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# A Grammar of Awjila Berber (Libya) : based on Umberto Paradisi's material 

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## Chapter 2

## Phonology

Because of the limited material we have available for Awjila, it is impossible to give an account of the phonology as thorough as one would like. This means that we will have to deal with several a priori assumptions on the phonology.

It is assumed that the consonants that Paradisi distinguishes in his transcription, are mostly phonemic. For the vast majority of these consonants it is not possible to establish minimal pairs, so such assumptions cannot be confirmed. The system is quite typical for a Berber language, except for a few peculiarities. Awjila has a wellestablished contrast between $f$ and $v$, not present in most other Berber languages, and it has a contrast between short $\gamma$ and $q$ in native words. In most Berber languages $q q$ is the long counterpart of $\gamma$.

As for the vowels, the assumption that Paradisi's transcription represents the phonemic reality cannot be upheld. The vast amount of different vowel signs used in his transcription would imply that Awjila had one of the largest vowel inventories in the world. Considering that all Berber languages have between three (Tashelhit, see Dell \& Elmedlaoui 1985) and seven (Touareg, see Kossmann 2011: 20) vowels, such a conclusion does not seem likely. Moreover, we find seemingly free variation between certain vowel signs, often within a single text.

### 2.1 Consonants

The following table shows the consonant inventory of Awjila. The consonants marked as emphatic in the table, are clearly distinct from the regular consonants, but it is unclear what this entails. In general the term emphatic refers to pharyngealized consonants. But in Awjila, we cannot be sure whether these consonants are truly pharyngealized. Therefore I have decided to stick to the less specific term emphatic.

| stop | Lab. | Dent. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$ | Pal. | Vel. <br> k, g | Uvul. q | Phar. | Glot. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| emph. stop |  | t, d |  |  |  |  |  |
| fric. | f, v | S, Z | š, ž |  | X, X | h, ¢ | h |
| emph. fric. |  | Se, z |  |  |  |  |  |
| nasal stop | m | n |  |  |  |  |  |
| emph. nasal | (m) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| sonorant |  | 1, r |  |  |  |  |  |
| emph. son. |  | $\underline{1}$, r |  |  |  |  |  |
| semivowel | w |  | y |  |  |  |  |

### 2.1.1 Consonantal contrasts

Different from most other Berber languages which have no voicing contrast of the labial fricatives, Awjila has a contrastive voiced labial fricative $v$ that regularly corresponds to the Proto-Berber * $\beta$ (Kossmann 1999: 61-135). There is, however, a certain amount of free variation between $b$ and $v$ in a number of words, as well as some variation between $v$ and $f$.

Variation between $v$ and $b$ is found in abíba, aviva 'smallpox', abán, aván 'to build, construct', anəbdúr, anəvdúr 'rope harness for animals'.

The variation between $v$ and $f$ is found in word-final position in ágzəv, agzáf 'to cut the bunches of dates from palms' and ayav, a ff 'milk'. As a result of optional voicing assimilation to the following $x$ it also occurs in the perfective, resultative and imperfective 1sg. of aráv, úrəv 'to write': uráfx; urífxa, urívxa; tarávx, taráfx.

There is one example of variation between $v$ and $f$ in a different position: the plural of the word tovúrt, tavvúrt (?tวvvúrt) is dvurr, dfurr 'door'. Beguinot (1924) discusses this variation in detail, providing several examples collected during his own fieldwork. He cites a variation <tefuret> besides <tevûrt> for 'door' and also <ežefû> besides <eževû> 'hair', whereas Paradisi only has <aževû, ažévū>.

A large percentage of the Proto-Berber consontants * $s$ and ${ }^{*} z$ have become $\check{s}$ and $z$ zespectively. The contrast between the dental and palatal sibilants has not been lost completely, even though the limited nature of the corpus does not provide for more than a couple of minimal pairs to support this claim. Nevertheless, the fact that the alveolar and the palatal sibilants occur in similar phonetic contexts strongly indicates that the difference is contrastive.

Two minimal pairs of $s$ to $\check{s}$ are found in Paradisi:
tabalbùst 'eyeball' $\sim$ tabalbùšt 'bulb of an onion' ${ }^{1}$

[^0]ṭras 'to braid hair' $\sim t+r \partial s ̌$ 'to vomit'

There are only a few examples of apparent free variation between $s$ and $\check{s}$, all to be found in the causative prefix: š-àgzal, s-àgzal 'to shorten, lower'; š-àzzaf, s-à $\begin{gathered}\text { zaf 'to }\end{gathered}$ lengthen'; imp. sg. š-ùkar, impf. 1sg. s-ukàrx 'to cause to steal'.

The contrast of the emphatic consonants $!, r$ and $\underset{\sim}{ }$ is not adequately marked in Paradisi's transcriptions. One time, Paradisi transcribes $r$ with a <ri>: <rábbī> 'God', while other times he does not for this same word. $l$ and $m$ are never marked in Paradisi's transcriptions, and can only be inferred from the spelling of the surrounding vowels (see section 2.2).

### 2.1.2 Consonantal length

Consonants can be short or long, ${ }^{2}$ length being indicated in the transcription by doubling of the consonant. Berber languages often have consonants that undergo changes when they are lengthened—a fact visible in morphological alternations. Notable changes are: $w$ becoming $g g^{w}$ and $\gamma$ becoming $q q$. In Awjila, however, there is no synchronic variation between $w$ and $g g^{w}$, nor is there any evidence for morphological variation between $\gamma$ and $q q$. The long counterpart of $w$ is $w w$ and the long counterpart of $\gamma$ is $\gamma \gamma$ as can be seen in the verbs arwák 'to knead', impf.3sg.m. iròwwak and ànay 'to kill', impf.3sg.m inaz子a.

There seems to be variation in consonant length with the consonant $v$. Thus the verb avár 'to close (from the inside)' has fut. 3 sm a-ivár, a-ivvár, while the impf. 3 sm invariably is itavvár. We also find variation of consontal length in the word təvúrt, tavvúrt (?tzvvúrt) 'door'.

Simple consonants in front of long consonants are sometimes lengthened. This is most obvious in verbs of the patterns $\mid$ cəc̄əc $\mid$ and $|c v \bar{c}|$ (see sections 4.3.3.14 and 4.3.3.18. Most verbs of this type are of Arabic origin, even though the Arabic forms do not have a lengthened initial consonant. The table below lists the verbs that show this alternation.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ddawwàrnat, idəwwàr } \\
& \text { yakkàmmal, kammàlx 'to finish' } \\
& \text { rrawwàhan, iráwwah 'to return (home)' } \\
& \text { issàlləm, sallàman 'to greet' } \\
& \text { yammùdd 'to extend' } \\
& \text { illùm 'to gather, to stay together' }
\end{aligned}
$$

cf. ELA idawwar 'to look for; to search'
cf. Ar. kammala 'to finish'
cf. ELA īrowwah 'to return (home)'
cf. la sallam 'to greet'
cf. Ar. madda 'to extend; to stretch out'
cf. Ar. lamma 'to gather'

[^1]Not all verbs of these types have lengthening, e.g. yaxəтmám 'to think, ponder' and hussix 'to feel' are only found with a short intial consonant; with the limited size of our corpus, it is possible that the absence of a lengthened form is accidental.

### 2.1.3 Affricates

It is unclear whether the affricates $\check{c}$ and $\check{g}$ should be interpreted as separate phonemes, or as sequences of /tš/ and /dž/ respectively.

The sequences /tš/ and /tž/ (or/dž/) found in feminine plurals whose roots start with $\check{s}$ or $\check{z}$ are always transcribed with affricates by Paradisi. These affricates can be readily interpreted as consonantal sequences.

In other cases, it is less easy to determine what the phonemic analysis of these fricatives should be.

In one case, $\check{g} g ̌$ in a root is treated as /dž/. The verb $\partial \check{g} g ̌, ~ \partial d \check{z}$ 'to let go' is clearly interpreted as a phonemic sequence / $\partial \mathrm{dž} /$ as can be seen from its verbal noun formation adàzzžu.

It is not possible to show that such a reinterpretation has taken place with the root $\partial \check{c ̌ c}$ 'to eat' whose verbal noun is $\partial c ̌ c ̌ u ́$.

### 2.2 Vowels

Paradisi has a complicated system of vowel notation (using over forty signs in total), which is highly explicit in phonetic detail, and does not aim at a phonemic representation or analysis. Beguinot (1942: 5), writing on Djebel Nefusa Berber, gives an explanation of this system. There are twelve basic vowel signs, which are presented in the table below and accompanied with their IPA equivalent.

|  | Front | Front Rounded | Back |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Close | i [i] |  | u [u] |
| Near close | e [ I ] |  | ů [ J ] |
| Close mid | $\mathrm{e}[\mathrm{e}]$ | ö [ø] | o [0] |
| Open mid | $\mathrm{ec}^{\text {[ }}$ [ $]$ |  | Q [〕] |
| Near open | ä [æ] |  |  |
| Open | a [a] |  | å [a] |

These basic vowel signs may be modified by five diacritics which denote length and accent. The available diacritics are:
v Short unaccented
v́ Short accented
$\overline{\mathrm{v}}$ Long unaccented
$\hat{v}$ Long accented
v̌ Extra short

The transcription system allows in principle for every diacritic to combine with every vowel sign. However, Paradisi does not employ all possible combinations of vowel signs in his transcriptions. The vowel signs in use in Paradisi's transcriptions are displayed in the table below.

| i, í, í, î, íl |  | $\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{u}, \hat{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{u}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ee, ẹ, ệ |  | ù, ú, ${ }^{\text {un }}$ |
| e, é, ê, ě |  | o, ó, ô, ŏ |
| e, é | ö |  |
| ä, â, $\bar{a}_{\text {a }}^{\text {â, }}$ ă |  | å, áa a à, ầ |
| a, á, à, â, ă |  |  |

There can be no doubt that this complicated system is a phonetic representation of a phonemically less elaborate system. Other Berber languages have between 3 and 7 vowel qualities and at most two length distinctions. The transcription system has 12 vowel types and 3 length distinctions. Through careful analysis we are able to uncover how these phonetic signs should be interpreted in terms of phonology.

### 2.2.1 Long vowel signs

In all Berber languages, we find a contrast between so-called plain vowels, and central vowels. The difference between these two sets of vowels can be identified in several ways. First, the plain vowels always have more contrasts than the central vowels. For example, Tuareg has five plain vowels: $a, i, u, e, o$ and two central vowels $a \breve{a}$ (Kossmann 2011: 20), while Figuig has three plain vowels: $a, i, u$ and one central vowel $a$ (Kossmann 1997: 49ff.). Moreover, the quality of the central vowels, as the name suggests, is more central than the plain vowels. The plain vowels often take up the vowel slots of the periphery $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}]$ the central vowels take up central values such as $[\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{e}]$. Usually, the plain vowels are also longer than the central vowels. ${ }^{3}$

It is safe to assume that Paradisi did not employ long vowel signs to write the central vowels. The long vowels <â, î, ̂u, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{u}>$ are well-attested and they show a three-way contrast, and stand for the vowels [a: is, u:]. These features lign up perfectly with the

[^2]definitions of Berber plain vowels, and therefore we may assume that these long vowel signs stand for the vowels $/ \mathrm{a} / \mathrm{/} / \mathrm{i} / \mathrm{/} / \mathrm{u} /$. Long vowels written with $e$ - and $o$-signs only appear in their accented notations < $\hat{\mathrm{e}}>$ and < $\hat{0}>$ and never as unaccented long vowels. They almost exclusively appear in words of Arabic origin.
< $\hat{\mathrm{a}}, \hat{1}, \hat{\mathrm{u}}, \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}>$ are often interchangeable or in complementary distribution with <á, í, ú, a, i, u>. This clearly indicates that at least part of the signs written without indication of length also represent the plain vowels.

