definitions of these terms. In Matras (2009: 110-111) I define the difference between 'borrowing' and 'codeswitching/codemixing' as a continuum. At the far end, on the 'borrowing' side', we find regular occurrence of single words (rather than phrases), often with grammatical function or representing specific referents (such as names of institutions or other cultural terms), which are integrated morphologically into the recipient language. For Domari, phonological integration is not a relevant criterion since Domari incorporates the entire Arabic phonological system. The diffusion of loanwords ('borrowings') into a monolingual population is also not relevant for Domari, since all speakers are bilingual. However, we might add the absence of any non-Arabic (inherited) word for the same concept as an additional criterion to help identify borrowings. In this respect, Arabic numerals like 'six' or 'seven' are borrowings, since they occur regularly, have an operational function, and have no inherited equivalent (meaning that they cannot be used merely as stylistic variants). On the other hand, Arabic nouns for everyday concepts like 'house', 'boy', 'girl', or 'day' that are triggered by the use of Arabic numerals such as 'six' or 'seven' constitute a borderline case, one which appears to be situated outside the conventional continuum. At the other end of the continuum, the 'codeswitching/codemixing' end, we find optional insertions of words as well as entire phrases and utterances, often intentionally for special conversational
and stylistic effects, on an irregular and usually less predictable basis. Within code-switches, morphological integration is usually not observed.

Table 77 offers an overview of the key parameters that condition the choice of language - Domari or Arabic - in the Jerusalem Dom community. The choice is triggered in the first instance at the sociolinguistic level by the nature of the interaction setting, and specifically, within a given setting, by the choice of interlocutor. Thus, Domari is used exclusively among elderly Dom members of the community who are personally acquainted with one another, and in most cases are members of the same family. Nowadays, as most speakers are no longer economically active, the language is used almost exclusively in the home. But even the home setting does not prescribe the consistent use of Domari. Turning to a younger member of the family, such as a daughter or a grandson, an elderly Dom will invariably speak Arabic. The presence of younger members of the family as bystanders, let alone of strangers (non-Dom), is also likely to trigger the use of Arabic even with an interlocutor with whom Domari is otherwise the preferred language of interaction. It goes without saying that all interactions with non-Dom or those that take place outside the home in public take place in Arabic.

Arabic is also present, however, within Domari interactions. During a conversation in Domari, contextual cues may trigger the use of Arabic phrases or utterances or even a series of utterances for stylistic effect or for organising the sequential structure of the conversation. While Domari remains the 'backbone' language of the main narrative chain and the plain, 'unmarked' turn, Arabic might be chosen for side-remarks, explanations, emphasis or directives (see already discussion of the conversational functions of codeswitching in Auer 1984 and 1995). The question remains how we distinguish between Domari and Arabic utterances in environments where switching takes place, taking into consideration that Domari itself contains a considerable amount of Arabic-derived structures. My proposal is to rely on the principal means that speakers select in order to deliver the core of the propositional content of the utterance, which amounts to their choice for the delivery and contextual anchoring of the predication. The grammatical instrument that allows the speaker to contextualise the predication (i.e. to relate it to an actor, to a time-deictic dimension, and to real-world relevance) is finite verb inflection. The choice of finite inflection on the main (lexical) predicate represents the speaker's choice of language for the delivery of the proposition. This choice will, in turn, be harmonious with the speaker's discourse-strategic choice of language at the conversational level, which in turn will be embedded into the availability of choices and the preferences set by the choice of interlocutor in a given interaction setting.

Table 77. Sociolinguistic, discourse-based, and utterance-based foundations of language choice (Domari choices shaded, Arabic plain)

| interaction setting | interlocutor (bystander) | elderly Dom (family, <br> acquaintance) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
|  |  | unmarked turn |
| delide-comments, |  |
| explanations, quotations |  |  |$|$| lexical finite verb inflection: |
| :--- |
| Domari |

### 11.6. The functional continuum in conversational practice

To conclude, we can now attempt to implement this interpretation of language choice and language variation for a series of examples from the corpus, which show, or may be considered to show ambiguity in regard to the language of the utterance. We begin with a set of utterances, which, following from the above definition, are without a doubt Domari utterances, rather than Arabic utterances. Here the speakers are making a clear choice in favour of Domari as the language of interaction and consequently as the language in which the predication is delivered. Nonetheless, owing to the specific content and choice of words, the utterance consists of lexical (and potentially grammatical) material that derives largely from Arabic. For the sake of comparison I will insert a constructed Arabic translation to accompany each of the recorded Domari utterances from the corpus:

| (22) | Domari: | aktar <br> more <br> ma <br> NEG | min <br> from <br> lak-e <br> see-P | talātīn thirty <br> om-is ST-1SG | xamsa five SG.OBL | $\bar{u}$ and | talātīn <br> thirty | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sana } \\ & \text { year } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Arabic: | aktar <br> more <br> ma <br> NEG | min <br> from <br> šuf-t <br> see.P | $\begin{aligned} & \text { talātīn } \\ & \text { thirty } \\ & \text { āa } \\ & \text { ST-1SG- } \end{aligned}$ | xamsa <br> five <br> SG.F | $\bar{u}$ and | talātīn thirty | sana year |

'It has been more than thirty, thirty five years since I've seen her.'

The point made above is nicely illustrated by this example, where the original Domari and Arabic translation differ merely in the choice of predicate and its finite inflection (Domari lak-ed-om-is 'I saw here', Arabic šuf-t-hä). Note the full overlap, otherwise, in vocabulary choices, owing to the generalisation in Domari of Arabic forms of comparative adjectives (aktar 'more'), the use of Arabic prepositions, the generalisation of Arabic numerals above 'three' and the use of Arabic nouns in conjunction with Arabic numerals, and finally the use of the Arabic past-tense negation marker ma.

| (23) | Domari: | hāda/ <br> this <br> sabfa <br> seven | $k a ̄ n$ <br> was.3SG.M <br> snīn <br> years | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sumr-om } \\ & \text { age-1SG } \end{aligned}$ | yimkin maybe | sitte <br> six | snīn <br> years |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Arabic: | häda/ <br> this <br> sab̧a <br> seven | $k a ̄ n$ <br> was.3SG.M <br> snin <br> years | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sumr-ī } \\ & \text { age-1SG } \end{aligned}$ | yimkin maybe | sitte six | snin <br> year |

'This/ I was maybe six or seven years old.'
Here the predicate is somewhat ambiguous, since we are dealing with a nominal predication in the past tense. The Arabic past-tense copula $k \bar{a} n$ serves in both languages as a past-tense auxiliary. In order to identify the language of the (nominal) predication we rely here on the inflection of the predicate noun, Sumr 'age'. Indeed, the only difference between the two versions, and what makes the first (original) utterance from the corpus a Domari rather Arabic sentence, is the speaker's choice of the 1SG possessive inflection -om ( Sumr-om 'my age', cf. Arabic Sumr-i).

| Domari: | mamnūs-i <br> prohibited-PRED.SG <br> skun-hōš-as <br> live-VITR.SUBJ-2PL | 'arbaS-xamse <br> four-five <br> mas baSd <br> together | buyūt houses |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Arabic: | mamnū̧ 'arbaS-xamse <br> prohibited four-five <br> mas basd <br> together | buyū̀t houses | tu-skum-ū <br> 2.SUBJ-live-PL |

'It is prohibited that you live together in four or five households.'

The differences between the two versions in this latter example are somewhat subtle, as we are dealing here with two clauses, a matrix nominal clause and an embedded modal complement clause. Consequently, we find a difference in the structuring of both predications: The Domari nominal predication is marked out by the Domari non-verbal predication marker $-i$ on the predicate adjective, which is absent in Arabic. The Domari embedded predication is a finite verb in the subjunctive, skum- 'to live', which happens to derive from Arabic. Its mood and person inflection are unique to Domari and reflect the speaker's choice of Domari for the delivery of the predication in this utterance. The source of all lexical material in the two versions is once again identical, deriving entirely from Arabic.


| Arabic: |  | min <br> from rar-t <br> t.PAS <br> xiliyye <br> interio | tnēn <br> two '-1SG | $\begin{gathered} \bar{u} \\ \text { and } \\ \text { W-ana } \\ \text { and-I } \end{gathered}$ | sabsīn liyāyet <br> seventy until <br> $b-a-s ̌ t y e l$ <br> PRG-1SG-work | hesē؟a <br> now <br> fi <br> in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

'And I've persisted from seventy two until now, I work at the interior ministry.'

Here too, there are two predications, and it is the form of these predications that characterise the utterance as Domari or Arabic. The verb 'to persist' is of Arabic origin in the Domari utterance, but takes Domari adaptation markers and person and tense inflection. The verb 'to work' differs from its Arabic counterpart, in both lexical root and inflection. In addition, the indirect object 'at the interior ministry' is structured differently, Domari drawing on its layered case inflection system and showing no definite article.

Contrasting with the above set of examples, the following excerpts show the insertion of Arabic utterance and utterance portions for strategic and stylistic, conversation-structuring side-remarks. Usually, the Arabic phrase constitutes a repetition and translation of the immediately preceding phrase in Domari. In some instances one can interpret these repetitions/translations as the speaker's wish to provide an explanation in order to ensure that the listener
has understood the original message. In such instances, the translation is usually introduced by the explicative discourse marker ya\{ni 'that is':


In other cases, it appears that subsequent translation into Arabic is the speaker's way of emphasising the content and ensuring that each and every aspect of the information units provided as background in a narration is appreciated in its relevance to the story:
(28) w-ehe di-ne, $=$ yaSni it-tinēn $=, \quad$ māmun
and-these two-DEF PART DEF-two uncle
putr-ēni, $=$ wlād $\quad$ Samm $=$
son-PRED.PL children uncle
'And these two $=$ that is the two of them $=$ are cousins $=$ cousins $=$.'
Further cases of codeswitching show classic stylistic motivations such as the authentication of a direct quotation within the narration:
(29) lamma wșull-ēn šofēr-as-ke $\quad$ šam-i: $\quad=$ waqif when arrive-1PL driver-OBL.M-BEN say-1SG-PRG stop hon šwayye bass bidd-nā n-šūf qā’ed l-maxfar = here a.little only want-1PL 1PL-see commander DEF-station 'When we arrive I say to the driver: = "stop here a minute, we just want to see the station commander" $=$.'

Note that each of the switches into Arabic in the preceding examples shows full-scale Arabic predications, while similarly the Domari part of the utterance contains a Domari finite predication (nominal clauses in Domari usually showing non-verbal predication markers, while Arabic nominal clauses lack explicit predication marking). We are thus able to identify phrase switches in line with the principles outlined in Table 77 above: In an interaction setting
and with an interlocutor with whom the chosen language of interaction is Domari, a contextual cue triggers the use of an Arabic utterance, identifiable through the fact that the anchoring of its predication is managed by drawing on Arabic finite verb morphology (or nominal clauses).

The model must, however, account for two further language-mixing phenomena. The first is the insertion into Domari utterances of Arabic phrases without the occurrence of a switch into an autonomous Arabic predication. Typically, we are dealing here with noun phrases or adverbial phrases that describe temporal or spatial settings as well as individual thematic roles. Their characteristic structural feature is the use of Arabic grammatical material that is not otherwise borrowed into Domari, but in these cases is not embedded into an Arabic predication, either. This includes Arabic definite articles signalling Arabic genitive-attributive constructions (e.g. ayyām l-'urctunn lit. 'the days of Jordan', rather than Domari waqtos 'urdunnaki or similar), Arabic definite articles in attributive constructions (I-luya I-hindiyye 'the Indian language'), Arabic prepositions that are not otherwise used in Domari, such as Sala 'to' (cf. Sala $l$ - §ïrāq 'to Iraq', immediately followed by the speaker's correction into Domari, Sïräq-a-ta 'to Iraq') and fi 'in' ( $f 1$ šamäl l-hind 'in northern India'), attributive adjectives showing Arabic agreement and word order (blād muqaddase 'a holy city'), quantifiers with definite head nouns (džamī̧ 1 mudun 'all the towns', cf. Domari giš ūyare etc.), and more:

| (30) | $\begin{gathered} =\begin{array}{c} \text { ayyā} m \\ \text { days } \end{array} \end{gathered}$ | I-'urctunn = <br> DEF-Jordan | hnēna <br> here | $k a ̄ n$ <br> was. 3 SGM | bard-ēk <br> full-PRED.SG |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | dōm-ēni | mnēn |  |  |  |
|  | Dom-PRE | .PL here |  |  |  |
|  | $'=$ Under | danian rule | w | any Dom |  |


| tSallim-r-e | $=$ I-lurya |
| :--- | :--- |
| learn-PAST-3PL | DEF-language |
| 'They learned = the Indian language $=$. |  |

ehe dōm-e raw-ird-e min halab-a-ki these Dom-PL travel-PAST-3PL from Aleppo-OBL.F-ABL gar-e Krēn, = Sala l-Sīrāq =, Sīrāq-a-ta yaSni go.PAST-3PL where to Iraq Iraq-OBL.F-DAT PART 'These Dom travelled from Aleppo where did they go, = to Iraq =, that is to Iraq.'
(33) ihi = blād muqaddase, min džamīS l-muctun =
this.F city holy from all DEF-towns
aw-ad-i
come-3PL-PRG
'This is $=a$ holy city $=$ they come = from all the towns $=$,'
(34) $\bar{u}$ krēn gar-e $t$-ird-e? $\quad$ fi šamāl $\quad$ l-hind $=$ and where go.PAST-3PL put-PAST-3PL in northern DEF-India 'And where did they go and settle? = in northern India $=$.'

In some instances one might argue that the Arabic phrase is more easily accessible as it exists in Arabic as a fixed, stereotype expression. Thus the phrase I-luya I-hindiyye 'the Indian language' does not have an obvious Domari translation and would have to be rendered by an ad hoc genitivepossessive construction based on the same lexical items. Similarly, blād muqaddase 'the holy city' is an established concept. In some cases, a choice for an Arabic phrase will trigger further Arabic structures. Thus the phrase blād muqaddase 'the holy city' in example (33) clearly serves as a trigger for the following prepositional phrase min džamī $\varsigma 1$-mudum 'from all the towns'; it is noteworthy that the speaker wishes to 'control' the interaction by returning to Domari as the default language of the utterance, re-established through the choice of the Domari finite verb awadi 'they come' at the very end of the utterance. In the case of šamāl l-hind 'northern India', the abstract concept denoting a remote region is likely to be an import from Arabic-language public discourse or publications, while the Arabic preposition $f l$ 'in' is merely an accommodation to that choice.

However, in other cases, speakers clearly have options, and having considered one of them, as in Sala l-Sīräq 'to Iraq', they may re-consider and re-structure the utterance, drawing here on Domari Sïraq-a-ta. This brings us to the final set of examples, which show that many Arabic insertions may be classified as such since they do not conform to the criterion of regularity and predictability that characterises genuine borrowings, but unlike stylistic insertions or switches they do not seem to have any particular contextual functionality either, and appear to be random choices licensed purely by the fact that Domari speakers all have permanent recourse to Arabic while engaging in Domari conversation, and so all Arabic forms are in principle permissible:

| (35) | lāzem must 'You | $\begin{array}{lll} n & t-k \bar{u} n-\bar{u} & i \\ & \text { 2-be-PL } \\ \text { must remain } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { tme } & \text { mišă } \\ \text { oou.PL } & \text { noma } \\ \text { omads. } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & h r-e s-i \\ & \text { e-2PL-PR } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (36) | $\bar{u}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \check{s} \text {-ird-a } \\ & \text { say-PAST-M } \end{aligned}$ | ab-us-ke for-3SG-BEN | dakātr-e, doctors-PL | xałłas <br> PART | atu you.SG |
|  | mišš | rah nan |  | gēna xud |  |  |
|  | NEG | gone brin | g.SUBJ.2SG | again chil |  |  |
|  | 'And the doctors said to her, that's it, you will not bear any more children.' |  |  |  |  |  |



In example (35) the speaker brings a quotation in Domari, in which the Arabic impersonal modal läzem 'must' is followed by, and perhaps triggers the use of the finite existential verb $t-k \bar{u} n-\bar{u}$ 'you shall be' in Arabic, though the utterance continues with a predicate noun to which a Domari copula is attached. Since the status of lāzem is ambiguous, we might view this as a renegotiation of the language of interaction in the middle of the utterance, or simply accept the Arabic insertion as a random choice in favour of a legitimate variant that is part of the shared linguistic repertoire of the speaker and the listener. In example (36), potential ambiguity of language choice is given, possibly as a result of the choice of the Arabic negator mičš, which is then followed by the Arabic aspectual marker rah(rather than its Domari equivalent gara). Finally, example (37) shows once more the use of the Arabic preposition $\rho a$ 'to' followed by the Arabic definite article (rather than the Domari case inflection, cf. 'urctunnaka 'to Jordan').

Some important conclusions must be drawn from these examples. The first is that there is, by and large, an internal order governing the selection of Domari and Arabic components in Dom conversations. In this respect, Domari is not a 'mixed language' in the sense discussed in collections such as Bakker and Mous (1994) or Matras and Bakker (2003). Its Indic and Arabic components are not complementary, but can work contrastively to achieve interactional, contextual and stylistic differentiation. In historical and sociolinguistic perspective, Domari did not arise as a product of a new language contact situation, but shows an Arabic component that has been acquired over time and has led in some cases to the prevalence of Arabicderived structures in entire sub-systems and functional categories. Nonetheless, unlike 'mixed languages' Domari fails to show an etymological split between basic lexicon and the source of finite verb inflection for lexical predications, the most important common structural trait that can be assigned to the group of idioms classified intuitively as 'mixed languages' (see Matras 2003). At the same time, the free recourse to Arabic system components, the tendency toward bilingual suppletion in some domains, and the license to embed even just random structures from Arabic (the latter is a frequently encountered feature of bilingual conversation, and the former is not entirely unattested in other languages in contact, either) point to a need to refine somewhat our notions of 'languageness' and to view the unit of linguistic description in multilingual contexts not in the first instance as the speaker's
accumulated knowledge of separate 'languages' or 'language systems', but to focus our attention instead on speakers' modes of negotiating their entire personal and collective repertoires of linguistic and communicative structures.

