KHALAJ AND ITS RELATION TO THE OTHER TURKIC LANGUAGES

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0. Introduction*

The following survey of the Khalaj grammar can only be of a provisional character. Although a large amount of material (57 tapes) has been gathered, only a rather small part of this material has been evaluated. Dr. Semih Tezcan is preparing a "Morphologie des Chaladsch", and this writer a "Phonologie des Chaladsch"; but these works will presumably not be published before 1979. I hope that this survey will be of some use in the meantime.

Khalaj is only one language, but it represents as independent a branch of the Turkic family of languages as, for example, Chuvash; it is not possible to assign it to another Turkic group (Kipchak, Oghuz, etc.). It is spoken (by about 20,000 persons) in 50 villages, situated about 100 miles SW of Teheran (a map was given in Khalaj Materials, see Bibliography, Nr. 7). Each of these villages has a special dialect; the linguistic difference between the most distant dialects is not smaller (it is even bigger) than, to give an example, between Kazan-Tatar and Bashkir or between Rumeli-Turkish and Azerbaijani. Thus, the western dialects, e.g. of Talx-āb, are regarded by other Khalaj as a different language, and this is a well tenable conception.

1. History of investigation of Khalaj. Bibliography

The first scholar to hear Khalaj was V. Minorsky (in 1906); he published an article about it in 1940. Shortly after, Moghaddam published

^{*} The following simplified transcription has been used in this article:

¹ Low vowels are not marked.

² High vowels are marked with dots in some cases (i,e), in other cases we used accent signs (\hat{o} =high o; also \mathring{o} , \mathring{u}).

³ ý marks nasalized y of Yakut; i is consonantic i.

a short word-list and some phonological remarks. But the gathering of a sufficient amount of material did not begin before 1968. It is only since that time that the special character of Khalaj has been adequately evaluated. The material was gathered during two expeditions (in 1968 and 1969) and during the stay of a native speaker (Mr. Mosaiyeb Arabgol) in Göttingen (from March to June, 1970). Furthermore, Professor Bazin gathered some Khalaj material during a short trip in Persia (September 29, 1969). The following description of Khalaj is based on these materials. However, since it has been impossible to consider all differences in the forty-seven dialects, I have confined myself to (a) a reconstruction of Proto-Khalaj forms; (b) to a discussion of the forms of the dialect of Xarrāb (which is the best-investigated one, because our main authority, Mr. Arabgol, is a native of that village); and (c) to a discussion of some striking deviations among the dialects.

The following lines present a complete bibliography of works dealing with the Khalaj language (but works on Khalaj history will be omitted). They are enumerated in chronological order. I have numbered the titles of the works, and these numbers will be quoted in the following chapters.

- (1) Minorsky, V. The Turkish dialect of the Khalaj, BSOAS 10 (1940), 417-37.
- (2) Moghaddam, M. Gūyišhā-yi Wafs wa Āštiyān wa Tafraš, Irān-kūda 11, Teheran 1318 h.š.
- (3) Doerfer, G. Das Chaladsch eine archaische Türksprache in Zentralpersien, ZDMG 118 (1968), 79-112.
- (4) —, Das Chaladsch eine neuentdeckte archaische Türksprache, ZDMG, Supplementa I (1969), 719–25.
- (5) —, İran'daki Türk dilleri, TDAYB 302 (1969), 1-23.
- (6) —, Irano-Altaistica, Turkish and Mongolian Languages of Persia and Afghanistan, Current Trends in Linguistics 6 (The Hague 1971), 217-34.
- (7) —, (with the collaboration of W. Hesche, H. Scheinhardt, S. Tezcan) Khalaj materials, UAS 115 (1971).
- (8) —, O sostojanii issledovanija xaladžkoj gruppy jazykov, VJa 1972: 1. 89-96.

- (9) —, Der Imperativ im Chaladsch, FUF 39 (1972), 295–340.
- (10) —, Eine seltsame alttürkisch-chaladsch Parallele, TDAYB 406 (1973/1974), 1-24.
- (11) Scheinhardt, H. Halacistan'a bir araştırma gezisi, Çağrı, 1 eylül 1968, Nr. 128. 16-7.
- (12) Çağatay, S. Türk Lehçeleri Örnekleri, II (yaşayan Türk lehçe ve ağızları, Ankara 1972, 255-60.
- (13) Zejnalov, F. Türk dillärinin täsnifi vä "Xalac dili grupu" mäsäläsi. Jazky i literatura, Baku 1972, 37–48.
- (14) —, Ob odnom "drevnem tjurkskom jazyke" v srednem Irane, Sovetskaja Tjurkologija 1972: 6. 74-9.
- The following works of mine have just appeared or are to appear:
- (15) Javljaetsja li xaladžskij jazyk dialektom azerbajdžanskogo jazyka? Sovetskaja Tjurkologija 1974: 1. 45-51.
- (16) Altertümliche türkische Wörter im Chaladsch, Proceedings of the Birinci Türk Dili Bilimsel Kurultayı.
- (17) Zur These der drei türkischen "Quantitäten", Sovetskaja Tjrkologija Cf furthermore:
- (18) Tezcan, S. Zum Stand der Chaladsch Forschung, Sprache, geschichte und Kultur der altaischen Völker. Ed. Hazai, G. und Zieme, P. Berlin 1974, 613–20.