In monosyllabic words, the initial vowel of nouns is written long:

| āğĕv, āğf, âğf | 'milk' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ām | 'mouth' |
| ūl | 'heart' |
| īzd | 'spindle' |

An exception to this is the word for 'day' which is found both with a long and a short initial vowel: išf, išf, išf 'day'

Four monosyllabic prepositions that start with a long initial syllable seem to have free variation between the long vowel signs and the short vowel signs in word-initial position.

| ar, ār | 'to, towards' |
| :--- | :--- |
| id, īd | 'with (comitative), and' |
| $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{I}}$ | Dative preposition |
| ir, $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{r}$ | 'until' |

The unaccented long vowels $/ \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u} /$ are never written with the long vowel signs in the initial syllable of polysyllabic words. We only find $<\mathrm{a}$, $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}\rangle$

| afîš | 'face' |
| :--- | :--- |
| afîu | 'fire' |
| agmâr | 'horse' |
| tagmârĕt | 'mare' |
| irîu | 'boy' |
| tirîut | 'girl' |
| tuqérṭā | 'theft' |

The sign <a> is also found as the initial vowel of Arabic loanwords that have the Arabic article al-. This sign probably represents the phonetically long vowel /a/. In most cases, the Arabic article is represented by al- in Awjila.

| albåŝîret | 'willingly' |
| :--- | :--- |
| alīdâm | 'butter' |
| alhâžet | 'thing' |
| alégmet | 'friday' |
| alimam | 'imam' |
| aláded, eláded | 'number' |
| alûlī | 'midday, noon; midday prayer' |

In absolute initial position, the accented long vowels /a, $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}$ / are only written as short accented <á, í, ú>. Cases of <á, í, ú> after an initial consonant are very rare, and they are the result of regular shortening of the long vowels in closed syllables in wordinternal position (see below).

| ávoṭ | 'night' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ísem | 'ear; handle of a basket' |
| úmā | 'my brother' |
| gmâren | 'horses' |
| mîwę̃ | 'mouths' |
| grûtån | 'treetrunks' |
| žáren | 'abdomens, bellies' |
| víren | 'walls' |

An exception is <túwŏg> /tùwag/ 'food, meal, plate'.
In word-final position, there is partly free variation and partly complementary distribution of the short and long vowel notations <ā, $\bar{i}, \bar{u}, a, i, u>$.

Word-final <ī> and <i> are interchangeable and represent/i/:

| bâhi, bâhī | 'good' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tfílli, tfíllī | 'house' |
| těgîli, těgilī | 'head' |

Word-final accented / $\mathrm{i} /$ is rare and is written as < $\mathrm{i}>$. The one exception to this is the verbal noun <arennú, arénnu, arenní> 'increasing, adding, auction'.

| tīsî | 'egg, genitalia' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ddě̌rî | 'thorn' |
| izî n agmár | 'horse fly' |

The distribution of word-final $/ \mathrm{a} / \mathrm{and} / \mathrm{u} /$ is more complex. / $\mathrm{u} /$ appears to be written as <u> after a long accented vowel in an open syllable, in other environments it is written as <ū>.

| Gîlu | 'Jalu' |
| :--- | :--- |
| klâbu | 'very thick animal skin' |
| adérrū | 'pressing' |
| adéžz̄ū | 'letting go of' |
| agérrū | 'gathering, assembling' |

There is one exception: <arennú, arénnu, arenní> 'increasing, adding, auction'
Word-final accented $/ \mathrm{u} /$ is only found twice. One example is the word <arennú> cited above, the other word is <aževû> ${ }^{4}$ 'hair'.

The distribution of $<a>$ and $<\bar{a}>$ in word-final position is not entirely clear. There are only two examples of vacillating notations like we find for $/ \mathrm{i} /: \mathrm{pf}$. 3sg.m. <yúna, yûnā> 'to enter', impf. 3sg.m. <ittéttā, itétta> 'to eat'. As a general rule it seems that /a/ is written as <a> after a vowel in an open syllable, and usually written <ā> after an accented vowel in a closed syllable. There are exceptions to this, for example the resultative clitic $/=a /$, which is always written $<a>$.
abîba, avîva
res. 1sg. bnîḩa 3sg.m. ibnâya
res. 1sg. ĕddírha 3sg.m. yeddîra dîla
tábğā
pf. 3sg.m. yéččā
impf. 3sg.m. idéžžā
impf. 3sg.m. igérrā
wértnā
sétmā
'smallpox'
'to build, construct'
'to live'
'here'
'tobacco'
'to eat'
'to let go of'
'to read'
'my sister'
'my sisters'

But:

| tabérka | 'sesame (seeds)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| bážža | 'penis (of a boy)' |
| áčča | 'grave' |
| res. 2 sg. tudînta | 'to wear' |
| úmā | 'my brother' |
| mámā | 'my older brother' |
| nánā | 'my grandmother' |

/i/ and /u/ clearly do not have phonemic length distinction in word-final position. This is not as obvious for /a/ as the distribution between $<\mathrm{a}>$ and $<\overline{\mathrm{a}}>$ cannot be fully

[^3]explained. Nevertheless, there is no clear evidence in favour of a length distinction in this position, and the two examples with variation rather suggest the contrary.

Word-final accented /a/ is not very common, and mostly occurs in perfective 3 sg.m. verbs with a final alternating vowel. In this position it is written both <â> and <á>, but never with the same verb. It is unlikely that some roots have a long vowel in this position whereas others have a short vowel. From a comparative perspective there is no reason to assume such a distinction either. Nevertheless, we only find free variation between <á> and <â> once, in the relative pronoun <alâ, alá>.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { pf. 3sg.m. ibnâ } & \text { 'to build, construct' } \\
\text { pf. 3sg.m. idrá } & \text { 'to press; to massage' } \\
\text { pf. 3sg.m. yefká } & \text { 'to give' } \\
\text { pf. 3sg.m. yaqlâ } & \text { 'to roast' }
\end{array}
$$

A similar irregular distribution is present in the impf. 3sg.m. of these verbs. Note that three of the imperfectives mentioned below correspond to the perfectives cited above, and that the length distinction does not correspond regularly.

impf. 3sg.m. iderrâ 'to press; to massage'<br>impf. 3sg.m. ifekká 'to give'<br>impf. 3sg.m. igerrá 'to gather, assemble'<br>impf. 3sg.m. iqallâ 'to roast'

Word-internally, there appears to be complementary distribution in the use of the long vowel signs and the short vowel signs. In open syllables, the long vowel signs are used, while in closed syllables the short vowel signs are used.

| bâhi | 'good' | tebāqûlt | 'jar, vase' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bâlek | 'maybe' | tebārût | 'way, street' |
| ipl. abbá-tnah | 'our father' | taqqîd, taqqîdẹn | 'fingers' |
| bážža | 'penis (of a boy)' |  |  |


| adîrem | 'masculine inflorescence' | alīdâm | 'butter' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tfî̀īit | 'animal excrement' | ddrīnîn | 'thorns' |
| dímmen | 'blood' | tfiliggísit | 'swallow' |
| tídnī | 'mortar' | tfillî-yī | 'towards the house' |


| 3sg.f. děrûšet | 'to be few, little' | dbūš-énnes | 'his/her clothes' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pl. grûtån | 'treetrunks' | flūlîš | 'inflorescences' |
| kúll | 'all' | čču-nnâh | 'our meal' |
| pf. 3sg.m. išúmma | 'to cook' | imp. pl.m. llummât | 'to gather' |

There are several exceptions to this:

| täbazârt | 'basket' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tfidîrt | 'lizard (monitor lizard)' |
| funāsen | 'oxen' |

In accented word-final syllables with a plain vowel, usually the long notation is used.

```
tebît 'type of palm tree'
elbâb 'door'
tebāqûlt `jar, vase'
```

<ā, ā $>$ and their accented counterparts <âa, ầ> stand for the vowel /a/. Often both spellings alternate with the usual <ā, â> spellings. There seems to be no obvious conditioning environment to the variants <ā̆, $\hat{\text { â }}>$. On the other hand, <ā, ầ $>$ are clearly conditioned by emphatic or uvular consonants (but <temmầya> appears to be an exception to this. ${ }^{5}$ )
ğār, ğār
iwînā̄n, iwînān
res. 3sg.f. temmầya, 3 sg.m. yemmâya tmoqqåâànt, tmoqqårânt
ělmeğğâret, elmogggà̂ret(-ī)
elqầdī̀, ĕlqâdī
wållà̀hī, wållâhi /wal!̣àhi/
tăğâfí, tăg̀âà
'but'
'one (m.sg.)'
'to be cooked, be ready, be ripened'
'large (f.sg.)'
'cave'
'judge'
'by God (I swear)'
'palm leaf'

The short accented counterparts <á̀> and <á́> are occasionally used to denote /a/, although they more commonly stand for accented /a/ (see below):
${ }^{5} \mathrm{This} \mathrm{mm}$ is the result of an assimilation of Proto-Berber * $n w$. In Ouargla it has become a long emphatic labial nasal $\underset{m \not m^{w}}{ }$. The value of the vowel may be an indication that in Awjila the cluster ${ }^{*} n w$ has also yielded an emphatic $\boldsymbol{m}$ mp.

'black (m.sg.)'
'foot' 'they arrived'
'to roast'
'companions' (cf. Ar. rufaqā? 'companions')

Similarly, in a number of cases, unaccented <ä, å> correspond to /a/, Usually, however, they represent unaccented / $\partial /$ (see below).

| țār̂nn, tårīn(-nûk) | 'feet' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ağầst pl. g̀åstinn | 'bone' |
| těkábęrt, těkabę́rt pl. tekäbrîn | 'shirt' |

Instances where the short notations <áå, å> demonstrably represent /a/ are rare (the examples above form an exhaustive list). Most instances of these vowel signs probably stand for the short vowel $a$. As for <ắ, ä> the situation is more problematic. A considerable amount of instances of <ä> cannot be assigned with certainty to either /a/ or $/ \partial /$. Some feminine nouns have an initial <tä-> prefix. In Awjila, a feminine noun may either have the prefix /ta-/ or /tz-/. Nouns with this initial prefix could either stand for /ta-/ or for /tz-/.

| täkemmûšt | /takəmmùšt/ or /takəmmùšt/ | 'bundle (of sticks)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| täkrûmt | /takrùmt/ or /takrùmt/ | 'joint of a bone' |
| tämnît | /tamnit/ or /təmnit/ | 'jar, vase' |
| tämaqqûšt | /taməqqǔst/ or /təməqqǔšt/ | 'dung, manure' |
| tävur̂t dvurīitin | /tavurit/ or /təvurit/ | 'small plate, tray' |
| täbazârt | /tabazàrt/ or /tabazàrt/ | 'basket' |
| tämûrt, temûrt, tmûrt | /tamùrt/ or /təmùrt/ or /tmùrt/ | 'earth' |
| tävergât, dvergât, tavergât | /tavərgàt/ or /dvərgàt/ or /təvərgàt/ | 'dream' |

Other words where <ä> cannot with certainty be determined to stand for either /a/ or /a/ are:

| akärbûš | 'trunk of a palm tree' |
| :--- | :--- |
| käšŝin | 'cores of fruits' |
| amäsâl | 'crossbar between the two poles of a well' |
| ázän | 'next year' |
| fut. 3sg.m. aittäžoṭ |  |
| teméz̈bärt | 'to be ground, be milled' |
| amäzẓinn | 'so pot in which you burn incense' |
| 'sons' |  |

<ẹ́> stands for accented /i/ in several cases. There appears to be no conditioning environment for this spelling.

