

Topics in the syntax of Sarikoli

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Pronouns and demonstratives

This chapter describes two types of deictic shifters: pronouns, whose reference shifts when the roles of speech act participants change, and demonstratives, whose reference shifts when spatial locations change (Dixon 2010a:114). Both free pronouns and nominal demonstratives may occur in all clausal functions.

Personal pronouns (§3.1), which come in first and second persons, refer to participants in a speech act. Bound pronouns (§3.2) in the form of enclitics indicate the subject argument of the clause.

Demonstratives have deictic reference to non-speech act participants, including persons or objects in the vicinity of the speech act or those that are out of sight. They serve a deictic function, distinguishing their referents according to their relative distance from the speaker, as well as an anaphoric or cataphoric function, substituting for a full NP in order to avoid repetition of it. Nominal demonstratives (§3.3) occur in an NP; they may make up a complete NP as an unmodified head of the NP, or serve as a determiner to a common noun functioning as the NP head. Their referents may be animate or inanimate, human or non-human. Anaphora and cataphora are also indicated by special demonstrative clitics (§3.4). Local demonstratives (§3.5) have deictic reference to a place; they function as locational adverbs to a clause. Manner demonstratives (§3.6) have deictic reference to a certain manner of performing an action, and function as manner adverbs to a clause.

Finally, reflexive pronouns (§3.7) and reciprocal pronouns (§3.8) are used when the participants of an activity are not all distinct from one another.

3.1 Personal pronouns

Free personal pronouns are a small closed class of grammatical words which show person, number, and case distinctions. They can be head of an NP with any clausal function. They operate on a 1/2 person system and a singular/plural number system. Table 3.1 below shows the forms of Sarikoli

pronouns. Case is neutralized in the first and second person plural forms, as they are mac and tamac, respectively, for both nominative and non-nominative forms.

Table 3.1 Personal pronouns

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1.NOM	waz	таҫ
1.NNOM	тш	
2.NOM	təw	tamaç
2.NNOM	ta	

Sarikoli also has a system of bound pronouns (see §3.2) in the form of clitics which agree with the person and number of the subject, and also marks aspect in combination with verb stems; the overt forms of these bound pronouns are obligatory in all finite clause types except the *vid* copula clause in the imperfective aspect. Because these bound pronouns occur in almost every finite clause and provide information about the subject, free pronouns are used more sparingly; they are generally employed for showing contrast or emphasis, or as the O or copula complement argument, which are not represented by bound pronouns.

As with other nouns, if pronouns occur in the nominative case, they take the subject-verb agreement clitics, as in (3.1) - (3.4). Pronouns in the accusative function always take the accusative marker a=, since pronouns are always definite, as in (3.1) & (3.2).

- (3.1) waz a=ta tçardz wejn=am 1SG.NOM ACC=2SG.NNOM good see.IPFV=1SG.IPFV 'I love you.'
- (3.2) tamac = af a = mu qiw na tcowg 2PL.NOM = 2PL.PFV ACC = 1SG.NNOM call NEG do.PFV 'You(pl) did not invite me.'
- (3.3) təw=at dzafu wand, çitç wi bor
 2SG.NOM=2SG.PFV toil see.PFV now 3SG.NNOM.DIST fruit

 wejn
 see.PFV

'You have seen toil; now see its fruit.'

(3.4) *pugan jəwl=ik ðud, maç tar pond* tomorrow dawn=DUR fall.PFV 1PL.NOM LOC road

```
naxtedz = an
```

go.up.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV

'When the dawn breaks tomorrow, we will go out on the road (i.e. start our journey).'

Although free personal pronouns and nominal demonstratives function as the head of NPs, they have more restricted possibilities for syntactic modification than common nouns. The ungrammatical examples (3.5) - (3.9) demonstrate that pronouns and demonstratives cannot take any of the modifiers that a common noun in NP head function can, which were introduced in §2.3.1. The only exception is adjectivized phrases, which may sometimes directly modify pronouns, as in (3.10).

- (3.5) *pindz (nafar) maç = an jot five CL 1PL.NOM = 1PL.PFV come.PFV 'Five we came.' (numeral/classifier)
- (3.6) *pur tamaç = af tçɛd zuxtç
 many 2PL.NOM = 2PL.PFV house buy.PRF
 'Many you have bought houses. (Evidential/New information)'
 (quantifier)
- (3.7) *xuuçruj ju nur mas usul kaxt
 beautiful 3sg.nom today also dance do.3sg.ipfv
 'Beautiful she will dance today also.' (adjective)
- (3.8) *qatesin t coj bruxt c = end z wo $\delta = af$ kuutcin topping tea drink.PRF = REL 3PL.NOM = 3PL.PFV strong

suit

become.PFV

'They who drank the milk tea became strong.' (relative clause)

(3.9) *batço woð hara maθ skit ka=in child 3PL.NOM every day play do.IPFV=3PL.IPFV 'Children they play every day.' (modifier noun)

```
(3.10) mac maktab-endz wo\delta se\delta xojd adu 1PL.NNOM school-ADJ 3PL.NOM this.year read.INF finish ka=in do.IPFV=3PL.IPFV 'Our school's they will graduate this year.' (adjectivized phrase)
```

Pronouns may be elaborated in order to provide additional information on their referents. This elaboration occurs in the same NP as the pronoun, by apposing the pronoun with an NP. The elaborating NP is just a noun in (3.11), a numeral (with or without a classifier) in (3.12), an NP with a relative clause in (3.13), and an NP with a headless relative clause in (3.14).

- (3.11) $ma \varphi = \partial w rat \chi e j l$ $digar \ dz u j$ $na \ t \varepsilon dz = an$ 1PL.NOM woman-PL.NOM other place NEG go.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV 'We women do not go anywhere else.'
- (3.12) mac haroj (nafar) puiz qati tedz = an 1 PL.NOM three CL train COM go.IPFV = 1 PL.IPFV 'We three will go by train.'
- (3.13) nur mac tej na tc>wydz = endz today 1PL.NOM wedding NEG do.PRF = REL $batco-\chi ejl = an$ tup tamoq χuug child-PL.NOM = 1PL.PFV group food eat.PFV 'Today we unmarried kids ate a meal together.'
- (3.14) woð qatɛʁin tçoj bruxtç=ɛndz-χejl=af
 3PL.NOM.DIST topping tea drink.PRF=REL-PL.NOM=3PL.PFV

 kutçin sut
 strong become.PFV

 'They who drank the milk tea became strong.'

3.1.1 Possessive pronouns (determiner function)

The non-nominative personal pronouns and nominal demonstratives, when not marked with any function markers, function as the possessor within an NP. The non-nominative personal pronouns are used for first and second persons, and nominal demonstratives are used for third person. They function as determiners and precede their head noun, marking distinctions for person, number, and deixis. They are presented in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Possessive pronouns (determiner function)

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
1.NOM	тш		тає	
2.NNOM	ta		tamaç	
	PROXIMAL	DISTAL	PROXIMAL	DISTAL
3.NNOM	di	wi	dεf	wef

As with free personal pronouns, first- and second-person non-nominative pronouns in determiner function have only human referents.

> a=mu ixil pa dom tçəwg, ar ACC=1SG.NNOM often LOC back do.PFV LOC

boʁdza=ik jud garden=DUR take.PFV

'When I was little, my grandmother often used to put me on her back and take me to the garden.'

(3.16) di buland awudz qati maç kəwl tçun 3SG.NNOM.PROX high sound COM 1SG.NNOM ear deaf

suit

become.PFV

'Our ears have gone deaf with its loud noise.'