For a complete bibliography cf. G. Doerfer, S. Tezcan, Wörterbuch des Chaladsch, to appear in Budapest, in about 1979.

2. Phonology

2.1. Vowels

The Proto-Khalaj vowel system is the one characteristic of Turkic:

aïuo

äiüö

Howeve, there are some striking features:

(1) Khalaj has the original system of Proto-Turkic threefold quantity (or pitch-quantity), namely, short: long (or level-long, or half-long): Dipthongal (moved length), e.g. in hat 'horse': bāš 'head': tāar

- 'narrow'. (Bazin, who investigated the dialect of Dā γ ān, distinguishes short: half-long: long). In this respect, Khalaj is extremely important for the reconstruction of Proto-Turkic, since it is the only Turkic language which has preserved this threefold opposition (in lento speech). Cf. (7), chapter 13 (pp. 183-267). Even Turkmen (and Yakut) have changed $b\bar{a}\dot{s} > ba\dot{s}$ (they generally change long vowels to short ones). The proofs for the originality of the Khalaj quantity system are the following:
- a) We have taken Khalaj materials on tape and listened to them rather thoroughly, v. (7). 40.
- b) Bazin (who did not know 7) also noticed the same threefold quantity.
- c) Arabgol, our native speaker, transcribed the words quoted above (in Arabic script): ht, $b'\check{s}$, t'r; i.e. for him Khalaj $b\tilde{a}\check{s}$ does not have a short vowel (as Turkmen $ba\check{s}$ does).
- d) I requested the Physikalisch-technische Bundesanstalt, in Braunschweig to determine the phonetic annotations according to Grützmacher. These clearly proved an opposition of short: long: somewhat longer + a moved pitch, v. (17).
- e) Logical consistency. The generally accepted "explanation", that in cases like al-Kāšγarī $b\bar{a}š$ > Turkmen baš (although al-Kāšγarī $q\bar{a}š$ 'brow' > Turkmen $\dot{g}a\tilde{s}$) we find a "tendency to shorten", is not a real explanation. (What if an Indo-Europeanist did not know Verner's law and said that in cases like German ziehen: gezogen, we find a "tendency of h to become g"?) A development $b\bar{a}š$ > Turkmen baš, but $q\bar{a}š > \dot{g}a\tilde{s}$ is unintelligible, whereas the assertion $b\tilde{a}š > baš$, $q\hat{a}š > \dot{g}a\tilde{s}$ is a genuine explanation.
- f) As my student Tezcan has proved in his Ph. D. thesis (Das uigurische Insadi-Sūtra, Berlin 1974, pp. 12, 94)'in some cases in Ancient Turkic not only $\bar{o}t$ 'fire' is written oot, but ot 'grass' is also written the same way. Based on Turkmen it seems to be odd that not only does the long \bar{o} of $\bar{o}t$ 'fire' appear in this way, but also the short o of ot 'grass'. However, the Khalaj forms $h\bar{u}^{\circ}t$ 'fire', uot 'grass' (from Proto-Turkic * $p\hat{o}t$, $\bar{o}t$, respectively) explain the Ancient Turkic way of writing. Another item: qool 'arm' > Turkmen $\dot{g}ol$, but al-Kāšyarī $q\bar{o}l$, Khalaj quol, etc.

- g) As Mr. Nauta will prove in his dissertation, the Chuvash vowel system can only be explained on the basis of a threefold opposition in Proto-Turkic; e.g. Proto-Turkic *a > Chuv. ï, but *ā as well as â > u.
- h) Khalaj agrees with the Karakhanide sources, above all, with al-Kāšγarī. Cf. (7). 217, 234–5 where it has been shown that in correspondence with the Karakhanide words $q\bar{o}l$, $\bar{a}\check{s}$, $k\bar{o}z$, $\bar{u}\check{c}$, $b\tilde{a}\check{s}$, $\bar{o}r$ –, $y\bar{e}l$, $b\bar{u}r$ –, $t\bar{v}l$, we find forms with (unmoved) long vowels in Khalaj; whereas Turkmen has short vowels.
- (2) On the other hand, we find some Iranian influence: /a/ normally is pronounced [å] (labialized), e.g., hat 'horse', /a/ is pronounced [å] (a vowel between ä and a), like a in English hat. In some villages short and (unmoved) long /a, a/ have become à (Xurax-ābād hat 'horse'), or we find variants, such as in Dayan: bas 'head' (older generation, speaker 75 years old) $\sim bas$ (younger generation, speaker 30 years old).
- (3) Khalaj has preserved (or may have preserved) some original oppositions (perhaps those between -i and -e, -ï and ë) in the auslaut (just as in Brahmi-Turkic, Yakut, New Uighur), e.g. àkki (Talx-āb àkkü) 'two': yätti 'seven', cf. also alta 'six' (all dialects). Note: i means closed (high) i, i means open (low) i. Cf. (7). 161-2.
- (4) The reduced vowels of Ancient Turkic (= Uighur Turkic i/i/ü/u in non-first syllables) have become *ü/u and, later on (cf. point 5), i/u. However, we find many variants. E.g., we normally find qa^a -dun 'relative-in-law', qa-run 'belly', but $q\bar{a}^adin$, qa-rin in some villages. Sometimes we find such variants as in Manṣūr-ābād: $q\bar{a}^adun$ (isolated), but $q\bar{a}din\ \dot{a}b\ddot{a}$ 'mother-in-law'. The front variant \ddot{u} is rare, but cf. Talxāb $k\ddot{u}nd\ddot{u}k$ 'navel' = Middle Turkic kindik (whereas Talx-āb has at the same time $k\ddot{a}lin$ 'bride': Xalt-ābād $k\ddot{a}l\ddot{u}n$ = Middle Turkic $k\ddot{a}lin$). Cf. (7). 173–4

In some dialects even -i/-i have become $-u/-\ddot{u}$, e.g., Talx-āb ba·ju 'sister', $\ddot{a}kk\ddot{u}$ 'two'.