| íllī, ẹllī | 'millet' |
| :--- | :--- |
| imp. sg. íreš, éreš | 'to descend' |
| rwíhha, rwéhḥa, ěrwẹ́ḥa | 'I am afraid' |
| ízlef, ẹzlef | 'summer' |

<ẹ> may stand for unaccented $/ \mathrm{i} /$, but it more commonly stands for $/ \mathrm{z} /$.
tegẹšîlt teštâft 'black beetle' (cf. tegišîlt taġzîft 'viper, snake')
timẓ̂n, tẹmẓ̂̀n 'barley'
1sg. mmúyẹh 'he died' (see 4.1.5)
res. 1sg. wẹṭha 'I arrived' (see 4.3)

In a few cases the sign <e> is found in Arabic loanwords, where it corresponds to the Classical Arabic short vowel $i$. This is unusual, as the Arabic dialects of the region merged short vowels $i$ and $u$ to $a$. It seems as if Awjila was in contact with a dialect that kept Classical Arabic $i$ distinct.

| elfẹkr-énnes | 'his thought' (< Ar. $f i k r)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| agûr ménn-ī̀ agûr mẹ́nn-ek, agûr minn-es | 'besides me, you, him' (<Ar. min) |
| lâkẹn, lâkän | 'but' (<Ar. lākin) |

The actual length of this $i$ that corresponds to the Classical Arabic $i$ cannot be determined from the first two examples. The last example <lâkẹn> could only have the accent on the penultimate syllable if the last syllable were short (/lakin/ would regularly have a final accent). But for <lâkẹn> we also find the spelling <lâkän> which implies that we probably need to understand this as phonemically /lakən/, in which case <ẹ> does not represent Arabic short $i$.
< $\dot{\mathbf{u}}>$ and < $\dot{u}>$ stand for accented $/ \mathrm{u} /$ and $<\dot{\mathrm{u}}>$ stands for unaccented $/ \mathrm{u} /$. The exact conditioning for this spelling is not entirely clear.

| ĕbbû̀k | 'stinging' (v. verbal noun formation of c̄c verbs.) |
| :--- | :--- |
| zūt, zǜt | 'above' |
| pf. ısg. lli̊zîh̆ 3sg.m. yellûz | 'to be hungry' |
| šîrừrù | 'weakling' |
| úwů | 'kneading (bread dough)' |
| tebedúqt | 'cotton' |

<ê> almost always stands for accented /e/. This vowel is mostly found in Arabic loanwords. Accented /e/ is represented once with <é>.

| bêin | 'between' (Ar. bayna) |
| :--- | :--- |
| ba'adên, ba'adén | 'afterwards, then' (ELA baCdēn) |
| ssalâmu 'alêikum | 'peace be upon you' |
| itnên | 'two' |

The sign <é> is also used to mark word-final $e$ in the contracted forms if the resultatives <igâya> 'he has done', and <ivâya> 'he has fallen': <igé, ivé>. The deictic clitic <=é> (see section 7) is probably a contraction of the synonym <=âya>. Similarly, the unaccented deictic pronouns <wę, tę> are probably contractions of <wâya, tâya>. These two pronouns constitute the only examples of unaccented /e/ in Awjila.

In two instances, <ê> stands for accented /i/ in an emphatic environment: res. 3sg.m. <iwêtą 'to arrive; to reach', <mmên, mmîn> 'when?'

The sign <ệ> is attested twice and stands for accented /e/ or /i/: <ahîr, abệr> 'better'; <wện-mā> 'as soon as' (ELA wên-mā)
< $\hat{0}>$ stands for accented /o/ and is only found in a few Arabic loanwords; <ahâolī> 'lamb', <ěrrôšen> 'window'.
<o> is used twice to denote unaccented /o/: <ḥolâwen> 'lambs', <taḥolît> 'sheep'
$<0>$ is also used once to denote unaccented $/ \mathrm{u} /$ in a pharyngeal environment: 1sg. <ḥossîh> 'to feel' (see section 4.3.3.18)
< $\hat{0}>$ is used once to denote accented /u/ in a emphatic environment: <ẓôt, zūụ, zừt > 'above'

Twice, <ö> is used to denote /u/: <kull, köll> 'each'; <ĕndú, úndu, undú, öndú, endú> 'if' (there appears to be phonemic variation of the initial vowel between /ə/ and $/ \mathrm{u} /$ ).

### 2.2.2 Short vowel signs

In the above section we have established that there are five plain vowels $/ \mathrm{a} /, / \mathrm{i} /, / \mathrm{u} /$, /e/, /o/ which may be represented with a variety of vowel signs. More often than not, they are written with long vowel signs. But sometimes short vowel signs are used to represent these long vowels.

Far from all short vowel signs in Paradisi's transcriptions are employed to write plain vowels, however. These vowels must therefore be considered to represent actual short vowels.

The two most common short vowel signs are <e, ę> and their accented counterparts <é, ę>. While <e> graphically has a long accented counterpart <ê>, the latter is exclusively found in Arabic loanwords, and it never alternates with $\langle\mathrm{e}\rangle$, nor is there a
long unaccented variant $<\overline{\mathrm{e}}>$ in Paradisi's transcriptions. The signs $<\mathrm{e}, \underset{\text { e }}{ }>$ must therefore be considered exclusively short. The signs are 'neutral', in the sense that they are not conditioned by a specific phonetic environment, and therefore may appear in most environments, although they are less common in uvular, pharyngeal and emphatic environments. There is no complementary distribution between the two vowel signs, and they are often in free variation. <ę> is more common in word-final syllables than <e>. The table below shows some examples of free variation between the two vowel signs <e, ę>.

| pf. 3 sg.m. ig̀élli, igééllī | 'he wants' |
| :---: | :---: |
| pf. 3pl.m. gallîyen, gallîyęn | 'they want' |
| g̀âr-ek, ġâr-ęk | 'to you, you have' |
| amédęn, amędęn | 'man' |
| 3pl.m. nnîyen, ĕnnîyęn | 'they are' |
| impf. 3sg.m. itârev ptc. târęven | 'to write' |
| pl. šgîiręn, šğîren | 'firewood' |

Prasse (1989) has suggested that Awjila, similar to Tuareg and Ghadames, may have retained a contrast between two short vowels $\partial$ and $\breve{a}$. Careful examination of Paradisi's transcription shows that this cannot be the case. Indeed, several short vowel signs with an $a$-like quality are used to write short vowels such as <å, ä, a>. However, these often show free variation with the signs $\langle\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{e}\rangle$, or are in complementary distribution with these signs. Similarly, there is frequent alternation between <e> and <ę>, which shows that they denote the same vowel phoneme. Therefore there is no basis for positing a contrast between $\partial$ and $\breve{a}$ in Awjila, and Paradisi's notations only point to a single short vowel / $/$. The cases of <å, ä, a> are discussed below.
<å> and its accented counterpart <á́> are found in emphatic and uvular environments. In these environments <e> is very rare, and <ę> is unattested. When <e> is found, it is in free variation with $\langle\mathrm{a}\rangle$.

| yåqqîm, yaqqîm, yäqqîm | 'he stays, remains' |
| :---: | :---: |
| ělmeġg̀âret, elmåg̀ầret(-ī) | 'cave' |
| imp. sg. nžåg, nžáġ; pf. 1sg. nžeḩh | 'to pull' |
| qåțṭâān, qetṭâān | 'highwaymen' |

<å> sometimes represents a long vowel (see above), and the presence of <å> is clearly determined by its emphatic or uvular environment. In cases where there is no variation in spelling with <e>, there are some means based on the morphology and word formation to determine with relative certainty that <å> stands for / / / and not /a/. For verbs, it is often possible to determine a vowel is / $\partial$ / rather than plain /a/ through certain patterns in the verbal morphology. Thus / $/ \mathrm{/}$ becomes /i/ if it stands
in the penultimate syllable of the resultative form (see section 4.3.1.5). So if we find that an <å> in the perfective stem becomes an /i/ in the resultative, this is clear evidence for $/ \partial /$ rather than $/ \mathrm{a} /$.

There are other means to establish that <å> probably represents /a/. For example, from other verbs in the corpus we know that the vowel pattern of ccc verbs is |әccəc|, thus, if we find a ccc verb with the vowel <å> we can safely suppose that it represents a $/ \partial /$.

Resultative gives an indication
pf. 3sg.m. išénṭạț; res. 3sg.m. išénṭîṭa 'to join'
pf. 3sg.m. yetṭắf; res. 3sg.m. yetṭîfa 'to seize'
pf. 3sg.m. yaqqắn; res. 3sg.m. yaqqîna 'to tie'
ccc verbs have |əccəc| pattern
3sg.m. yélġåm, yelgóm 'to refuse'
imp. sg. ennṭár 'to let go, put down'

Twice, <å> represents /ə/in labial environments: <mîwęn, mîwån> 'mouths', <áu> (probably /àww/ 'to knead [bread dough]').
<a> and its accented counterpart <á> are often used to denote /a/, but they may also denote / $\partial /$, especially in a pharyngeal environment, and sometimes in emphatic and uvular environments. Different from <å> which only rarely denotes a long vowel, <a> very often stands for /a/. Therefore, if we find an <a> in the environment where it may be either /a/ or /a/, it is often impossible to establish its phonemic value. /a/ does not occur in word final position, nor in word initial position in front of |cv|, so in these cases <a> and <á> can safely be considered to represent/a/. Free variation between <a, e, å> can also help to determine the presence of $/ \partial /$. Moreover, morphological patterns of the verbs can give us further evidence.

Resultative gives an indication

| pf. 3sg.m. isáġ; res. 3sg.m. isígia | 'to buy' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pf. 3sg.m. yaǵáš; res. 3sg.m. yagíša | 'to love' |
| pf. 3sg.m. yerfá'; res. yerfía | 'take away, to raise' |
| pf. 3sg.m. yerwá; res. yerwî'a | 'to fear' |
| pf. 3sg.m. ya'ádd; res. ya'ídda | 'to go' |
| pf. 3sg.m. yefráḥ; res. yefrîḥa | 'to become happy' |
| pf. 3sg.m. išelḥám; res. išelḥ̂ima | 'to light (a fire)' |
| pf. 1sg. šenṭáṭh; res. šenṭîṭha | 'to join, attach' |


| pf. 3sg.m. yaqqắn, yeqqắn(-t) 1sg. ġallîh, ġellîh tareẓẓât, terazẓât | 'to bind, tie, attach' 'to want' 'creak' |
| :---: | :---: |
| ccc verbs have \|әссәс| pattern |  |
| pf. 3sg.m. yaġréš yaḥdef(-tęnęt) | 'to slaughter' 'he threw (them)' |

ccc verbal nouns have |acəcac| pattern

| aġarâš | 'slaughter' |
| :--- | :--- |
| anațâr | 'leting go, putting down' |
| azamâk | 'sewing' |

Some examples of ambiguous cases of <a> are: <tebaqqûšt> 'pan', <tag̀mâi> 'thigh', <agaslém> 'lizard'.

The vowel sign <ä> has both short and long variants <ä, ä, $\bar{a}, \hat{\ddot{a}}>$. There is never any variation between the long and the short vowels like we find with the vowel signs <â, î, û, ā, ī, $\bar{u}$, á, í, ú, a, i, u>. This strongly suggests that <ä, ár> basically represent a short vowel. However, as shown on page 23, there are a few ambiguous cases where it stands for either /a/ or / $\partial /$. The notation <ä> appears mostly in a uvular and velar environments, but occurs in other environments too.

```
pf. 3sg.m. iâyet,, yacâyäṭ 'to yell, scream'
imp. sg. édž, äğğ 'to let go of'
aġellâi pl.ggalllâyen 'circle,loop'
pf. 3sg.m. yäqqîm, yaqqîm, yåqqîm 'to stay'
imp. sg. ağäš; res. 3sg.m. yaġíša 'to love' (cf. resultative)
tġåtṭen, tğíțän
imp. sg. šéġzef; pf. 3sg.m. išäġzef
imp. sg. ěḩhär, hูhér
pf.3sg.m. yähzér, yehzér
imp. sg. šänġ, šéng
    aräšâk
    'goat'
    'to lengthen'
    'to take off; to remove'
    'to see; to look at (+af)'
    'to extinguish'
    'combing' (ccc verbal nouns are |acəcac|)
```

There are several other, more marginal vowel signs which are used to represent the short vowel / $/$. These are <o, q, ů, ö, ẹ, i, u>. They are discussed individually below.