## Chapter 12

## Samples of Talk

For Audio files for the following samples see:
http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/9783110291421.fm

### 12.1. Sample 1: The appointment of a head man

| dōm-e | kān- $\bar{l} \bar{l}$ | dōm-ē-man | $=$ yaSni | nawar-nā $=$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dom-PL | was-3PL | Dom-PL-1PL | PART | Dom-1PL |
| kam-k-ad-a | haddādīn-e |  |  |  |
| work-VTR-3PL-REM | blacksmiths-PL |  |  |  |

The Dom used to/ our Doms = that is, our Gypsies = used to work as blacksmiths.
$\bar{u}$ kān- $\bar{l}$ skum-o-nd-a kul kury-ē-s-ma and was-3PL live-VITR-3PL-REM hou/ house-PL-3SG-LOC hay-kil fall-as-ki yaSni
PART-ABL fabric-OBL.M-ABL PART
And they used to live in houses from like/ fabric, right.
šawādir-ēn-a
nylon.covers-PRED.PL-REM was-3PL house-PL-3PL
Their houses were covered in nylon.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}= & \text { xiyam } & \text { yaSni } & \text { šawādir } & \bar{u} & \text { kiyās } & \text { yaSni } \\ \text { tents } & \text { PART } & \text { nylon.covers } & \text { and } & \text { sacks } & \text { PART } & \text { and this }\end{array}$
$=$ Tents like nylon covers and sacks and so on $=$.
$\bar{u} \quad$ haddid-kar-and-a.
and metal-VTR-3PL-REM
And they used to work in metal.
gēna qabil ayyām-ē-san nohr-as-ki.
also before days-PL-3PL red-OBL.M-ABL
Also before the days of the British.
$\begin{array}{lll}=\text { l'inglīz/ } & \begin{array}{l}\text { ayyām } \\ \text { DEF-English } \\ \text { days }\end{array} & \text { I'inglīz }= \\ \text { DEF-English }\end{array}$
$=$ The English/ the period of English rule $=$

| $k a ̄$ | dōm-e | skum-ahr-end-a | knēn? Sand |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| was-3PL all | Dom-PL | live-VITR-3PL-REM | where |
| $h e \bar{y}-\mathrm{ki}$ | ma/ | šērem, mušēr |  |
| PART-A |  | Musherem Musher | L.M.DAT | Where did all the Doms used to live? In this place, Musherem, in Musherem. giš kury-ē-man gēna falli $\bar{u}$ xiyam-ēn-a kān-ū all house-PL-1PL also fabric and tent-PRED.PL-REM was-3PL All our houses were made of fabric, they were tents.

skun-ahr-end-a hundar.
live-VITR-3PL-REM there
That's where they used to live.
ayyām-ē-s boy-im-ki kān
days-PL-3SG father-OBL.SG-1SG-ABL was.3SG.M
qašqot-ēy-a boy-om.
small-PRED.SG-REM father-1SG
In my father's days, my father was young.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { knēn } & \text { skum-ahr-end-a } & \text { Sand/ } & \text { dōm-e? } & \text { Sand } & \text { sāfid } \bar{u} \\ \text { where } & \text { live-VITR-3PL-REM } & \text { at } & \text { Dom-PL } & \text { at } & \text { Said } & \text { and }\end{array}$
saSid-as-ki.
Said-OBL.M-ABL
Where were the Doms living? In Said and Said.
dīs-ak ehr-a zayy sahr-ēk Surs-i
day-INDEF become-PAST-M like party-PRED.SG wedding-PRED.SG dōm-an-ka
Dom-OBL.PL-DAT
One day there was a wedding party among the Doms.
$\bar{u}$ nan-d-e raqqāṣ-āt min yazzē/ min
and bring-PAST-3PL dancer-PL from Gaza from $y a ̄ f-\bar{c}-k i$.
Jaffa-OBL.F-ABL
And they brought in dancers from Gaza/ from Jaffa.
dōmiy-ēni našī-r-e.
Dom.woman-PRED.PL dance-PAST-3PL
Dom women danced.

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { musilmīn-ēni } & \text { min } & \text { ūyar-ki } & \text { mandža. } \\ \text { Muslims-PRED.PL } & \text { from } & \text { town-ABL } & \text { inside }\end{array}$
Many Jews came from Al-Musharib and also Muslims came from inside the Old City.

| $\bar{u}$ | $s \bar{a} r-u$ | farrudž-ho-nd-i | San ehe |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | began.3PL | watch-VITR-3PL-PRG | at | these.PL |

raqqāṣīn-an-ta $\bar{u}$ našy-and-i $\bar{u}$ hayo-nd-i
dancers-OBL.PL-DAT and dance-3PL-PRG and this-3PL-PRG And they started to watch these dancers dancing and so on.

| waqt-os | lagiš-k-ad-e | musilmīn-e | $\bar{u}$ | portkīl-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| time-3.SG | fight-VTR-PAST-3PL | Muslims-PL | and | Jew-PL |

$m a \rho$ baSç Sašān raqqāsan-an-ki.
with REC because dancer-OBL.PL-ABL
Art the time, the Muslims had a fight with the Jews over the dancers.
sār-u fër-and-i ba؟̣ baৎd-ē-san waṭ-an-ma.
began-3PL hit-3PL-PRG REC REC-PL-3PL stone-OBL.PL-LOC They started to throw stones at one another.
haṭta gēna dōm-e hayy-ē-man ifzaS-ahr-a maS
PART also Dom-PL PART-PL-1PL arrive-VITR.PAST-M with musilminn-an-ki ṣār-at fèr-and-i portkīl-an-ma.
Muslims-OBL.PL-ABL began-F hit-3PL-PRG Jew-OBL.PL-LOC And then our Doms arrived with the Muslims and started to fight the Jews.
er-e tmāliy-e hākim Saskar-ik
come.PAST-3PL soldier-PL governor military-PRED.SG
aha inglīz-an hayy-os, nām-os Storrs.
this.M English-OBL.PL PART-3SG name-3SG Storrs
Soldiers arrived, the English military governor, this man, his name was Storrs.

| $\bar{u}$ | tmāliy-ēni | wāš-īs | $\bar{u}$ | $h a d a$ | $\bar{u}$ | $x u l d-\bar{e} k$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | soldier-PRED.PL | with-3SG | and | this | and | ride-PRED.SG | hay-ta gory-a-ta.

PART-DAT horse-OBL.F-DAT
And he's got soldiers with him and all that and he is riding a horse.
$\bar{u}$ farrudž-ahr-al tmāliy-e inglizī, saka-r-ed-e,
and look-VTR.PAST-M soldier-PL English can-PAST-3PL-NEG mnaS-kar-ad prevent-VTR-3PL.SUBJ ehe toš-é.
this.PL incident-OBL.F
And he saw that the English soldiers were unable to prevent this incident.

| boy-om | gar-a, | gir-naw-id-a | gišs | dōm-an |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| father-1SG | go.PAST-M | drive-CAUS-PAST-M | all | Dom-OBL.PL |


| $\bar{u}$ | gir-naw-id-a | gǐ̌ | musilminn-an. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | drive-CAUS-PAST-M | all | Muslims-OBL.PL |

My father arrived, he pulled back all the Doms and he pulled back all the Muslims.

| nig-r-e | hay-ta | mušarim-as-ta |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| enter-PAST-3PL | PART-DAT | Musherem-OBL.M-DAT |  |
| yahūdiy-an-ki | yalni | ehe | musilmin-e. |
| Jew-OBL.PL-DAT | PART | these.PL | Muslims-PL |

The Muslims entered the Jewish [area] Musherem.
gar-a boy-om gir-naw-id-osan.
go.PAST-M father-1SG drive-CAUS-PAST-3PL
My father went and pulled them back.
hākim aha inglīzī ţadžib-r-a, qal hatta governor this English surprise-PAST-M PART even tmāliy-ēni $\bar{u}$ hada ma sak-r-e-' soldier-PRED.PL and this NEG can-PAST-3PL-NEG mnaS-kar-ad ihi toš-è. prevent-VTR-3PL.SUBJ this.F incident-OBL.F
The English governor was surprised, he said that even the soldiers and all that were unable to prevent this incident.

| kēhni | ek-ak | zayy er-as-ki | gir-naw-id-a |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| how | one-INDEF | like that-OBL.M-ABL | drive-CAUS-PAST-M |
| giš | ehe | umm-ē? |  |
| all these.PL | people-OBL.F |  |  |

How could somebody like him pull back all these people?
nēr-d-a tmaliy-ak boy-im-ke.
send-PAST-M soldier-INDEF father-1SG.OBL-BEN
He sent a soldier to my father.

| xal aru, | bidd-o | iyy-āk | hākim/ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART come.2SG.SUBJ | want-3SG.M | OBJ-2SG.M | governor |
| yaSni $\quad$ tilla. |  |  |  |
| PART big |  |  |  |

He said: Come, the governor wants you/ that is the chief.
$\begin{array}{ccc}=\text { yaSni }= & \text { tilla }=\text { yaSni } & \text { I-kbir }= \\ \text { PART } & \text { big } & \text { PART }\end{array}$ DEF-big
$=$ That is $=$ the chief $=$ that's the chief $=$
Mm.

| byy-o-m gar-a <br> father-1SG go.PAST-M <br> by-ar-i  | hākim-as-ke | governor-OBL.M-BEN | and | pandži |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG |  |  |  |  |

My father went to the governor in fear.

| bīr-ēk | inni | habis-kar-is |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fear-PRED.SG | COMP | imprison-VTR-3SG.OBL |
| illa |  |  |
| Afraid that the chief will lock him up. |  |  |


| tir-d-a | xast-os | xast-is-ma | boy-im- ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| put-PAST.M | hand-3SG | hand-3SG.OBL-LOC | father-1SG.OBL-ABL |
| He put his hand in my father's hand. |  |  |  |


| xal | urati | bidd-ak | aru | ama-ke |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART | tomorrow | want-2SG.M | come.2SG.SUBJ | me-BEN |

    saray-ē-ta
    Saray-OBL.F-DAT
    He said: Tomorrow I would like you to come to see me at the Saraya.
yaSni knēn maktab-os? bi Saqbat is-sarāya.
PART when office-3SG in Aqbat is-Saraya
That is, where is his office? At Aqbat s-Saraya.

| tāni | dīs | gar-a | par-d-a | diyyes | min |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| second | day | go.PAST-M | take-PAST-M | two | from |
| dōm-an-ki |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dom-OBL.PL-ABL |  |  |  |  |  |

The next day he went and took with him two guys from among the Dom.

| $\stackrel{\bar{u}}{\text { and }}$ | gar-a | maktab-is | hayy-ki | till-as-ki |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | go.PAST-M | office-3SG.OBL | PART-ABL | big-OBL.M-ABL |
| aha hākm-as-ki. |  |  |  |  |
|  | is.M govern | -OBL.M-ABL |  |  |
| And he went to this guy's office, the chief's, the governor's. |  |  |  |  |
| $h a ̄ k$ | $t$-os | šahād- |  |  |
|  | nor give.PA | T-3SG certific | -INDEF |  |
| The governor gave him a certificate. |  |  |  |  |

hatta aha turdžman qal tilla yalni I-hākim
PART this.M translator PART big PART DEF-governor qal mabs $\operatorname{lunt}-i$ bol minšĭ- $r$ PART happy-PRED.SG much from-2SG
And the translator said: The chief, that is the governor, is very happy with you.

| $=$ yaSni | mabsū̆t | ktīr | minn-ak | inn-ak | inte |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART | happy | much | from-2SG.M | COMP-2SG.M | 2SG.M |

you helped the soldiers, and you pulled back all these people from these/ from the Jews.
mabsūūt-i ktīr minšĭ-r.
happy-PRED.SG much from-2SG
He is very happy with you.

| W-hatta | qaI | hatta | ihi | šahādat | muxtār |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and-PART | PART | PART | this.F | certificate | head.man |
| Sayin-k-ad-os-ir <br> appoint-VTR-PAST-3SG-2SG.OBL | meadār | pandži | 3SG |  |  |

And he said here's a head man's certificate, he is appointing you head man.
min waxt-as-ki boy-om ehr-a muxtār
from time-OBL.M-ABL father-1SG become.PAST-M head.man dōm-an-ta.
Dom-OBL.PL-DAT
From that time my father became the head man of the Doms.

### 12.2. Sample 2: Life after retirement

Sa zamān l-'urdunn kil-d-om baladiy-ē-ma
during time DEF-Jordan exit-PAST-1SG municipality-OBL.F-LOC During the Jordanian rule I joined the municipality.

| ama | kam-kar-(am-a) | baladiy-ē-ma | ¢a zamān |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| I | work-VTR-1SG-REM | municipality-OBL.F-LOC | during time |
|  | mn |  |  |
|  | dan |  |  |

I worked for the municipality during the Jordanian rule.
$\bar{u}$ er-i isrā̀’l, kam-k-ad-ēn wāšī-s.
and come.PAST-F Israel work-VTR-PAST-1PL with-3SG And the Israelis arrived, and we worked for them.
$\bar{u}$ xdim-ke-d-om tnēn $\bar{u}$ talātīn sine
and serve-VTR-PAST-1SG two and thirty year baladiy-ē-ma municipality-OBL.F-LOC
I served the municipality for thirty two years.
$\bar{u}$ Sāwid-k-ed-om baladiy-ē-ki, taqā̧ud.
and return-VTR-PAST-1SG municipality-OBL.F-ABL retirement And I left the municipality, I retired.
mist-ahr-om-i, saka-m-e, kam-k-am.
ill-be-1SG-PRG can-1SG-NEG work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ
I am ill, I cannot work.

| ama | $\bar{u}$ | $b o y-o-s$ | $s a k a-n-e$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | and | father-3SG | can-1PL-NEG |
| Me and her father, we cannot work. |  |  |  |
| work-VTR-1PL.SUBJ |  |  |  |

mišr-ahr-ēn-i, $\bar{u} \quad$ baSdēn till-ahr-ēn-i.
ill-be-1PL-PRG and then old-be-1PL-PRG
We are ill, and then, we are old.
[...]
yaSni ama na wēs-r-om xiyam-an
PART I NEG sit-PAST-1SG tents-OBL.PL
Well, I never lived in tents.

| ama | wēs-r-om | hindar | wēs-r-om | yaSni | kur-ik |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | sit-PAST-1SG | here | sit-PAST-1SG | PART | house-PRED.SG |
|  | wat-i |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

I lived here, I lived in a stone house.
eme skun-ēn hindar kury-is-ma wat-an-ki
we live-1PL here house-3SG.OBL-LOC stone-OBL.PL-ABL
We live here in stone houses.

| awwal ma | skun-ēn hindar/ | skum-ēn | hindar/ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| first COMP | live-1PL here | live-1PL | here |
| We first moved here/ we live here/ |  |  |  |


| awwal ma | skum-ēn hindar | ben-o-m | džawiz-r-i | hindar |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| first | COMP | live-1PL here | sister-1SG | marry-PAST-F | here |

awwal ma skun-ēn hindar
first COMP live-1PL here
We first moved here.

| er-ēn | min | wādi | džōz | skun-ēn |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| come.PAST-1PL | from | Wadi | Joz | hindar. |
| We came to live here from Wadi Joz to live here. |  |  |  |  |

bād-os xāl-os-i boy-im-ki
grandfather-3SG uncle.maternal-3SG-PRED.SG father-1SG.OBL-ABL Her grandfather is my father's maternal uncle.


And her grandmother/ her grandmother, uh/ her father's paternal aunt is my grandmother.

| skun-ēn | hindar | er-a | bād-os | illi |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| live-1PL | here | come.PAST-M | grandfather-3SG | REL |
| bi---lubnān | mistl-ēk |  |  |  |
| in-DEF-Lebanon | ill-PRED.SG |  |  |  |

We live here, and her grandfather who lives in Lebanon arrived, he was ill.
mist-ēk.
ill-PRED.SG
He is ill.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { er-a, } & \begin{array}{ll}\text { krēn } \\ \text { come.PAST-M } & \text { skun-ahr-a } \\ \text { where }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { skī-man } \\ \text { live-VITR.PAST-M }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { at-1PL }\end{array} \\ \text { here }\end{array}$
$x a ̄ 1-o s-i$.
uncle.maternal-3SG-PRED.SG
He arrived, where did he live? With us here, her maternal uncle.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { lamma } & \text { lake-d-a } & \begin{array}{l}\text { xāl-os } \\ \text { when }\end{array} & \text { see-PAST-M } \\ \text { uncle.maternal-3SG } & \text { indžann-ahr-a } \\ \text { went.crazy-VITR.PAST-M }\end{array}$ bay-om
father-1SG
When my father saw his maternal uncle, he went crazy.
haassil, sakkin-k-ad-ed-is hindar wila gar-ēn
conclusion live-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL here but go.PAST-1PL
skun-ēn hōš-as-ma
live-1PL.SUBJ courtyard-OBL.M-LOC muxtār-as-ki.
chief-OBL.SG-ABL
Anyway, he was accommodated here but we went to live in the head man's courtyard.
skun-ēn wars-ak-i
live-1PL year-INDEF-PRED.SG
We lived there for one year.
Sawid par-d-ēn kury-a sūr-as-k-ēk
back take-PAST-1PL house-OBL.F wall-OBL.M-DAT-PRED.SG And we took the house back on the wall.

| par-d-ēn-is | pl-am-ma | kury-a |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take-PAST-1PL-3SG.OBL | money-OBL.PL-LOC | house-OBL.F |
| sūr-as-ki. |  |  |
| wall-OBL.M-ABL |  |  |

We paid for it the price of a house on the wall.
skun-ēn mindžī-s aw-ar-i talatīn sine
live-1PL in-3SG come-3SG-PRG thirty year
We lived there for around thirty years now.

| er-a | isrā’̄̈l | kil-ad-is-man, | kil-ad-is-man |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-M | Israel | exit-PAST-3SG-1PL | exit-PAST-3SG-1PL |
| kury-a-ki |  | er-a-ki. |  |
| house-OBL.F-ABL | that-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |

The Israelis came and forced us out, forced us out of that house.
$\begin{array}{lllllll}\bar{u} & l a-s-s e \overline{S a} & \text { ihi } & \text { haqora } & \text { wāšī-man-i } & \bar{u} & \text { kuri }\end{array}$
and till-DEF-hour this.F deed with-1PL-PRED.SG and house sakkir-ik closed-PRED.SG
And to this day we have the deeds, but the house is closed.
$\bar{u}$ eme skunn-ahr-ēn-i adžar-ma
and we live-VIT-1PL-PRG rent-LOC
And we are renting.
hatta $\varsigma a \quad$ zamān l-urdumn,
PART during time DEF-Jordan
And during the Jordanian rule,
ihi $\int a \quad$ zamān l-urctunn $\varsigma$ iš̌-oman-i
this.F during time DEF-Jordan life-1PL-PRED.SG
This was our life during the Jordanian rule.
kam-kar-ēn baladiy-è-ma.
work-VTR-1PL municipality-OBL.F-LOC
We worked for the municipality.
par-an sitt sabaS lirāt I-hamcu-l-illah baqa ghāy take-1PL.SUBJ six seven lira.PL DEF-thank-to-God stay.3SG.M good If we earned six or seven pounds, that was fine.
rxīs kiyak, xārū̄f/ par-an-s-a xārū̄f-i bi cheap something lamb take-1PL-3SG-REM lamb-PRED.SG in zard-ak $\bar{u}$ nïm di zard, xārū̄f. gold-INDEF and half two gold lamb
Things were cheap, we used to buy lamb for a pound and a half, two pounds, lamb.
$k i ̄ l-o s \quad$ masy-a-ki bi sitte qrūuss-i
kilo-3SG meat-OBL.F-ABL in six penny-PRED.SG A kilo of meat for six pence.