(5) A remarkable dialectal difference is the development of *ü, *ö. As a general rule, these vowels have been preserved (or only quite slightly delabialized) in the North (e.g., Talx-āb, Xalt-ābād, Ispit, Mihr-i Zamīn) whereas we find delabialized forms in the South (in the main part of the Khalaj area): $\ddot{u} > i$, $\ddot{o} > i$, e, e.g., $k\ddot{u}l$ —'to laugh', $k\ddot{o}z$ 'eye' (in the listed villages): $k\dot{l}l$ —, $kiz \sim kez$ (in most other villages).

2.2. Consonants

As for consonantism, the following points are relevant:

- (1) Khalaj has preserved original t-, k- (in contrast to Azerbai-jani): til 'tongue', kiz 'eye', etc. Cf. (3). 100-1.
- (15). The consonants -t, -k/ q, -p- have been preserved as well, e.g. in Qara-sū topuqum 'my ankle', Talx-āb hadaqin 'his feet (acc.)', and this quite in contrast to almost all modern Turkic dialects (of. Turkish topuk: topuğum, ayak: ayağım) but agreeing with Ancient Turkic.
- (2) Khalaj has preserved original -d-: kidan 'wedding', bidik 'big', hadaq 'foot', etc. Cf. (7). 162-3, (15).
- (3) Khalaj has changed Ancient Turkic n > n (not to -y- as most of the Turkic dialects); qanu 'which', $qu^{\circ}n$ 'sheep', etc. Cf. (7). 160, 172-3.
- (4) Khalaj has preserved Ancient Turkic h- (cf. 10): hiel, hööl 'wet' (cf. Azerbaijani, New Uighur höl, Uzbek hol); but in contrast to the Turkic dialects mentioned before it has preserved h- (< Proto-Turkic *p-) in all cases (even in här 'man', hada q 'foot', etc.). To a Middle Mongolian h- always corresponds Khalaj h-: Middle Mongolian hürgü- 'to be frightened' = Khalaj hirk-, MMo. harγal 'excrement' = Kh. harq, Mmo. hütügün 'vulva' = Kh. hi¹t 'hole'. Cf. (7). 163-5, (10), (15), (16). For the original character of Khalaj h- < *p- I have found the following proofs:
- b) Where Azerbaijani, New Uighur, and Uzbek show h-, Khalaj always shows h-, as well (v. $h\bar{t}^e l$, above).
- c) Where Middle Mongolian shows h-, Khalaj does the same (v. hirk-, above, by the way, cf. also Azerbaijani hürk-, etc.)
- d) Khalaj shows a well-balanced distribution of h- and vowel in the anlaut (whereas secondary h- in Azerbaijani dialects is sporadic).
- e) Derived forms always preserve h-, even in such cases which for a native speaker may be etymologically imperceptible, such as $h\bar{u}^{\circ}tun$ 'firewood', from $h\bar{u}^{\circ}t$ 'fire'.
- f) The distribution of the opposition $h-:\varnothing-$ is absolutely uniform in all Khalaj dialects, quite in contrast to the Azerbaijani dialects. Con-

sidering the enormous differences among the Khalaj dialects (v. chapter O.) this fact must be a relevant.

- g) h- and \varnothing are found in the same positions (= have the same distribution); i.e., they must be different phonemes.
- h) Some Ancient Turkic words in a Tibetan source show h- (e.g., hadag 'foot' = Khalaj hadaq).
- i) Finally, the opposition can be reconstructed for Ancient Turkic, in an indirect way, v. (10).
- (5) A characteristic development is that of -y— (and -y): Whereas in most of the dialects we find -n— (e.g., $m\ddot{a}n\ddot{a}$, $s\ddot{a}n\ddot{a}$ 'to me, to you' in Naudih, Nadr-ābād, Mūsī-ābād, Saqarcūq, Xurak-ābād, Maucān, Talx-ābād), -y is found in Xarrāb, Xalt-ābād ($m\ddot{a}y\ddot{a}$, $s\ddot{a}y\ddot{a}$) and the intermediate sound $-\acute{n}$ in Kārdiyān ($m\ddot{a}n\ddot{a}$, $s\ddot{a}n\ddot{a}$). Actually, we find many variants.
- (6) Of course, there are many minor dialect differences. E.g., some dialects have lost -r- before consonants (Dāγān ġuot 'worm', elsewhere $q\bar{u}^{\mathrm{u}}rt < *q\hat{u}rt$, Talx-āb $b\tilde{\sigma}^{\mathrm{e}}k$ 'hat', elsewhere $biry\ddot{a}k$ and similar forms $<*b\hat{\vec{o}r}k$); throughout all Khalajistan we find $b\bar{\imath}$ 'one' ($<*b\hat{\imath}r$). Some Northern dialects show $-\check{\mathbf{c}}>-\check{\mathbf{s}}$ (Xalt-ābād, Talx-āb $\bar{u}\check{s}$ 'three' : elsewhere $i\check{c}$). We find a large number of assimilations, and similer phenomena. E.g., the word 'egg' (ATu. yumurtya) has become yumurqa (most dialects) ~ yumurxa (Mansūr-ābād, Maucān) ~ numurqa (Qara-sū, Naudih, Mūsī-ābād) ~ numurxa (Bāγ-i yak, Sift, Xalt-ābād) ~ numurtga (Talx-āb); Ispīt yumurta (probably - Azeri). The most likely reconstruction may be yumurtγa > yumurtqa (-γ- booming voiceless after voiceless -t-, assimilation) > yumurqa (in most dialects, only Talx-āb —which is in many points isolated and by some Khalaj even considered to be a different language—has preserved -t-) > numurqa (assimilation: y- > nasal n- before the nasal -m-). As to the many differences of dialects, we are just beginning to investigate.