(3.17) ta gap = am χu tçi zord kandakuri 2SG.NNOM word = 1SG.PFV REFL.NNOM LOC heart engrave

tçəwg

do.PFV

'I engraved your words on my heart.'

```
(3.18) waxt naxtizd tsa tamaç xejz time go.up.3sg.IPFV COND 2PL.NNOM side

so = am
become.IPFV = 1sg.IPFV
'If I have time, I will come over to your(pl) place.'
```

When nominal demonstratives are used to indicate a third person possessor, they are marked for proximal or distal deixis and may be used as references to human as well as to non-human nouns. In the following examples, the possessive pronouns in (3.22) - (3.24) are ambiguous, as they may either refer to human beings or to objects.

- (3.19) waz=am wi çtu zord ub
 1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV 3SG.NNOM.DIST cold heart melted

 tçəwg
 do.PFV
 'I melted his cold heart.'
- (3.20) wef iw-ik batço kasal sut
 3PL.NNOM.DIST one-DIM child sick become.PFV
 'Their only child has gotten sick.'
- (3.21)

 citc def ato ano-ef=ir

 now 3PL.NNOM.PROX father mother-PL.NNOM=DAT

 lev=am

 say.IPFV=1sg.IPFV

 'Now I will tell these ones' parents.'
- (3.22) di $\chi u \omega b u j i$ $p u t u u u = t \varphi \varepsilon d$ z u x t 3 s G.NNOM.PROX fragrant-NMLZ all A C C = house get.PFV 'This one's fragrance filled the whole house.'
- (3.23) wef daruz-i naviç = am
 3PL.NNOM.DIST long-NMLZ write.IPFV = 1SG.IPFV
 'I will write down their length.'

```
(3.24) di num = at \chi uu ar ju\delta 3sG.NNOM.PROX name = 2sG.PFV REFL.NNOM LOC memory zuxt = o get.PFV = Q 'Have you committed this one's name into memory?'
```

3.2 Bound pronouns

Sarikoli has bound pronouns in the form of clitics, as shown in Table 3.3. The overt forms are obligatory in all finite clause types, including non-verbal sentences, with the exception of the *vid* copula clause in imperfective aspect (§8.4). In each clause, there is a single bound pronoun relating to the argument in subject function. Bound pronouns operate on a nominative/non-nominative system, showing agreement with the nominative (S, A, or copula subject) argument, which correlates with the nominative/non-nominative system of case marking on free pronouns and nouns. There are no bound pronouns indicating non-nominative or copula complement arguments.

The bound pronouns operate on a 1/2/3 person and singular/plural number system. There are two paradigms for bound pronouns; one for clauses in the imperfective aspect and the other for clauses in the perfective aspect. Aspect is not only shown by the form of these clitics, but in combination with the placement of the clitics and the type of verb stem. The imperfective aspect is formed with the imperfective verb stem plus the imperfective agreement clitics attached to the verb. The perfective aspect is formed with the perfective verb stem plus the perfective agreement clitics attached to another constituent in the clause which precedes the verb, except when the verb is the sole constituent in the clause, as in (3.27) & (3.28) and in the second clause in (3.29). The perfective agreement clitics must attach to the end of a phrase, most commonly the first phrase in a clause or the phrase that immediately precedes the verb, but it may attach to the end of any other phrase in the entire clause. The imperfective and perfective aspects each have a zeromarked clitic: in the imperfective aspect, a second person singular subject simply occurs with the imperfective verb stem with no agreement clitic, and in the perfective aspect, a third person singular subject occurs with the perfective verb stem with no agreement clitic. A third person singular subject in an imperfective clause occurs with what is more conveniently analyzed as a special verb stem to which the agreement clitic is fused, as it always has a final -t or -d. Cross-linguistically, person distinctions are often found to be neutralized in non-singular numbers (Dixon 2012:90); the person distinction is neutralized in the second and third person plural forms in perfective aspect, as they are both = af.

Table 3.3 Subject-verb agreement pronominal clitics

	SG.IPFV	PL.IPFV	SG.PFV	PL.PFV
1 2	= am = Ø	= an = it	= am = at	= an = af
3	(special stem: $-t/-d$)	=in	$= \emptyset$	=af

An utterance may consist of just the predicate and bound pronominal clitic. In the imperfective aspect, the imperfective clitic attaches to the verb, its regular host:

```
    (3.25) naviç = am
        write.IPFV = 1sG.IPFV
        'I will write.'
    (3.26) tços = it
        watch.IPFV = 2PL.IPFV
        'Watch(pl).'
```

If a perfective or perfect sentence consists of a single predicate, the perfective clitic attaches to the verb, as there is no preverbal element:

```
    (3.27) χug = am
eat.PFV = 1SG.PFV
'I ate.'
    (3.28) iθtς = af
come.PRF = 3PL.PFV
'They came. (Evidential/New information)'
```

When two clauses with the same subject are coordinated, the subject NP in the second clause is often omitted; however, a bound pronoun is never omitted, as shown in (3.29) & (3.30). The argument in subject function is always shown by bound pronouns, whether or not it is also shown by another NP.

3.3 Nominal demonstratives

Nominal demonstratives are a small closed class of grammatical words which shows number, case, and deixis distinctions. They function as NP heads and do not take modifiers, and distinguish between proximal and distal deixis. The distal forms are not only used for referring to people and objects that are far from the speaker, but also those that are out of sight. Table 3.4 below shows the current distribution of Sarikoli nominal demonstratives. These forms are also used as possessive pronouns (§3.1.1) and demonstrative determiners (§3.3.1) with minor differences. For the non-nominative forms of these nominal demonstratives, the paradigm may be segmented into person and number morphemes, as the plural forms are derived by simply attaching the non-nominative plural suffix -ɛf to the singular forms.

Table 3.4 Nominal demonstratives

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
3.NOM 3.NNOM	PROXIMAL (jam)/jad (mi)/di	DISTAL ju wi	PROXIMAL doð dεf	DISTAL woð wef

'First eat and then leave.'

Nominal demonstratives may have deictic reference to any person or thing, as it is equally acceptable for them to refer to humans as to all other varieties of nouns (non-human, animate, inanimate, concrete, abstract, etc.). In the following examples, the nominal demonstratives may be interpreted as references to people, as in (3.31) & (3.32), other nouns, as in (3.33) - (3.35), or either, depending on the context, as in (3.36) - (3.39), which are ambiguous.

- (3.31) ju mas varçide $tuijdz = \varepsilon ndz$ 3SG.NOM.DIST also Varshide go.PRF=REL 'He has also been to Varshide.'
- (3.32) doð mu patiç vrud- χ ejl 3PL.NOM.PROX 1SG.NNOM cousin brother-PL.NOM 'These are my male cousins.'
- (3.33) χ or, j ad χ ig = ir χ χ cat.IPFV 3SG.NOM.PROX eat.INF = DAT buy.PRF = REL 'Eat, these were bought to be eaten.'
- (3.34) $awal \ m=a=di$ $tcust \ ka=am$ first CATA=ACC=3SG.NNOM.PROX lock do.IPFV=1SG.IPFV 'I will lock this first.'
- (3.35) $a = d\varepsilon f$ mas waz $\chi uba\theta$ ACC = 3PL.NNOM.PROX also 1SG.NOM REFL.NOM $intsuvdz = \varepsilon ndz$ sew.PRF = REL

'These are also things that I have sewn myself.'