Sarūsa talātīn lïra par-an-s-a xamsa $\bar{u}$ Sšrīn līra. bride thirty lira take-1PL-3SG.REM five and twenty lira For a bride we used to pay twenty five lira.

| ama | džawiz-r-om | bay-om | xamsa | $\bar{l}$ | Sašrīn | līra. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | marry-PAST-1SG | wife-1SG | five | and | twenty | lira |
| I married my wife for twenty five lira. |  |  |  |  |  |  |

boy-os džawiz-r-a talātīn Iīra
father-3SG marry-PAST-M thirty lira
Her father married for thirty lira.
day-os mām-im dīr-i.
mother-3SG paternal.uncle-1SG.OBL daughter-PRED.SG
Her mother is my cousin.
day-os er-a-ki mām-im dīr-i.
mother-3SG this-OBL.F-ABL paternal.uncle-1SG.OBL daughter-PRED.SG
This one's mother is my cousin.
kēka awa-d-i hindar-i, ama xāl-os ihi
how come-3PL-PRG here I maternal.uncle-3SG this.F
That's why they come here, I am her uncle.
ihi ama xāl-os-i.
this.F I maternal.uncle-3SG-PRED.SG
I am this one's uncle.
day-os/ dādy-os mām-is
mother-3SG grandmother-3SG paternal.uncle-3SG.OBL dìr-i boy-im-ki. daughter-PRED.SG father-1SG-ABL
Her mother/ her grandmother is my father's cousin.

| ama $\quad$xāl-os <br> I $\quad$ maternal.uncle-3SG | $e r-a-k i$. <br> this-OBL.F-ABL |
| :--- | :--- |
| I am her uncle. |  |
| $x a \bar{l}$-os-i |  |
| maternal.uncle-3SG-PRED.SG | day-is-ki <br> Her mother's uncle. |
| mother-3SG.OBL-ABL |  |

$\bar{u} \quad \bar{u}^{2} \bar{r} \quad$ illi $\quad$ Sišr-r-ēn mašallah kam-kar-d-ēn, and except REL live-PAST-1PL God.blessing work-VTR-PAST-1PL And apart from living, with God's blessing we worked.

| lamma | nig-r-i | isrā’il, | er-e | ban-d-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| when enter-PAST-F | Israel | come.PAST-3PL <br> close-PAST-3PL |  |  |
| kury-a |  |  |  |  |
| house-OBL.F |  |  |  |  |

When the Israelis arrived, they came and shut down the house.

| ban-d-e | kury-a | er-e | $\bar{u}$ |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| close-PAST-3PL | house-OBL.F | come.PAST-3PL and |  |
| gar-ēn | adžir-hr-ēn | adžar-am-ma. |  |
| go.PAST-1PL | rent-VITR.PAST-1PL | rent-OBL.PL-LOC |  |

They closed the house and we went and took a house for rent.

| $\bar{u}$ | hatta | ihi | haqora | bard-ehr- $i$ | $d \bar{l} l$ | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | even | this.F | deed | full-become.PAST-F | sand | and | trāb $\bar{u} \quad$ xamm-ēk $\quad i s ̌ i$ dust and dirt-PRED.SG thing

And even though the deeds are now full of sand and dust and dirt and all.
$\bar{u}$ gēna skunn-ahr-ēn-a hindar Sišr-ahr-ēn-a ghāy. and again live-VITR-1PL-REM here live-VITR-1PL-REM well And once again we are living here, we live well.

| bass | $n-h-e$, | $p l e$. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but | NEG-is-NEG | money |

But there is no money.
ištahl-an dill-as $\bar{l}$ kulll bidd-nā yaSni musā̧ad carry-1PL sand-OBL.M and all want-1PL PART help We carry the sand and all/ we want help.
$n$-h-e' wašī-man ple
NEG-is-NEG with-1PL money
We don't have money.

# yaßni sȩ̄ad-kar-man mat, 

PART help-VTR-1PL person
Somebody should help us,
qol-an ihi kury-a, badāl ma ihi
open-1PL.SUBJ this.F house-OBL.F instead COMP this.F
sakkir-ik.
closed-PRED.SG
to open the house, instead of keeping it closed.

| awa-r-i | taran | kur-ik | mindž̄̄-s |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come-3SG-PRG | three | house-PRED.SG | inside-3SG |

One can make three houses out of it.
$\varsigma_{1 i s ̌ r}-\bar{e} n-i \quad$ baq-ēnā.
live-PAST-1PL-PRG stayed-1PL
We have continued to live.
par-an-a sab̧a lirāt ū nuṣs baladiy-ē-ma
take-1PL-REM seven lira.PL and half municipality-OBL.F-LOC We used to earn seven and a half pounds at the municipality.
sir-nā par-an-i xams $\bar{u}$ Sašrīn līra yalāt masīs began-1PL take-1PL-PRG five and twenty lira life expenses We started to get twenty five lira inflation bonus.
$\bar{u}$ xamis $\bar{u}$ Sašrīn līra zayy xmist/ sab@at alāf and five and twenty lira like five seven thousand.PL israil-a-ki
Israel-OBL.F-ABL
And twenty five lira is like five/ seven thousand Israeli pounds.
Sīša ghāy.
life good
Life is good.

| yalni | lamma | nikš-an-i | kar-an-i | hafl-ak, | ya |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART | when | enter-1PL-PRG | do-1PL-PRG | party-INDEF | or | Surus, zard-ak zard-ak $\bar{u}$ nīm di zard-i wedding gold-INDEF gold-INDEF and half two gold-PRED.SG Like if we want to have a party or wedding, a pound or a pound and a half, two pounds.

mišš zayy adžoti, 'arbaS xamas mit lìra fí-hā
NEG like today four five hundred lira in-3SG.F 'urdunni. Jordanian
Not like today, it costs four five hundred Jordanian lira.

Siša giš ghāy, hilu
life all good beautiful
Life is good, beautiful.
mišš zayy adžoti ašti ple, bass jala-k
NEG like today there.is money but expensive-PRED.SG
Not like today, there is money, but things are expensive.
ašti ple, law ašti bass jala-k d-dinya. there.is money if there.is but expensive-PRED.SG DEF-life There is money, if you have it, but life is expensive.
aha bantalon par-an-s-a nim zard zard-ak
this.M trousers take-1PL-3SG-REM half gold gold-INDEF
We used to buy this pair of trousers for half a pound, one pound.
l-yōm par-an-s-i bi talātin lira aha
DEF-day take-1PL-3SG-PRG in thirty lira this.M bantalon-i.
trousers-PRED.SG
Today we would buy these trousers for thirty lira.

### 12.3. Sample 3: A love tale

ašti kān Sašrīn kuri dom-ēni, furr-und-i
there.is was.3SG.M twenty house Dom-PRED.PL nomadise-3PL-PRG There were twenty Dom households, they travelled.

| $e r-a$ | $q r a r-a n-t a$ | $\bar{a} r a ̄ d i ̄ y-i s-m a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-M | Bedouin-OBL.PL-DAT | land.PL-3SG.OBL-LOC | halab-a-ki.

Aleppo-OBL.F-ABL
They came to the Bedouin lands of Aleppo.
$s a \bar{r}-\bar{u} \quad$ kar-and-i hafl-e.
began.3PL do-3PL-PRG party-PL
They began to give parties.

| ašti | $i k-a k$ | $n a ̄ m-o s-e ̄ y-a$ | jazzāl-ēk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | one-INDEF | name-3SG-PRED.SG-REM | Ghazzale-PRED.SG |
| ihi | guld-ik | bol. |  |
| this.F | sweet-PRED.SG | very |  |

One of them, her name was Ghazzale, she was very pretty.
boy-os till-os-i dōm-an-ki.
father-3SG big-3SG-PRED.SG Dom-OBL.PL-ABL
Her father was the leader of the Dom.

| $s \bar{r} r-a t$ | $n a s ̌ y-a r-i$ | $\bar{l}$ | ¢azif- $k$-and-a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| began-3SG.F | dance-3SG-PRG | and | play.music-VTR-3PL-REM |
| $a b-L s-k e$ | rabbab-ē-ta |  | dōm-e. |
| for-3SG-BEN | Rabbaba-OBL.F-DAT | Dom-PL |  |

She began to dance and the Dom would play the rabbaba for her.

| Sazif-k-and-i | rabbab-ē-ta | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| play-music-VTR-3PL-PRG | Rabbaba-OBL.F-DAT | and |
| 3SG |  |  |

našy-ar-i.
dance-3SG-PRG
They would play the rabbaba and she would dance.
ehe qrar-e $\quad \stackrel{a}{r}-\bar{u} \quad$ dē-d-san-i $\quad$ āta, gēsū,
these.PL Bedouin-PL began-3PL give-3PL-3PL-PRG flour wheat $\begin{array}{lllll}=y a S n i \\ \text { qameh yaini } \bar{l} \text { thinn }=\bar{u} & \text { sukna } & =y a S n i & z e \bar{t} \\ \text { PART flour PART and wheat and oil }\end{array}$
The Bedouin came and began to give them flour, wheat, = that is flour right and wheat $=$ and oil $=$ that is oil $=$.
ekak min ehe qrar-an-ki
one-INDEF from these.PL Bedouin-OBL.PL-ABL
putr-os-i šēx-as-ki till-ēk aha,
son-3SG-PRED.SG Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL big-PRED.SG this.M
One of these Bedouins was the son of an important Sheikh.
saār kull lēle aw-ar-i nkī-san $\bar{u}$
began.M every night come-3SG-PRG at-3PL and shu-r-or-i 'and dōm-an-ki.
spend.night-VITR.PAST-3SG-PRG at Dom-OBL.PL-ABL
He began to visit them every night and spend the night with the Dom.
$\bar{u}$ ihi dōmiya jazzāle našy-ar-i $\quad a b-u s-k e$.
and this.F Dom.F Ghazzale dance-3SG-PRG for-3SG-BEN And this Dom girl Ghazzale would dance for him.

| par-d-i | Saql-os | = yaSni | 'ess? | salbat | 1-Saqel |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| take-PAST-F | brain-3SG | PART | what | took.3SG.F | DEF-brain |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { tabaSo }= \\ & \text { his } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |

He was overwhelmed by her = That is, what $?$ He was overhwlemed by her $=$.


This Dom woman, Ghazzale, was engaged, she was promised to her cousin.
= yalni maxțūūbe l-’ibn Samm-hā = PART engaged.F to-son paternal.uncle-3SG.F
$=$ that is, she was engaged to her cousin $=$
putr-os šēx-as-ki aha qrara hay-os hibb-r-a
son-3SG Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL this.M Bedouin this-3SG like-PAST-M
ihi dōmiy-ē $\bar{u}$ ihi dōmiya gēna
this.F Dom-OBL.F and this.F Dom.F further hubb-r-os-is. love-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL
The Sheikh's son, the Bedouin, liked the Dom girl and the Dom girl liked him too.
$\begin{array}{llll}s a ̄ r & \text { qaft-ar-i } & \text { min boy-os } & \text { kury-a-ki }\end{array}$
began.M steal-3SG-PRG from father-3SG house-OBL.F-ABL
aha qrara nan-ar-i ihi domiy-ē-ke
this.M Bedouin bring-3SG-PRG this.F Dom-OBL.F-BEN

| $\bar{u}$ | $d r a ̄ r i-k-e d-o s-s a n$ | $p l e$ | $\bar{u}$ | fray-e | $m a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | fill-VTR-PAST-3SG-3PL | money | and | clothes | NEG | fray-e $\bar{u} \quad$ hada. clothes and that

The Bedouin started to steal from his father's household and to bring things to this Dom girl and to bestow on her money and clothes and so on.

| qrara $\quad$ aha | šōna, | mang-id-a | ihi | domi-yē | min |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Bedouin this.M | boy | ask-PAST-M | this.F | Dom-OBL.F | from |
| boy-is- $k i$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| father-3SG.OBL-ABL |  |  |  |  |  |

The Bedouin boy asked her father for the Dom girl's hand.
boy-os ma rd-ah-r-a de-r-is.
father-3SG NEG accept-VITR give-3SG.OBL
Her father did not agree to give her away.
yaSni atu boy-or šēx-i till-ēk

PART you.SG father-2SG Sheikh-PRED.SG
big-PRED.SG
Your father is an important Sheikh,

| $\bar{u}$ | par | ik-ak | dömiya | yaSni aha |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| and | take.2SG.SUBJ | one-INDEF | Dom.F | PART this.M |

And should you take a Dom girl, your people would not accept this, $=$ that is, your family will not accept this $=$


The boy went and told his father, the Bedouin, I want this Dom girl, I would like to marry her.
boy-os qal ehe dom-ēni $\bar{l}$ iza
father-3SG said these.PL Dom-PRED.PL and if

```
par-d-or-is
    take-PAST-2SG-3SG kill-1SG.SUBJ kill-1SG.SUBJ-3PL-PRG
    gištāne, giš dōm-an mar-am-i.
    all all Dom-OBL.PL kill-1SG-PRES
```

His father said, these are Dom, and if you were to marry her I will kill all of them, I will kill all the Dom.
rfự-k-ed-a $k a l$ aha bsy-os aha šōn-as-ki. refuse-VTR-PAST-M ka/ this.M father-3SG this.M boy-OBL.M-ABL The boy's father refused.
arātin, $=$ yahni fi-l-lel $=$ aha šéx qrara
at.night PART in-DEF-night this.M Sheikh Bedouin

| ssir-d-a | qrar-an-ke | hawū-k-as |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| speak-PAST-M | Bedouin-OBL.PL-BEN | expel-VTR-2PL.SUBJ |

Dom-OBL.PL from here
At night $=$ that is, at night $=$ the Bedouin Sheikh said to the Bedouins: Expel all the Dom from here.

| tānī | diss | aha | šāna | qrara, | putt-Os | šē̄-as-ki, |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| next | day | this.M | boy | Bedouin | son-3SG | Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL |
| gar-a |  | ta | lak-ar |  | dom-an | ma |
| go.PAST-M | COMP | see-3SG.SUBJ | Dom-OBL.PL | NEG |  |  |

lak-ed-os-san,
see-PAST-3SG-3PL
The next day the Bedouin boy, the Sheikh's son, went to see the Dom but could not find them.
raw-ird-ed-i min hundar min uhu des-os-ki, travel-PAST-3PL-PRG from there from that.M village-OBL.M-ABL

$$
\begin{aligned}
=\text { yaSni } & \text { rahalū }= \\
\text { PART } & \text { travelled.3PL }
\end{aligned}
$$

They travelled from there from that village, $=$ that is they travelled $=$.
ehe döm-e raw-ird-e min hay-ki min
these.PL Dom-PL walk-PAST-3PL from PART-ABL from
halab-a-ki gar-e krēn? = 乌ala $\quad$--乌ïraq, $=$

Aleppo-OBL.F-ABL go.PAST-3PL where to DEF-Iraq, Sīraq-a-ta yaSni Sīraq-a-ta.
Iraq-OBL.F-DAT PART Iraq-OBL.F-DAT
The Dom left Aleppo and where did they go? = to Iraq $=$, that is to Iraq.
aha šōna sār row-ar-i atnī-san, man-d-a
this.M boy began.M cry-3SG-PRG about-3PL leave-PAST-M

| boy-is | kury-a | $\bar{u}$ | $g a r-a$ | $t /$ |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| father-3SG.OBL | house-OBL.F | and | go.PAST-M |  |
| ras-r-a | dōm-an. |  |  |  |
| return-PAST-M | Dom-OBL.PL |  |  |  |

The boy started to cry, he left his father's house and he went/ he went back to the Dom.

| $\bar{u}$ | kulll | kull | mā | aw-ar-i | Sala dey-ak, |  |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | every | every | COMP | come-3SG-PRG | to village-INDEF |  |
| $=$ | yaSni | kull | mā | bīzi | Sala | l-balad= |
|  | PART | every | COM | come.3SG to | DEF-village |  |

And every/ every time he arrived in a village, = that is every time he came to a village $=$
s'il-k-ar-i mal ma er-e dōm-e nkī-ran
ask-VTR-3SG-PRG NEG NEG come.PAST-3PL Dom-PL by-2PL hindar?
here
He asks: Didn't any Dom arrive here in your town?
š-and-i: la, ma er-e.
speak-3PL-PRG no NEG come.PAST-3PL
They say: No, they haven't arrived.

| bi-I-’āxir | ndall-ahr-a |  | atnis-an, | lak-ed-osan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| at-DEF-end | succeed-VIT | .PAST-M | about-3PL | see-PAST-3PL |
| tir-d-ed-i |  | $\mathrm{fi}^{\prime} \mathrm{fi}^{\prime}$ | dèy-ak | min |
| stand-PAS | 3PL-PRG | in in | village-INDEF | from |
| dèy-è-s-ki |  | 1-Sirāq. |  |  |
| village-PL-3 | G-ABL | DEF-Iraq |  |  |

At the end he succeeded, he found them stopping in/ in one of the towns of Iraq.

| eh-e these.PL | dōm-e | qal | lak, | bidd-ak |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Dom-PL | PART | see.2SG.SUBJ | want-2SG.M |
|  |  | wāšī-man? |  |  |
| -be.SUBJ-2SG with-1PL |  |  |  |  |

The Dom said: Look, do you want to live with us?
bidd-ak kam-k-a zeyy-ak zayy-nā,
want-2SG.M work-VTR-2SG.SUBJ like-2SG.M like-1PL
bidd-ak hōš-ī tabbil-k-a
want-2SG.M become-2SG.SUBJ drum-VTR-2SG.SUBJ
Do you want to work just like us, do you want to play the drums?
Sallim-k-ar-r-i kihni fumna tabl-ē-ta.
teach-VTR-1PL-2SG-PRG how hit-2SG.SUBJ drum-OBL.F-DAT
We will teach you how to hit the drum.