2.3. Stress

Stress is just as in the other Turkic languages (or as in most of them), even in such cases as $h\dot{a}vd\dot{a}'$ 'from the house': $h\dot{a}'v\check{c}\dot{a}$ 'in the house'.

- 3. Morphology
- 3.1. The noun
- 3.1.1. The usual plural suffix is $-lar/-l\ddot{a}r$, no archaic features.
- 3.1.2. The case system of Khalaj shows many striking features. Here are two paradigms, one for a stem ending in a consonant, the other for a stem ending in a vowel (forms of Xarrāb):

	$h\dot{a}v$ 'house'	bāba 'father'
nominative	$h\dot{a}v$	$b ilde{a} b a$
genitive	hàv (rarely hàv-üy)	bāba (rarely bāba-y)
dative	$h\dot{a}v$ - $k\dot{a}$	$bar{a}ba$ - qa
accusative	$h\dot{a}v$ - i	$b\bar{a}ba$ - y
locative	$h\dot{a}'v$ - $\check{c}\dot{a}$	$bar{a}ba'$ – $\check{c}a$
ablative	$h\dot{a}v$ - $d\dot{a}$	$b ar{a} b a$ - da
instrumental	$h\dot{a}'v$ - la	$bar{a}ba'$ – la
equative	$h\dot{a}'v ext{-}vara$	$bar{a}ba'$ – $vara$

The following points are relevant:

- (1) Instead of a special genitive form the nominative is mostly used, just as in Ancient Turkic (and Yakut). The nominative, by the way, is used as casus indefinitus in other constructions as well, such as (Maucān) $\bar{\imath}^c rdik\ baluq$ 'we arrived at (our) village'; but Persian influence is possible here.
- (2) The accusative is in -i (as in Yakut), even after vowels (-y < -yi, -i) (whereas Yakut has -ni). This suffix may have developed from such pronominal Turkic forms as $m\ddot{a}n \cdot i$ 'me'; but even a development from Ancient Turkic -ig cannot be excluded (e.g., Ancient Turkic $\ddot{a}llig$ 'fifty' is represented in the Khalaj dialects by such forms as $\ddot{a}llig$, $\ddot{a}llig$, $\ddot{a}llig$, $\ddot{a}llig$, $\ddot{a}llig$, $\ddot{a}llig$, the accusative in -i may have been an original presto form). At any rate, we do not find an accusative in -ni, neither after vowels (as in Yakut, Azerbaijani, Khorasan-Turkic, Turkmen), nor after vowels and consonants (as in most Turkic languages).
- (3) The locative in $-\check{c}A$ is = the Ancient Turkic terminalis (which is sometimes wrongly called "equative", cf. Ancient Turkic bel- $\check{c}a$ bo- γoz - $\check{c}a$ suwda yorip 'up to their hips and throats walking in water', J.r. Hamilton: Le conte bouddhique du bon et du mauvais prince en version

ouïgoure, Paris 1971, 26). Only in pronominal forms do we find a locative in -dA (cf. chapter 318.).

- (4) The ablative is -dA is the same as in Ancient Turkic and the Yakut Partitive (only in Xalt-ābād we find -dAn).
- (5) -lA seems to be an abbreviation of $bil\ddot{a}$ 'with' < Ancient Turkic $birl\ddot{a}$ (as in other Turkic languages), rather than the Turkic suffix -lA (tay-la 'at dawn', etc.).
 - (6) As to -vāra cf. Persian vār 'like, similar, equal'.
- 3.1.3. The possessive suffixes are (dialect of Xarrāb):

	$h\dot{a}v$	$b ilde{a}ba$
1. singular	$h\dot{a}v ext{-}im$	$bar{a}ba$ - m
2.	−üy	-y
3.	-i	-si
1. plural	-(i)miz	-miz
2.	$-ar{\imath}z$	-yiz
3.	$-l\dot{a}ri$	-lari

In the declension of the possessive suffixes we find the following striking features (apart from variants having merely a phonological explaination, such as hav-in 'your house', in dialects where Ancient Turkic -ŋ has become -n):