- (3.36) a = wi mas na wazond = ir veðdz

 ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST also NEG know.INF = DAT be.PRF

 '(One) does not even know that/him/her. (Evidential/New information)'
- (3.37) $a = d\varepsilon f = am$ vowg ACC = 3PL.NNOM.PROX = 1SG.PFV bring.PFV 'I brought these.'
- (3.38) $wo\delta = af$ pukzo na $v\varepsilon\delta dz$ 3PL.NOM.DIST = 3PL.PFV clean NEG be.PRF 'They are not clean. (Evidential/New information)'
- (3.39) taw $a=w\varepsilon f$ mu=ri az kol 2SG.NOM ACC=3PL.NNOM.DIST 1SG.NNOM=DAT from head

buz = osend.IPFV = Q

'Will you send them to me again?'

In addition to the distinctions of case and number, Paxalina (1966:33) and Payne (Payne 1989:431) have reported that demonstratives (or third person pronouns) have a three-way distinction of deixis: proximal (near speaker), medial (mid-distance to speaker), and distal (far from speaker). However, Sarikoli in its present state has lost the distinction between proximal and medial deixis. That is, the original forms for proximal deixis have predominantly fallen out of use and the originally medial forms are now used for spatial references near the speaker. For the singular nominative proximal demonstrative, jam and jad are used interchangeably referring to objects that are near, as in (3.40), but usage of jam is very rare. For the singular non-nominative proximal demonstrative, mi and di may be used interchangeably for objects in the same distance, as in (3.41), but mi is exceedingly rare and has nearly fallen out of use. For the plural proximal demonstratives, the forms mod and mef have completely fallen out of use, so again, both the plural forms and singular forms only have two distinctions of deixis, proximal and distal, as in (3.42) & (3.43).

```
(3.40) jam/jad tçi batço
3SG.NOM.PROX who.NNOM child
'Whose child is this?' (jam/jad interchangeable)
```

```
(3.41) m=a=mi/di ter tei ka=o CATA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX lift CAP do.IPFV = Q 'Can you lift this?' (m=a=mi/m=a=di \text{ interchangeable})
```

```
(3.42) m = do\delta az amriko i\theta t \varphi = \varepsilon n dz CATA = 3PL.NOM.PROX ABL America come.PRF = REL mejmun-\chi ejl, u wo\delta az kanada guest-PL.NNOM there 3PL.NOM.DIST ABL Canada i\theta t \varphi = \varepsilon n dz
```

come.PRF = REL

'These are guests from America, and those are from Canada.'

```
(3.43) m=a=d\varepsilon f=am dejd na CATA = ACC = 3PL.NNOM.PROX = 1SG.PFV enter.INF NEG
```

latçəwg, $a=w\varepsilon f=am$ latçəwg let.PFV ACC=3PL.NNOM.DIST=1SG.PFV let.PFV 'I did not allow these to enter, but I allowed them.'

3.3.1 Demonstrative determiners

Nominal demonstratives may also serve a determiner function, being used as modifiers within NPs of both nominative and non-nominative cases. They reveal the case of the NP by taking different forms. They show the same distinctions for case, number, and the two degrees of deixis: proximal and distal. As with the nominal demonstratives, these demonstrative determiners may be used for modifying both humans and all other varieties of nouns (animate, inanimate, concrete, abstract, etc.), and they additionally have a human/non-human distinction. They are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Demonstrative determiners

	SINGULAR		PLURAL		
	PROXIMAL	DISTAL	PROXIMAL	DISTAL	
3.NOM	(jam)/jad	jw	doð (human)	woð (human)	
			(jam)/jad (non-human)	<i>ju</i> (non-human)	
3.NNOM	(mi)/di	wi	(mi)/di	wi	

Note that there are some differences in form when demonstratives are used as determiners as opposed to NP heads. Unlike nominal demonstratives (Table 3.4), demonstrative determiners have no distinct plural non-nominative forms that are fused with the plural marker $-\varepsilon f$. In accordance with the general restriction on marking plural more than once within the NP, the demonstrative determiners do not have $-\varepsilon f$ built into them, and it is the head noun that takes the plural marking instead. Also, the plural nominative forms make distinctions for human vs. non-human.

As with the nominal demonstratives, both *jam* and *jad* may be used for the singular nominative proximal forms, but *jam* is used very rarely. In (3.44) and (3.45), *jam* and *jad* may be used interchangeably. The singular nominative distal form is *ju*, which is also identical when used as a nominal demonstrative.

- (3.44) jam/jad batço pa gap na tçombd
 3SG.NOM.PROX child LOC word NEG be.willing.3SG.IPFV
 'This child is disobedient.'
- (3.45) jam/jad batço utç aqlin vɛðdz 3SG.NOM.PROX child very smart be.PRF 'This child is very smart. (Evidential/New information)'

watça

Wacha

'That child who is wearing glasses is from Wacha.'

(3.47) *u juu tçɛd muu dud-an* there 3SG.NOM.DIST house 1SG.NNOM uncle-GEN 'That house over there is my uncle's.'

The plural nominative forms also distinguish between human participants and non-human objects. The forms $do\delta$ (proximal) and $wo\delta$ (distal) are only used for humans, as in (3.48) & (3.49); for non-human objects, whether animate or inanimate, the same forms as the singular nominative forms are used, as in (3.50) - (3.53).

(3.48) doð batço-xejl pugan xwor 3PL.NOM.PROX child-PL.NOM tomorrow Kashgar

 $t\varepsilon dz = in$

go.IPFV = 3PL.IPFV

'These children are going to Kashgar tomorrow.'

(3.49) woð $batço-\chi ejl = af$ utc pukzo 3PL.NOM.DIST child-PL.NOM = 3PL.PFV very clean

 $\chi ig = ir$ $v \in \partial dz$

eat.INF = DAT be.PRF

'Those children eat very clean. (Evidential/New information)'

- (3.50) mi = jad $kalo-\chi ejl$ zulfia-an CATA = 3SG.NOM.PROX sheep-PL.NOM Zeelfia-GEN 'These sheep are Zeelfia's.'

```
(3.52)
         mi = iad
                               ktub-χejl
                                            maç
                                                       mahum-an
         CATA = 3SG.NOM.PROX book-PL.NOM 1PL.NNOM teacher-GEN
           nist
           NEG.be.IPFV
         'These books are not our teacher's.'
(3.53)
               jш
                             ktub-xejl
                                                      malum-an
                                           maç
         there 3sg.nom.dist book-pl.nom 1pl.nnom teacher-gen
           NEG.be.IPFV
```

The singular and plural non-nominative determiners share the same form, so there are no distinctive forms for the plural non-nominative determiners. The following pairs of sentences illustrate how the same forms of determiners are used for singular and plural non-nominative NPs. Unlike the plural nominative forms, they do not distinguish between human and non-human objects. For the non-nominative proximal determiner, mi and di may be used interchangeably for nearby objects, but mi is exceedingly rare and has almost completely fallen out of use.

'Those books are not our teacher's.'

```
(3.54)
         waz = am
                              a = di
                                                      χalg
         1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX person NEG
           wazond
           know.PFV
         'I did not know this person.'
(3.55)
                                 batço-\varepsilon f = am
                                                            rond
         ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX child-PL.NNOM = 1SG.PFV scold.PFV
         'I scolded these children.'
(3.56)
         a = di
                                 kalo
                                        kejy = an = o
         ACC = 3sg.NNOM.PROX sheep slaughter.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV = Q
         'Shall we slaughter this sheep?'
(3.57)
         a = di
                                 kalo-εf
                                                  az
         ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX sheep-PL.NNOM ABL
```

vəwq

where.NNOM = 2SG.PFV bring.PFV 'Where do you bring these sheep from?'

ko = at

```
(3.58) m=a=mi/di zer ter tçi ka=o CATA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX rock lift CAP do.IPFV = Q 'Can you lift this rock?'
```

(3.59) m=a=mi/di zer-ef ter tçi CATA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX rock-PL.NNOM lift CAP ka=o do.IPFV = Q 'Can you lift these rocks?'