| fēm-ar-i | tabl-ē-ta, | $\bar{u}$ | ihi | šōni | yazzāle |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hit-3SG-PRG | drum-OBL.F-DAT | and | this.F | girl | Ghazzale |
| dōmiya | našy-ar-i. |  |  |  |  |
| Dom.woman | dance-3SG-PRG |  |  |  |  |

He strikes the drum, and the Dom girl Ghazzale dances.

| dža-r-i/ | dža-nd-i | qahaw-ē/ | qahawiy-an-ta, |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| go-3SG-PRES | go-3PL-PRES | coffee | café-OBL.PL-DAT |  |
| dža-nd-i | kury-an-ta, | našy-and-i | $\bar{u}$ |  |
| go-3PL-PRES | house-OBL.PL-DAT | dance-3PL-PRG | and |  |
| hada minšān | lim-kar-ad | ple, | $=$ yafni |  |
| this for | earn-VTR-3PL.SUBJ | money | PART |  |
| y-ilm- | masaāri $=$ |  |  |  |
| 3-earn-PL | money |  |  |  |

He goes/ they go to coffee/ to the cafés, they go to houses, they dance and all that in order to earn money $=$ that is to earn money $=$.
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { il-muhimm, } & \begin{array}{l}\text { par- }- \text {-a }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { ihi } \\ \text { DEF-important } \\ \text { take-PAST-M }\end{array} & \text { this.F }\end{array} \begin{aligned} & \text { dōmiy-ē, } \\ & \text { Dom.womani-OBL.F }\end{aligned}$
aha qrara.
this.M Bedouin
Anyway, this Bedouin married this Dom woman.
aha qrara boy-os šōn-as-ki, sār
this.M Bedouin father-3SG boy-OBL.M-ABL began.3SG.M
nēr-r-i mat-e dawwir-kar-ad putr-os-ta.
send-3SG-PRG people-PL search-VTR-3PL.SUBJ son-3SG-DAT
The Bedouin, the boy's father, began sending people to search for his son.

| $e r-a s-o s$ | xabar-i | inni | hatta |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| come.PAST-3SG-3SG | news-PRED.SG | COMP | PART |
| wēst-ēk | putr-os Sand | döm-an | $n-k i$, |
| sit-PAST-PRED.SG | son-3SG at | Dom-OB | -BL.PL-ABL |
| tabbal-k-ar-i | $\bar{u}$ hundar/ | $\bar{l}$ | dōmiya |
| drum-VTR-3SG-PRES | and there | and D | Dom.woman |
| našy-ar-i. <br> dance-3SG-PRG |  |  |  |

He received information that his son was living with the Dom, striking the drum there while the Dom woman dances.
boy-os min-d-a hāl-os ū gar-a, krēn?
father-3SG take-PAST-M self-3SG and go.PAST-M where Sīrāq-a-ta.
Iraq-OBL.F-DAT
His father left and where did he go? To Iraq.
š-ird-a tmāliy-an-ke illi Sïraq-a-m-ēni, speak-PAST-M soldier-OBL.PL-BEN REL Iraq-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.PL He spoke to the soldiers who were in Iraq.

| qal | itme | bidd-kum | rahil-kar-as | ama-ke |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PART | you.PL | want-2PL | leave-VTR-2PL.SUBJ | 1SG-BEN |
| ehe | dōm-an | habs-kar-as-san |  |  |
| these.PL | Dom-OBL.PL | arrest-VTR-2PL.SUBJ-3PL |  |  |
| He said: you must drive out these Dom for me and arrest them. |  |  |  |  |

$\bar{u}$ putr-om t-as-is sidžin-ma $\bar{u}$
and son-1SG put-2PL.SUBJ-3SG.OBL prison-LOC and saffir-k-as-is hay-ta, halab-a-ta. travel-VTR-2PL.SUBJ-3SG.OBL this-DAT Aleppo-OBL.F-DAT And as for my son, you should put him in prison and deport him to this, to Aleppo.

| $\begin{aligned} = & y a S n i \\ & \text { PART } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { misik- } \bar{u} & \text { rahh } \\ \text { catch-2PL } & \text { depo } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & l-\bar{u} \\ & t-2 \mathrm{PL} \end{aligned}$ | ha-nawar, these-Gypsies | $\bar{u}$ and | $\begin{aligned} & i b n-\bar{i} \\ & \text { son-1SG } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hāda <br> this.M | imisk-ū-hu <br> catch-2PL-3SG.M | hut-lul-hu |  |  |  |
| bi-sidžen, in-prison | ū baSdēn and then | saffr-u deport | $2 \mathrm{PL}-3 \mathrm{SG} . \mathrm{M}$ | wēn <br> where | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sala } \\ & \text { to } \end{aligned}$ |
| halab = <br> Aleppo |  |  |  |  |  |
| $=$ that is grab these Gypsies and send them away, and arrest my son and put him in prison, and then send him away where? To Aleppo =. |  |  |  |  |  |

er-e tmaliy-e hawu-k-ad-e dōm-an
come.PAST-3PL soldier-PL drive-VTR-PAST-3PL Dom-OBL.PL
$\bar{u}$ min-d-a aha qrar-as putr-os aha and stay-PAST-M this.M Bedouin son-3SG this.M šē $\bar{X}$-as-ki
Sheikh-OBL.M-ABL
The soldiers came and drove away the Doms and the Bedouin, the Sheikh's son, stayed.

| tir-d-ed-is | sidžin-ma | min | sidžin-ki |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| put-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL | prison-LOC | from | prison-ABL |
| saffir-k-ad-ed-is |  | kinēn? | Sala halab. |
| deport-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL | where | to | Aleppo |

They put him in prison and from prison they deported him where? To Aleppo.


The boy went out of his mind, the Dom girl also went out or her mind.

| aha | qrara | šēx, | aha | boy-os | šōn-as-ki, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.M | Bedouin | Sheikh this.M | father-3SG | boy-OBL.M-ABL |  |
| nan-ar-i | dakātr-an | inni | tayyib-kar-ad |  |  |
| bring-3SG-PRG | doctors-OBL.PL | COMP | good-VTR-3PL.SUBJ |  |  |
| aha | šōn-as |  |  |  |  |
| this.M | boy-OBL.M |  |  |  |  |

The Bedouin Sheikh, the boy's father, brought in doctors in order to cure the boy.

```
džan-d-ed-e' dakātra ab-us-ke.
know-PAST-3PL-NEG doctors for-3SG-BEN
The doctors didn't know how to help him.
```

| qrara | aha | šē | naddim-r-a | inni | kihni |
| ---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Bedouin | this.M | Sheikh | regret-PAST-M | COMP | how |
| yaSni | ma | nafiz- - - -ad-a | talab-os | putr-os-ki |  |
| PART | NEG | fulfil-VTR-PAST-M | wish-3SG | son-3SG-ABL |  | The Bedouin Sheikh regretted that he had failed to fulfil his son's wish.


| $\stackrel{s}{\text { s-ir-d-a }}$ | putr-os-ke | qal | iza | atu | bidd- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| speak-PAST-M | son | PART | if | you.SG | want-2SG.M |
| iyyā-ha, | xałfaş, dža |  |  |  |  |

OBJ-3SG.F PART fine go.2SG.SUBJ bring.2SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL He said to his son, if you want her, then that's fine, go on and take her.

| $\bar{u} \quad$ par-is | $\bar{u}$ | ama | xałfas | $\bar{u}$ | ama |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and take.2SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL | and | I | fine | and | I |
| wāfaq-K-ad-om-i | inni | džawiz-k-am-is |  |  |  |
| agree-VTR-PAST-1SG-PRG | COMP marry-VTR-1SG.SUBJ-3SG.OBL |  |  |  |  |
| ab-ur-ke. |  |  |  |  |  |

And take her and fine, and I agree to marry her to you.
ihi dōmiya min kutr mā yaSni mang-ar-a
this.F Dom.woman from much COMP PART want-3SG-REM
aha qrar-as, mišt-ahr-i hada $w$ mr-i.
this.M Bedouin-OBL.M ill-VITR.PAST-F this and die.PAST-F
The Dom woman loved the Bedouin so much, that she fell ill and died.
er-a aha šōna Sand dōm-an-ki: kate,
come.PAST-M this.M boy at Dom-OBL.PL-ABL where kate jazzāle kate jazzāle? qxal jazzāle mr-i. where Ghazzale where Ghazzale PART Ghazzale die.PAST-F The boy came to the Dom: Where is Ghazzale, where is Ghazzale? They said: Ghazzale died.
bardo aha qrara yaSni bald mr-i ihi sooni also this.M Bedouin PART after die.PAST-F this.F girl gèna miš-ahr-a wi mr-a $\bar{u}$ dfin-k-ad-e also ill-VITR.PAST-M and die.PAST-M and bury-VTR-PAST-3PL dīn-an maSbaṢ̆.
two-OBL.PPL together
So the boy too, after the girl died, also fell ill and died, and they buried the two of them together.

### 12.4. Sample 4: From a Dom woman's life story

lamma kum-t ama qašṭōt-ik, na
when was-1SG I small-PRED.SG
nēr-d-ed-im
send-PAST-3PL-1SG.OBL
madrasa/
NEG
madāris-an-ka.
school schools-OBL.PL-DAT
When I was small, they didn't send me to school/ to school.
$v e^{43} / \bar{u}$ baq-ēt kury-a-ma zayy xaddām-ēk,
and and stayed-1SG house-OBL.F-LOC like servant-PRED.SG man-ad-m-a
leave-3PL-1SG-REM kam-k-am kury-a-ma.
work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ house-OBL.F-LOC
And/ and I stayed at home like a servant, they left me to work at home.

| man-ad-m-e, | $k i l-s ̌$-am | $k u r y-a-k i$. <br> leave-3PL-1SG-NEG <br> exit-SUBJ-1SG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| house-OBL.F-ABL |  |  |

They would not let me leave the house.
$\bar{u}$ kān ašti ama-ke ben-ak-i,
and was.3SG.M there.is I-BEN sister-INDEF-PRED.SG nam-os hayāt-i.
name-3SG Hayat-PRED.SG
And I had a sister, her name is Hayat.
sabaḥtan f-ar-m-i qatl-ak, $\bar{u} \quad$ duhr
morning hit-3SG-1SG-PRG beating-INDEF and noon qatl-ak, ū-l-mugrub qatl-ak. beating-INDEF and-DEF-evening beating-INDEF
She used to hit me $-\mathbf{a}$ beating in the morning, a beating at noon, a beating in the evening,
minyēr ayye hādž-ak.
without any reason-INDEF
Without a reason.

| $\bar{u}$and | in-man-ad-m-e, |  | kil-š-am | mas |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | NEG-let-3PL- | NEG | exit-SUBJ-1SG | with |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & 2 y \text {-an-ki, } \\ & \text { I-OBL.PL-ABL } \end{aligned}$ | mas <br> with | $\begin{aligned} & s \bar{a} h b-\bar{e}-m-k i, \\ & \text { friend-PL-1SG-ABL } \end{aligned}$ | $\underset{\text { with }}{\operatorname{maS}}$ | 'iši. anything |

And they wouldn't let me go out with the girls, with my friends, with anyone.
$\bar{u}$ dīs-ak min arat-an-ki kun-t hada and day-INDEF from night-OBL.PL-ABL was-1SG this And one day I was/ this

| $k a ̄ n$ | $n k i \bar{i}-m a n$ | $n-h-e \prime$ | kahraba, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| was.3SG.M | at-1PL | NEG-is-NEG | electricity |
| We didn't have electricity. |  |  |  |

kun-nā wala̧-k-ēn-a lamb-ēk. was-1PL light-VTR-1PL-REM lantern-PRED.SG
We used to light a lantern.
ū kull Iēle ama walaS-k-am-i ihi lamb-ē. and every night I light-VTR-1SG-PRG this.F lantern-OBL.F And every evening I would light this lantern.


One day the lamp fell down on the head of what's her name, my niece Najwa.

| wa thim- $k$-ad-ed-is | mindz̆ī-m | inn-i |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| and accuse-VTR-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL | from-1SG | COMP-1SG |
| ama kur-d-om-is | xusulusi | Sankī-s. |
| I throw-PAST-1SG-3SG.OBL | deliberately | on-3SG |
| And they accused me of throwing it at her deliberately. |  |  |


| $\bar{u}$ | mïn-d-os-im | ihi | hayyāt, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | grab-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL | this.F | Hayat |


| fēr-os-im, | mar-d-os-im | fēyiš-ki. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hit.PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL | kill-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL | beating-ABL |

And Hayat grabbed me, she hit me, she beat me to death.
 And she said that I threw it deliberately in her face in order to burn her face.

| $\bar{u}$ and | da'iman <br> always | lamma <br> when | bidd-hā <br> want-3SG.F | $\begin{aligned} & d \check{z a-r} \\ & \text { go-3SG.SUBJ } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { kān-at } \\ & \text { was-3SG.F } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $r-a r-s-a$ |  | wāšī-s | $\bar{u} \quad$ 'iši |  |
|  | -3SG-3 | REM | with-3SG | and anything |  |
| ry time she went out she would take her with her and so |  |  |  |  |  |


| $\bar{u}$ | ama | man-ar-m-a | kury-a-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | I | leave-3SG-1SG-REM | house-OBL.F-LOC |


| $m s i h-k-a m$ | $\bar{u}$ | $q u \check{s ̌ ̌ ̌-k-a m}$ | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| scrub-VTR-1SG.SUBJ | and | sweep-VTR-1SG.SUBJ | and |

žlī-k-am.
wash-VTR-1SG.SUBJ
And she left me at home to scrub and to sweep and to wash.
$k a ̄ n-\bar{u} \quad d e \bar{u}-d-m-a \quad k a h r y-a k$
was-3PL give-3PL-1SG-REM pot-INDEF
žlī-k-am-is
wash.up-VTR-1SG-3SG.OBL bigger from-1SG-PRED.SG
They used to give me a pot to wash that was bigger than me.
$\bar{u}$ par-d-os-is madras-an-ka
and take-PAST-3SG-3SG.OBL school-OBL.PL-DAT
waddi-k-ed-os
bring-VTR-PAST-3SG
And she took her to school she brought her [there].
yaSni ama akbar min nadžwā-ki di wars
PART I older from Najwa-ABL two year
Well, I'm two years older than Najwa.

| waddi- k -ed-os | madras-an-ka | $\bar{u}$ | amayis | ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bring-VTR-PAST-3SG | school-OBL.PL-DAT | and | me | NEG |

$n e \bar{r}-d$-os-im.
send-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
She brought her to school but she didn't send me.
yaSni ma Salim-ahr-om.
PART NEG learn-VITR.PAST-1SG
So I didn't study.
$\bar{u}$ ama lamma till-ahr-om šīnak, ga-rom
and I when old-ITR.PAST-1SG a.little go.PAST-1SG
kam-k-am.
work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ
And when I grew a bit older I went to work.

| kān-at | par-ar-m-a | wāšī-s | ihi |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| was-3SG.F | G- | with-3SG | this.F | Hayat |
| kam-k-am | $\bar{u}$ | $k a ̄ n$ | par-ar-a |  |
| VT | G.SUBJ and | was-3SG | take-3S |  | pl-ē-m.

money-PL-1SG
She used to take me with her, Hayat, to work and she used to take away my money.

| $\begin{aligned} & \bar{u} \\ & \text { and } \end{aligned}$ | baq | radžo-ho-m-s-a | yaSni |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | stayed-1SG | beg-VITR-1SG | PART |
| waddi-k-ar-im |  |  | madras-è-ka. |
|  | g -VTR-3SG | UBJ-1SG sch | AT |
|  | - | to bring me to |  |


| pandži | š-ar-a |  | ama-ke: | na, | wēštī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | speak-3SG-REM | I-BEN | NEG | sit.2SG.SUBJ |  |
| kury-a-ma | atu, | na | dža |  |  |
| house-OBL.F-LOC | you.SG | NEG | go.2SG.SUBJ |  |  |
| madras-ē-ka! |  |  |  |  |  |
| school-OBL.F-DAT |  |  |  |  |  |

She said to me: No, you sit at home, don't go to school!
$\bar{u}$ da'iman yaSni kun-t ama kury-a-m-ēk
and always PART was-1SG I house-OBL.F-LOC-PRED.SG
wala kilš-am-i wala aw-am-i, wala
neither exit-1SG-PRG neither come-1SG-PRG neither
waddi-k-ar-m-i mahall-ak.
bring-VTR-3SG-1SG-PRG place-INDEF
And I was always at home, I didn't go out nor did I come nor would she take me anywhere.

| da'iman | ȟšur-ahr-om- $i$ | kury-a-ma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| always | cramp-be-1SG | house-OBL.F-LOC |

Always cramped at home.

| ya | par-ar-m-i | wāšī-s | $k a m-k-a m$, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| or | take-3SG-1SG-PRG | with-3SG | work-VTR-1SG.SUBJ |$\quad$| $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- |
| and | par-ar-i pl-ē-m. take-3SG-PRG money-PL-1SG

Or she would take me with her to work and take away my money.
$\bar{u}$ gištan-è-san kān-ū yaSni Samil-k-ad-m-a
and all-3PL was-3PL PART treat-VTR-3PL-1SG-REM mišs ghāy kury-a-ma
NEG good house-OBL.F-LOC
And they would all treat me badly at home.
bass kān-at day-os hayat-ē-ki ghāy wāšī-m.
but was-3SG.F mother-3SG Hayat-OBL.F-ABL good with-1SG
Only Hayat's mother was nice to me.
pandži rabbi-k-ed-os-im.
3SG raise-VTR-PAST-3SG-1SG
She was the one who raised me.

| yaSni | lamma | kān-at | hayy-āt | f-ăr-m-a | wila |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PART | when | was-3SG.F | Hayat | hit-3SG-1SG-REM | or |
| 'isis |  | $k a ̄ n-a t$ | Sazir-kar- |  |  |

That is, when Hayat used to hit me or something, she would scold her.
$\bar{u}$ bardo dïb gēna kān mišs ghāy,
and also Dib too was.3SG.M NEG good

And Dib was also mean to me.
kān-at bay-os da'iman yaßni Samil-k-ar-m-i
was-3SG.F wife-3SG always PART treat-VTR-3SG-1SG-PRG
mišs ghāy $\bar{u}$ 'iši.
NEG good and thing
His wife used to treat me badly and so on.
xatr-ak dïb fê-r-os-im buks-ak pirnè-m-ma
time-INDEF Dib hit-PAST-3SG-1SG punch-INDEF nose-1SG-LOC Once, Dib punched me in the nose.

| minšān | par-am/ | $\stackrel{s}{\text { sti-k-am }}$ | $a b-u s-k e$, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| for | take-1SG.SUBJ | buy-VTR-1SG.SUBJ | for-3SG-BEN |
| na | rd-ahr-om |  |  |
| NEG | agree-VITR.P | -1SG |  |

[He wanted me] to take/ to go shopping for him, I refused.
fē-r-os-im buks-ak pirnē-m-ma
hit-PAST-3SG-1SG punch-INDEF nose-1SG-LOC xl-aw-id-a
open-CAUS-PAST-M $\begin{array}{llll}\text { awi/ } \\ \text { come/ }\end{array} \begin{array}{lll}\text { yaini } & \text { PART }\end{array} \begin{aligned} & \text { aw-ar- } \\ & \text { come-3SG-PRG }\end{aligned} \quad \begin{gathered}d i \\ \text { two }\end{gathered}$ sȩ̄a xulls-ar-i nhir min pirnē-m-ki. hour exit-3SG-PRG blood from nose-1SG-ABL He punched me in the nose and made/ my nose was bleeding for two hours.
min waqtiy-is-ki in-f-ar-m-e, by-ar-i
from time-3SG.OBL-ABL NEG-hit-3SG-1SG-NEG fear-3SG-PRG From that time on he didn't hit me, he was scared.
$\bar{u}$ I-muhimm till-ahr-om-i yaSni lamma
and DEF-important
ehr-a
become.PAST-M age-1SG twelve year thirteen year
And/ Anyway when I reached the age of twelve or thirteen years,

| kam-k-ed-om | Sind | hay-ki | ihi | ester- $\overline{-}-k i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| work-VTR-PAST-1SG | at | PART-ABL | this.F | Esther-OBL.F-ABL | I worked for this woman, Esther.


| rabbi-k-ed-om | putr-ē-s | $\bar{u}$ | layāyet | yaini/ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| raise-VTR-PAST-1SG | son-PL-3SG | and | till | PART |

She used to treat me well, like/ as if she was my mother, she gave me love and compassion and all that.

| $\bar{u}$ | $b i-I '-\overline{a ̄ x a r}$ | absar | yayir-ahr-i | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | at-DEF-end | wonder | change-VITR.PAST-F | and |

    battil-ahr-i Samil-k-ar-im.
    stop-VITR.PAST-F employ-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-1SG
    And at the end, somehow she changed and stopped employing me.