The character $\langle 0\rangle$ is found once representing unaccented plain /o/, as found in the word <aḥôlī> pl.<ḥolâwen> 'lamb', <taḥolît> pl. <tḥolītîn> 'sheep'. <ó> is never used
to represent a long vowel, and most instances of <o> clearly represent a short vowel. It shows some free variation with other vowel signs that denote / $\partial /$, and it is mostly found in labial and uvular environments.
ĕlmeg̀gâret, elmoġgầret-ī tamûràğ, tamûrog
imp. sg. avóṭ; impf. ssg. tevvâṭh 3sg.m. itevvâṭ
pf. 1sg. mmeggîh 3sg.m. yemmóg
pf. 3sg.m. yéšwor; res. yešwîra
pf. ısg. woṭh; res. wẹtha
'cave’
'grasshoppers (coll.)'
'to swear (an oath, etc.)'
'to become, to be, to turn into'
'to dance' (cf. resultative)
'to arrive; to reach' (cf. resultative)
$<Q>$ is only attested once, and seems to occur in the same environment as <o>: <ávoṭ, avoṭ(-idîn)> 'night'
< $\mathrm{u}>$ and <ú> usually stand for /u/but there are a few cases where they probably stands for $/ \boldsymbol{\partial} /$ :

| alógom, alŏgom, alúgom | 'camel' |
| :---: | :---: |
| impf. 1sg. tůwátḥ 3sg.m. itåwót | 'to arrive; to reach' (å ů points to ə) |
| Perhaps: tůéss, tawöss | 'bed' (phonemically /təwəss/?) |

<ö> is not a very common vowel sign, and it never occurs accented. It can be shown to represent $/ \mathrm{u} /$ in some cases and / $/$ / in others. It certainly represents / $/$ / in the verb imp.sg. <ážöt >; impf.3sg.m. <itežžâṭ> 'to grind, mill' (cc verbs have a imp.sg. pattern $|\mathrm{acəc}|$ ), and it probably represents /ə/ in <tůéss, tawöss> 'bed' /təwàss/.

The sign <ẹ> often represents/z/. In most cases it is conditioned by a preceding ly/.

| res. 3sg.m. yẹlbîba | 'to mount, climb' |
| :--- | :--- |
| yérdẹn, írden, yẹ́rden | 'wheat' |
| tẹmígnī, temígnī, těmígnī | 'woman, wife' |
| yeškî, yẹskî | 'to live' |
| res. 3sg.m. yẹtemę́nna | 'to wish' |

While $<\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}>$ are usually used to write the plain vowels $/ \mathrm{i} /$ and $/ \mathrm{u} /$, they sometimes represent $/ \partial /$ in front of $/ \mathrm{y} /$ and $/ \mathrm{w} /$ respectively. The transcriptions usually do not distinguish / $\partial \mathrm{w} /$ and $/ \partial \mathrm{y} /$ from $/ \mathrm{u} /$ and $/ \mathrm{i} /$, and the phonemic contrast may in fact be neutralized in speech. Imperfectives of ccc verbs regularly have the $\mid$ cəc̄əc| pattern. ccc verbs with a medial $/ \mathrm{y} /$ or $/ \mathrm{w} /$ have an $<\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}>$ in the position of the first $/ \partial /$.
impf. 1sg. diyyézh 3sg.m. idíyyez 'to sing'
impf. ssg. síyyefh 3sg.m. isíyyef 'to bathe'
impf. 1sg. ruwwélh 3sg.m. irúwwel 'to flee'

Finally, there is a small set of extra-short vowel signs <ĕ, ă, $̆$, ŏ, ŭ, $̆$ ă $>$. These are never accented, and may represent / $\partial /$. In many cases the elements represented by these extra-short vowels are employed as epenthetic vowels.
< $>$ > is found in most environments, <ă $>$ is found in emphatic and pharyngeal environments. Sometimes we find <ă> as the initial vowel of the definite article in Arabic loanwords. This is often found besides a reflex of the article as <ĕl->: <ělhûdī, ălhûdī> 'jew', <ĕddellâl, ăddellâl> 'auctioneer'.
< ${ }^{\text {e }}>$ is especially common at the beginning of words that would otherwise start with two consonants, but often varies freely with a form without this initial <ĕ>.
<ц̆> is only used once as a short epenthetic vowel before $y$, and <ŭ $>$ is used as a short epenthetic vowel before $w$.
<ŏ> is found once as a short vowel / / in front of uvular consonants.
Twice we find the vowel sign < $\check{a}>$, which in the context quite clearly stands for / / / or epenthetic [ə]: <ăžvóṭ> 'to measure (cereals)' and res. 3pl.f. <ă̈nqåṣnîta, ĕnqåṣnîta> 'to be missing, to lack'.

The extra-short vowel signs are often used to write epenthetic vowels. The tabel below shows several examples where < $\check{\text { e }}, \stackrel{a}{ }>$ alternate with $\varnothing$, and cases where the accent, which cannot stand on the antepenultimate syllable, shows that these vowels must be epenthetic.

| m. etčû, ěččû, ččū | /(ə)ččú/ | 'food, meal, plate' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ddĕrî | /dd(ə)rí/ | 'thorn' |
| imp. sg. ĕffok, ffok | /(ə)ffək/ | 'to pour' |
| tgîli, teggîli | /t(ə)gìli/ | 'head' |
| tagmârět | /tagmàr(ə)t/ | 'mare' |
| imp. sg. ĕkkéš, kkéš | /(ə)kkáš/ | 'to take off, remove' |
| elbáḥăr, älbáḥr | /əlbàḥ(ə)r/ | 'sea' |
| imp. sg. ăqqắn | /əqqán/ | 'to bind, tie, attach' |
| imp. sg. aġăréš, aġreš(-dîk) | /ay(ə)ráš/ | 'to slaughter' |
| elháḍărät | /əlxàd(ə)rət/ | 'vegetables' (cf. Ar. hudra(t) 'id.') |
| qlâzen, ăqlāzen | /(ə)qlàzən/ | 'lies' |
| f. sg. bâhĭyet | /bàh(ə)yət/ | 'good' |
| ŭwût | /əwùṭ/ | 'arriving; reaching' |
| imp. sg. šŭwór | /š(ə)wór/ | 'to dance' |
| imp. sg. ŏqqûr, qqūr | /(ə)qqùr/ | 'to dry out' |
| alóğom, alŏġom | /alà̧əm/ | 'camel' |

Note that not all instances of <ĕ> and <ă> are epenthetic vowels:
agĕwâl 'seeing' (ccc verbal nouns have |acəcac| pattern)
aṭărâs 'braiding of hair' (ccc verbal nouns have |acəcac| pattern)

In two cases <ă> seems to stand for /a/: imp. sg. <ădér> 'to press; to massage': imp. of cc* verbs have an $\mid$ acəc| vowel pattern; <ăbugérfa> 'clay': /ə/ never occurs in an open syllable at the beginning of a word, the only other plausible remaining initial vowel of a masculine noun is /a/.

Once, < 1 > is used to represent unaccented /i/: <wéttı̆(-dikkén̄̄)> 'prepare (sg.) (for us)' cf. <wettîmet> 'prepare! (pl.f.)'.

### 2.2.3 Diphthong signs

Another part of the vowel transcriptions are the transcriptions of the diphthongs. The system of the transcription of diphthongs is different from that of the monophthongs, and it is described separately by Beguinot (1942: 6) for Djebel Nefusa Berber.

Short unaccented diphthongs take a macron diacritic that spans both vowels of the diphthong. Short accented diphthongs take a macron diacritic with an acute accent on top that spans both vowels of the diphthong. Long unaccented diphthongs are represented by a succession of two vowels where the first one has a macron: $\bar{a} u$, long unaccented diphthongs are unattested in Paradisi's material. Long accented diphthongs are represented by a succession of two vowels where the first one has a circumflex: $\hat{a} u$. For practical reasons, I have retranscribed the short diphthongs with two vowels, which both have a macron, and when accented, the accent is placed on the first of the two vowels, e.g. $\bar{o} \bar{u}, o ̂ ́ \bar{u}$.

In Paradisi's transcription long diphthongs are represented in two ways: either as $\hat{a} i$, like Beguinot describes, but sometimes with $\hat{a} \check{c}$. The examples below illustrate the three types of diphthongs present in Paradisi's transcriptions.

| érōū | Short unaccented |
| :--- | :--- |
| irốūwaḥ | Short accented |
| aziwâi, išeglâĭ | long accented |

The most commonly attested diphthongs in Paradisi's transcriptions are: <âu, âi, âû, îu, ûi, āū, ō̄̄, āī, ấ̄̄, ốū>. Then there are some marginal diphthong transcriptions which will be discussed in more detail below: <áí, âū, ai, au, á̄i>

Many of the diphthong signs are phonemically transparent, but especially diphthongs of short vowels + semivowel need special examination.

The long accented diphthongs <âu, âi, âŭ, îu, ûi> almost certainly stand for the sequence vowel + semivowel. There is no reason within the system of morphology or phonology to assume that there are true vocalic diphthongs in the phonology of Awjila. Therefore we may posit that these diphthongs stand for accented/aw/, /ay/, /ay/, /iw/ and /uy/ respectively. All these diphthongs are only found in the final syllable of a word. The consonantal value of the second part of the diphthong becomes apparent when we look at the plural formations of nouns that end in diphthongs:

| sg. | pl. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| abešhâu | bešhâwen | 'name of a sparrow' |
| aġellâi | gällâyen | 'circle, loop' |
| abeškîu | beškîwen | 'horn' |
| irîu | irîwen | 'boy, child' |

For the diphthong <ûi> we do not have any examples of plural nouns, but the consonant surfaces in the conjugation of the stative verb: 3sg. m. <aẓûi> f. <aẓuyît> pl. <aẓuyît> 'to be bitter'.

The diphthong <âĭ>, while presumably phonemically identical to <âi>, is only found in notations of the imperfective of verbs. The list below is exhaustive:
impf. 1sg. šeglâĭh 3sg.m. išeglâú 'to show' impf. ısg. šembâilh 3sg.f. tšembái 'to suckle' impf. isg. šǐšâľh 3sg.m. išǐšáĭ 'to make (s.o.) sleep' impf. 1sg. šenṭâîh 3sg.m. išenṭâĭ 'to make someone taste'
impf. 3sg.m. išęrwâit 'to speak, tell'

The one attestation of the diphthong <ál> probably belongs here too: impf. 3sg.m. <igáì 'to cultivate'.

Once, we find the diphthong <â̆ı>, which appears to stand for accented /ay/: impf. 1sg. <šivầihh 3 sg.m. <išivầı> 'to cause to fall'.