(3.60) waz=am di tçurik=ir hamru
1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV 3SG.NNOM.PROX man=DAT companion

sut
become.PFV
'I became a companion for this man.'

For distal non-nominative objects, the determiner wi is used, again regardless of their number or whether they are human or non-human. Compare the following pairs of sentences which demonstrate that wi may be used for both singular and plural non-nominative NPs, whether they are human (3.62) - (3.65), non-human animate (3.66) & (3.67), or non-human inanimate (3.68) & (3.69).

(3.62) waz = am a = wi χalg qiw $t \varphi wg$ 1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV ACC=3SG.NNOM.DIST person call do.PFV 'I called that person.'

(3.63) waz = am a = wi $batço-\varepsilon f$ 1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST child-PL.NNOM

rond scold.PFV'I scolded those children.'

```
(3.64)
                    yin ki = wi
                                                 yadurdztçi gati
         1sg.nnom wife ana = 3sg.nnom.dist miller
           skit = ik
                       kaxt
           play = DUR do.3SG.IPFV
         'My wife is playing with that miller.'
(3.65)
         azizmamad ki = wi
                                            χalg-εf
                                                             gati
         Azizmamad ANA = 3SG.NNOM.DIST person-PL.NNOM COM
                 tçəwg
           word do.PFV
         'Azizmamad talked with those people.'
(3.66)
                               kalo
                                      kejy = an
         ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST sheep slaughter.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV
         'Let us slaughter that sheep.'
(3.67)
                                                   kalo-εf
         1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST sheep-PL.NNOM
           pojd
           herd.PFV
         'I herded those sheep.'
```

(3.68) waz=am a=wi mon χuug 1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV ACC=3SG.NNOM.DIST apple eat.PFV 'I ate that apple.'

(3.69) waz = am a = wi $ktub - \varepsilon f$ 1SG.NOM = 1SG.IPFV ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST book-PL.NNOM xojd read.PFV 'I read those books.'

The proximal forms are used for referents near the speaker, while distal forms are used for referents far away from the speaker. By analogy, the spatial reference of demonstratives may be extended to temporal reference. The proximal demonstrative *di* is often used when referring to a point in time that is near the point of utterance, while the distal demonstrative *wi* is used when referring to a point in time that is distant from the point of utterance, usually in the future.

- (3.70) *ar di afto/most/mawsum*LOC 3SG.NNOM.PROX week/month/semester
 'during this week/month/semester'
- (3.71) ar wi afto/most/mawsum

 LOC 3SG.NNOM.DIST week/month/semester

 'during next week/month/semester'
- (3.72) *di tuv* = *at na jot*, 3SG.NNOM.PROX time = 2SG.PFV NEG come.PFV

wi tuv vid na vid joð 3SG.NNOM.DIST time be.INF NEG be.INF come.IPFV 'You did not come this time, but next time come no matter what.'

3.4 Demonstrative clitics

When referring to other participants or objects in the discourse or physical context, nominal demonstratives substitute for full NPs in order to avoid repetition of them. They may always be used anaphorically, and often also cataphorically (Dixon 2010b). However, in addition to using nominal demonstratives, Sarikoli has special demonstrative clitics used for indicating anaphora and cataphora as well as distance to the speaker or addressee. Sarikoli uses two demonstrative clitics to specify whether reference is being made about something earlier in the discourse (anaphora) or closer to the addressee, or later in the discourse (cataphora) or closer to the speaker (Levinsohn 2011). These demonstrative clitics attach to nouns, pronouns, determiners, local demonstratives, and prepositions.

k(i) = is an anaphoric demonstrative clitic used for activated referents. It is coreferential with participants, objects, or portions of the discourse that have already been mentioned, or objects that are near the addressee. The following examples demonstrate how k(i) = refers to objects that have already been introduced in the same sentence. In (3.73), k(i) = refers to the 'pure Tajik word' in the subordinate clause. In (3.74), it refers to 'wherever the donkey stops' in the first clause. In (3.75), it refers to 'how you ask' in the subordinate clause.

(3.73) suf tudzik gap tsa vid pure Tajik word COND be.3SG.IPFV

k=a=wi χ umand ka ANA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.DIST teach do.IPFV 'If there is a pure Tajik word, teach that one.'

(3.74) kudzur = ik cer waruvd $k = um = a\theta$ two where = DUR donkey stop.PFV ANA = there = EMP 2sg.NOM

bejg at \(\chi\)on \(set = ir\) \(ve\)odz
ruler \(CONJ\) king \(become.INF = DAT\) be.PRF

'Wherever the donkey stops, that is where you will become a ruler and a king. (Evidential/New information)'

(3.75) taw pars tsa waz=am
2SG.NOM ask.IPFV COND 1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV

ki=wi rang parst
ANA=3SG.NNOM.DIST SEMB ask.PFV
'You know how you ask questions? I asked like that.'

k(i) = may refer to objects and participants introduced in the discourse prior to the sentence containing k(i) =. In the conversation preceding (3.76), the speakers have talked about a certain hotel, and k(i) = refers to that hotel. In the conversation preceding (3.77), the speakers have talked about 'today', which is what k(i) = is referring to. In (3.78), k(i) = refers to a spoken description or an actual physical demonstration of a certain manner of eating.

(3.76) ju mas k=ar wi $mejmun\chi uno$ 3sg.nom.dist also AnA=LOC 3sg.nnom.dist hotel

*tçɛr kaxt*work do.3sg.ipfV
'He also works at that hotel.'

(3.77) mu-an ki = jad i $ma\theta$ rejd, 1SG.NNOM-GEN ANA = 3SG.NOM.PROX one day remain.PFV

pugan waz tɛdz=amtomorrow 1sg.nom go.ipfv=1sg.ipfv'I only have this one day left, I am leaving tomorrow.'

(3.78) waz mas ki=wi rang $\chi ig=it \zeta uz$ 1SG.NOM also ANA=3SG.NNOM.DIST SEMB eat.INF=REL 'I also eat like that.'

k(i) = may make reference to a clause or to any stretch of discourse that has been previously uttered. For example, if one wishes to express agreement for opinions articulated by another speaker in the conversation, one would say the sentence in (3.79). When another speaker asks about a certain situation and one is fairly sure about its validity, one would say the sentence in (3.80). When someone is profusely expressing thanks or apology, the sentence in (3.81) is a common response. In all of these examples, k(i) = refers to larger portions of the previous discourse.

- (3.79) ki = gapANA = word
 'That is what I mean.' (lit. That word.)
- (3.80) k = dos = o kw ANA = manner = Q SUP 'It is so, I think.'
- (3.81) ki = wi = rang mo $l\varepsilon v$ ANA = 3SG.NNOM.DIST = SEMB PROH say.IPFV 'Don't say it like that.'

k(i) = is also used in the causal conjunction *kazwi*, which links together a reason clause and a result clause. It is derived from k = az *wi* and literally means 'from (i.e. because of) that':

(3.82) *nur çamul utç kutçin kazwi məwdz utç buland* today wind very strong so wave very high

sεðdz

become.PRF

'The wind is strong today, so the waves have gotten very high. (Evidential/New information)'

dejr jot

late come.PFV

'I got lost, that is why I came late.'