### 12.5. Sample 5: The origin of the Dom

aṣl-os dōm-an-ki, Sa-zamān 'awwal,
origin-3SG Dom-PL-ABL in-time early

The origin of the Dom, early on,

| ǎ̌ti | $d i$ | $q a b i ̄ l-e$ | $\varsigma_{i \check{s}-r-\bar{e} d-a}$ | $k a ̄ n-\bar{u}$ | $f i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | two | tribe-PL | live-VITR-3PL-REM | was-3PL | in |


| bilād/ | dēs-is-ma | šām-a-ki. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| land. |  |  |
| town-3SG.OBL-LOC | Syria-OBL.F-ABL |  |

There were two tribes, they used to live in the land of/ in a Syrian town.
nām-osan banī qēs $\bar{u}$ banī murra.
name-3PL Bani Qes and Bani Murra
Their name was Bani Qes and Bani Murra.
till-os banī qēs nām-os klēb.
big-3SG Bani Qes name-3SG Kleb
The leader of Bani Qes, his name was Kleb.

| till-os | banī | murra | nām-os | džassās. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| big-3SG | Bani | Murra | name-3SG | Jassas |
| The leader of Bani Murra, his name was Jassas. |  |  |  |  |


| w-ehe | dïn-e | $=$ yaSni | it-tinēn $=$ | māmun |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| and-these.PL | two-PL | PART | DEF-two | uncle |

And those two, = that is the two of them $=$ were cousins $=$ cousins $=$.

| ašti | $i k$-ak-i | wud-ik, | ben-os <br> there.is <br> one-INDEF-PRED.SG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tubba | hassān. |  |  |
| Tubba | Hassan |  |  |
| tister-3SG |  |  |  |

There was an old lady, the sister of Tubba Hassan.
lamma mar-d-os klēb, mar-d-a tubba hassān
when kill-PAST-3SG Klëb kill-PAST-M Tubba Hassan
malik š-šām,
King DEF-Syria
When Kleb killed him, he killed Tubba Hassan the King of Syria,
bidd-hā intaqim-hōš-ar/ stad-hōš-ar
want-3SG.F revenge-VITR.SUBJ-3SG claim-VITR.SUBJ-3SG
tār-os min dōm-an-ki, yaSni min
revenge-3SG from Dom-OBL.PL-ABL PART from
ehe dinn-e qabil-an-ki.
these.PL two-PL tribe-OBL.PL-ABL
She wanted to take revenge/ to take revenge from the Doms, that is, from those two tribes.



And this sheep she put/ she put on her this/ = like perfumes and all that, perfume and all that $=$.
$\bar{u} \quad \check{s}$-ird-i $\quad a b$-san-ke ihi na§dža qal ihi
and say-PAST-F for-3PL-BEN this.F sheep PART this.F min assās-hā. min in-nāqiz in-nabi saaleh.
from origin-F from DEF-redeemer DEF-prophet Saleh And she said to them: this sheep, she said, is descended from the redeemer the Prophet Saleh.

| ašti | $n k \overline{1}-s$ | $e k-a k$ | $d u s a r-e ̄ k$ | $y a S n i$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| there.is | at-3SG | one-INDEF | black-PRED.SG | PART |

xdim-k-ar-i ihi/ wudi. serve-TR-3SG.PRG this.F old.lady
She had a black servant, serving this/ old lady.
š-ird-i ihi wudi hay-kel ctusar-as-ke hayy-os,
say-PAST-F this.F old.lady this-BEN black-OBL.M-BEN PART-3SG The lady said to/ to her servant,
qal par ihi na\{g-è, $\bar{u} \quad d z ̌ a$
PART take.2SG.SUBJ this.F sheep-OBL.F and go.2SG.SUBJ
bisātīn-ē-s-ma
gardens-PL-3SG-LOC
r $M 1-k-a r$
graze-VTR-3SG.SUBJ there
She said: take this sheep, and go to Kleb's gardens, let her graze there.
aha dusara par-d-a ihi nafg-ē $\bar{u}$
this.M black take-PAST-M this.F sheep-OBL.F and ban-d-os, t-ird-os hay-mal bustān-is-ma tie-PAST-3SG put-PAST-3SG PART-LOC garden-3SG.OBL-LOC klēb-as-ki.
Klēb-OBL.M-ABL
The servant took the sheep and tied her, he put her in Kleb's garden.
$\bar{u}$ bustān-i till-ēk.
and garden-PRED.SG
big-PRED.SG
And it was a big garden.

The sheep began to pick from a tree and to eat.
ḥurrāsīn-ē-s aha bustān-ki lak-ed-a ihi
guards-PL-3SG this.M garden-ABL see-PAST-3SG-M this.F
naSg-e. fè-r-ed-is mar-d-ed-is.
sheep-OBL.F beat-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL kill-PAST-3PL-3SG.OBL The garden's guards saw the sheep, they beat it and killed it.
dusara hayy-os widy-a-ki er-a š-ird-a
black this-3SG old-lady-OBL.F-ABL come.PAST-M say-PAST-M widy-a-ke.
old-lady-OBL.F-BEN
The old lady's black man came and told the old lady.
sär-at row-ar-i, $=y a S n i \quad$ sär-at thayyet $=$ began-3SG.F cry-3SG-PRG PART began-3SG.F cry.3SG.F.SUBJ She began to cry, = that is, she began to cry =.

| er-a | ab-us-ke | klēb: | karwe | wudi, | $=m a \bar{c}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| come.PAST-M | for-3SG-BEN | Kleb | PART | old.lady | what |
| lek? $=$ | row-ēk? |  |  |  |  |
| to.2SG.F | cry-2SG |  |  |  |  |

Kleb ${ }^{44}$ came to her: what is it, old lady, = what's the matter? = you're crying?
qal: lak-ed-or-i, hurrāạīn-ē-s bustān-is-ki
PART see-PAST-2SG-PRG guards-PL-3SG garden-3SG.OBL-ABL hay-ki klëb-as-ki
this-ABL Klēb-M-ABL
mar-d-e nalg-om illi
ihi $=$ assās-hā $\quad$ min naSgāt in-nabi $\quad$ salleh $=$
this.F origin-3SG-F from sheep-PL DEF-prophet Saleh She said: Did you see, this/ the guards of Kleb's garden killed my sheep, who is = descended from the sheep flock of the Prophet Saleh $=$.

| š-ar-i | džassās | $a b-u s-k e:$ | $n a$ | $z S i l-h o ̄ s ̌-\bar{s}-$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| say-3SG | Jassas | for-3SG-BEN | NEG | anger-VITR.SUBJ-2SG |
| atu | wudi. |  |  |  |
| you.SG | old.lady |  |  |  |

Jassas says to her: Don't be angry, old lady.

| ama | dè-m- - -i | badāl-is | Sašřīn | naSga | $\bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I | give-1SG-2SG-PRG | instead-3SG.OBL | twenty | sheep | and |

tayyib-k-am-i
improve-VTR-1SG-PRG
I shall give you twenty sheep in its place and I shall cheer you up.
qal: la', ama na-qbil-om-e'.
PART no I NEG-accept-1SG-NEG
She said: No, I don't accept.

| $y \bar{a}$ | imma | nafg-om | gardo-ho-r-i, | yā | imma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| either | if | sheep-1SG | live-VITR-3SG-PRG | either | if |


| mar-ēk | ama-ke | klēb-as, | yā | imma |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kill-2SG | 1SG-BEN | Kleb-OBL.M | either | if |
| bardi-k-a |  | hižr-om | ndžūum-i. |  |
| fill-VTR-2SG.SUBJ | lap-1SG | stars-PRED.SG |  |  |

Either my sheep shall live, or you shall kill Klēb for me, or else fill my lap with stars.

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lllllllll}
= & \text { yaSni } & \text { bi-l-Sarabī. } & \text { yā } & \text { naSgtī } & \text { tgūm, } & \text { yā } \\
\text { PART } & \text { in-DEF-Arabic } & \text { either } & \text { sheep-1SG } & \text { stand-3SG-F } & \text { or }
\end{array}\right)
$$

$=$ In other words, in Arabic: Either my sheep shall rise, or you will fill my lap with stars, or else Klēb's head shall float in blood $=$.

| džassās | qal: | ama | gardi-kar-am | nāfg-or |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Jassas | said | I | revive-VTR-1SG.SUBJ | sheep-2SG |

in-saka-m-e,
NEG-can-1SG-NEG
Jassas said: I cannot revive your sheep.
ila $\quad$ zēr xuya lamma gardi-k-ar-is ab-ur-ke.
but without God when revive-VTR-3SG.SUBJ-3SG for-2SG-BEN
Only God can revive her for you.


And to fill your lap with stars, he said, = these stars that's difficult for me=.

| $=$ amma-n | iza | bidd-ek | rās | klēb | marhabā-b-ek! = |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| but | if | want-2SG.F | head | Kleb | welcome-in-2SG.F |

$=$ But if you want Kleb's head, you are welcome to it! =


One day $=$ that is one day $=$ Kleb and Jassas went out to ride/ horses, they had a race.


Kleb's horse beat/ Jassas's horse.
 Jassas was hiding a lance beneath his gown, and just as the other one, Kleb, stood in front of him, he struck him with the lance directly in his back.
klib-r-a.
fall-PAST-M
He collapsed.

| $s a ̄ r$ |  | par-ar-i | min | nhīr-is-ki |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| began-3SG.M | take-3SG-PRG | from | blood-3SG.OBL-ABL | aha |
| this.M |  |  |  |  |

Kleb started to take his own blood, before he died.
ū ktib-k-ar-i dz̈am؟at-is-ke
and write-VTR-3SG-PRG community-3SG.OBL-BEN
ahal-is-ke, ehe banī qēs, inni džassās
people-3SG.OBL-BEN these.PL Banī Qes. COMP Jassas
judur-k-ed-os-im $\bar{u} \quad$ mar-d-os-im.
betrayed-VTR-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL and killed-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL
And [in it] he wrote to his community of people, Bani Qes, [saying] that Jassas betrayed me and killed me.

er-e ahal-os klēb-as-ki.
came-3PL people-3SG Kleb-OBL.M-ABL
Kleb's people arrived.
lak-ed-e klēb-as, rumuh pišt-is-m-ēk
saw-PAST-3PL Klēb-OBL.M lance back-3SG.OBL-LOC-PRED.SG
$\bar{u}$ pandži naza $\{-k-a r-i$.
and 3SG die-VTR-3SG-PRG
They found Kleb, a lance in his back, and he is dying.

| $\bar{u}$ | $k t i b-k$-ad-ēk | balat-ē-ta | inni |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| and | write-VTR-PAST-PRED.SG | foor-OBL.F-DAT | COMP | džassās mar-d-os-im. Jassas kill-PAST-3SG-1SG.OBL

And he had written on the floor: Jassas killed me.
gar-e dfin-k-ed-e klēb-as ū ehr-a
go.PAST-3PL bury-VTR-PAST-3PL Kleb-OBL.M and become.PAST-M harb bēn banī qēs $\bar{u}$ bēn banī murra. war between Bani Qes and between Bani Murra
They went and buried Kleb, and war broke out between Bani Qes and Bani Murra.
sab؟a snīn harb bēnatī-san-i, sab؟a snīn man-d-a seven years war between-3PL-PRED.SG seven years stay-PAST-M fēyiš bēnatī-san.
fight between-3PL
Seven years there was war between them, seven years the war continued between them.


In the end, Kleb's son, his name was Jalu, and Salem ez-Zir was the brother of Kleb.

| gar-a | min-d-a | ka | džassās-as | $\bar{u}$ | mar-d-ed-is. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| go.PAST-M | grabbed-3SG-M |  | Jassas | and | killed-3PL-3SG |

They went and caught Jassas and they killed him.

| džamaSt-ē-s | džassās-as-ki | ehe | banī murra, |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| people-PL-3SG | Džassās-OBL.M-ABL | these.PL | Banī Murra |  |  |
| 'umur- $k$-ed-a |  | atnī-s | aha | sālem | ez-zīr, |
| ordered-VTR-PAST-M | on-3SG | this.M | Salem | ez-Zir | PART |
| As for Jassas' people, the Bani Murra, | Salem ez-Zir decreed upon them: |  |  |  |  |


| itme | mamnnūS-i | hōš-as | hindar | yaSni |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you.PL | forbidden-PRED.SG be.SUBJ-2PL | here | PART |  |
| mamn $\bar{u} \bar{n} n$ | yitammūu | $h \bar{u} n=$ |  |  |
| forbidden.PL | stay.3PL.SUBJ | here |  |  |

You are not allowed to remain here $=$ that is forbidden to stay here $=$.

| lāzem | dža-s | xalāy-ma | hōš-as. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| must | go-2PL.SUBJ | wilderness-LOC | be-2PL.SUBJ |
| You must go and live in the wilderness. |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llllll}=\text { yaSni } & \text { lāzim } & \text { tiskenū } & \text { intu } & \text { bi-l-xala, } & \text { bi-s-sahra } \\ \text { PART } & \text { must } & \text { live.2PL.SUBJ } & \text { 2PL } & \text { in-DEF-wilderness in-DEF-desert }\end{array}$ $=$ That is, you must live in the wild, in the desert $=$
lāzem lamman itme raw-as-i, raw-as bi-Sizz must when 2PL travel-2PL-PRG travel-2PL.SUBJ in-strength
$i s ̌$-šō $b \quad w$-id-dinya $a g$-i.
DEF-heat and-DEF-weather fire-PRED.SG
When you travel, you must travel in the hottest time, when the weather is hot.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\text { yaSni wi-d-dinya } \\
& \text { PART and-DEF-weather hot } \\
& =\text { hat is in the hot weather }=
\end{aligned}
$$

$\bar{u}$ mamnū̄S-i itme qol-as gory-an-ta.
and forbidden-PRED.SG 2PL ride-2PL.SUBJ horse-OBL.PL-DAT And you may not ride horses.
$=y a S n i \quad$ mamnū̧ $\quad$ tirkebū $\quad l-x \bar{e} I=$
PART forbidden ride.2PL.SUBJ DEF-horse
$=$ That is you are not allowed to ride horses $=$
lāzem itme qol-as bass ehe qar-an.
must 2PL ride-2PL.SUBJ only these.PL donkey-OBL.PL
You must only ride donkeys.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
=\text { tirkebū } & l \text {-xamīr }= \\
\text { ride.2PL.SUBJ } & \text { DEF-donkey }
\end{array}
$$

$=$ Ride donkeys $=$
mamnū̧-i 'arbaS-xamse buyūt skum-hōš-as maSbaSd
forbidden-PRED four-five houses live-VITR.SUBJ-2PL together
You are not allowed to live together, four-five households.
lāzem tkū̄n itme mišāttat-hr-es-i.
must be.SUBJ.3SG.F you.PL dispersed-be-2PL-PRG
You must remain dispersed.
$\bar{u}$ itme lāzem maṣīr-oran hōš-as inni bass
and you.PL must destiny-2PL be-2PL.SUBJ COMP only janni-kar-as $\bar{u}$ našī-š-as. sing-VTR-2PL.SUBJ and dance-SUBJ-2PL
And your destiny is that you shall only sing and dance.
aha-k Süšat-oran itme.
this.M-PRED.SG life-2PL you.PL
Thus is to be your life.

| ehe | dōm-e | itšatitit-r-e | $\bar{u}$ | $k r e \bar{n}$ | gar-e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this.PL | Dom-PL | dispersed-PAST-3PL | and | where | go.PAST-3PL |

tird-e? $\quad=$ fī šamāl $\quad 1$-hind $=$.
settle-PAST-3PL in north DEF-India
The Dom dispersed and where did they go and settle $?=$ In northern India $=$.
min uhu waxt-as-ki, man-d-e $=f i$ šamāl l-hind $=$.
from that.M time-OBL.M-ABL stay-PAST-3PL in north DEF-India
From that time on, they remained $=$ in northern India $=$.
tSallim-r-e $\quad=$ I-luja $\quad$ I-hindiyye $=$,
learn-PAST-3PL DEF-language DEF-Indian
They learned $=$ the Indian language $=$.
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { ila } & \text { qisem/ } & \text { qism-ak } & \text { minšī-san } & \text { lamma } & \text { zhur-ahr-a } \\ \text { but } & \text { part } & \text { part-INDEF } & \text { from-3PL } & \text { when } & \text { appear-PAST-M }\end{array}$
șallah ed-dīn 'ayyūbī $\bar{u}$ er-a Sala I-Sirāq $\bar{u}$
Salah ed-Din Ayyubi and come.PAST-M to DEF-Iraq and Sala š-šăm.
to DEF-Syria
But part/ one part of them, when Saladin Ayubi appeared and came to Iraq and to Syria.
$\bar{u}$ er-e Sala falastīn $\bar{u} \quad s ̣ a ̄ r-\bar{u}$
and come.PAST-3PL to Palestine and started-3PL zaraf-k-and-i $\bar{u}$ hāda. farm-VTR-3PL-PRG and that
And they came to Palestine and started to engage in farming and so on.
$\bar{u}$ man-d-e hindar dōm-e.
and stay-PAST-3PL here Dom-PL
And the Dom have remained here.