The diphthongs <āū> and <āī> are generally found at the beginning of words and represent the future clitic $a=+u$ in stems that start with $/ \mathrm{u} /$ or the future clitic $a=+$ and the 3 sg.m. prefix $i$-.

| 1sg. āūġęrh | 'to get lost; to lose s.th. (s-ğāa + s.th.) |
| :---: | :---: |
| t. 3sg.m. āīsébbah | 'to swim' |
| fut. 3sg.m. aižîž | 'to sell' |

In the few cases where these unaccented diphthongs are not the result of the future clitic + vowel, it is an unaccented variant of the long diphthongs:

```
tekšâimt pl. tekšāīmîn 'watermelon'
yōm pl. āīyām 'day'(< Ar. ayyām)
i'āīyâṭ 'to yell, scream'
```

The diphthongs <ai, au>, which are not described by Beguinot, are in free variation with <āī, āū>, and clearly do not represent a phonemically distinct diphthongs.

| fut. 1sg. aušáġd, āūšágd | 'to come' |
| :--- | :--- |
| fut. 3sg.m. ain-îs, āini-(dîk) | 'to say' |
| fut. 3sg.m. aižǐž, āz̄žǐǐ-(t) | 'to sell' |

The diphthong <ai> is found once in word-final position: <tqárṭai> 'paper'.
The diphthong <áai> occurs once in Paradisi's text, and presumably represents accented/ay/: <zzẫ̄̀> 'breast'.

As mentioned earlier, in front of $/ \mathrm{w} /, / \mathrm{\partial} /$ is often represented by $\langle\mathrm{u}\rangle$. Therefore the phonemic sequence / $\partial \mathrm{w} /$ is often represented with <uw>. This is the case in the verb <érwel>; impf. 3sg.m. <irúwwel> 'to flee', the imperfective of a ccc verb having the pattern |cə $\overline{\text { čc }} \mid$ (cf. imp. sg. <édreš>; impf. 3sg.m. <idérreš> 'to decrease [intrans.]').

The diphthong <ōū>, and its accented variant <ốū> also often stand for /əw/. The exact conditioning of these two reflexes is difficult to determine.

We find one verb that is structurally very similar to <érwel>: <erwá>; impf. 3sg.m. <iróūwa'> 'to fear'. Other verbs that have this diphthong include:
impf. 3sg.m. idōūwâr
imp. sg. áu; impf. 3sg.m. itó́ūwa
3sg.m. zó́ūwag̀ 3sg.f. zó́ūgat pl. zōūĝît
'to look around; to search'
'to knead (bread dough)'
'to be red'

Some words have both reflexes: 1sg. <zurâh> 2sg. <zōūât> 3sg.m. <zúwor>; 3sg.f. <zóūret, zûret> pl. <zuwirît> 'to be large'.

The verb <érōū> 'to give birth' has the reflex <ōū> throughout the whole paradigm, except in the impf. 3sg.f.: imp. sg. <érōū> pl.m. <erốūmet>; pf. ısg. <erốūh>; 3sg.f. <teróū>; res. ısg. <iríuha> 3sg.m. <tirîwa>; fut. 1sg. <aĕrôūh̄> 3sg.f. <attirōū>; impf. 1sg. <tárōūh> 3sg.f. <tárū> 'to give birth'

Other verbs always have the notation <uww>: imp. sg. <šŭwór>; impf. 1sg. <šuwwérh> 3 sg.m. <išúwwer> 'to dance'

While it is clear that <ōū, óū> stands for/əw/, there is no clear distribution of the two overlapping transcriptions <uw> and <ō̄u, óū>.

A possible (but only partial) explanation for the distribution is the presence of an emphatic /r/. While Paradisi transcribes this consonant once with <r>>, he does not transcribe it consistently: <rábbī, rábbī, rábbī, rábbī> 'God'.

Perhaps the roots conaining <r> that have the notation <ōū> are in fact roots that contain the emphatic $/ \mathrm{r} /$. This cannot be seen directly, but many of the words that have a diphthong <ōū, ôū> contain <r>. Considering the vowel-lowering effect of emphatic $/ \mathrm{r} /$ in both Arabic and Berber, it seems likely that the lowered reflex of the sequence /əw/ points to the presence of an emphatic /r/. Moreover, the uvular consonant / y / may have had a similar lowering effect. With these assumptions it becomes possible to explain the majority of the <ōū, ốū diphthongs. But it does not help us explain the verb imp. sg. <á́u>; impf. 3sg.m. <itóūwa> 'to knead (bread dough)'.

The diphthong <îŏ> occurs only in the word <azîọt> 'donkey' (unaccented: <azaiōṭ(énnes)>) where it alternates with the monophthong <î>. Phonemically it should probably be interpreted as the result of a transitional vowel between the high vowel /i/ and the emphatic stop $/ \mathrm{t} \mid$ : $[\mathrm{i} \partial]=/ \mathrm{i} /$, but with just a single example it is difficult to determine. ${ }^{6}$

The diphthong <ûă> is found only in <fankûăh> 'big buttocks'. The diphthong probably represents a transition of the high vowel $/ \mathrm{u} /$ to the pharyngeal $/ \mathrm{h} /$. This diphthongization looks similar to the dipthongization in front of Pharyngeal consonants that we find in Hebrew known as Patah Male.

A small category of diphthongs are the rising diphthongs. These are written by
 diphthong show free variation between vocalic writing, and the consonantal writing, cf.
imp. sg. diéz; pf. 3sg.m. idyéz 'to sing'
imp. sg. siéf; pf. 3sg.m. isyéf 'to bathe'

This variation indicates that the vowel <i> in this position must be considered to be a consonant $y$.

For rising diphthongs with the vowel sign <u>, this interpretation is less obvious. The consonant $w$ is always written as $<\mathrm{w}>$ after a consonant and before a vowel, e.g. <érwel> 'to sing', <erwa', erwá> 'to fear', <erwók> 'to knead'. But some passive verbs have a passive prefix <tu>, that is only found before long vowels (see section 4.2.2), cf.

| ituáker | 'to be stolen' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ituār, yetuâr | 'to be opened; to open (trans.)' |
| ituárev | 'to be written' |

There are three other words that have the rising diphthong <uâ>, namely <zuâg̀> 'red' (also the feminine and plural formations have this dipthong) and the plural of < ẓûi, žư̂ì 'palm': <ẓuân>, and the pf. 3pl.m. of šu 'to drink': <šuân>.
<šuân> almost certainly points to šwàn (cf. pf. 3sg.m. yašwa). <zuâg̀> appears to have the same |ccac| scheme as sttàf, in which case it would stand for zwày. Because the plural formation of <zûui, zụûi> is irregular, it is difficult to determine whether it stands for zuwàn or zwàn.

As in the cases where we can tell what this rising diphthong stands for, it stands for a sequence $w a$, I have decided to transcribe it as such in all cases. Therefore the passive prefix is considered to be $t w$-.

[^4]
### 2.2.4 Overview

To conclude, Paradisi's system of transcription gives us evidence for 6 contrastive vowels: /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /o/, /ə/.
$/ \mathrm{a} /, \mathrm{i} /, \mathrm{lu} /$ can all be accented and occur in all positions of the word. Both /e/ and /o/ are rare and mostly found in Arabic loanwords. /e/ is never found unaccented, /o/ is only found unaccented in a single instance. / / can be accented and it can occur in open syllable, but it is never found in word-final position.

|  | Front | Central | Back |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| High | i |  | u |
| Mid | e | ə | o |
| Low |  | a |  |

For reference an overview of the vowel notations is given in the tables on the next page. The first table below gives an overview of the vowel signs found in Paradisi, and to which phonemic vowel they correspond. The second table gives the reverse listing: It shows all the vowels found in the language, and what signs in Paradisi has used for these phonemes.

| /i, (ə/)/ | í /í, (á)/ |  |  | /i, ə/ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| e | ẹ́ |  | ệ |  |
| \|a| | \|íl |  | lí, (é?)/ |  |
| e | é |  | , | ě |
| \|a| | \|á| |  | lé/ | \|a| |
| e | é |  |  |  |
| \|a| | \|a| |  |  |  |
| ä | á | $\overline{\bar{a}}$ | $\hat{\hat{a}}$ | ă |
| \|a, a/ | làáá | /a/ | \|á/ | \|a/ |
| a | á | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | â | ă |
| /a, a/ | \|áà á/ | /a/ | \|á| | $\mid \mathrm{a},(\mathrm{a})$ / |
| ö |  |  |  |  |
| $\|\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}\|$ |  |  |  |  |
| u | ú | $\overline{\text { ù }}$ | û | ŭ |
| /u, (a)/ | ú (à) | u | ú | ə |
| ů | ú |  | ̂̀ |  |
| /u, (a)/ | /ú, (à)/ |  | \|ú/ |  |
| o | ó |  | ô | ŏ |
| $\mid \mathrm{a},(\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u})$ \| | \|á| |  | \|ó/ | \|a| |
| $\begin{aligned} & \hline 9 \\ & \|\mathrm{la}\| \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |
| à | a | ā | à |  |
| /a, (a)/ | /á, (á)/ | \|a/ | á |  |


|  | Front | Central | Back |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| High | i |  | u |
|  | <i, íl, ì î, ì , ẹ, (eẹ ? ?)> |  | <u, ú, $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}, \hat{\mathrm{u}}$, (o)> |
| Mid | e | ${ }^{\text {ə }}$ | 0 |
|  | <ê, (ệ ?)> | <e, é, e, ę́, ẹ, ĕ, (i, í, ĭ), ä, ä́, a áa ă, (ö, u, ú, ŭ), ů, ú, o, ó, ŏ, å, á> | <o, $\hat{\text { of }}$ > |
| Low |  | a |  |
|  |  | <ä, ắ, ā, â, a, á ā, â, (ă, å, á), ā , ầ > |  |

### 2.2.5 Schwa in open syllables

Awjila has many cases of schwa in open syllables. Most Berber languages that do not have a contrast between $\partial$ and $\breve{a}$ do not allow schwa to stand in an open syllable. This section shows that these schwas cannot be explained phonetically, and therefore must be considered phonemic.

One of the clearest examples of a contrast between a simple |cc| cluster and the sequence $\mid$ cəc $\mid$ can be found in the verbal noun of $\mid$ ccc $\mid$ verbs.

| Imperative | Verbal noun |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dyáz | adəyaz | 'to sing' |
| àgzəv | agəzàv | 'to cut the bunches of dates from palms' |
| əlmád | aləmàd | 'to learn' |
| mžə́r | aməžàr | 'to reap, mow' |
| àndəl | anədàl | 'to be covered' |
| ənság | anəsàg | 'to whistle' |
| ənṭár | anəțàr | 'to let go' |
| qláz | aqəlàz | 'to lie' |
| ršək | arəšàk | 'to comb' |
| ərwə́k | arəwàk | 'to knead' |
| àrwəl | arəwàl | 'to flee' |
| srə́f | asəràf | 'to weave (palm leaves)' |
| syə́f | asəyàf | 'to bathe' |
| šfəṭ | ašəfàṭ | 'to clean' |
| tkə́r | atəkàr | 'to fill up' |
| ṭəs | aṭəràs | 'to braid' |
| ẓmək | aẓəmàk | 'to sew' |

The contrast between $|\mathrm{cc}|$ in an open syllable and $\mid$ cac $\mid$ can also be seen in other environments.

| àdrəš | 'to decrease (intrans.)' | dərùš | 'to be few, little' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| flalǐs | 'inflorescence' | təfəlǔšt | 'large spoon for cooking' |
| təfšəš | 'lightness' | fəšǔš | 'to be light, agile' |
| yəlyə́m | 'he refused' | alàyəm | 'camel' |
| aməzùn | 'pin or hinge' | tamzàzza | 'bee' |
| ərgìg | 'to shake' | arəgàz | 'person' |
| ṣḅ̀h | 'tomorrow' | ṣàbət | 'yesterday' |
| ažəvú | 'hair' | ižvìn | 'palm fibres' |

Schwas may also be placed in open syllables through morphological suffixation. For example the verb àker, ùker 'to steal' in the pf. 3pl.m. adds the suffix -an to form
uk $\mathrm{z} r a n$. No resyllabification of the schwa in the open syllable takes places, and the a that is found in this open syllable is accented.