On the other hand, m(i) = is a cataphoric demonstrative clitic that points forward to referents which have yet to be stated or shown, or to objects that are closer to the speaker. It alludes to information that will be introduced in the following discourse or will be shown in the physical context. The sentence in example (3.84) may be followed by either a spoken description or an actual physical description of how to do something, and m(i) = may refer to either kind of information.

```
(3.84) m = dos ka = it tsa na CATA = manner do.IPFV = 2PL.IPFV COND NEG

sawd = o become.3sG.IPFV = Q

'Can't you(pl) do it this way?'
```

m(i) = is frequently used for specific objects that may be pointed to in the immediate physical context. In (3.85) - (3.89), none of the occurrences of m(i) = are strictly necessary, but they make their hosts more specific by referring to specific objects, and must be accompanied by a pointing gesture.

```
(3.85) m = \partial wd - ik laka
CATA = here-DIM put.IPFV
'Put it down here.'
```

- (3.86) mi = jad dzuj = ik δizd CATA = 3SG.NOM.PROX place = DUR hurt.3SG.IPFV 'This place hurts.'
- (3.87) m = ar di $s \ni wn di \delta$ CATA = LOC 3SG.NNOM.PROX sack enter.IPFV 'Go into this sack.'
- (3.88) m=a=di duri χ or t sa n a t CATA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX medicine eat.IPFV COND NEG

səwd

become.3SG.IPFV

'You must not take this medicine.'

```
(3.89) t > w mi = di rang cejdoi intsivd 2SG.NOM CATA = 3SG.NNOM.PROX SEMB Sheydoi sew.INF t \neq i ka = o CAP do.IPFV = Q Can you sew a Sheydoi (female cap) like this?'
```

Whereas k(i) = attaches to pronouns, determiners, and local demonstratives that are both proximal and distal, m(i) = only attaches to proximal ones, as the referent must be close to the speaker:

- (3.90) *m=um-ik laka
 CATA = there-DIM put.IPFV
 'Put it down there.'
- (3.91) *mi = ju dzuj = ik δizd CATA = 3SG.NOM.DIST place = DUR hurt.3SG.IPFV 'That place hurts.'
- (3.92) *taw mi = wi rang cejdoi intsivd tci 2SG.NOM CATA = 3SG.NNOM.DIST SEMB Sheydoi sew.INF CAP ka = o do.IPFV = Q 'Can you sew a Sheydoi (female cap) like that?'

k(i) = and m(i) = sometimes co-occur on proximal pronouns, determiners, and local demonstratives. Some speakers combine these clitics frequently, while others virtually never do so. The conditions of the use of the mi = ki = forms are not yet fully understood, but the reasons may be phonotactic, discourse-related (i.e. for focus marking), or as a historical vestige of a convention that is no longer meaningful or productive.

- (3.93) i $t \in i$ dzuj $ni\theta = an$ $m = k = \partial wd$ one LOC place sit.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV CATA = ANA = here 'We gather here in one place.'

'The bride stands on this Noh (raised platform for eating, sleeping, and relaxing).'

(3.95) m=ki=di rang $gap-\varepsilon f=ik$ CATA = ANA = 3SG.NNOM.PROX SEMB word-PL.NNOM = DUR

mu = ri kaxt

1SG.NNOM = DAT do.3SG.IPFV

'He says such and such things to me.'

(3.96) $ma \varphi - an$ imi = ri $t \varphi wy d \varphi = \varepsilon n d \varphi$ $t \varphi \varepsilon r$ 1PL.NNOM-GEN RECP = DAT do.PRF = REL matter

m = k = dund

CATA = ANA = AMT

'This is the extent of what we did to each other.'

(3.97) *putxu radzen a=wi tçost* king daughter ACC=3SG.NNOM.DIST watch.3SG.IPFV

χω lενd iko a ΤΕΜΡ.CONJ SAY.3SG.IPFV SC INTJ

CATA = ANA = 3SG.NOM.PROX boy

'The king's daughter takes a look at him and says, "Ah, yes, it is this boy."

(3.98) m=k=az di $sots-\varepsilon f$ CATA = aca = ABL 3SG.NNOM.PROX girl-PL.NNOM

tuu=ri=ik t¢idum χuu ¢ suut 2SG.NNOM = DAT = DUR which happy become.PFV

tu = ri $\delta o = am$

2SG.NNOM = DAT give.IPFV = 1SG.IPFV

'I will give you whichever one of these girls you like the most.'

```
(3.99)
         mac
                    qati tang
         1PL.NNOM COM simultaneous
           m=k=a=di
                                                ruzagur tcawydz = endz
           CATA = ANA = ACC = 3SG.NNOM.PROX living
                                                         do.PRF = REL
                           bezibun
                                      i
                                           nejk tsiz
           one tongueless tongueless one good thing
           dwo\delta = an
           bring.in.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV
         'We bring in one good tongueless thing (animal) that has worked
           alongside us to make a living.'
```

In summary, ki = and mi = are clitics that refer to objects or participants in the physical context or portions of the discourse. ki = is for activated referents and mi = is for referents that will be shown or expressed. The following pair of examples contrast the use of ki = and mi =: the first speaker says the sentence in (3.100), and then shares her line of thought; after hearing this, the second speaker says the sentence in (3.101) to show that he thought of things in the same way.

3.5 Local demonstratives

Sarikoli has two local demonstratives making spatial reference, which show deictic contrast: <code>awd</code> 'here' and <code>um/um</code> 'there' (showing dialectical variation). These are locational adverbs to a clause, and they generally occur in clause initial position, or immediately after the subject or a time word. They do not have restrictions in terms of the clause types they may occur in, and are used in verbal, existential, and copula clauses. The diminutive suffix <code>-ik</code> sometimes attaches to <code>awd</code> or <code>um</code>, but it does not seem to change the meaning of these spatial shifters. These local demonstratives have less adpositional marking

than on locations expressed by common nouns, as they are sometimes not required to occur with a locative adposition, as in (3.102) - (3.105).

(3.102)a = tciwaz 1sg.nom here none ACC=who.nnom NEG

wazon = am

know.ipfv = 1sg.ipfv

'I do not know anyone here.'

(3.103)varcide dzwl-ik dzuj mas tsa vid Varshide small-DIM place also COND be.3SG.IPFV there

> ladza jost

dialect be.IPFV

'Even though Varshide is a small place, there are dialects there.'

- (3.104) $waz = am \quad um-ik$ γш malum wand 1SG.NOM there-DIM REFL.NNOM teacher see.PFV 'I saw my teacher over there.'
- (3.105)dεr um-ik ajoy wejð χш there-DIM CPRV REFL.NNOM shoe put.IPFV 'Take your shoes off over there a little bit.'

These two local demonstratives are frequently combined with the locative preposition ar, as in (3.106) & (3.107), locative preposition tar, as in (3.108) & (3.109), and ablative az, as in (3.110) & (3.111). The locative preposition for upriver locations, pa, is only used for um 'there' or awd 'here' if the place of reference is higher than the place of the hearer, as in (3.112) & (3.113), and the resulting form is pa dum or pa dawd, respectively. When local demonstratives occur with prepositions, they do not take the diminutive suffix -ik.