## Chapter 13

## Notes on the Domari lexicon

### 13.1. The lexical corpus

The present chapter accompanies the complete Vocabulary list that documents all lexical items recorded in the corpus of connected speech as well as through targeted elicitation (see Chapter 14). Altogether around 960 words were retrieved from the transcriptions, of which over one third (around 360) are of pre-Arabic origin. This includes single-word insertions from Arabic as well as Arabic prepositional phrases and possessive-genitive constructions (such as 'at the police station', or 'prosecutor-general'), but excludes Arabic phrase insertions that contain a finite lexical verb in Arabic (Arabic-inflected auxiliaries are common in Domari and are considered part of the stable structure of the language; see Chapters 7 and 11). Some 55 non-Arabic lexical items listed by Macalister (1914) remain unattested in our corpus and unknown to speakers who were asked whether they recognised them, suggesting a decline in the knowledge of Domari vocabulary in the past two to three generations.

### 13.2. Etymologies and lexical borrowing

Domari etymologies reveal several layers of historical contacts, notably a small group of Persian loans, several Turkic (Turkish and/or Azeri) items, and a somewhat larger group of Kurdish-derived vocabulary. Turkic (Turkish and/or Azeri) words include kapi 'door', sabahtan 'in the morning', guzel 'pretty, beautiful', komir 'coal', gēna 'too' (Turkish gine 'again, also'), bīy 'moustache' and probably also tāt 'Arab'. Kurdish items include grawara 'head man' (Kurdish gawra 'great, big'), gišt 'all', kurt 'short', karamakē 'please', dēy 'village', mast 'yoghurt', tfang 'gun', xuya 'God', mām 'paternal uncle', sal 'rice', šał 'waterhole', dari 'place', zara 'child', and more. Shared between Kurdish and Arabic are $x \bar{a} I$ 'maternal uncle', and in addition shared with Persian are baxt 'luck' and nafar 'person' Words of Persian origin include nïm 'half', ple 'money' (Persian singular pol), and zard 'gold'. The small number of Persian loans reflects either the time depth of contact, or indeed the fact that Persian items may have entered the language via secondary sources such as Turkish, Kurdish or even Arabic. Contact with Turkish
continued presumably until the end of Ottoman rule in Palestine in 1917, and the wordlists published by Seetzen and Macalister testify to a somewhat larger number of active loans from Turkish during the Ottoman period.

The relatively larger number of Kurdish borrowings clearly indicates prolonged contact with this language, which for the Jerusalem Dom can be assumed to have taken place prior to immigration to Palestine. On this basis it is not surprising that much of the Kurdish vocabulary that appears in the Domari varieties of Syria and Lebanon, where Dom are still in contact with Kurds, is not attested in the Jerusalem dialect. A number of words that are typically attested for other Domari varieties but are not in use in Jerusalem include Kurdish numerals, especially those above 'six', the Kurdish (but also Turkish and Persian) words birinč 'rice' and banir 'cheese', Kurdish bapir 'grandfather, ancestor' and dar 'tree', but also Indic nak 'nose', gir 'butter', goni 'bag', ungli 'toe', čenani 'star', and lafti 'girl'. The presence of some of these words in the neighbouring variety of Jordan as well as in Seetzen's vocabulary suggests nonetheless that the rate of retention of older loans simply varies from community to community, or indeed that some contacts with Kurdish speakers continued well after emigration out of the Kurdish regions, facilitated through the nomadic lifestyle of both the Dom and of some Kurdish-speaking populations in the region. Our consultants themselves report on contacts with nomadic Dom from Iraq in Palestine and Jordan as late as the 1940s, and one of our consultants reports that his wife's family had relatives in Lebanon (see Chapter 12).

It is not possible to establish precisely when and where initial contact with spoken Arabic took place, but the presence of the form gal alongside qal for the quotative particle (Arabic $q \bar{a} l$ 'he said') hints at contacts with Bedouin dialects (though Kurdish also has qal 'speech'). Other Arabic loans clearly derive from contacts with Arab populations, either nomadic or settled, other than that of Jerusalem or the other West Bank towns amongst whom the Dom have been living at least for the past two centuries. We find for example the words qahwa 'coffee' and qabil 'before', contrasting with Jerusalem Arabic 'ahwe and 'abil, compositions based on waqt-and waxt- 'time' (e.g. waqtos'at the time, then'), contrasting with Jerusalem Arabic wa'et, and words like hessa! 'now', contrasting with Jerusalem Arabic halla'. Note that when speaking Arabic, Dom from Jerusalem naturally use the Jerusalem forms rather than the corresponding Arabic-derived counterparts used in Domari. The language also shows a number of creative processes that are applied to Arabic vocabulary. In addition to the volatility of $/ \mathrm{q} /(\mathrm{as} / \mathrm{q} / \mathrm{/} / \mathrm{x} /, / \mathrm{qx} /$ and $/ \mathrm{g} /$ ), alternations can be found between fardžik-'to show' (Arabic f.r.dž) and wardžik-. Occasionally we encounter creative derivations such as bisawahr'to get married', based on Arabic bi-sawa 'together'.

In the opening remarks above I alluded to the enormous proportion of Arabic-derived vocabulary in the corpus of natural speech: around two-thirds of lexical items used are Arabic loans. Table 78 shows the breakdown of words by etymology for the major word classes. It shows that the number of inherited words and that of Arabic words are nearly identical for adjectives and verbs, while borrowed nouns and adverbs outnumber the corresponding inherited stock by almost $2: 1$. Not included in the table are pronouns, which constitute a conservative category that is almost entirely inherited, as well as conjunctions, modal particles, and interjections, which are, by contrast, almost entirely Arabic (see Chapters 9, 10 and 11).

Table 78. Etymological source of lexical items by word class

| Word class | Inherited (Indic) | Kurdish, Turkish, or Persian | Arabic |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nouns | 150 | 20 | 280 |
| Verbs | 110 | 0 | 118 |
| Adverbs | 18 | 3 | 30 |
| Adjectives | 31 | 2 | 32 |

An outstanding finding is the high rate of verbs of Arabic origin. Drawing on conventionalised morphological integration strategies for verbs, as discussed in Chapter 7, Domari speakers can avail themselves spontaneously of virtually any Arabic verbal root and integrate it into their speech, regardless of whether or not it is an established term in Domari. The same principle applies, of course, to nouns as well, and to some degree to adjectives and lexical adverbs. The higher proportion of Arabic nouns can be said to merely reflect the greater semantic-lexical differentiation for which speakers rely on nouns.

Basic vocabulary, on the other hand, shows much higher dependency on inherited lexemes. We can draw on three distinct, albeit related indicators for the purpose of ascertaining the proportion of stable, inherited basic vocabulary. Firstly, for the original or 'long' Swadesh list containing 225 items (Swadesh 1950), we find 89 Arabic borrowings, which amounts to ca. $40 \%$. By contrast, only 26 items out of Swadesh's 'final' or 'standard' 100word list (Swadesh 1971: 283), or $26 \%$, are Arabic loans. Of the pre-Arabic elements represented on these lists, only a single item can be clearly established as a non-Indic early loan, namely gǐ̌t 'all', from Kurdish.

A more recent tool was introduced by the Loanword Typology Project (Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009). While it was not possible to elicit the full working list of 1,460 meanings for Domari (indeed the total number of lexical items recorded in the corpus is significantly lower), we can relate our findings to the 100 -item so-called Leipzig-Jakarta list of basic vocabulary. This list bears a strong resemblance to the Swadesh lists, but is a result of empirical
comparisons among a sample of languages, in particular extraction of the most stable vocabulary items among the entries in the longer working list. Interestingly, Domari shows the exact same number of borrowings (i.e. Arabic-derived items) on the Leipzig-Jakarta list as on the 100 -item Swadesh list, namely 26 ( $26 \%$ ). This puts Domari just within the range of languages considered as 'high borrowers' by the Leipzig Loanword Typology Project (Haspelmath and Tadmor 2009), at a rate close to that of languages like Swahili and Takia. Meanings on the list that are replaced by Arabic loans in Domari include a number of animals ('ant', 'bird', 'fish'), activities ('to run', 'to fly', 'to crush'), elements of nature ('star', 'soil', 'shade', 'ash', 'leaf', 'root'), and some body-parts ('knee', 'navel', 'liver', 'thigh'; also 'wing', 'tail'). On the whole, one of the most interesting and significant findings is the relationship between the rate of borrowing in basic vocabulary, and the fact that speakers rely on borrowings for some two-thirds of the actual vocabulary types used in actual conversation.

### 13.3. Lexical formation and semantic particularities

Although Domari is a full-fledged language of family conversation at least among the older generation, we cannot overlook some features that are typical of in-group speech varieties as favoured by populations of commercial nomads (so-called peripatetic populations). As is well known, such in-group speech varieties frequently rely on a camouflaged lexicon in order to make the content of messages accessible only to fellow group-members. Favourite strategies of lexicon camouflaging include manipulation (reversal, repetition, substitution) of syllables, use of dummy (archaic, or otherwise non-productive) morphological affixes, use of metaphorical meaning extension, as well as the use of borrowed vocabulary. Some in-group vocabularies, such as the varieties known as 'Para-Romani', rely almost entirely on vocabulary retained from the speech (in this case Romani) of older generations following language shift in the community (see Matras 2010 on Angloromani).

In Domari we find some features that are common to the lexical inventories of peripatetic groups in general, and those descending from populations affiliated with the Indian dom castes in particular. Typical of the latter is the fundamental division in reference to human beings between group-members and outsiders. The designation for group-members draws on the original caste denomination - dōm, while the generic reference to outsiders is kadža, a term often mapped by contemporary speakers of the language to the Arabic designation madani or 'urban dweller'. Much like in-group vocabularies, Domari maintains internal designations for a number of ethnic groups rather than rely on sound-corresponding forms of these groups' self-appellations.

These include tā̄t '(settled) Arab', qrara 'Bedouin, Jordanian', džudži 'Egyptian', ktir 'Christian', portkila 'Jew', nohra (= 'red') 'British'. Some of those may be recycled names for peoples who were contiguous with the Dom before their immigration into Palestine (for example tāt, a Turkic appellation for Arabs, derives from the name of a Caucasian people who speak an Iranian language, Tat). Others are perhaps borrowings from other languages. The term nohra is clearly a purposeful creation inspired either by the red hair common among British forces, or else by the red shade of pale skin exposed to the Mideastern sun. As for portkila, a possible connection might exist to the citrusgrowing enterprises of Jewish settlers in the coastal plain area in the early twentieth century, based on Arabic burtūqā̄ ' 'orange' ( $<$ Portugal). An Arabicbased etymology, however, would not explain the reconstruction of initial $p$ in Domari, but the source may be Turkish portakal.

Other instances of metaphorical meaning extension are found in the names of some common products, such as qarwi originally 'bitter' for 'coffee', and gulda 'sweet' for 'tea' Like typical in-group vocabularies, Domari shows internal, camouflage place names, based on the group's associations with the economic and geographical relevance of the place in question. Thus, among the Dom inhabitants of Jerusalem, the town's name is simply ulyar 'the town', while Hebron in the West Bank is referred to as guldi dēy 'the sweet village', because of its vineyards. Macalister (1914: 6-7) lists additional internal place names, including till-ūyara-erhona 'the big city there' ('Damascus'), and paniak-ūyara 'the water city' ('Beirut'), neither of which was familiar to our consultants, while Seetzen's list includes names for geographical directions, usually composed of the relevant Arabic word along with the Turkish kapi 'door, gate' (garbaskapy 'west', from Arabic yarb, schemalakapy 'north', from Arabic šemāl, and so on; cf. Chapter 1).

## Chapter 14

## Domari vocabulary

## A

$a b$-, for, prep
abadan, at all, adv, Ar.
abṣar, I wonder [interjection, filler], part, Ar.
adžar, rent, n, Ar.
adžoti, today, adv
ag, fire, n
agir, in front of, prep
aylab, majority, n, Ar.
ayräde, things, n, Ar.
aha, this m, pron
ahāli, people, n, Ar.
ahamm, most important, adj, Ar.
ahbal, idiot, n, Ar.
ahl, family, parents, n, Ar.
ahllah, beautiful, adj, Ar.
ahlan, welcome!, part, Ar.
ahmar, red, adj, Ar.
ahr-, to be, to become, v
ahsan, better, adj, Ar.
akam, few, quant, Ar.
akbar, bigger, adj, Ar.
akil, food, n, Ar.
akkid, sure, adv, Ar.
aktar, more, adj, Ar.
aktariyye, majority, n, Ar.
'āläf, thousands, num, Ar.
'alf, thousand, num, Ar.
allah, God, n, Ar.
alwān, colours, n, Ar.
ama, I, pron
ambulans, ambulance, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
ame, we, pron
amma, however, whereas, conj, Ar.
ana, egg, n
andaf, most honest, adj, Ar.
aqwa, stronger, adj, Ar.
ārād, lands, n, Ar.
arat, night, n
aratin, at night, adv
'arbal, four, num, Ar.
'arbaSin, forty, num, Ar.
'arbaStaৎ̌̌, fourteen, num, Ar.
ard, land, n, Ar.
aṣäbi $\zeta$, fingers, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
asawir, bracelet, n, Ar.
aṣhābe, friends, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
aškāl, types, n, Ar.
ascl, origin, n, Ar.
aṣlan, originally, adv, Ar.
ašraf, sincerest, adj, Ar.
aš-šām, Syria, n, Ar.
assāshā, originally, adv, Ar.
ašti, there is, v
ata, flour, n
atāri, part, Ar.
atni-, about, prep
atu, you.SG, pron
atun, above, adv
$a w$-, to come, er-, v
awsa, dodgy, adj
awsäf, features, n, Ar.
awwal, first, before, earlier, adj, Ar.
axar, below, adv
axdar, green, adj, Ar.
$\bar{a} x i r$, last, adj, Ar.
axlāq, morals, n, Ar.
ayy, any, quant, Ar.
ayyām, days, n, Ar.
a§dā̧e, enemies, n, Ar.

## B

bad, grandfather, n
badāl, instead of, prep, Ar.
bag-, to break (tr.), v
bagy-, to break (intr.), v
bahar, lake, sea, n, Ar.
bakaloris, baccalaureate, n, Ar.
bakra, lamb, n
bala, without, prep, Ar.
balad, country, n, Ar.
baladiyye, municipality, n, Ar.
balāta, floor tile, n, Ar.
balye, sandals, n
balki, maybe, part, Ar.
balkon, balcony, n, Ar.
balwi, bracelet, n
ban-, to tie, to shut, v
bandora, tomato, n, Ar.
bank, bank, n, Ar.
bantalon, trousers, n, Ar.
baqa, still, continue, keep, v aux, Ar.
baqara, cow, n, Ar.
bäqi, rest, n, Ar.
bar, brother, n
bara, outside, adv
barari, wilderness, $\mathbf{n}$
barda, full, adj
bardo, also, part, Ar.
bariṭāniya, Britain, n, Ar.
barwe, eyebrows, $n$
basātīn, groves, n, Ar.
bāsbort, passport, n, Ar.
bass, but, only, conj, Ar.
battilahr-, to stop, v, Ar.
bawusk-, to kiss, v, Ar.
baxt, luck, n, Ar., Kurd.
bay, wife, n
baSd, after, prep, Ar.
bald, each other, pron, Ar.
baidḕn, then, part, Ar.
boy, father, n
ben, sister, n
$b \bar{e} n$, between, prep, Ar.
bhudū̄d, around, prep, Ar.
$b i$, for, in, prep, Ar.
bidd-, to want, v aux, Ar.
biy, moustache, n, Turk.
bihayāti, during my life, ever, adv, Ar.
bil'āxir, finally, adv, Ar.
bil'awwal, initially, firstly, adv, Ar.
binisba, as for, prep, Ar.
bisawahr-, to be married, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
bisawak-, to marry off, v, Ar.
bit, earth, n
bitindžan, aubergine, n, Ar.
biyyinna, coward, n
biyyiš, fear, n
bi-zyāde, excessively, adv, Ar.
bizzōt, poor, adj
bkara, hungry, adj
bnaw-, to frighten, v
bol, much, very, adv
bostadži, postman, n, Ar.
brari, cat, n
bsutahr-, to be happy, v, Ar.
bta'rix, with date, on, adv, Ar.
buks, punch, n, Ar.
bul, arse, n
burdkān, oranges, n, Ar.
burzul, bulgur, n, Ar.
bustān, grove, n, Ar.
by-, fear, v
bsīd, far, adj, Ar.
čanč-, next to, prep
car-, to hide, v
čin-, to cut, v
činak, a little, adv
čōna, boy, n

## D

$d$-, to give, $t$-, v
da'iman, always, adv, Ar.
dabāba, tank, n, Ar.
dabāyih, slaughtered animals, n, Ar.
dabbirk-, organise, manage, v, Ar.
dadi, grandmother, $\mathbf{n}$
dakātre, doctors, n, Ar.
dakkākīne, shops, n, Ar.
danab, tail, n, Ar.
danānīr, dinars, n, Ar.
dari, place, n, Kurd.
daw-, to dance, v
dawāy, camel, n
dawla, country, n, Ar.
dawra, course, n, Ar.
day, mother, n
dbịha, slaughtered animal, n, Ar.
dow, to wash, $\mathbf{v}$
dowĭs, shower, n
dēy (des), village, n, Kurd.
dfink-, to bury, v, Ar.
dfilk-, to pay, v, Ar.
di, two, num
diknaw-, to show, v
dill, sand, n
dinn, religion, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
dinnar, dinar, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
dinya, life, world, n, Ar.
dïr, daughter, n
dira, far away, adj
dirga, long, adj
dis, day, $\mathbf{n}$
disan, in the daytime, adv
diyarahr-, to appear, v, Ar.
diyyes, two, num
đōm, Dom man, Dom, n
dōmarı̄, Domari, n
dōmiya, Gypsy woman, n
dōw, laddle, n
dozdan, wallet, n
$d r$-, to cut, dird-, v
dra-, I tear, dird-, v
drak, grapes, $\mathbf{n}$
drara, rich, adj
driho-, to get used to, v
dríra, broken, adj
cud, milk, n
cuild, worm, $\mathbf{n}$
duyri, immediately, straight, adv, Ar.
đukkān, shop, n, Ar.
cusara, black, adj

## D

dallo, stay, keep, v aux, Ar.
daman, insurance, n, Ar.
dand, tooth, n
dēf, guest, n, Ar.
did, against, prep, Ar.
dimn, among, prep, Ar.
diyyiq, narrow, adj, Ar.
c̣uhur, noon, adv, Ar.