The schwas that are found in open syllables in the cases discussed above cannot be explained as a result of epenthesis, and are phonemic. This does not mean that the position of the schwa is completely unpredictable. There are several instances where we do find resyllabification of an (apparently) epenthetic schwa before the last consonant of the word. There also appears to be a phonetic rule that determines the position of schwa at the beginning of a word. The next two sections discuss these phenomena seperately.

### 2.2.5.1 Epenthetic schwa

There are indications that some of the schwas are (at least, historically) epenthetic in nature. This can be seen either from their absence and ensuing resyllabification, or from variation in transcriptions.

As will be discussed in more detail in section 4.3.3.2, some verbs of the type cc* have the shape $|\partial c c|$, while others have the shape $\mid$ acəc| (or $\mid$ әсәc|) in the imperative and future stems. The choice is governed by the the shape of the root. Whenever verbs with the shape $\mid$ әсәс $\mid$ are followed by a suffix that would open the final syllable of the stem, schwa is dropped, for example:

> imp. sg. avál, avál; fut. ısg. avlàx, 3sg.m. ayàval.

Interestingly, in spite of their apparent epenthetic nature, these schwas can take the lexical accent in the imperative, which is an indication that in the current stage of the language, they are completely phonemic.

Another case of is found in Arabic loanwords with the stem shape CVCC. There appears to be free variation between the presence of the epenthetic schwa between the last two consonants, and its absence. However, it is different from the schwa epenthesis formulated above, as suffixation of, for example, the possessive pronominal sufix, does not cause the schwa to be elided.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { <elbáhăr, älbáhr> ‘sea' < Ar. bahr 'id.' } \\
& \text { <elgedĕr> 'cooking pot' < LA gidr 'id.' } \\
& \text { <elháml, elhamèl-(énnes)> load, burden' < Ar. haml 'id.' } \\
& \text { <elhádăărä> 'vegetables' < Ar. xudra(t) 'id.' } \\
& \text { <l'áṣår> 'afternoon prayer'. < Ar. Caṣr 'id.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

This type of vowel epenthesis is not limited exclusively to CVCC nouns. It is also found in several instances in native Berber words and Arabic loanwords of different stem shapes. Notice that in these words, the epenthetic vowel is invisible to the accent,
and that accent falls on the antepenultimate syllable, which would otherwise be forbidden. The table below shows several examples of epenthetic vowels, in the phonemic analysis, the epenthetic vowels are given in brackets. This type of epenthetic schwas appear to be non-phonemic.

| Transcription | Phonemic analysis |
| :---: | :---: |
| <fárĕtek> | fàr $(a)$ tak 'to unstitch' |
| <āğĕv, āğf> | $a y(a) v$ 'milk' |
| <árba‘a> | àrb(a) ¢a 'four' |
| <séba‘a> | sàb(a) $¢ a \times$ 'seven' |
| <tésa`a> | tàs(o) Ya 'nine' |

### 2.2.5.2 Initial schwa

The prefixes $y$-, $t$ - and $n$-mark subject agreement on the verb. They all occur in two forms: $y z-/ i-, t z-/ \partial t-, n z / \partial n-$. The distribution of these forms is determined by phonetic conditioning. I will discuss the three prefixes individually.

The 3 sg.m. prefix $i-/ y z$ is the best attested agreement prefix. The $y z$ - allomorph occurs in a closed syllable, i.e. in front of a |cc| cluster or a long consonant $|\bar{c}|$, while the the $i$ - allomorph occurs in open syllables, i.e. in front of a $|\mathrm{cv}|$ or $|\mathrm{ca}|$ sequence.

```
yarfica 'he carried'
yafriha 'he was happy'
yakri' 'he returned'
yznyá 'he killed'
a-yàqlaz 'he will lie'
igá 'he did'
a-išúu'he will drink'
is\grave{lla 'he is hearing'}
ivàrga 'he dreamt'
```

There is a significant amount of exceptions to the conditioning suggested above.
The cc* verbs have a few anomalous forms in the future: $a$-yà $q a l, a-y \grave{s} \partial l, a-y$ àval. As discussed in section 2.2.5.1 above, and in more detail in section 4.3.3.2, the $a$ in the second syllable historically must have been an epenthetic vowel. Apparently, for the vocalisation of the PNG-prefixes this epenthetic vowel is irrelevant. This contrasts sharply with the status of the epenthetic vowel in the accentual system, where it is treated as a full vowel and can take lexical stress (for example, imp. sg. avál, avál).

The other group of verbs that form an exception to the rule are passive and imperfective verbs that have a stem prefix - $t$ t-. The passives that belong to this group are: pf. ittàny res. ittinya 'to be killed', pf. ittàrz res. itt-irza 'to be broken', res. ittižitta fut.
aittažat 'to be ground, be milled', pf. ittàmt res. itìmta (sic) fut. aittàmt 'to be buried', pf. ittawwàyal 'to be dumbfounded, amazed', pf. ittùwi, res. ittuwiya 'to forget'7. The imperfects with prefix -tt- are: ittz̀tta 'to eat', ittarràš 'to descend'; other imperfects regularly have the short consonant prefix -t-.

Paradisi almost consistently transcribes the passive prefix with long - $t t$-, so we must conclude that the $i$ - prefix found here is correct and that it is an exception to the rule. The imperfective prefix is usually written with the short prefix $-t$-, we find only a few cases with long prefix -tt-. Perhaps these must be considered transcriptions errors.

The passive itzawiṭa 'to be thrown on the ground' and the imperfective itqqima 'to remain, stay, sit' have the prefix $i$-, where $y z$ - is expected. The prefixes in both cases are $-t$ - instead of -tt-.

There are a number of verbs that show variation between yz- and $i$-. Verbs that have variation where yz- is expected are yànni/inni 'to be (in a place)', res. immùta/yzmmùta 'to die', pf. immaktá res. yammaktàya 'to remember', ifk-(ísin)/yafk-(is) 'to give', inšàt$(t) / y a n s ̌ a ̀ t-(t)$ 'to ask', yaggàda/iggàda 'to bring', <itùar/yətuàr> 'to be opened; to untie'.

Verbs that have variation where $i$ - is expected are pf. izik fut. a-yazik to become well, recover, heal (intrans.)', ixatṭàm/yaxátṭam ${ }^{8}$ 'to drop by someone, visit, to meet with.

Finally, there are a few verbs that show no variation that have an unexpected form. Verbs that have ya- that are expected to have $i$ - are yazaš 'to love', yanàddal 'to be covered', yabalbiša 'to form a bulb', yaxammám 'to think, ponder', ya؟ว́dd 'to go'. Verbs that have $i$ - that are expected to have yz- are issùdda 'to be enough', izzila 'to run', iššan 'to know'.

A group of verbs that have the shape $c \bar{c} c$ often have a variant $\bar{c} \bar{c} \bar{c}$; this length variation is discussed in section 2.1.2. Verbs of this type, often have an unexpected form of the 3sg.m. prefix. For example, we find both ikkàmmal and yakkàmmal 'to finish'.

The 1 pl. prefix $n-/ n z$ - is far less commonly attested. The distribution is less clear in this form. Below are the six verbs that are found with a 1 pl. prefix.

```
nči(ti)ya 'we have eaten (it)'
nәyàlli 'we want'
nəšummi(ti)ya 'we have cooked (it)'
nni 'we are'
a=nnə{\partial̀dd 'we will go'
a=nmḥàsab 'we will be responsible'
```

Notice that the prefix $n-/ n z$ - is assimilated completely in front of the $n n$ of the verb

[^5]anni 'to be'. Further conditioning can not be found; na- is found in front of $|\mathrm{cv}|$ sequences, and $n$ - is found in front of $|\mathrm{cv}|,|\mathrm{ccv}|$ and $|\mathrm{v}|$ sequences.

The prefix $t-/ t z$ - is used in several PNG-markers. First of all it is used on its own as the 3 sg.f. marker. In combination with a suffix $-t$ it marks the 2 sg. In combination with -im it marks the 2pl.m. and in combination with -met, it marks the 2pl.f.

The $t-/ t z$ - allomorphs are more clearly distributed than those of the prefix $n-/ n \partial-$.
In front of the sequences $|\mathrm{cv}|$ and $|\mathrm{v}|$, we find the allomorph $t$-, while in front of the sequences $|\mathrm{ccv}|$ and $|\overline{\mathrm{c} v}|$ we find the allomorph $t$--, cf. taxzár 'she saw', atn-is ‘she said (to him)', tiva 'she fell', t̀̀kkar 'she stood up'.

The $t$ - allomorph is voiced to $d$-before voiced consonants: dgulit 'you saw', $d$ žižit 'you sold'.

The prefix $t$ - is lengthened to $t t z$ - in the future, $t$ - is also lengthened in the future if it is found in front of a vowel, cf. attàm 'it (f.) will be cooked', attiraw 'she will give birth', attaqqimam 'you (m.pl.) will give birth'. $t$ - is not lengthened in preconsonantal position: adgát 'you will do'.

The prefix is dropped completely in front of imperfectives that have the prefix $t$-: tattá (< "t-tzttá) 'she is eating', taggit 'you are doing', tàraw 'she is giving birth'.

There are only a few exceptions to the rules formulated above. Three verbs have a prefix ta- while one would expect $t$-: taqàllazt 'you are lying', ta Saddit 'you went', tałànni 'it (f.) hurts'.

One verb has the prefix $t$ - while one would expect $t$-: $t$ knita 'you are beautiful'.
Two verbs have both the prefix $t$ - and $t z$ - attested, while one would expect the form $t$-: tyallit, tayallit 'you want', tnad-dik-ká 'you did not say to me', tanad-dik 'you said to me'.

One imperfective with an initial $t$ - retains the $t$ - prefix: ttákart 'you are stealing'.
While there are several exceptions to the rules, the distribution of the allomorphs $y z-/ i$ - and $t z-/ t$ - are largely predictable. The predictable nature of the $a$ in these forms, implies that it is automatically inserted to break up cluster, and is therefore not phonemic.

### 2.3 Assimilations

Affixation of PNG-marking and object clitics may cause consonants to come in contact. We find assimilation of voice of two subsequent consonants, where the voice of the second consonant is always dominant.

```
\(\gamma x>x x(>x)\)
    nžəう-x \(\quad>\) nžəxx [P: attingere, tirare]
    \(d t>t\)
    d-tànnəs \(\quad>\) t-tànnəs [PT:V]
\(t g>d g\)
t-gì-t-a \(\quad>\) dgìta [PT:II]
```

When an emphatic consonant comes in contact with a non－emphatic consonant， emphasis spreads to the other consonant．

```
t> >t
yəmḥ̀̀t!-tət > yəmḥ⿳亠㐅t-ṭət [PT:XV]
```

The collision of the pharyngeal fricative $\varsigma$ with the 1sg．fricative $x$ causes an incom－ plete assimilation of both consonants．The $\varsigma$ undergoes voice assimilation according to the normal assimilation rule，while the $x$ assimilates to the point of articulation of the $\varsigma$ ，resulting in a sequence $h \underset{h}{ }$ ．

| $\uparrow x>h h(>h)$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| ərwìf－x－a | $>$ ərwìhḥa［PT：X］ |

There is one example where the consonant $n$ is completely assimilated to a follow－ ing $r$ ．

```
\(n r>r r\)
ən-ṛàbbi \(>\) ər-ṛàbbi [PT:VI]
```

The 3sg．m．prefix $y$－assimilates completely when a vowel $i$ follows it．

```
#y-i>#i-
y-iša }\quad>\mathrm{ iša
y-irìd=a }>\mathrm{ irìd=a
```


## 2．4 Syllable structure

With the phonemic quality of the schwa established，we can now determine which syllable structures are available in Awjila．Not all syllable structures are permitted in every position．We must distinguish between initial，medial and final positions．The table below summarizes the different permitted syllable structures．$|\mathrm{c}|$ stands for any
consonant, $|\mathrm{v}|$ stands for any long vowel $(a, i, u, e, o)$ and $|ə|$ stands for the short vowel ә. Long consonants , marked with $|\bar{c}|$, are heterosyllabic, and can be both the coda of one syllable and the onset of the next.

| Initial | Medial | Final |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| әc |  |  |
| vc |  |  |
| $\mathrm{ccə}$ |  |  |
| ccv |  |  |
| $\mathrm{cə}$ | $\mathrm{cə}$ |  |
| cv | cv | cv |
| $\mathrm{c} \mathrm{\partial c}$ | $\mathrm{c} \mathrm{\partial c}$ | $\mathrm{cəc}$ |
| cvc | cvc | cvc |
|  |  | $\mathrm{c} \mathrm{\partial cc}$ |
|  |  | cvcc |

For the position of the accent (discussed in Section 2.5), syllable weight is important. Syllables that end in $\mid$-vc $|,|-\partial c c|$ and $|$-vcc| are all considered heavy. All other syllables are considered light.