- (3.106)a = putxuəwd mo vor ar ACC = king LOC here PROH bring.IPFV 'Do not bring the king here.'
- (3.107)waz = amturpon tuidz-it, ar шт 1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV Turpan go.PFV-CESS LOC there still

hawu ðudz na precipitation NEG fall.PRF

'I went to Turpan, and there it had not snowed yet. (Evidential/New information)'

```
(3.108) mu tçɛd utç ðar, tar əwd na jɛt=ir
1SG.NNOM house very far LOC here NEG come.INF=DAT

pur waxt sut
much time become.PFV
'My house is very far, I have not come here for a long time.'
```

- (3.109) tar um tid=ir $wa\chi t$ nist LOC there do.INF=DAT time NEG.be.IPFV 'There is no time to go there.'
- (3.110) az əwd tung set=ir tsund waxt ABL here Teeng become.INF=DAT how.much time tizd go.3sg.IPFV 'How much time does it take to get from here to Teeng?'
- (3.111) az um a = cer darju tci labABL there ACC = donkey river LOC bank

vor = in
bring.ipfv = 3pl.ipfv

'From there they bring the donkey to the bank of the river.'

(3.112) mu malum varçide tujdz, pa dum tsund gudur 1SG.NNOM teacher Varshide go.PRF LOC there some time

> hawu ðudz precipitation fall.PRF

'My teacher went to Varshide, and there it has snowed several times. (Evidential/New information)'

(3.113) taw tçum joð, pa dawd 2SG.NOM when come.IPFV LOC here 'When are you coming here?'

Some of these combinations of preposition and local demonstrative may be used idiomatically for expressions related to space and time, as shown in Table 3.6. (3.114) - (3.117) are illustrations of these idiomatic expressions containing prepositions and local demonstratives.

Table 3.6 Idiomatic expressions with local demonstratives

```
'in various directions; approximately'
tar um tar əwd
di tar əwd
                'from now on'
az tarat<sup>1</sup>
                'since (a certain time in the past)'
           dijur
 (3.114)
                   yalq
                           tar um
                                      tar
                                           əwd ratsasθt
           region person LOC there LOC here escape.3SG.IPFV
           'The villagers run away this way and that way.'
  (3.115)
                         intsivd = ir
                çejdoi
                                        tar um
                                                    tar əwd i
                                                                   most
           one Sheydoi sew.INF = DAT LOC there LOC here one month
             tizd
             go.3SG.IPFV
           'It takes approximately one month to make one Sheydoi (female
 (3.116)
           di
                                  əwd az
                                                              dzul
                             tar
                                             mui
                                                         шtç
           3SG.NNOM.PROX LOC here ABL 1SG.NNOM very small
                             mo
                                    pars,
                                              тш
                                                          kol
             thing-PL.NNOM PROH ask.IPFV 1SG.NNOM head
             вarst
             turn.3SG.IPFV
           'From now on, do not ask me questions about very small things.
             My head will spin.'
 (3.117)
           a = ta
                             wand
                                     az
                                          tarat ju
                                                           xovd
           ACC = 2SG.NNOM see.INF ABL since 3SG.NOM sleep.INF NEG
                   t \varphi e j g = i t \varphi u z suit
```

In addition to prepositions, local demonstratives also frequently co-occur with the demonstrative clitics k = and m =. The cataphoric clitic m = only attaches to awd and occurs with a pointing gesture, making it more specific by assigning it a smaller scope, as in (3.118). The diminutive suffix -ik may also occur, without changing the meaning in any significant way.

'Since seeing you, he has become unable to sleep.'

CAP do.INF = REL become.PFV

¹az tarat may have originated from az tar əwd, but this is not certain.

```
(3.118) m = \partial w d(-ik) ni\theta CATA = here-DIM sit.IPFV 'Sit here.'
```

The anaphoric clitic k = may attach to either ∂wd or um, and is used when the spatial reference is already known or mentioned in the physical context or discourse. In conversations previous to (3.119), the speakers have mentioned the place where they are currently situated. In conversations previous to (3.120) & (3.121), a place other than the place of speech has been mentioned.

```
(3.119)
                               k = \partial wd(-ik)
         waz = am
                                                azmud suit,
          1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV ANA = here-DIM born
                                                      become.PFV
            k = \partial w d(-ik) = am
                                       lawr suit,
            ANA = here-DIM = 1SG.PFV big become.PFV
            k = \partial wd(-ik) = am
                                       xojd
            ANA = here-DIM = 1SG.PFV read.PFV
          'I was born and raised here and studied here.'
(3.120)
         k = um(-ik)
                                       malum mas iost = o
                           тш
          ANA = there-DIM 1SG.NNOM teacher also be.IPFV = Q
          'Is my teacher also there?'
(3.121)
         intawum \delta o = an,
                                         kudzur = an = ik
                                                                 nardzed.
                   give.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV where = 1PL.PFV = DUR pass.PFV
          exam
            k = um
                         so = an
            ANA = there become.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV
          'We will take an exam, and wherever we get accepted to, we will
            go there.'
```

When referring to things that are far away, a lengthened /u/ occurs before the demonstrative determiner modifying that noun, as in (3.122) - (3.124), or occurs as part of a local demonstrative, as in (3.125). The farther away the object is, the longer the /u/ is pronounced.

(3.122) *u: ju tçɛd mu dud-an* there 3SG.NOM.DIST house 1SG.NNOM uncle-GEN 'That house (far away) is my uncle's.'

```
(3.123)
        u:
               iш
                               dzam wi
         there 3sg.nom.dist all
                                     3sg.nnom.dist
           kalo-\chi ejl = af
                                    νεðdz
           sheep-PL.NOM = 3PL.PFV be.PRF
         'Those (far away) are all his sheep. (Evidential/New information)'
(3.124)
         u:
                woð
                               dzam wi
         there 3PL.NOM.DIST all
                                     3SG.NNOM.DIST
           batço-\chi ejl = af
                                   νεðdz
           child-pl.nom = 3pl.pfv be.prf
         'Those (far away) are all his children. (Evidential/New informa-
(3.125)
         тш
                     tçed
                            umik
         1sg.nnom house there
```

Local demonstratives are often the sole spatial reference within their clause, but may also be apposed to an NP bearing locational specification, as in (3.126) & (3.127).

'My house is all the way over there (far away).'

- (3.126) waz $m = \partial wd ik$ tsej buzur pa sov 1SG.NOM CATA = here-DIM vegetable bazaar LOC mouth 'I am here at the entrance of the vegetable bazaar.'
- (3.127) k=um pa maktab maç-an ato ano ANA = there LOC school 1PL.NNOM-GEN father mother nist NEG.be.IPFV

'There at school we do not have our father and mother.'

3.6 Manner demonstratives

Sarikoli has manner demonstratives that serve an adverbial function within the predicate. Corresponding to the anaphoric and cataphoric demonstratives ki = and mi = are the following manner demonstratives: k = dos 'in that way/manner', $ki = rang/ki = wi \ rang$ 'like that', m = dos 'in this way/manner', and $mi = di \ rang$ 'like this'. They are formed with the manner word dos and

semblative marker rang, in combination with k(i) =and m(i) =. These demonstratives have both deictic and anaphoric or cataphoric reference to an activity. k = dos and ki = rang/ki = wi rang are used to refer to a distal activity, as well as having anaphoric function; m = dos and mi = di rang are used to refer to a proximal activity, in addition to serving a cataphoric function.

As an anaphoric manner demonstrative, k = dos may be used to refer to direct speech that has already been uttered, while m = dos, as a cataphoric demonstrative, may be used to introduce direct speech. In (3.128), the k = dos refers to what the addressee has already said, and m = dos refers to what the speaker is about to say.

(3.128) k = dos mo lev, m = dos levANA = manner PROH say.IPFV CATA = manner say.IPFV

'Do not say it that way, say it this way.'