DŽ
dža-, to go, gar-, v
džabal, mountain, n, Ar.
džabark-, to force, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
džahizk-, to prepare, v, Ar.
džal-, to send, v
džamā̧at, group, n, Ar.
džamb, next to, prep, Ar.
džamī̧, all, quant, Ar.
džāmi , mosque, n, Ar.
džāmiৎe, university, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
džan-, to know, v
džanāḩ, wing, n, Ar.
džār, neighbour, n, Ar.
džarīde, newspaper, n, Ar.
džarih, wound, n, Ar.
džatir, son in law, n
džatri, daughter in law, n
džaw, barley, n
džawwizahr-, to marry, v, Ar.
džawwizk-, to marry off, v, Ar.
džažan, pregnant, adj
džazma, boot, n
$d z ̌ e ̄ b$, pocket, n, Ar.
dž̈ěs, army, n, Ar.
$d z \check{i} b$, tongue, n
džidd, grandfather, n, Ar.
dŽīl, generation, n, Ar.
džild, leather, n, Ar.
džoz, pair, n, Ar.
džūdža, Egypt, n
džumia, week, n, Ar.
džuw, louse, n
džuwir, woman, n

## E

ehe, these pl , pron
ekak, one m, pron
eme, we, pron
eran, these.OBL.PL, pron
eras, this.OBL.M, pron

## F

$f$-, to hit, fêr-, v
fädi, empty, adj, Ar.
fadž'a, suddenly, adv, Ar.
fakkirho-, to think, v, Ar.
fall, sack, n
fallitk-, to release, v, Ar.
fardžik-, to show, v, Ar.
farn, oven, n, Ar.
farrahkar-, to rejoice, v, Ar.
farridžk-, to watch, to show, v, Ar.
farša, mattress, n, Ar.
farwa, fur, n, Ar.
faržīk-, to show, v, Ar.
fatra, period, n, Ar.
fauran, immediately, adv, Ar.
fawāke, fruit, n, Ar.
fayiš, argument, fight, $\mathbf{n}$
fdaḥk-, to scandalize, v, Ar.
fhimho-, to understand, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
fí, in, prep, Ar.
fikkiro-, to think, v, Ar.
filān, whoever, pron, Ar.
findžăn, cup, n, Ar.
fraye, clothing, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
fluhk-, to conquer, v, Ar.
fumn-, to hit, fèr-, v
funduq, hotel, n, Ar.

## G

gāk-, to speak, gagid-, $\mathbf{v}$
gal, qal, [citation particle], part, Ar.
gali, cheek, n
gam, dusk, n
gān, smell, n
garda, well, adj
gari, jar, n
gaz-, to bite, gazid-, v
gēna, again, adv, Turk.
gēsu, wheat, $\mathbf{n}$
ghāy, good, nice, adj
gimnaw-, to bring back, to return
(tr.), v
giry-, to enter, v
giš, all, quant, Kurd.
gis, manure, excrement, $\mathbf{n}$
gištane, all, quant, Kurd.
godi, brain, n
gori, horse, n
gorwi, cow, n
grawara, head man, n, Kurd.
grefk-, to sing, v
gulda, sweet, adj
gulda, tea, $\mathbf{n}$
guldīdēy, Hebron, n gurgi, neck, throat, n guzel, good, true, adj, Turk.

## Y

zali, expensive, adj, Ar.
jannik-, to sing, v, Ar.
yarib, stranger, n, Ar.
yarif, loaf, n, Ar.
jaṣban, without consent, adv, Ar.
yassāle, washing machine, n, Ar.
jattik-, to cover, v, Ar.
jayyirk-, to change, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
jēr, except, prep, Ar.
gibho-, to be absent, v, Ar.
yīr, jealous, adj, Ar.
yrāb, raven, n, Ar.
jucturk-, to betray, v, Ar.
jul, ghoul, beast, n, Ar.
jurfe, room, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
jusk-, to stab, v, Ar.

## H

hada, [filler], part, Ar.
hawā, air, n, Ar.
hawiyye, identity card, n, Ar.
hay, this [filler], part, Ar.
hdžimk-, to attack, v, Ar.
$h e \bar{k}$, like this, adv, Ar.
hessa§, now, adv, Ar.
heyka, [filler], part, Ar.
hindar, here, adv
hnēn, here, adv
hnon, there, adv
hnōna, here, adv
hnūd, Indians, n, Ar.
$h \bar{o} s \check{s}$-, to become [subjunctive], v
hotēl, hotel, n, Ar.
hundar, there, adv

## Ḥ

habba, grain, n, Ar.
habel, rope, n, Ar.
habs, prison, n, Ar.
haddād, blacksmith, n, Ar.
hadid, iron, n, Ar.
hādis, accident, n, Ar.
hädzak, something, indef, Ar.
hafla, party, n, Ar.
$h \bar{a} k i m$, governor, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
hal-, self, pron, Ar.
$h a / i ̄ b$, milk, n, Ar.
hanaflyye, tap, n, Ar.
haqq, right, n, Ar.
haram, blanket, n, Ar.
harb, war, n, Ar.
hāris, guard, n, Ar.
hāṣil, conclusion, n, Ar.
hasinahr-, to improve, v, Ar.
hašišs, grass, n, Ar.
hatta, even, part, Ar.
ḥawālī, around, prep, Ar.
hawilk-, to try, v, Ar.
hawuk-, to drive away, v, Ar.
ḥaywān, animal, n, Ar.
hbisahr-, to be imprisoned, v, Ar.
hdaY̌̌r, eleven, num, Ar.
hadimk-, to serve, v, Ar.
$h e ̄ t$, wall, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
hfudk-, to protect, v, Ar.
hibbo-, to like, v, Ar.
hissahr-, to feel, v, Ar.
hiž̌r, lap, n, Ar.
hkumk-, to sentence, v, Ar.
$h \rightarrow a \bar{b}$, expense, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
hsubk-, to calculate, n, Ar.
hscud, harvest, n, Ar.
ḩšur, cramp, n, Ar.
$h u b b$, love, n, Ar.
ḥựn, hug, n, Ar.
ḥukūme, government, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
hummuş, hummus, n, Ar.
huriās, guards, n, Ar.
ḥurr, free, adj, Ar.

## I

$i d \check{Z}$, spirit, n, Ar.
$i h i$, this f , pron
ihmarrahr-, to become red, v, Ar.
ihni, so, like this, adv
ihsa', census, n, Ar.
ihtallahr-, to occupy, v, Ar.
ihtifilo-, to celebrate, v, Ar.
ihtiräm, respect, n, Ar.
$i k$-ak, one f , pron
iki, eye, n
illa, except, prep, Ar.
illi, [relative pronoun], pron, Ar.
il-muhimm, anyway, part, Ar.
il-urdumn, Jordann, n, Ar.
indžannahr-, to go crazy, v, Ar.
indžawizahr-, to get married, v, Ar.
inglīz, English, n, Ar.
inkān, if, conj, Ar.
inn-, inni, inno, that, part, Ar.
intaqimahr-, to take revenge, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
intaxxahr-, to be shot, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
$i s ̣ b a l$, finger, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
$i s b u ̄ ̧$, week, n, Ar.
$i s ̌ i$, thing [filler], pron, part, Ar.
išk, dry, adj
isrā’̄̄l, Israel, n, Ar.
istawtumahr-, to settle, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
itme, you.PL, pron
iyyā-, [object pronoun, resumptive pronoun], pron, Ar.
iyyām, days, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
iza, if, conj, Ar.
$i z a ̄ ¢ a$, radio station, n, Ar.
iStidahr-, to rape, v, Ar.

## K

$k$-, to prepare, $k i d-, \mathrm{v}$
kabbüd, coat, n, Ar.
kadža, man, n
kadži, woman, n
kafi, kapi, door, n, Turk.
kahindo-, to look at, v
kahraba, electricity, n, Ar.
kahri, bowl, n
$k a ̄ k i \bar{\prime}$, [possessive particle], part
kali, goat, n
kam, work, n
kamk-, to work, v
kan, ear, n
$k a ̄ n$, was, [progressive and conditional auxiliary], v aux, Ar.
kān, who, pron
kar-, to do, v
karamakē, please, adv, Kurd.
karim, generous, adj, Ar.
kart, card, n, Ar.
karwi, coffee, n
kasa, cup, n, Ar.
kaškōt, small, adj
kašt, wooden stick, n
kaștōt, small, adj
kata, where, pron
katnī, fart, n
kawax, when, pron
kāz, gas, n, Ar.
$k \bar{e}$, what, pron
$k e \overline{k e}$, how, why, pron
kel-, to play, v
kēnē, how, pron
$k i$, what, pron
kibda, liver, n, Ar.
kil-, to exit, to descend, v
killšǐ, everything, pron, Ar.
kīlo, kilo, n, Ar.
kis, bag, n, Ar.
Kišin, lie, n
kišinna, liar, n
kišnaw, to tell a lie, v
kitāb, book, n, Ar.
kiyyak, something, a little, pron
klaw-, to lower, v
$k n$-, to sell, kind-, v
knēn, where, pron
komir, coal, n, Turk.
$k o ̄ r$, blind, adj
koš, beard, n
kos-, to curse, kosed-, v
krāde, Kurds, n, Ar.
$k r e ̄ n$, where, pron
kšal-, to pull, v
$k t i b k$-, to write, v, Ar.
ktïr, Christian, n
kubāy, cup, n, Ar.
kull, every, quant, Ar.
kundare, shoes, n, Ar.
kurdī, Kurd, n, Ar.
kuri, house, n
kurt, short, adj, Kurd.
kuy-, to fall, v
$k w$-, to throw, kurd-, v

## L

la, in order to, part, Ar.
la, no, part, Ar.
la'inn-, because, conj, Ar.
läčí, girl, n
ladžik-, to be shy, v
lagan, bowl, n
layāyet, till, conj, Ar.
layēr, except, prep, Ar.
lagiš, fight, quarrel, n
lagišk-, to fight, v
lah-, to see, laherd-, v
lahadd, till, prep, Ar.
laḥāl-, alone, adj, Ar.
lahank-, to compose, v, Ar.
lak-, to see, laked-, v
lamba, lamp, lantern, n, Ar.
lamlimk-, to collect, v, Ar.
lamma, when, conj, Ar.
las, mud, n
law, if, conj, Ar.
lawla, except, unless, conj, Ar.
lāzem, must, v aux, Ar.
I-hāṣil, anyway, part, Ar.
Ii, [relative pronoun], pron, Ar.
li'inn-, because, conj, Ar.
Iibnān, Lebanon, n, Ar.
lidd, Lydda, n, Ar.
limk-, to earn, v, Ar.
Iira, lira, n, Ar.
lissa, still, adv, Ar.
lon, salt, n
I-xamis, Thursday, adv, Ar.

## M

ma, not, part
ma, [complementiser], part, Ar.
mablül, wet, adj, Ar.
mabṣūt, happy, adj, Ar.
madāris, schools, n, Ar. maḥkame, court, trial, n, Ar. mahma, whatever, pron, Ar. mahr, dowry, n, Ar. mak-, to rub, v makanse, broom, n, Ar. maktab, office, n, Ar. malik, king, n, Ar. malyon, million, num, Ar. mām, uncle (paternal), n, Kurd. $m a \overline{m i}$, aunt (paternal), n, Kurd. mamluḩ, salted, adj, Ar. mamn $\bar{u} S$, forbidden, adj, Ar. man-, to leave, v mana, bread, n manāzir, scenes, n, Ar. manaSk-, to prevent, v, Ar. mandža, inside, adv mang-, to want, to like, v mangiš, begging, n mangišk-, to go begging, $\mathbf{v}$ mangšinna, beggar, n manik-, to bake, v manus, person, $\mathbf{n}$ many-, to stay, v mar-, to kill, v marahid, toilets, n, Ar. markaz, centre, n, Ar. marra, once, pron, Ar. marrāt, sometimes, pron, Ar. mary-, to die, mra-, v mas, month, n mašākle, problems, n, Ar. masalan, for example, adv, Ar. maššūl, busy, adj, Ar. masi, meat, n maṣī, destiny, n, Ar. māst, yoghurt, n, Kurd.
māsūra, tube, n, Ar.
mat, person, $\mathbf{n}$
mat, somebody, pron
mawāl, mawal, n, Ar.
mawzafin, employees, n , Ar. maxfar, police station, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$. mazbat, petition, n, Ar. mažídiyak, 20 pence, n, Ar. $m a S$, with, prep, Ar.
ma§āš, salary, n, Ar.
maSaskar, camp, n, Ar.
maSbaSd, together, adv, Ar.
$m e ̄ d z ̆ I ̇, ~ l e n t i l s, ~ n ~$
mēší-, from, prep, Ar.
mfalla, crazy, adj
miftăh, key, n, Ar.
min, from, prep, Ar.
min-, to hold, v
minaw-, to cause to take, v
$\operatorname{mindir}(\breve{s})$-, to stand, v
mindž-, from, prep, Ar.
minēn, here, adv
minyēr, without, prep, Ar.
minšăn, for, in order to, prep, conj, Ar.
minšī-, from, prep, Ar.
mirna, dead person, $n$
misilmin, Muslims, n, Ar.
mišš, not, part, Ar.
mišt-, to kiss, mištird-, v
mišta, ill, adj
mištwāy, illness, n
mi $\Upsilon \bar{a} d$, appointment, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
mlāye, chador, n, Ar.
mōsam, season, n
moz, bananas, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
moza, shoe, n
$m s i h k$-, to wipe, v, Ar.
muddaSi, prosecutor, n, Ar.
mudïr, director, n, Ar.
muyrub, evening, n, Ar.
muh, face, n
muhāmi, lawyer, n, Ar.
mumkin, possible, adj, Ar.
musā̧ade, help, n, Ar.
mušš, not, part, Ar.
mustašfa, hospital, n, Ar. mutardžim, translator, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$. mutbax, kitchen, n, Ar.
muturu, urine, n muxtār, mayor, n, Ar. mwazzaf, employee, n, Ar. mSalme, teacher, n, Ar.

## N

na, no, not, part
näblis, Nablus, n, Ar.
naddifk-, to clean, v, Ar.
naddimk-, regret, v, Ar.
nadik $k$-, to call, v, Ar.
nafar, person, n, Kurd.
nām, name, n
nan-, to bring, v
näšif, dry, adj, Ar.
našǐs, dance, n
nast-, to escape, nasr-, v
našy-, to dance, $v$
naw-, to search, nawr-, v
nawa, new, adj
na§dža, female sheep, n, Ar.
ndîf, clean, adj, Ar.
ndžūm, stars, n, Ar.
$n \bar{e}-$, to send, nērd-, v
$n h e$, there is not, $v$
nhir, blood, n
nikšs-, to enter, nigr-, v
nim, half, num, Pers.
ningaw-, to take in, v
niswān, women, n, Ar.
$n k i \overline{-}$, at, by, prep
nohra, red, English, adj
nohri, tomato, $\mathbf{n}$
nqualahr-, to move, v, Ar.

## O

ora-, that (oblique), pron ošt, lip, n

## P

pāčí, behind, prep
pand, road, n
pandžan, they, pron
pandžī, he, she, pron
pani, water, n
par-, to take, v
payy, husband, n
pow, leg, foot, n
$p \bar{n} n$-, to take out, v
pet, belly, n
pirin, nose, n
piski, fart, n
pišnaw-, to spend, v
pišt, back, n
ple, money, n, Pers.
prana, white, adj
protkila, Jew, n
protkīliya, Jewess, n
putur, son, n
pandžes, five, num
$p y$-, to drink, pirr-, v

## Q

$q$-, to eat, $q \bar{e} r-, \mathrm{v}$
qabel, before, prep, Ar.
qabila, tribe, n, Ar.
$q a b r$, grave, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
qaddēš, how much, pron, Ar.
$q a ̄ d i$, judge, n, Ar.
qaft-, to steal, qaftid-, v
qaftinna, m thief, n
qahwa, coffee, n, Ar.
qal, [citation particle], part, Ar.
qala, black, adj
qalam, pencil, pen, n, Ar.
qamar, moon, n, Ar.
qamīs, shirt, n, Ar.
qandi, throat, n
$q a ̄ q a$, raven, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
qar, donkey, n
qarā'ibe, relatives, family, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
qarn, horn, n, Ar.
qarwa, bitter, adj
qarwi, coffee, n
qatla, beating, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
qayiš, food, $n$
qayišk-, to cook food, v
qayk-, vomit, v
qēyiš, food, n
qhutk-, to scratch, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
qird, monkey, n, Ar.
qirš, penny, n, Ar.
qnaw-, to feed, $v$
qohb-, to cough, v
qoI-, to open, to ride, $v$
qowa, prophet, n
qrara, Bedouin, Jordanian, n
qrare, Jordan, $n$
qrik-, to read, v, Ar.
qumn-, to eat, qēr-, v
qǔ̌̌̌̌k-, to sweep, v, Ar.

## R

rabbāba, rabbaba, n, Ar.
rabbik-, to raise, v, Ar.
radž- , to throw out, radžid-, v
raqqāṣāt, dancers, n, Ar.
rašt-, to arrive, rasr-, v
ratl, pound, n, Ar.
raw-, to travel, v
rawwahahr-, to leave, v, Ar. rawwaḥk-, to send away, v, Ar.
row-, to weep, v
rdahr-, to reject, to refuse, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
$r i \bar{s}$, feather, n
romh, spear, n, Ar.
roš- (row-), to cry, rowr-, v
rqäqa, crumb, n, Ar.
rsis, black olive, n
rudahr-, to accept, v, Ar.
rxīs, cheap, adj, Ar.