- (1) Even in this case, the genitive is normally like the accusative: $b\tilde{a}bam\ o\gamma li$ 'my father's son' (\sim rather rarely $b\tilde{a}bamuy\ o\gamma li$).
- (2) It is only after the pronominal suffix of the third person that we find the genitive in -nuy ($b\bar{a}basinuy$ $o\gamma li$ 'his father's son'), whereas in the majority of the Turkic languages $-n^{\circ}\eta$ (with -n-) is the normal form. Cf. point (5).
- (3) The dative is: $b\bar{a}ba$ -m-a, $b\bar{a}ba$ -y-a, $b\bar{a}ba$ -si-ya, $b\bar{a}ba$ -miz-qa, $b\bar{a}ba$ -yiz-qa, $b\bar{a}ba$ -lari-ya; i.e. it resembles the Ancient Turkic system: dative in -KA, after -n- (i.e. the combination -nqa) > -yA (> -yA in most Khalaj dialects); only in the first person singular has -A become the normal form of Khalaj (Ancient Turkic $-KA \sim -A$), in analogy to the second person singular.
- (4) The accusative form is -U, -I (after consonants) $\sim -y$ (after vowels), e.g. (Xarrāb) $b\bar{a}bamu\ kerd\bar{u}m$ 'I have seen my father') : $b\bar{a}ba$ -

- siy kerdüm 'I have seen his father' (~, e.g. Mansūr-ābād, diwārin čä-kiyam 'I shall construct its wall', as in Ancient Turkic).
- (5) In the third person, forms without -n- are usual: oylida 'from his son' (in contrast to Ancient Turkic oylinda). This is the same analogical development as in New Uighur. Only in the genitive form -n- has been preserved (cf. point 2).
- (6) Observe: oyli 'his son', but in all other cases oylida (with high i), etc.
- (7) After words designating parts of the body or relatives we often find a double possessive suffix: alisi 'his hand' (Mūsī-ābād, Hizār-ābād). Cf. OLZ 66 (1971). 339.
- 3.1.4. The comparative suffix is -tar/-tar (\leftarrow Iranian), e.g., bidiktar 'higger'; the superlative uses a circumlocation: 'the biggest village' = hama baluqlar bidiktar baluqi, literally "of all villages the bigger village", and similar constructions.
- 3.1.5. The numerals have the forms: $b\bar{\imath}$, $\dot{a}kk\bar{\imath}$ (Talx-āb $\dot{a}kk\tilde{\imath}$), $\bar{\imath}$ (Northern dialects \bar{u}), $t\bar{\imath}^{\rm e}rt$ ($\sim t\bar{\delta}^{\rm o}rt$), $b\bar{\imath}^{\rm e}$, alta, yätti, sakkiz, toqquz, $\bar{u}^{\rm o}n$; yigirmi, hottuz, qërq, allig (\sim alliy, alli, etc.), altmis (\sim altmus), yätmis, säysän, toxsan, y $\bar{\imath}z$ (\sim y $\bar{\imath}uz$), miyk (Talx-āb min. We find the following special features in the dialects:
- (1) The higher numerals 70, 80, 90 are very often Persian: hāfta·d, hāšta·d, nāvād (this is just as in many Khorasan Turkic dialects which have been influenced by Persian in the same extreme manner as Khalaj; by the way, some Khorasan dialects also have the comparative in -tar, cf. 314.). Often we find variants like nāvād ~ toxsan (e.g., Talx-āb).
 - (2) In Kārdiyān we find '80' $h\dot{a}$ šta $d\sim\dot{a}kk$ i girq (= "2 x 40")
- (3) In the speech of many villages we find numerals compounded with hottuz '30' (the h- of which disappears in presto speech): '60' akki-ottuz, '70' akki-ottuz-(u-)ūôn (= 2 x 30 + 10), '80' akki-ottuz-u-yigirmi, '90' ūčottuz, even '150' būeš-ottuz. Cf. (7). 166 (e.g., Xalt-ābād).
- (4) In some villages (e.g., Xarrāb, Sift) an ordinal suffix -minci exists (as in Turkmen and Azerbaijani dialects).
- 3.1.6. Some special postpositions are these: saru 'because of' (with ablative) = Ancient Turkic sari, arsa 'beneath' = ATu. asra, $h\bar{a}\gamma a$ 'be-

hind' <ATu. * $\hat{a}\gamma a$ (converb of $\hat{a}\gamma$ - 'to come back', cf. 323.), $b\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}$ 'since, on this side of' = ATu. $b\ddot{a}r\ddot{o}$, $\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}$ 'on that side of'.