3.7 Reflexive pronoun

The reflexive construction refers to activities where the participants are not distinct from one another; it is used when two arguments of a verb have identical reference (Dixon 2012:159). A reflexive is used in a transitive clause if the A and O arguments have the same reference, such as the underlying sentence (3.129), by employing the reflexive pronoun χu in O slot, giving the sentence in (3.130). The transitive verb of the clause maintains its transitivity. (3.129) is ungrammatical if both instances of Rashid refer to the same person.

- (3.129) *raçid a=raçid ðud Rashid ACC=Rashid hit.PFV 'Rashid hit Rashid.'
- (3.130) racid $a = \chi uu$ δud Rashid ACC=REFL.NNOM hit.PFV 'Rashid hit himself.'

Sarikoli has a special reflexive pronoun, χu 'self'. Morphologically, χu has an invariant form and shows no person or number distinction, but is always interpreted as having the same person and number as the subject of its clause, as demonstrated by (3.131) - (3.134).

```
(3.131) a = \chi u t \varphi ar d \varphi nigo ka = it
ACC = REFL.NNOM good watch do.IPFV = 2PL.IPFV
'Take good care of yourselves.'
```

- (3.132) $t \partial w = at$ χu num mu = ri na 2 SG.NOM = 2 SG.PFV REFL.NNOM name 1 SG.NNOM = DAT NEG $l \varepsilon v d$ say.PFV 'You did not tell me your name.'
- (3.133) χu ano ziv mas na wazon = in REFL.NNOM mother tongue also NEG know.IPFV = 3PL.IPFV 'They do not even know their mother tongue.'
- (3.134) χuu hamru pa $t \varphi \varepsilon d$ so = am

 REFL.NNOM companion LOC house become.IPFV = 1SG.IPFV

 'I and going to my friend's house.'

The reflexive χu is subject-oriented: the antecedent of χu must be the subject of the clause. With respect to reflexives, A, S, and copula subject arguments will all be referred to as 'subject'. χu must be less prominent than its antecedent, and occurs as a non-nominative argument or non-argument. It may function as a full NP or as a possessor within an NP. Whichever syntactic function it takes on, it occurs in the regular slot for that function.

Because χu is subject-oriented, its antecedent is rarely ambiguous, despite its invariant form. Even when non-subject arguments appear closer to χu than the subject does, they cannot function as the antecedent because they are not the subject of the clause, as shown in (3.135) - (3.137).

```
(3.135) alima malum a=batço-εf χω pa tçεd
Alima teacher ACC=child-PL.NNOM REFL.NNOM LOC house

jud
take.PFV

'Teacher Alima took the children to her house.' (χω→ Alima)
```

(3.136) φ and φ tursun = ir χ u qalam φ dud Shanbe Tursun = DAT REFL.NNOM pen give.PFV 'Shanbe gave his pen to Tursun.' (χ u \rightarrow Shanbe)

```
(3.137) mejnaχon az nurbia χω odris parst
Meynahon ABL Nurbia REFL.NNOM address ask.PFV
'Meynahon asked Nurbia for her own address.' (χω→ Meynahon)
```

Even when the subject NP is ellipsed, the antecedent of the reflexive pronoun, which must be the subject, can still be known from the pronominal agreement clitics in the sentence, as in the following examples.

```
(3.138) \chi-ono=ri tilfon ka=am REFL.NNOM-mother=DAT phone do.IPFV=1SG.IPFV 'I will call my mother.'
```

```
(3.139) \chi uu pa t \in \mathcal{E} d nahu\in \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E} ndz rang REFL.NNOM LOC house sit.PRF = REL SEMB

ni\theta = it sit.IPFV = 2PL.IPFV 'Sit as if you are at your(pl) own home.'
```

(3.140) χu mudzuz tsa wazond tar j > wl REFL.NNOM feeling COND know.3sg.IPFV LOC dawn

noçta na kaxt tsa səwd
breakfast NEG do.3SG.IPFV COND become.3SG.IPFV
'If she knows her own feeling, she can not eat breakfast in the morning.'

Reflexive and non-reflexive pronouns are in complementary distribution within a simple clause: any pronoun referring to the subject must take the reflexive form, and non-reflexive pronouns can never take a subject antecedent within their minimal clause. Non-reflexive pronouns can be coreferential to any argument except the subject, so they can only function as a subject or refer to non-subject arguments. This is illustrated by the following pairs of sentences.

- (3.141) a. $mina \chi u batco = ri mon \delta ud$ Mina REFL.NNOM child = DAT apple give.PFV
 'Mina gave an apple to her child.' ($\chi u \rightarrow$ Mina)
 - b. *mina wi batço=ri mon ðud*Mina 3SG.NNOM.DIST child=DAT apple give.PFV
 'Mina gave an apple to her child.' (wi→ NOT Mina)

Amad)

```
(3.142) a. waz = am \chi u numur ranuxt \varphi 1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV REFL.NNOM number forget.PRF 'I forgot my number. (Evidential/New information)' (\chi u \rightarrow I)
```

```
b. *waz=am mu numur ranuxtç

1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV 1SG.NNOM number forget.PRF
'I forgot my number. (Evidential/New information)' (mu→
ungrammatical)
```

Even in a sentence with a subordinate clause and two different subjects (the main clause subject and subordinate clause subject), the antecedent of χu is not ambiguous because a χu within a subordinate clause takes the subordinate clause subject as its antecedent. In finite subordinate clauses, as in (3.143), χu refers to the embedded clause subject instead of the main clause subject. In subordinate clauses with an explicit subject, as in (3.144), χu also refers to the embedded clause subject and not the main clause subject. In a subordinate clause that lacks an explicit subject, as in (3.145), χu may have no apparent antecedent within the minimal clause, but it may be theorized that the embedded clause has a null subject that is functionally controlled by the main clause subject, which provides a local subject antecedent for χu .

```
(3.143)
          ojmira levd
                           iko [awagul xui
                                                       pa
                                                           tεεd
          Oimira say.PFV SC Awageel REFL.NNOM LOC house
            rejd]
            remain.PFV
          'Oimira said: [Awageel stayed at her home].' (\chi u \rightarrow Awageel)
(3.144)
                               [sobir xu
                                                    yin qati
          1SG.NOM = 1SG.PFV Sobir REFL.NNOM wife COM
            i\varepsilon t = iI
                                 wazond
                           na
            come.INF = SC NEG know.PFV
          'I did not know [that Sobir was coming with his wife]. ' (\chi u \rightarrow
            Sobir)
         zuxt \zeta = \varepsilon n dz  a = ktub-\varepsilon f
(3.145)
          Amad REFL.NNOM = DAT buy.PRF = REL ACC = book-PL.NNOM
            mu = ri
                               ðud
            1SG.NNOM = DAT give.PFV
          'Amad gave me the books [that he bought for himself].' (\chi u \rightarrow
```

In all three types of clauses above, χu is used as a local reflexive referring to the embedded clause subject, whether it is an explicit subject or one that is functionally controlled by the main clause subject. However, there is one exception to this pattern: in a reason adverbial clause with an explicit subject, the use of χu results in an ambiguous antecedent, as it is equally acceptable for χu to refer to the main clause subject or the embedded clause subject, as shown in (3.146) & (3.147). When χu is interpreted as being coreferential with the main clause subject, it is used as a long-distance reflexive; when it is interpreted as being coreferential with the AC subject, it is used as a local reflexive.

```
(3.146)
          sojra [gulmira χιιι
                                         a = qalam wejrun az
          Soyra Geelmira REFL.NNOM ACC = pen broken ABL
            tcejg = i
                         xafo suit
            do.INF = SC upset become.PFV
          'Soyra got upset [because Geelmira broke her pen].' (\chi u \rightarrow Geelmira
            OR Soyra)
(3.147)
          raçid
                                       a = kilit
                                                        bunost = i1
                  [sobir \u03c3u
                                                  az
                                                                      tεlan
          Rashid Sobir REFL.NNOM ACC = key ABL lose.INF = SC fine
            ðud
            give.PFV
          'Rashid gave a fine [because Sobir lost his key].' (\chi u \rightarrow Rashid OR
            Sobir)
```