Initial |əc| often varies with $|c|$ in Paradisi's transcriptions.
When in morphology a $|\mathrm{cv}|$ syllable clashes with a clitic that starts with a vowel $a$, $i, u$, the vowel of the clitic is retained. When the clitic starts with $a$, the vowel of the suffix is elided.

### 2.5 Accent

Awjila has distinct phonemic accent which has never received an in-depth study, despite being remarked before (e.g. Lux 2011: 257). This chapter aims to clear up the accentual system of Awjila.

Accent spans over multiple elements, which is called an accent unit. Nouns, accompanying possessive markers and deictic markers all form a single accent unit. Verbs, with their PNG-marking, object markers and peripheral tense markers also form a single accent unit. The accent unit is discussed in more detail in section 1.3.1

There are two types of Awjila accent:

## 1. Default accent

2. Phonological accent

Henceforth, default accent will be marked with v̀ (grave accent), while phonological accent will be marked with v́ (acute accent).

### 2.5.1 Default accent

Default accent applies to all accent units in the language. Default accent falls on the final syllable when the accent unit ends in a heavy syllable $\mid$-vc(c)\#| or |-әcc\#|, e.g. aqasțim 'antimony', tamirt 'beard', tarakàft 'caravan' and tisànt 'salt'; otherwise it is on the penultimate syllable, e.g. ilas 'tongue', tfilli 'house'.

Suffixation of plural suffixes, possessive clitics and demonstrative clitics can therefore lead to the movement of accent, e.g.

| <tĕğarît> | tazarit | Singular |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| <tĕğarīwîn> | tazari-wìn | Plural |
| <tĕġarīwīn-îyäk> | tazari-win=ìyak | Plural with pl. demonstrative |

### 2.5.2 Phonological accent

A small amount of words do not follow the rule defined above. The place of the accent is still on one of the final two syllables, but not on the syllable that is predicted by the rule above. Within the nominal system, this only concerns a small group of nouns. Within the verbal system, phonological accent is used morphologically for distinguishing the perfective from the sequential perfective (see sections 10.5.2 and 10.5.3).

A noun with a phonological accent loses the phonological accent and gets default accent when a plural suffix, deictic clitic or posessive clitic is added to the word.

Verbs with a phonological accent lose it when PNG-marking follows the verbs, or if a object clitic follows the verb.

The following two sections discuss the nominal phonological accent and verbal phonological accent separately.

### 2.5.2.1 Nominal phonological accent

Within the nominal system there are several words that have phonological accent. Somewhat unexpectedly, in a number of cases Paradisi's texts give forms with default accentuation, while the word list has a phonological accent. For example: <těkábęrt> 'shirt' is found in Text XIII as <těkabę́rt>, <arennú> 'bidding, auction' is found in Text VIII as <arénnu>. Other nouns are found in the texts with the phonological accent as presented in Paradisi's word list, e.g. <ušû>, the verbal noun of 'to come' is found as such in text XV.

An important group of nouns with have phonological stress are verbal nouns of the $\mathrm{c}^{*}$, vc* ${ }^{*}$ and $\overline{\mathrm{c}}^{*}$ type (see sections $\left.4.3 \cdot 3 \cdot 9,4.3 \cdot 3 \cdot 12, ~ 4.3 \cdot 3 \cdot 6\right) .{ }^{9}$

[^6]| agú | 'doing' | $\mathrm{c}^{*}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aččú | 'food, meal, plate' | $\bar{c}^{*}$ |
| วssú | 'spreading (a mat)' | $\overline{\mathrm{c}}^{*}$ |
| aggú | 'bringing' | $\overline{\mathrm{c}}^{*}$ |
| ažžú | 'planting' | $\bar{c}^{*}$ |
| ufú | 'finding' | $\mathrm{vc}^{*}$ |
| uyú | 'taking' | $\mathrm{vc}^{*}$ |
| us̆ú | 'coming' | $\mathrm{v}^{*}$ |

Other nouns with phonological accent on the final syllable are tzžár 'moon', tzvál 'sheep ${ }^{10}$, avú 'smoke', atzlá linseed', izí n agmàr 'horse fly'.

There are only two examples with lexical stress on the penultimate syllable: tf'yit 'animal excrement' and tqárṭay 'paper'.

### 2.5.2.2 Verbal phonological accent

Within verbal morphology, phonological accent plays an important role, as the perfective receives phonological accent on the final syllable in a large number of verb classes.

The perfective is differentiated from the sequential perfective by this final phonological accent. This situation is, unfortunately, rendered opaque by the fact that Paradisi seems to confuse the two forms in his word list, giving perfective for one verb and sequential perfective for another. ${ }^{1}$

The accent of these verbal nouns in Awjila, behaves as if the consonant was still there. A similar situation is found in Tuareg (Kossmann 2011: 50).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { agú } & \text { *agú? } \\
\text { วččúu } & \text { *วččú? } \\
\text { วssú } & \text { *assú? } \\
\text { aggú } & \text { *aggú? } \\
\text { ažžú } & \text { *วžǔú? } \\
\text { ufú } & \text { "ufú? } \\
\text { uyú } & \text { "uyú? } \\
\text { ušú } & \text { "ušú? }
\end{array}
$$

Besides the verbal noun there seems to be one other noun with an irregular accent that reflects an old PB *?, izí n agmár 'horse fly (litt. fly of horse)' cf. Zng. ipzzi(?) 'fly'. For further literature on the development of the PB *? v. Taine-Cheikh (2004) and Kossmann (2001), Prasse (2011).
${ }^{10}$ These two words both seem to have had a final *e or *i in Proto-Berber cf. To. tehăle 'sheep' and Ghd. tazíri 'full moon'. This loss of the final syllable is probably the background to the irregular accent.
${ }^{1}$ This confusion is difficult to understand. It is not easy to elicit sequential forms. Without further information about Paradisi's methods of elicitation, we cannot say more about the unusually high amount of sequential perfectives in the word list.

The difference is much clearer once one turns to the texts, however (see sections 10.5.2, 10.5.3)

As an example, one may take the verb $u f$ 'to find', which is well-attested in the texts and gives us some insight into the distribution of the accent in the verbal system.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { <yufâ> } & \text { yufá } & \text { Perfective, 3sg.m. [PT:VII] } \\
\text { <tûfa> } & \text { tüfa } & \text { Sequential perfective, 3sg.f. [PT:XV] } \\
\text { <yufiten> } & \text { yufítən } & \text { Perfective, 3sg.m. with 3pl.m. Direct Object [PT:II] }
\end{array}
$$

## 2.5-3 Reliability of Paradi's accent transcriptions

In this study, we assume that the accent notations of Paradisi are reliable. While there is an obvious rule that governs the placement of accent, we find several exceptions. To confirm that these exceptions are to be considered meaningful, we must get a sense of the quality of Paradisi's transcriptions in terms of accent. To do so, there are two different approaches. First we compare Paradisi's transcriptions with others, of betterknown Berber languages, and see to what extent they match up with other data.

Second we will compare Paradisi's transcriptions to those by Beguinot. While Beguinot has not written much on Awjila, we have about 50 words that also occur in Paradisi's material. The transcription system of Beguinot and Paradisi are similar, therefore it allows us to closely examine the two transcriptions, and see whether they correspond in the ways that we would expect.

### 2.5.3.1 Paradisi's accent transcriptions of Zuara Berber

We only have very few publications by Paradisi with transcribed texts in other Berber languages. There is one word list with texts on the language of El-Foqaha (Paradisi 1963a), for which it constitutes the only source. Therefore this publication does not allow us to check the accuracy of Paradisi's transcriptions. There is one publication by Paradisi which does discuss a better-known variety, Paradisi (1964), which describes a Zuara rite known as awússu.

Zuara Berber, spoken in a fishing port in western Libya, has been described and documented by Terence Frederick Mitchell, who collected an autobiography entitled Ferhat (Mitchell 2007). This text was republished, along with a grammatical introduction in Mitchell (2009). These publications provide us with a large corpus to check Paradisi's transcriptions. In addition, I transcribed Paradisi's text (without accents), and asked a native speaker of Zuara Berber (Fathi N Khalifa) to read it out.

The original text in Paradisi (1964) is as follows.
Télt iyyâm m uwússu āītémm dīs ělmizân $g$ uženná. Īḍ amezwâr ayẹffóg îtrī, tânī ayeffớg tânī n ītrân, ěttâlęt ayeffǫg ttâlęt n ītrân. Ba‘dên elmîzān.
Sébă‘a u ḩamsîn g unébdū ayẹffóg g lmīzân.

Télt iyyâm m uwéssu kmélęn At Willûl áflęn l-ílel a úmmęn u ba‘dên aróūḥan $s$ ílel. Sáa árbăa bád úzgěn $n$ ệḍ áflęn l-ílel, qáběl yeqqâs $n$ tfuît, aúmmęn. Lbáḍ mmídden ggáien g ilog̀mân dĭ yîsān d iǧyâl l-ílel. Kull l'âílet at'úmm wáḥdes af imānís. Argâz ayátef l-ílel gĕ tḥazammît nag̀ g těkmîst, tamětụ̣̂̂t atátef l-ílel gĕ tkěmîst. Aqqîmęn g ílel saáát nnag̉ sacát d úzgen. Lbáḍ n mídden āîfât ĕlmûžet sébắa marrât. Kull íğǧen itkéttaḥ g áman af tânī. U ba'dên arốūḥan ěl-tiddârt. Arékkebęn úččū d údi hasṣ̣ y uwéssu. Atrekkébed amân u ba'dên astắmbĕred tísent u ba‘dên ayáaizeg u
 $u$ ba‘dên attấmběred $g$ ěźźệwā ěn qăšqûš u ba‘dên atenáǵled afellâs údi. Aččęn úččū bád llǐ aróūḥan s silel, tálǧī qåbl uzgén mm ass. Azgén mm ass adîgęn améklī, késksū nnåg d ĕlmakrû̀nt; Tameddît adîgęn améssī.
'Arâbęn ennân g télt iyyâm m uwéssu dīs ělğálṭt, wa lâkęn tikerkâs laínna kull l'á̉llet ta cúmmu wáḥdes. Netnîn qálldęn ělêadet n imęzwâręn. At Willûl fâlęn $l$-ílel $g$ uwússu laínna ělmufîttis $g$ ĕlǧésem.