3.1.7. The personal and demonstrative pronouns (of Xarrab) are these:

	$^{\prime}\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$	'we'	'thou'	'you'	'this'	'that'
Nom.	$m\ddot{a}n$	biz	sän	siz	$b\hat{o}\cdot$	ô·
		bizlär		sizlär		
Gen.	mänüm	$biz \ddot{u}m$	sänüy	sizüy	mu nuy	ų·nuy
Dat.	mäyä	$bizk\ddot{a}$	säyä	sizkä	$m\psi$ ya	ų·ya
Acc.	mänü	$biz\ddot{u}$	sänü	sizü	$m\dot{u}.nu$	\dot{u} . nu
Loc.	mändičä	bizdičä	sändičä	sizdičä	$mu\cdot ndi\check{c}a$	u·ndiča
Abl.	mändä	$bizd\ddot{a}$	$s\ddot{a}nd\ddot{a}$	sizdä	mu· nda	u·nda
Ins.	mä $ndil$ ä	$bizdil\ddot{a}$	sändilä	sizdilä	$m\.u\cdotp ndila$	u·ndila
Equ.	$m\ddot{a}ndivara$	biz divara	sändivara	sizdivara	mundivara	u ndivara
The plural forms of the demonstrative pronouns are regular: bôllar,						
ôllar (loo. bôllarča, etc., only in the instrumental bôllarla \sim bôllardila).						
We find the following striking features:						

- (1) In some case forms we find an infix -di- (originally = adverbialis, e.g., in ATu. $qat\ddot{\imath}\gamma d\ddot{\imath}$ 'firmly'), which is found in ATu. pronouns as well: A.v. Gabain: Alttürkische Grammatik, Leipzig, 1950. 91: mindidä = Khalaj mändičä, sintidä = sändičä. The form u·nča of the Talxāb dialect may be shortened from u·ndiča; but it may correspond to onda of other Turkic languages, as well.
- (2) The dative is not *baya, *maya, but analogous to the other case forms, varying only according to the phonetic laws $(-\eta > -n -, -\acute{n}, -y in$ the dialects, cf. 22., point 5). It resembles Azerbaijani forms (which fact may be a mere coincidence: the same tendency of analogy in both languages).
- (3) The original ATu. forms were bo: ol. The form in -l has been preserved in the plural: $\hat{o}llar$, and, for its part, influenced bolar 'these' $> b\hat{o}llar$; on the other hand, the singular form $b\hat{o}$ has influenced ol 'that' $> \hat{o}$.
- (4) We find a kind of ablaut o (nominative): u (other case forms) in the demonstrative pronouns (just as in Ancient Turkic and many modern Turkic languages), in all Khalaj dialects (Talx-āb \bar{u}° 'that' \sim presto \hat{o} : u·něa; Winārě o·, bo: u·nuy, una, mu·nuy, mu·na, etc.).

However, we find no ablaut of the type ATu. män 'I': mini (meni?) 'me'. (In some Khalaj dialects, among them Xarrāb, Bunčinār, there seems to be an opposition män 'I': māni 'me'.).

Some adverbs have been derived from these stems, e.g., $bu^{\circ}ra$ 'here', $u^{\circ}ra$ 'there' (also $n\bar{\iota}^{\circ}r\ddot{a}$ 'where'). Here we find some exceptions from the normal declension: the dative is = the nominative, the locative is $bu^{\circ}da$, etc. (ablative $bu^{\circ}rda$, etc.).

The interrogative pronouns are: $n\ddot{a}$ 'what' (accusative $n\ddot{a}y$), kim 'who' (Xarrāb, \sim Manṣūr-ābād ki^em , which may be, connected with ATu. $k\ddot{a}m = 0$ irat and some other Turkic languages, even Chuvash $kam < k\ddot{a}m$); $q\ddot{a}^a$ 'where, which' (ô $q\bar{i}^iz$ $q\bar{a}^a$ 'where is this girl?, $q\ddot{a}^a$ $y\ddot{a}^anda$ $k\ddot{a}liyoruy$ 'on which side do you come?'); $q\ddot{a}^ani$, $q\ddot{a}^ani$, $q\ddot{a}^anu$ 'where, which'. Kim shows forms with -di, cf. point (1), above.

3.1.8. The copula shows two series, after vowels, and after consonants:

	after vowels	after consonants
'I am'	-rsäm	$-\ddot{a}m$
'thou art'	-rsäy	-äy
'he, she, it is'	-ri	-är
'we are'	-rsäk	$-\ddot{a}k$
'(all of) you are'	-rsäyiz	$-\ddot{a}yiz$
'they are'	−r i , −llär	-ällär

These forms are derived from ATu. $\ddot{a}r$ — 'to be' (cf. also Khalaj $\ddot{a}rti$ 'he was' = ATu. $\ddot{a}rti$), the suffixes are influenced by the perfect forms (cf. chapter 325.). Instead of $-\ddot{a}r$ (or -ri?) we often find the fuller (more archaic) form $\ddot{a}ri$ (e.g., Talx-āb hārin bā·cusi, balduz $\ddot{a}ri$ 'the husband's sister is called "balduz"' $\sim h\ddot{a}y$ -våra-ru 'it's like the moon'). The forms $-rs\ddot{a}m$ etc. may be derived as follows: $m\ddot{a}n$ Ali- $rs\ddot{a}m$ 'I am Ali' < 'if I am Ali' (Ali $\ddot{a}rs\ddot{a}m$, cf. Ali'rti < Ali $\ddot{a}rti$ 'this was Ali'); this may have been a modest kind of expression. In some dialects, e.g. Sift, we find simplified forms like $h\ddot{a}vc\ddot{a}s\ddot{a}m$ instead of $h\ddot{a}vc\ddot{a}rs\ddot{a}m$ 'I am at home' (of. 22., point 5).