In addition to its function as an invariant reflexive pronoun, χu also has two extended meanings. First, it may be used as an emphatic pronoun which emphasizes the identity of an argument's referent. The emphatic pronoun occurs as an NP modifier which is apposed to the argument or possessor to be emphasized. It takes the form $\chi uba\theta$ in the nominative and χu in the nonnominative. $\chi uba\theta$ cannot be used as a reflexive because reflexives must refer to subjects.

```
(3.148) waz soq, təw χubaθ
1sg.nom healthy 2sg.nom refl.nom
'I am healthy, you yourself?'
```

```
(3.149) ta \chi uu mudzuz tcardz = o 2SG.NNOM REFL.NNOM feeling good = Q 'Is your own feeling good?'
```

- (3.150) ta χuu -an = at kudzur latçəwg 2SG.NNOM REFL.NNOM-GEN = 2SG.PFV where put.PFV 'Where did you put your own?'
- (3.151) $putxu \ a = yin = af$ χuu $z \in d$ king ACC = wife = 2PL.PFV REFL.NNOM kill.PFV 'You(pl) have killed the king's wife herself!'

Second, χu may also serve an adverbial function with the meaning 'by self' or 'alone', creating a nuance that the participant is capable of doing something without anyone's help. This function is only available for the argument in subject function, and $\chi uba\theta$ serves as a modifier which is apposed to the subject, as in (3.152) & (3.153). Alternatively, to express the same meaning, the adverbial $\chi ut citan$ 'by self' may be used, as in (3.154).

- (3.152) taw $\chi uba\theta$ a=wi hat ka 2SG.NOM REFL.NOM ACC=3SG.NNOM.DIST open do.IPFV 'You open that yourself.'
- (3.153) mu radzen χωbαθ tid tçi kaxt
 1SG.NNOM daughter REFL.NOM go.INF CAP do.3SG.IPFV
 'My daughter can go by herself.'
- (3.154) m-ono $digar\ dzuj\ tujd$, waz=am 1SG.NNOM-mother other place go.PFV 1SG.NOM=1SG.PFV

χω tçi tan paləw tçəwg
REFL.NNOM LOC body pilaf do.PFV
'My mother went somewhere else, I made pilaf all by myself.'

3.8 Reciprocal pronoun

As with the reflexive, the reciprocal construction is used in activities with overlapping participants. If there are two clauses with the same verb, and the O argument of each verb has the same reference as the A argument of the other, as in the underlying sentence (3.155), then a reciprocal construction is used, as in (3.156). The two participants are conjoined into *raçid at sobir* and function as the A argument, while the O slot is filled by reciprocal pronoun *imi*. The subject, as the fully-specified NP, serves as the antecedent.

- (3.155) raçid a=sobir ðud, sobir a=raçid ðud Rashid ACC=Sobir hit.PFV Sobir ACC=Rashid hit.PFV 'Rashid hit Sobir and Sobir hit Rashid.'
- (3.156) raçid at sobir=af a=imi ðud
 Rashid CONJ Sobir=3PL.PFV ACC=RECP hit.PFV
 'Rashid and Sobir hit each other.'

As with the reflexive pronoun χu , the reciprocal pronoun imi is usually subject-oriented, and is less prominent than its antecedent, occurring in a non-subject slot—such as accusative, as in (3.156) & (3.157), dative, as in (3.158) & (3.159), ablative, as in (3.160) - (3.162), comitative, as in (3.163), locative/allative, as in (3.164) & (3.165), or a possessor within an NP, as in (3.166) & (3.167).

- (3.157) ar di afto a=imiLOC 3SG.NNOM.PROX week ACC=RECP
 - wejn = an = o

see.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV = Q

'Shall we see each other this week?' (accusative)

- (3.158) $wo\delta = af$ imi = ri χuu surat 3PL.NOM.DIST = 3PL.PFV RECP = DAT REFL.NNOM picture
 - vuusond

show.PFV

'They showed each other their picture.' (dative)

- (3.159) $wo\delta = af$ imi = ri samsut δud 3PL.NOM.DIST = 3PL.PFV RECP = DAT gift give.PFV 'They gave gifts to each other.' (dative)
- (3.160) woð=af az imi xumand sut
 3PL.NOM.DIST=3PL.PFV ABL RECP learn become.PFV
 'They learned from each other.' (ablative)
- (3.161) manos at mina = af az imi surud Manos CONJ Mina = 3PL.PFV ABL RECP separate.PFV 'Manos and Mina broke up.' (ablative)

```
(3.162)
         gulbarg at
                         tilo\chi on = af
                                       az imi
                                                        χafo
         Geelbarg CONJ Tilohon = 3PL.PFV ABL RECP upset
           sut
           become.PFV
         'Geelbarg and Tilohon got upset at each other.' (ablative)
(3.163)
         xsraw
                  at
                        kura c = af
                                           imi
                                                 gati balad
         Hsreaw CONJ Keerash = 3PL.PFV RECP COM acquainted
           suit
           become.PFV
         'Hsreaw and Keerash got acquainted with each other.' (comita-
(3.164)
         waz
                   at
                                            tar imi
                                                        arðo
                                                                na
                          тш
                                     jaχ
         1SG.NOM CONJ 1SG.NNOM sister LOC RECP similar NEG
           \delta e_i = a_i
           fall.IPFV = 1PL.IPFV
         'My sister and I do not look alike.' (allative)
(3.165)
        mac = an
                             tar imi
                                        zuzd
         1PL.NOM = 1PL.PFV LOC RECP run.PFV
         'We ran towards each other.' (allative)
(3.166)
                                  imi(-an
                                             wi)
                                                             ktub
         3PL.NOM.DIST = 3PL.PFV RECP-GEN 3SG.NNOM.DIST book
           wazapt
           return.PFV
         'They returned each other's books.' (genitive)
         wo\delta = af
(3.167)
                                  imi(-an
                                             wi)
         3PL.NOM.DIST = 3PL.PFV RECP-GEN 3SG.NNOM.DIST
           a = eib - \varepsilon f
                                         wazond
           ACC = transgression-PL.NNOM know.PFV
         'They found out about each other's transgressions.' (genitive)
```

However, unlike the reflexive pronoun χu , imi may also take as its antecedent the O argument of the clause, as in (3.168) & (3.169).

```
(3.168) mu ja\chi a=gulbarg at tursun imi=ri 1SG.NNOM sister ACC=Geelbarg CONJ Tursun RECP=DAT
```

balad tçəwg acquainted do.PFV

'My sister introduced Geelbarg and Tursun to each other.'

(3.169) alima malum $a = \varphi$ anigul at asal imi qati εp Alima teacher ACC=Shanigeel CONJ Asal RECP COM fix

tçəwg

do.PFV

'Teacher Alima reconciled Shanigeel and Asal to each other.'

imi shows no person distinction and always maintains the same form, being interpreted as having the same person and number as its antecedent. A reciprocal construction may be formed from a transitive or intransitive clause, and does not change the transitivity of the clause. It may express either a simultaneous meaning describing a single unit of activity, as in (3.157) & (3.163), or a sequential meaning for a series of activities, as in (3.158) & (3.159).

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