The transcription that I sent Mr. N Khalifa was adapted to agree with general transcription practices of Berber, which allowed him to understand it and read it quite fluently. Nevertheless, reading aloud a text is highly artificial-especially in a Berber context-and one can imagine that different realizations of the text could have occurred if it had been recorded from spontenous speech.

The transcription below is my rendering of the recording, which I have checked together with Maarten Kossmann. ${ }^{12}$ Words in italics represent false starts and similar phenomena, and underlined words indicate phonetic and grammatical deviations from the original text.

Tált iyyám n̄ uwàssu áytəmm dis əlmizán g užónna. Íḍ aməzwár ayáffəy ítri, táni ayáffəy táni $n$ itrán, əttálət ayáffə૪ ttálət n itrán. Bafdín əlmizán. Səbfa u xamsín g unábdu ayáffəə əlmizán.
Tált iyyám n̄ uwássu kmálən At Wíllul áfləl 1 íləl a Cúmmən da... u ba؟dín arə́wwḥən s íləl. Sa§(a) árbCa báfd ázgən n ị́ áfləl l íləl, qábl yáqqas n tófəwt, a̛úmmən. Lbáfọ n nmíddən əggáyən g iləyṃán d yisán diyyál [x] íləl. Kúll lCáylət aţúmm wóḥḥdəs af imanís. Árgaz ayátəf g íləl g tḥazamít nəy əg tkmíst, taməț̣út atátəf líləl əg tkmíst. Aqqímən g íləl ssáfət nnəy ssáfət d wázgən. Lbáfḍ n míddən ayátəf əlmúžət... áyfat əlmúžət sábৎa mərrạ́t. Kull ídžən ikáttəḥ g áman af ttáni. U bądín aráwwḥ̂n 1 tíddart. Arákkbən útšu d údi xaṣ y uwàssu. Atrákkbəd áman u ba£dín astámbåd

[^7] lli ayḍáb, atḥárrkəd s uýándža u ba@dín attámbåd g ədzíwa n qášquš u bądín asən- atnáyləd fall fall áfəllas údi. Átšən útšu bá\&d lli arówwḥən s íləl, taľ̌í qabl iq-ázgən mm áss. Ázgən mm áss adígən amákli, kỏsksu nnəy d əlmakarúnat; taməddít adígən amássi.
§Aṛábən nnán g tálət yúm $m m$...nn... n uwว̀ssu dis əlyólṭət, walákin tíkərkas lảínna kull lYáylət ţúmm wáḥdəs. Nətnín qálldən ľádət n iməzwárən. At Wíllul fáləl l íləl g uwássu la̛ínna əlfáyttis g əldžísəm.

Mr. N Khalifa's speech differs somewhat from what Paradisi recorded. The genitive particle $n$ does not become $m$ before $u$ like it does in Paradisi's text, although it does change to $m$ in front of $w$. Mr. N Khalifa consistently assimilates the final $n$ of the 3pl.m. ending to a following $l$, an assimilation not recorded by Paradisi.

Some lexical items are slightly different, and Mr. N Khalifa consistently has the État Libre ázgən after bą́d and qábl where Paradisi consistently has the État d'Annexion úzgən.

With these differences adressed, we can now look at differences in accent. The vast majority of the words have the same accent in my notations, but several differ. The most commonly attested incorrect accents are found with words that end in a |cvc| syllable. Paradisi usually places the accent on this final heavy syllable, also where my data and Mitchell's data have another accent.
áytzmm corresponds to Paradisi's āūtémm, this difference is not easily explained. According to Mitchell (2009:20) the verb tamm/tzmma/ttzmma belongs to conjugation $8,{ }^{13}$ which has accentuation agreeing with my recording:

$$
\text { ybádd — yttbádda — áybədd (dependent yábədd) — ábədd }{ }^{14}
$$

ayáffz corresponds to Paradisi's ayeff ${ }^{\prime} \dot{g}$ which is consistently written with a final accent four times. According to Mitchell (2009: 20) this verb belongs to conjugation 7 , which has accentuation agreeing with my recording:
yəllóm — yttálləm — (a)yálləm — álləm
yáqqas corresponds to Paradisi's yaqqâs. My recording disagrees with what Mitchell (2009: 232) gives: dyaqqás, which agrees with that of Paradisi.
áyfat corresponds to Paradisi's ā̈fât, this is a conjugation 9 verb in Mitchell (2009:21), which agrees in accentuation with my recording:

[^8]yyáb — yttáyab — áyyab (dependent yáyab) — áyab

Interestingly, ay dáb corresponds to Paradisi's āīḍâb, where my accent corresponds to that of Paradisi. Because this is also a conjugation 9 verb, both Paradisi and I disagree with Mitchell.
atràkkabad corresponds to Paradisi's atrekkébed. My recording agrees with Mitchell's conjugation 2. The aor. 3pl.m. arékkebęn attested in Paradisi's text also has the correct accent:

Nominal forms also occasionally differ in accent from what I have recorded, and from what is found in Mitchell's texts.
užánna corresponds to Paradisi's uženná, this final accent is certainly not present in my recordings, and disagrees with Mitchell's material: alwžánna (Mitchell 2009: 232)
almizán occurs twice in Paradisi's text: elmîzān and lmīzân. Once it corresponds with my recording, the other time it does not.

The tribal name At Willul occurs twice in the text, both times Paradisi transcribed it as At Willûl, which disagrees with my data.
yisán corresponds to Paradisi's yîsān, the accent in my recordings disagrees with Paradisi's transcription.

Árgaz corresponds to Paradisi's Argâz. Mitchell (2009:282) has dárgaz which agrees with my recordings.
ssáโat corresponds to Paradisi's saád twice, both times with the accent on the final syllable. My transcription corresponds to gassá̧at in Mitchell (2009: 252).
tiddart corresponds to Paradisi's tiddârt. The accent in my transcription has the same position as Mitchell (2009: 256): Itiddart.
áman occurs twice in the recording, once corresponding to amân and once corresponding to áman in Paradisi' transcription.
ułándža corresponds to Paradisi's ůg்ånğâa. My recordings disagree with Paradisi's transcription.
qášquš corresponds to Paradisi's qăšqûš. Once again my recordings disagree with Paradisi's transcription.
talží corresponds to Paradisi's tálǧĭ. My recordings disagree with Paradisis transcriptions, but Mitchell (2009) has this word many times as tálži, which thus agrees with Paradisi. Mitchell records a few instances where both tálži and talží appear to be possible (Mitchell 2009: 260).

Both my transcription tikrrkas and Paradisi's tikerkâs disagree with Mitchell, who has this word several times as tikárkas (Mitchell 2009: 228).

Twice we find that Paradisi writes uzgén and azgén where I have recorded ázgən. In two other instances in the text, Paradisi has initial accent on this word, transcribed
as úzgĕn, úzgen. Both in the État Libre and État d'Annexion, Mitchell always has this word with initial accent (Mitchell 2009: 216, 248).

My áfallas disagrees with the corresponding afellâs, but it occurs right after a false start of this word, after which Mr. N Khalifa corrects himself. This may have affected the position of the stress. This construction is not attested in Mitchell's material.

As can be seen from the discussion above, there are many examples where Paradisi correctly heard the accent, but also many words where he did not. The most commonly returning incorrect accentuation in Paradisi can be narrowed down to a single type: he often writes an accent on word-final CVC syllables. 10 out of 25 differences in accent between Paradisi's and my transcriptions are cases where Paradisi recorded the accent on the final CVC syllable, where I recorded it on another syllable.

This has several implications for the interpretation of the Awjila material. As has been discussed in section 2.5.1, in Paradisi's transcription of Awjila the accent always falls on the final heavy syllable (either cvc(c), or cəcc).

This rule must therefore be treated with some care, as Paradisi seems to apply the same rule to Zuara Berber, where it certainly does not apply. Paradisi's accent notations in cases where no final heavy syllable is available, seem to be more reliable.

### 2.5.3.2 Paradisi's accent compared to Beguinot's

Beguinot ( $1921 ; 1924 ; 1925$ ) recorded several examples of Awjila Berber words, many of which are also attested in Paradisi's material. By comparing the material of these two sources, whose transcriptional methods are very similar, we can get a sense just how accurate Paradisi's transcriptions are.

There are 49 lexical items that Beguinot has in common with Paradisi, they are included in Appendix B. Nine of these lack accentuation in one of the sources. Most of these nine words are monosyllabic words.

35 lexical items have the accent in the same position in Beguinot and Paradisi. Even words that have the accent in an irregular position, are found both in Paradisi and Beguinot, cf. Beguinot <tisî> and Paradisi <tīî̀> 'egg', Beguinot <tevél, tvel> and Paradisi <tevél> 'sheep', Beguinot <yurév> and Paradisi <yurév> 'he wrote'. Some of these words are monosyllabic, which means that the accent, of course, could not have been on another syllable in one of the two sources. There are two monosyllabic nouns, three if you count <āğĕv, āg̈f, âğf> 'milk'.

While the majority of the lexical items have the same accent, there are three items that differ in accent between Beguinot and Paradisi, cf. Beguinot's <gîdeven> and Paradisi's <gīdéven> 'wolves, jackals', Beguinot's <tnebrét> and Paradisi's <tenébret> 'needle', Beguinot's <áğareš> and Paradisi's <ağăréš> 'to slaughter'.

There is one words where Beguinot lists two accentual variants, where Paradisi has one form, that agrees with one of the two variants: Beguinot <agîdev, egīdév> Paradisi <agîdev> 'wolf, jackal'.

Finally, there is a form where Beguinot only has one variant, while Paradisi has two: Beguinot <ežefû, eževû, eǧevû> Paradisi <aževû, ažévū> 'hair'.

While Paradisi's transcriptions of Zuara may raise the suspicion that Paradisi was not particularly strong at hearing the place of the accent, the material of Awjila appears to be consistent with what Beguinot has. Paradisi obviously had a much deeper knowledge of Awjila than he did of Zuara, and his transcriptions may therefore be much more reliable.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The close semantic link between these two words suggests that the distinction may have come from a transcription error. Paradisi lists these words under the same lemma, with distinct transcription and meaning. This indicates that Paradisi perceived these two words as contrastive.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ There exists a discussion on whether long consonants are mono-phonemic tense consonants or bi-phonemic geminates (Galand 1997). As this grammar aims to be description of the language, and not a discussion on the theoretical analysis, the neutral term "long" consonant has been used.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ For a general discussion on vowels and their phonemic status in Berber languages in general, see (Galand 2010: 73ff.).

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ This word is also found with penultimate accent: <ažévū>

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ An argument that might speak against the hypothesis of a transitional glide, is the reconstruction of this word in Proto-Berber as *ezyed (Kossmann 1999: 229-232). The diphthong found in Paradisi may somehow be related to the original sequence *ye.

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ Synchronically, the -tt- prefix of ittùwi appears to be part of the stem, but historically it probably was a passive prefix.
    ${ }^{8}$ One would expect variation in length on the onset of the stem, which may be the cause of the prefix variation (see section 2.1.2)

[^6]:    ${ }^{9}$ This distribution is of particular interest from a historical point of view. The verbs of these types have all lost the final Proto-Berber consonant *? which can still be found in Zenaga (Cohen \& TaineCheikh 2000, Taine-Cheikh 2008; 2010).

[^7]:    ${ }^{12}$ It should be stressed that neither of us has much experience with western Libyan varieties. Therefore our transcription may present similar problems as Paradisi's. This puts considerable weight on the comparison with Mitchell's material.

[^8]:    ${ }^{13}$ I refer here to the numbers given to the different verb classes by Mitchell (2009). They are different from the conventions in the present book.
    ${ }^{14}$ The overview of the verbs provided by Mitchell follow the order: perfective-imperfective-aoristimperative.