3.2. The verb

3.2.1. We find two kinds of predicative suffixes, cf. (9). 297. The normal forms are:

1. Sg.
$$-(U)m$$

2. $-(U)y$
3. $-$
1. pl. $-(U)K(In)$
2. $-iz \sim -yiz$
3. $-lAr$

These forms are well-known in other Turkic languages as the forms of the perfect (and, mostly, conditional). In Khalaj, they are almost universal, e.g., also in the present tense in -yor, in the future tense in -GA, etc. The only exception is found in the aorist, and this only in the 1. plural: -miz, e.g., $k\ddot{a}l$ -imiz 'we come' (: $k\ddot{a}l$ -iyoruq 'we are coming'). Interesting are the 1. pl. forms in -KIn, e.g., aliyaqin 'we shall take' (Mansūr-ābād). Some tenses are combined with the copula, e.g., $k\ddot{a}lmi\ddot{s}$ $\ddot{a}m$ 'I have come' ($< k\ddot{a}lmi\ddot{s}$ $\ddot{a}r\ddot{u}r$ $m\ddot{a}n$), not * $k\ddot{a}lmi\ddot{s}im$.

As I have shown in (9). 331-40, there is a certain chance that the conjugation with possessive suffixes is the original one in Turkic (i.e., originally not only $k\ddot{a}l$ -t-im 'I came' but also in the agrist tut-a-m 'I hold'), whereas the forms with personal pronouns originally were used only after nouns and adjectives (alp män 'I am courageous', bäg män 'I am a prince'), only secondarily influencing verbal forms (tutar män 'I hold'). Furthermore, there is a certain chance that the different vowels of the agrist (-A-, -U-, -I-) originally were aspects (markers of directions). However, up to now these are unconfirmed speculations.

3.2.2. The verbal nouns are of two kinds: infinitives and participles.

We find infinitives in -mA, -mAK, -GU (e.g., kälgüsi u°lmata 'he may not come, let him not come', lit. 'his coming may not be', kälgüčä tā 'until one comes'), -dUK (use very similar to Osmanli, e.g., käldü-küm kin 'the day when I came', käldikimčä 'when I came').

The participles are in: -miš (negative -mädük / -maduq), mostly predicative (but, e.g., Xarrāb puzilmiš 'destroyed', Mūsī-ābād bišmiš 'cooked'); -GUr (only in curses, such as bī ri yī gür 'may the wolf eat [him]); -GULUK (e.g., Xalt-ābād kälgülük äm 'I must come', cf. ATu. -GULUK); -GILi (normally marking perfect, or past tense: Xalt-ā-bād kā gūli iil 'last year', lit. "the year which has passed" = Winārč kā gili iil, Kārdiyān bô kā lgili hārlār 'these arrived men'; as a noun mark-

ing a usual actor, i.e., somebody who has always done something and continues to do it even now, e.g., Xarrāb hikmāk yapyili 'the baker', lit. "the bread-maker"; this form is derived, by metathesis, from ATu. -GLI); -An marks an action performed continuously (Bunčinār hinān tevā 'riding camel = camel for riding', Xalt-ābād kālan yil 'coming year = next year'), it very often is in competition with -GILi (cf. hikmāk yapan 'baker' in Nadr-ābād, Mūsī-ābād, Hizār-ābād, Kārdiyān); rather seldom we find -AGAn (cf. Middle Turkic, al-Kāšġarī, e.g., Talxāb külägān oyul 'the [always] laughing son' [\sim külän här 'the laughing man'], a marshy valley near by Talx-āb is called yidägān därä 'Stinking Valley'); the participle in -r has been preserved only in some fixed terms, such as (Talx-āb) $k\overline{u}n$ batar 'evening, West' ("sun going down"), $k\overline{u}n$ čalar 'East'.

All participles may be used as predicative forms when combined with the copula, e.g., Talx-āb män kälgili-säm 'I have come'.

I can not decide whether -An is a loan suffix from Azeri or whether Middle Turkic -GAn is a contamination of older -An (preserved in Khalaj) and -AGAn (preserved in Khalaj and in Middle Turkic; neither -AGAn nor -GAn are found in the oldest Turkic documents: the Orkhon inscriptions). I have the impression (corroborated by some facts of Khorasan Turkic) that -GAn is not the original form of Proto-Turkic but rather a contamination of -An and -AGAn (cf., e.g., Khorasan Turkic of Güegi: $i\check{s}l\ddot{a}g\ddot{a}n$ 'working', with presumably the same contamination although Khorasan Turkic, as an Oghuz language, ought to lose -g-).

- 3.2.3. Converbs are rare in Khalaj. They continue to exist in some imperative forms (cf. 324.), in some fixed terms such as $i^e n \ddot{a}$ 'below' (< 'going down'), $h \bar{a} \gamma a$ 'back, behind' (< 'going back, turning'), (Bunčinār) arqäyčä hinä käčäm 'I mount onto your back', (Maucān) varibildim 'I was able to go', hay- γali 'in order to say', bo šladiq var γali 'we began to go' (also Xarrāb, Bunčinār, etc.), (Xarrāb) kilä kilä vardum 'I went off, continuously laughing' (even here kilma'la is preferred). Cf. (9). 318–9: the converb in $-{}^{\circ}p$ is preserved only in the imperative. Only two converb forms are productive and frequently used in Khalaj: -GAli and (to lesser degree) -A (doubled).
- 3.2.4. The *imperative* forms of Khalaj are very numerous and difficult. We find ten types of imperative forms (almost each of them with sub-

types). It is above all in the imperative that ancient converb forms in -p and -V (vowel, undoubled) have been preserved, e.g., $q\bar{a}lup$ -arta 'may he remain' (= lit. ATu. $qalip\ \ddot{a}rz\ddot{u}n$; * $q\hat{a}l$ -zun does not exist in Khalaj). Even the second person singular normally has a suffix, e.g., ali 'take' (not *al). The predicative suffixes are:

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    sg. -(d)Um, -(d)Am
    -I, etc., -Ø (rarely), -GII (rarely)
    -tA
    pl. -(d)UK, -(d)AK, rarely -AlUm
    -y, -dīz
    -tAlAr
```

These forms do not coincide with the forms of any other Turkic languages. As to the imperative forms, Khalaj deviates from Common Turkic just in the same degree as Chuvash, cf., e.g., ATu. $k\ddot{a}l$ - $z\ddot{u}n$ 'may he come' = Azerbaijani $g\ddot{a}l$ -sin (and similarly most of the modern Turkic languages), but Chuvash kil- $t\ddot{e}r$, Khalaj $y\ddot{a}$ - $k\ddot{a}l$ - $t\ddot{a}$, etc.

The ten types of conjugation of the imperative are (only 2. sg.):

```
(1) -i/-y (ali 'take')
(2) -īr (basīr 'press')
(3) -Up/-UpA (qālup 'remain')
(4) -Al (kādāl 'put on clothes')
(5) -AK (īerāk 'arrive')
(6) yA- (yākā 'come', yova 'go')
(7) -Uv (yātuv 'lie down')
(8) -Ar (tulār < *turār 'stand')
(9) yeti- (yetikā 'bring', from kālit-)
(10) -pi (yiepi 'eat')

Generally, cf. (9).
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3.2.5. For other tenses cf. (9). 295-7. We find: perfect in -dUm etc. (cf. for the predicative forms chapter 321.), conditional in -sAm, present in -(i)yorum (\leftarrow older Azerbaijani? - but this form is known in Kipchak dialects, as well, cf. Philologiae Turcicae Fundamenta, I. Aquis Mattiacis 1959. 809; Xalt-ābād has -VtUrUm, well-known in many Turkic dialects, cf. Fundamenta 808), preterite in -mis $\ddot{a}m$ (cf. 318., negative form: -mAdUK $\ddot{a}m$, the same opposition positive -mIs: negative -mAdUK as in Ancient Turkic), many compound forms, such as $k\ddot{a}ld\ddot{u}m$

 $\ddot{a}r$ (= $k\ddot{a}ld\ddot{u}m$ + copula), $-mi\check{s}$ wolsam (preterite of conditional). The aorist has the forms (V = vowel, dialect of Xarrāb):

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-Vm
-Vy
-Vr
-Vmiz
-Viz or contraction -iz
-VilAr
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The vowels are the same as in Ancient Turkic, e.g. $y\bar{a}t$ -ur 'he lies' (not *yat-ar, as in most modern Turkic dialects). After vowels we find forms like ba·šla-yur 'he begins' (= Ancient Turkic, whereas in Middle Turkic forms like bašla-r are usual; these are valid in all modern Turkic dialects with the exception of Khalaj and Yakut: bas $t\bar{i}r < b\bar{a}$ šlayur). The future in -GA shows very similar to those of the imperative (e.g., al-i- γa 'he will take', y \bar{i} e-pi- $g\ddot{a}$ 'he will eat' instead of *al- γa , -y \bar{i} eag \ddot{a}), cf. (9). 298-9.

4. Lexicology

Khalaj syntax cannot be dealt with here. The Khalaj lexicon is characterized by five striking features:

- (1) Khalaj has preserved a very large number of Ancient Turkic words which are extinct in other modern Turkic dialects, some of them hapax legomena in Ancient Turkic vocabularies. For further information cf. my article Altertümliche türkische Wörter im Chaladsch (bibliography nr. (16). Here are some examples: i^em 'trousers', kisi 'wife' (kiši 'woman'), hirin 'white' (< ürü η), harq 'excrement', baluq 'village', $v\bar{a}^a$ -'to bind', $s\bar{i}^i$ 'to break', kidän 'wedding', \bar{u} 'sleep', qud γu 'fly'; we also find (Winārè) ärdän 'bride' (= Codex Comanicus, and only there, erden 'virgin').
- (2) Khalaj has many (about 150) words of unknown origin, some of which are spread all over the Khalaj area (e.g., havul 'good'), whereas other terms are characteristic only of certain dialects.
- (3) In cases of opposition between Oghuz and Non-Oghuz vocabulary, Khalaj is Non-Oghuz, e.g., $\ddot{a} \cdot rin$ 'lip' (not * $t\hat{o}taq$), $b\tilde{\iota}^e ri$ 'wolf' (not * $q\hat{u}rt$). Some Khalaj words are typically Arghu, above all $d\bar{a}\gamma$ ($\sim d\bar{a}\gamma\ddot{\imath}l$) 'is not' (= Arghu $d\bar{a}\gamma$, $d\bar{a}\gamma$ ol); for the fact that Khalaj is =