## S

$s^{\prime}$ 'ilk-, to ask, v, Ar.
sabab, reason, $\mathbf{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
sabahtan, in the morning, adv, Turk.
sabt, Saturday, adv, Ar.
sābūñ, soap, n, Ar.
sabla, seven, num, Ar.
sadžar, tree, n, Ar.
saffirk-, to deport, v, Ar.
sahra, soiree, n, Ar.
sahrän, awake, adj, Ar.
saka-, to be able to, sakar-, v
sakkirk-, to shut, v, Ar.
sal, rice, n, Kurd.
sallik-, to pray, v, Ar.
samak, fish, n, Ar.
sap, snake, n
sawa, together, adv, Ar.
säyiy, goldsmith, n, Ar.
sayyak, one hundred, num
sayyāra, car, n, Ar.
sayyifk-, to spend the summer, v , Ar.
sow-, sew, sowr-, v
$s e \bar{f}$, summer, n, Ar.
sēfa, hour, n, Ar.
sidžin, prison, n, Ar.
sihhk, to shout, v, Ar.
silda, cold, adj
silif, sibling in law, n, Ar.
sini, head, n
sita§̌̌r, sixteen, num, Ar.
sitte, six, num, Ar.
sittin, sixty, num, Ar.
skunahr-, to live, v, Ar. skurrahr-, to get drunk, v, Ar.
$s n$-, to hear, sind-, v snaw-, to inform, v
sōni, girl, n
spital, hospital, n, Ar.
stannho-, to wait, v, Ar.
stalmilk-, to use, v, Ar.
sukkar, sugar, n, Ar.
$s u \bar{q}$, market, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.

## S

$s a b$, snake, n
ṣädïq, friend, n, Ar.
şahafí, journalist, n, Ar.
$s ̣ a ̄ h i b$, friend, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
șahn, plate, n, Ar.
$s ̦ a ̄ r$, to begin, v aux, Ar.
șaratān, cancer, n, Ar.
sawwirk-, to photograph, v, Ar.
sbuqho-, to precede, v, Ar.
snota, dog, n
scrifk-, to spend, v, Ar.
scümk-, to fast, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.

## Š

$\check{s}$-, to speak, šird-, v
$\check{s}(t) r i k$-, to buy, v, Ar.
šabābīk, windows, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
šahāda, certificate, n, Ar.
šał́, well, waterhole, n, Kurd.
šām, Syria, n, Ar.
šamāl, North, n, Ar.
šanda, bad, adj
šaqfa, piece, n, Ar.
šar-, to hide (tr.), v
šāre , street, n, Ar.
šariš, hideout, n
šary-, to hide (intr.), v
šatik-, to spend the winter, v , Ar.
šattifk-, to dry, v, Ar.
šattitahr-, to wander, v, Ar.
šawädir, nylon covers, n, Ar.
šbiqk-, to precede, v, Ar.
šhidahr-, to witness, v, Ar.
šibbāk, window, n, Ar.
šifk-, to spit, v, Ar.
šimmk-, to smell, to breathe, $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
šinak, a little, pron
šiši, breast, n
šita, winter, n , Ar.
šlị̂k-, to take off, v, Ar.
šmāriya, chicken, n
šōna, boy, $\mathbf{n}$
$\check{s t}$-, to rise, to stand, v
štal-, to carry, to raise, v
štares, four, num
šlkkahr-, to suspect, v, Ar.
šukna, oil, n
šuri, knife, n
šūš-, to sleep, sit, v
$\check{s} W$-, to speak, šird, v

## T

$t$-, to put, tird-, v
talataŠs, thirteen, num, Ar.
talatīn, thirty, num, Ar.
taldž, snow, ice, n, Ar.
talidžahr-, to freeze, v, Ar.
tālit, third, num, Ar.
tallädže, refrigerator, n, Ar.
tamāni, eight, num, Ar.
tamanin, eighty, num, Ar.
tanaka, tank/pot, n, Ar.
tanga, narrow, adj
tān̄̄, other, second, again, num, Ar.
taqāfud, pension, n, Ar.
taran, three, num
taranis, three, num
tarna, young, adj
tata, hot, adj
tawle, table, m, Ar.
tawna, thin, adj
telefizyon, television, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
telefon, telephone, n, Ar.
tfang, gun, n, Kurd.
thimk-, to accuse, v, Ar.
tiknaw-, to hurt, v
tilla, big, adj
tirsala, thirsty, adj
tisla, nine, num, Ar.
titin, tobacco, n, Kurd.
tmali, soldier, n
tna〔š, twelve, num, Ar.
tošahr-, to wander, v, Ar.
trāb, dust, n, Ar.
trombil, car, n, Ar.
tundžar, pot, n, Ar.
turdžman, translator, n, Ar.
turki, Turkish, n, Ar.
tuxxk-, to shoot, v, Ar.
$t w$-, to put, tird-, v
twädžidahr-, to be found, v, Ar.
ţallimahr-, to learn, v, Ar.

## T

tabłan, of course, adv, Ar.
taliq, divorce, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
tan, bed, mattress, n
tarmabil, car, n, Ar.
tat, sun, n
tāat, Arab, villager, n
tayyeb, good, part, Ar.
$t \bar{e} r$, bird, n, Ar.
tïrahr-, to fly, v, Ar.

## $\mathbf{U}$

$\bar{u}$, and, conj, Ar.
$\bar{u}$ 'iši, and so on, part, Ar.
uhfuzhr-, to memorise, v, Ar.
uhu, that, pron
urati, tomorrow, adv
urdumn, Jordan, n, Ar.
urup, silver, n
$u^{u} b \bar{u} S$, week, n, Ar.
ustāz, teacher, n, Ar.
ūyar, town, Jerusalem, n

## W

wa, and, conj, Ar.
waddik-, to send, v, Ar.
wāfaqk-, to agree, v, Ar.
wahrī, daughter in law, n, Ar.
wāl, hair, n
wala, nor, not even, and not, conj,
Ar.
walaw, despite, conj, Ar.
walalk-, to light, v, Ar.
waqt, time, n, Ar.
waqtos, then, adv, Ar.
warak-, to wear, v, Ar.
wardžik-, to show, v, Ar.
wark-, to wear, $\mathbf{v}$
wars, rain, year, n
wāšī-, with, prep, Ar.
wašy-, to burn (itr.), v
wat, stone, n
wāy, air, wind, n
wēnma, wherever, pron, Ar.
wešt-, to sit, wēsr-, v
widahr-, to grow old, v
widi, old lady, n
wila, no, or, conj, Ar.
wislaw, to seat, v
wišnaw-, to burn (tr.), v
wșillo-, to arrive, v, Ar.
wuda, old man, $n$
xudwar, child, n
xudžoti, yesterday, adv
xur, heart, n
xuļ̣ūçī, especially, adv, Ar. xuya, God, n, Kurd.

## Y

## X

xaddāme, servant, n, Ar.
$x \bar{a} I$, uncle (maternal), n, Kurd., Ar.
$x a \overline{l i}$, aunt (maternal), n, Kurd., Ar.
xałłas, enough, adv, Ar.
xalli-, to leave, to let, to allow, v aux, Ar.
xamasta〔̌̌, fifteen, num, Ar.
xamastalšar, fifteen, num, Ar.
xamest, five, num, Ar.
xamse, five, num, Ar.
xamsin, fifty, num, Ar.
xar, bone, n
xarbūš, tent, n, Ar.
xārfăn, sheep, n, Ar.
xarrifk-, to speak, v, Ar.
$x a ̄ r u ̄ f$, lamb, n, Ar.
xašab, wood, n, Ar.
xast, hand, arm, n
xašt-, to laugh, xazr-, v
xātem, ring, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
xatrak, once, adv, Ar.
xattak, a pound, n, Ar.
xdimk-, to serve, v, Ar.
$x \bar{e} m$-, defecate, v
$x \bar{e} m e$, tent, $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{Ar}$.
xissahr-, to feel, v, Ar.
xitm, stamp, n, Ar.
xiznaw-, to make sb . laugh, v
xlaw-, to take out, v
XO-, to cook (itr.), Xor-, v
$x O-$-, to descend, $v$
xudra, vegetables, n, Ar.
$y a \overline{,}$, or, either, conj, Ar.
yabayēy, [interjection], part, Ar.
yāfe, Jaffa, n, Ar.
yałła, [interjection], part, Ar.
yaSni, that is [filler, tag], part, Ar.
yejer, horse, n

## Z

zakinya, rabbaba, n, Ar.
zakkirahr-, to remember, v, Ar.
zamān, long time, adv, Ar.
$z a r$-, to comb, v
zara, child, pl zirte, n
zard, gold, n, Pers.
zarf, envelop, n, Ar.
zari, mouth, n, Kurd.
zayy, like, prep, Ar.
$z e \bar{e} t \bar{n} n$, olives, n, Ar.
zhurahr-, to appear, v, Ar.
zing, zinc, n, Ar.
zinnahr-, to recall, to reflect, v, Ar.
zläme, men, n, Ar.
zSilahr-, to be angry, to be upset, v, Ar.

## Z

zäbiṭ, officer, n, Ar.
zumno-, to think, v, Ar.

## Ž

z̈bin, forehead, n , Ar.
žild, skin, n, Ar.
Žirän, neighbour, n, Ar.
žlik, to wash up, v, Ar.

## §

§a(l), at, on, prep, Ar.
Sabāye, gown, n, Ar.
Sala, on, to, prep, Ar.
Sallimahr-, to learn, v, Ar.
Sand, at, among, prep, Ar.
Sankī, about, prep, Ar.
Saql, mind, n, Ar.

Sarīs, bridegroom, n, Ar.
Sarūs, bride, n, Ar.
Sašān, because, for, prep, Ar.
Saṣāy, wooden stick, n, Ar.
Sašrīn, twenty, num, Ar.
Satšän, thirsty, adj, Ar. Sazifk-, to play music, v, Ar. Sibrān̄̄, Hebrew, n, Ar. sīd, festival, n, Ar. Siddk-, to count, v, Ar. Sind, at, among, prep, Ar. Sisahr-, to live, v, Ar. Sīd, oud, n, Ar.
Sumr, age, n, Ar. Sunsūuriyye, racism, n, Ar. Surus, wedding, n, Ar.

## Notes

1. Noga Buber-Bendavid and Ofra Regev, p.c. April 2012 (see also Buber-Bendavid 2010).
2. http://domarisociety.wix.com/domari-society-website, under 'Cultural preservation', accessed in December 2011.
3. A number of Christian missionary videos appear on the web in a form of Persian used by the Luli community of commercial nomads or Travellers, wrongly labeled as 'Domari'
4. 'The Domari Society of Gypsies in Jerusalem'; for its website see http://domarisociety.wix.com/domari-society-website, last accessed in December 2011. The official name of the society, which is registered in Israel, is in Hebrew. It does not include the name 'Domari', but is called 'The Society for the Promotion of the Gypsies in Israel' [ha-'amuta le-kidum ha-tso'anim be-yisra'el].
5. The term 'indirect object' is used here to denote an object that is marked by a case other than the independent oblique, and which may also be accompanied by a preposition.
6. For a more detailed discussion see Matras (1999).
7. http://romani.humanities.manchester.ac.uk/rms/browse/phrases/phraselist
8. Recent documentation of the speech of nomadic Dom in Jordan was carried out under my supervision by Ayisha Rafiq (2011). As this manuscript is being finalised, work by Herin (2012) on the Domari variety of Aleppo, based on elicitation using the questionnaire designed by the Manchester Romani Project, is in press, and further documentation work by Fida Bizri and by Bruno Herin among the Dom of Lebanon is underway.
9. Macalister (1914:35) mentions the form aštom but says that it is very rarely used.
10. Grierson (1922, XI) notes cognate expressions in various languages of itinerant groups in India itself: Dom $k \bar{a} j w \bar{a}$, Kanjari $k a \bar{j} a r i \bar{i}$, Sasi $k a j j \bar{a}$, Nati $k \bar{a} j \bar{a}$. The word is often found with the additional meaning 'settled' or 'farmer', reinforcing the impression of an historical self-identification as a non-sedentary group.
11. Hancock (1995) relies exclusively on Macalister (1914) for the Domari data. As we have seen, considerable variation is found in the Iranian vocabulary among other varieties of the language. In subsequent work, Hancock (2006) attempts to prove that the Rom and the Dom are of different origins, arguing that the ancestors of the Rom, to whom he attributes his own descent, were high-caste warriors who resisted the Islamic invasions of medieval India, while the Dom were low-caste commercial nomads (see also Hancock 2002).
12. Sampson ([1926] 1968: 152) had suggested a connection between the $h$-deixis aha, ihi, ehe in Domari and the vocalic definite article $o, i, e$ in Romani, but this connection can easily be dismissed on the basis of a cross-dialectal comparison of definites articles in Romani which allows us to derive them without much doubt from the Romani deictic forms ov, oj, ole (see Matras 2002: 106ff.).
13. But compare the list of items below with the 100 -item 'Leipzig-Jakarta' list of stable vocabulary developed there.
14. An overview of the literature is attempted in Kenrick (1976-1979), though the title 'Romanies...' is somewhat misleading there.
15. Yigal Tamir, p.c., 1998.
16. Both stories already appear in Yaniv (1980). During fieldwork in Jerusalem I was also able to record them in several variations and from more than one speaker.
17. Among many works that interpret grammar in communicative perspective are Chafe (1970), Givón (1984), Croft (2001), and the works of Functional Pragmatic School (Rehbein 1977, Ehlich 2007).
18. I am grateful to Christa Schubert for participating in the experiment design and for carrying out the measurements.
19. Note that in this example, the Arabic plural form xurfän is being treated as a singular noun through the singular predication marking.
20. Arguably, this word is inserted in what we might consider a code-switch, though no stylistic effect is detectable. The utterance begins with several elements for which Arabic word-forms are the only available choice - aktar min 'more than', followed by a higher numeral of Arabic origin, and it is possible that this sequence triggers the use of the Arabic noun sane rather than its inherited equivalent wars.
21. Some Indo-Aryan 'frontier' languages in the northwestern part of the subcontinent show limited use of prepositions, while some Romani dialects in contact with postpositional languages such as Finnish and Azeri show limited use of postpositions.
22. The gloss 'NOM' for the Layer I nominative case is indicated here for the sake of contrastive illustration. For the sake of simplicity, and following the same practice that is applied to nominal case endings on nouns, it is omitted from the glossing of nominative possessive and subject person affix in the general glossing of examples, and only the oblique form of the possessive and object person affix is glossed as 'OBL' to mark out the contrast between the two.
23. Note that different Layer II markers are used in the table for illustration purposes.
24. The use of $\bar{u} y a r$ 'the town' among the Jerusalem Dom is often a specific reference to Jerusalem. Compare the use in Arabic of I-bilād 'the country' among Palestinians, and in Hebrew of ha-'arec 'the country' among Israelis, to refer to Palestine/Israel.
25. Qashle (from Turkish Kışla 'barracks') and Maskubiye (from 'Moscow' = the 'Russian Compound') are well-known police stations in the centre of Jerusalem.
26. This refers to the Old City walls. The majority of the Dom of Jerusalem live in houses that are adjoined to the wall. Some of these houses even use portions of the wall as supporting structures.
27. Fida Bizri, p.c., October 2011.
28. At the same time it is not clear whether a possible alternative for Arabic qrās 'pennies' exists in Domari (zard literally 'gold' seems to refer generically to coins or a unit of currency).
29. It is of course difficult to draw the line between codeswitches and borrowings in situations of community bilingualism. For a close discussion of the facts in

Domari see Chapter 11 on the 'Arabic component' For a general review of this debate and my own view on the codeswitching-borrowing continuum see Matras (2009, Chapter 5).
30. There are very few exceptions. Even culture-specific terminology such as the words for ethnicities - dōm 'Gypsy', kažža 'non-Gypsy', tāt ' Arab' and so on are usually translated by Domari speakers into Arabic regularly and consistently, in this case as nawari, madani 'urban resident', and fallăh 'peasant' respectively. See also Chapter 13 on the Domari lexicon.
31. It seems plausible to assume that this preference is motivated by a need to converge to the Arabic model construction, in which adjectives follow the noun (cf. Matras 2007a).
32. A rare occurrence in the corpus is the inflected pronominal form amatis 'me and him'
33. But see Matras (1998b) for an alternative analysis of the four-term demonstrative system of Romani dialects
34. On the interchangeability of homi' I am/I become' and hromi' 'I have become/ I am' see discussion below.
35. For a cross-linguistic discussion of such loan verb integration strategies see already Moravcsik 1975, as well as Muysken 2000, Matras 2009, Wohlgemuth 2009.
36. Some of the examples cited in this section derive from elicitations and direct questions put to speakers on the basis of related constructions that appears in spontaneous, connected speech.
37. For a comparison with Romani, which shows a very similar development, see Matras (2002: 143-151).
38. The borrowing of individual person markers into verb inflection paradigms is otherwise very rare (cf. Matras 2009). Nonetheless, as Domari itself exhibits in relation to its Arabic component, auxiliaries are frequently borrowed in cases of intense language contact, and they are sometimes borrowed along with their original person inflection. See discussion of Arabic auxiliaries and person inflection further below in this chapter.
39. Note that in Romani verb roots with non-dental consonants tend to shift to the vocalic class, which takes the perfective marker in $-I$, corresponding historically to the Domari perfective marker in $-r$-.
40. Romani makes use of the morpheme -ar- for transitive derivations but also occasionally for past-tense formations, as phagav 'I break', phag-er-dom 'I broke'
41. In some cases, there is an apparent assimilation of Arabic loan verbs into the 'default' inflection class of inherited verbs: cf. thim-ar- $i$ 'he understands'
42. A number of adjectives and adverbs show a shortened version of the plural predication marker in $-n i$. They include hindarni 'they are here', hundarni 'they are there', ghāyni 'they are good', bolni' 'they are plentiful', atnisni' they are with him (in his possession)', as well as various Arabic-derived adjectives such as wusixni 'they are dirty', mabsuṭni 'they are cheerful', mawdžudni 'they are present', and several more.
43. This is a bilingual selection error, showing Hebrew ve 'and' The speaker is fluent in Hebrew and often speaks Hebrew to the interviewer. For bilingual selection errors involving conjunctions see Matras 1998a.
44. The speaker confused the two names here; he meant to say 'Jassas'
45. The motivation to switch to Arabic here derives from the fact that the original story is normally told in Arabic, and that the following lines, which introduce the climax of the story, rhyme in Arabic.

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[^0]:    'I went to work.'

[^1]:    'And then they left, they didn't stay in that place.'

[^2]:    day-om gar-ik
    mother-1SG go.PAST-PRED.SG
    'My mother is gone.'

